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Department of Sociology/Anthropology
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Department of Sociology/Anthropology Ebonyi State
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e-mail: oteh_c@yahoo.com; oteh@ijsshr.com
Phone: +2348034356286

OR

Dr. E.B.J Iheriohanma

Directorate of General Studies
Federal University of Technology, P.M.B 1526 Owerri, Imo
State Nigeria.
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DR. OKOLO, N. C.
Sociology Department
Usmanu Danfodiyo University, Sokoto
Sokoto State, Nigeria.
E-mail ngcokolo@yahoo.com

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WORK SCHEDULES AND FAMILY LIFE OF NURSES IN TWO COMMUNITIES OF OSUN STATE, NIGERIA

AKANNI, ABIMBOLA
Department of Psychology,
Obafemi Awolowo University,
Ile-Ife, Osun State, Nigeria.
akanniaa@oauife.edu.ng
+2348062224362

&

EKUNDAYO, OPEYEMI
Department of Psychology,
Obafemi Awolowo University,
Ile-Ife, Osun State, Nigeria.

&

OLONADE, ZACCHEAUS
Department of Psychology,
Obafemi Awolowo University,
Ile-Ife, Osun State, Nigeria.

Abstract

A study of the influence of work schedules on nurses' family life was conducted among nurses in Osun state, Nigeria with the aim of examining the impact that different work schedules could have on the family of a typical Nigerian nurses. Simple random technique was used to draw 322 respondents from a population size of 625 nurses in the two hospitals considered for the study. Two standardized research instruments were used for data gathering. The hypothesis formulated was tested at 0.05 level of significance. Results showed that work schedule had a significant main influence on nurses' family life ($f[2,321] = 9.876, p < 0.05$). However, nurses who rotate between morning/afternoon/night shifts schedule reported greater influence with a mean score of 35.7 compared to other shifts which had very close tied mean scores of 36.4 and 36.7 respectively. The study concluded that shift work had influence on nurses' family life.

Key words: *Work Schedule, Family Life, Gender and Nurses*

Introduction

The family is usually said to be the basic social unit. The immediacy of our involvement in family life, the intensity of the emotions which it generates, the sexual and other satisfaction it provides, the demands it makes upon our loyalties and efforts, and its functions with respect to child bearing and child care seem to offer ample evidence of its priority as the fundamental social group. However, over the last three decades, families have undergone structural and functional changes leading to the influx of women into profession that were formerly dominated by men in the last two decades (Udegbe, 2003). These changes have had an enormous impact on family life. The changes have also alter the traditional roles of both men and women in our communist society, where women are expected to primarily 'take care' of the family while men provide financial needs required to keep the family together. Challenges have arisen in addressing the 'balance' between work and family responsibilities. The traditional roles of men and women haven been brought into question especially as a result of greater independence for women and increased financial

responsibility for the family. As a matter of fact, since the traditional role of women have changed, both work and family expectations now compete for the little time available to them.

In the light of the above, domestic duties diminish, or rather seem less important, relationship between husband and wife are also affected by changing emotional tone of family life. Therefore there are concerns about the capacity of families to provide adequate care for dependants. As the world work of keeps changing, several work designs have been invented depending on the types of goods produced nature of service rendered. Such is shiftwork which is meant to take care of the twenty four hour operations that such services demand.

The deleterious effect of shift work is well documented. For many families coordinating schedules or simply finding time to meet the demands of work while fulfilling family responsibilities have been raised. Both men and women are vulnerable to the impact of work and family conflict, although women experience more role overload, more interference from work to family and more interference from family to work (Duxbury & Higgin, 1993). Research has shown that workers on night shift had decreased alertness, greater disruption in sleep patterns, and more family difficulties than workers on the day shift (Smith & Folkard, 1993). Theoretical models have also been developed to represent the effects of extended work hours on fatigue, human error and family life of shift workers (Knutsson, 2003).

Theoretical Framework

Theoretically, this study is influenced mainly by motivation theory of Vroom (1964) and Herzberg (1966), and role conflict theory. Vroom (1964) brought expectancy theory into the arena of motivation research and it looks at the role of motivation in the overall work environment. It is a cognitive theory. Each person is assumed to be rational decision maker who will expend effort on activities that leads to desired rewards. The basic expectancy model contains the general components – effort, performance, and outcomes, the theory emphasizes the linkage among these elements, which are described in terms of expectancies and valences.

The theory argues that the strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of an expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual. He was of the opinion that satisfaction could either be intrinsic or extrinsic rewards. It is believed therefore, that satisfaction exists to the extent that the job outcomes (such as rewards) an individual receives matches those outcomes that are desired.

According Vroom (1964), many activities are restricted to certain hours of the day. If the time of leisure activities, or time with the family overlaps with a person working hours, wholly or partly, he will have less opportunity to pursue the activity; how much less depends on the flexibility of the time pattern of the activity.

Herzberg (1966), developed two-factor theory of job satisfaction, which focuses on the effects of certain types of job facets on job satisfaction. He proposes that every worker has two sets (2-factor) of needs or requirements: motivation needs and hygiene needs. Motivation needs are associated with the actual work itself and how challenging it is. Examples are job facets such as interesting work, autonomy on the job and responsibility. Hygiene needs are associated with the physical and psychological context in which work is performed. Job facets such as the physical working conditions (for example, schedule of work, pleasantness of the environment), pay, and job security satisfy hygiene needs.

According to Herzberg, a worker could experience job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction at the same time. A worker could be satisfied because motivator needs are met, for example, having interesting and challenging work yet dissatisfied because hygiene needs are not being met because of, for example, low job security or irregular shift work arrangement. He conceived satisfaction and dissatisfaction as separate variables. These are line with what this study considers.

Role conflict occurs usually when there is a clash of roles and expectation either from the employers or family members. Since people have limited supplies of physical, mental, and emotional resources out of which work and family systems must strike a balance in their quest for such resources, conflict is

inevitable. With reference to shift work, however, the most relevant resource here is time. This either determines satisfaction and or dissatisfaction. Therefore, in line with the statement of problem stated above, this present study is anchored on Herzberg two-factor theory. The theory establishes that a worker can experience both satisfaction and dissatisfaction on the job, depending on which aspects of his needs are met.

In the 1960's and 1970's workers' response to shift schedules was the subject of considerable research. This has led to a dearth of study in this area. Much of this case study research focused on the physical effects of working a non-day shift. Extensive research was conducted on the effects of shift work on sleeping and eating problems. (Kleitman, 1963; Bryden and Holdstock, 1973; Dunham, 1977; Zedeck, Jackson and Summers; 1983)

To a lesser extent, these 1960's studies also examined the effect of shift work on individuals' social interactions (Mott, Mann, McLoughlin, and Warwick; 1965). In the 1980's studies of shift workers concentrated on the effect of shift work on family dynamics (Staines and Pleck, 1984; and Staines and Pleck, 1986) and the division of labor within families (Presser, 1994). Several of these studies examined the effect of shift work on the probability of divorce (White and Keith, 1990), the effect of shift work on amount of household work done by various family members (Presser, 1994), and the use of shift work to meet the child care needs of families with young children (Presser, 1988 and Presser 1989).

The disruptive effects of shift work on the social and domestic lives of workers are well documented. (Jamal, 1982; Staines, Pleck 1984). Research has shown that working different shifts creates difficulties in family life and tends to restrict worker's social and leisure activities (Khaleque, 1998). Not only are shift workers affected by working in shifts, but their spouses reported significant disruption of social and domestic lives, as well (Smith & Folkard, 1993). It has also been established that the interaction between work and family has consequences on many aspects of an individual's life. For example, employees who experience work-family conflict also report lower levels of general well-being (Aryee, 1992; Frone, 2000; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Thomas & Ganster, 1995), lower levels of job satisfaction (Adams, King, & King, 1996)

Also, specific shift systems are more disruptive than others. Workers in 12-hour shifts reported less social and domestic disruption than workers in 8-hour shifts (Khaleque, 1998). Particularly, working at night, either on permanent or rotating shifts, often produces discordance with the spouse's working hours and free time (Escriba-Aguir, 1992).

On attitude to shift work, Seargean (1971) affirmed that personal, social, and organizational factors interact to an extent, which makes generalizations about attitudes to shift work difficult. Argyle (1972) on the contrary stated that shift work is generally disliked. Maurice (1975) wrote that most of the studies on shift work have shown that the majority of the workers are more or less dissatisfied with it. Agervold (1976), was of the opinion that most of the reports have found that shift work, especially working in three shifts, has a large number of negative social consequences.

In another dimension, Cazamian and Carpentier (1977) argued that night work should be banned where it is not required for technical reasons, because, among other things, the majority of shift workers are, on the whole, dissatisfied with night shift. Brown (1975) extended the negative consequences of shift work to the community, arguing that shift work usually involves a curtailment of interactive roles with others and this is likely to result in decline feelings of social solidarity with the broader community, and to lead to feelings of alienation from the general community.

Research findings indicate that older age is associated with increased difficulty in adapting to day/night shift work, reduced performance on cognitive tasks (particularly those involving attention and/or memory), impaired sleep quality, reduced capacity for physical work, higher rates of occupational injury/fatality, poorer health, and more frequent sickness absence (Härmä &, Ilmarinen, 1999; Tepas, Duchon & Gersten, 1993). Moreover, duration of exposure to shift work contributes (over and above the effects of age) to impaired performance and sleep (Parkes 1994; Rouch, Wild, Ansiau, & Marquie, 2005). Ageing has also been found to cause a reduced tolerance to shift and night work in relation to an increased vulnerability due to physical aspects (i.e. reduced psycho-physical health, decreased restorative properties of sleep, higher

prone to internal desynchronization), but it can also favour a better tolerance according to psychosocial factors: that is, higher commitment, more appropriate coping strategies, more satisfactory job positions (Härmä, 1996).

One study (Davis, Mirick and Stevens, 2001) found the risk of breast cancer to be 60 percent higher in women who worked the night shift (beginning work after 7:00 pm and finishing before 7:00 am) compared to those who did not. The improper production of the hormone melatonin is thought to be associated with this increased breast cancer risk. Melatonin is a hormone primarily produced during nighttime sleep and it has an effect of regulating estrogen and also serves as an antioxidant.

Most of the research on adjustment of circadian rhythm to unusual working hours has dealt with rotating shift work, particularly with regard to the night shift, which imposes the greatest problems of adjustment for workers (Conroy & Mills 1970). Colquhoun & Edwards (1970) studied variations in the body temperature during work among three-shift workers with weekly changing shift. They found a tendency towards adjustment at the end of the night shift week, in that a partial flattening of the temperature curve appeared. Thus with the commonly existing work schedule of weekly alterations of shifts, the time for adjustment is too short which allows the circadian rhythms merely to be disturbed before the schedule is changed again.

The 7day/7night rollover schedule has been found to impose no demand for circadian adaptation during the first day-shift week but sleep; performance and alertness are disrupted during the initial part of the second week by the change to night shifts, although the extent and duration of impairment differs for different outcomes. Thus, sleep duration and quality showed significant impairment immediately after the shift change, but only sleep quality continued to be impaired throughout the second week (Parkes, Clark, & Payne-Cook, 1997). Subjective alertness also showed a sharp decrease during the first two night shifts; although start-of-shift alertness recovered in subsequent shifts, end-of-shift alertness levels remained markedly low. Consistent with the findings for subjective alertness, rotation responses were found to be approximately 11% slower (as compared with the 14day group) during the three shifts following the change to night work, and gaps in rotation responses (i.e. trials in which no response was made in 1 second) increased significantly over these days. In a separate survey study, the 7day/7night schedule received the least favorable ratings on a measure of 'satisfaction with shift rotation' (Parkes, 2005).

In another dimension, Mott, Mann & Warwick (1965), posited that workers on rotating shifts had fewer friends than day workers and workers on fixed shifts. Their friends could not keep up with their changing work hours. They found out that 'Formal' contacts were more affected than informal ones. According to Mann & Hoffman (1960) shift workers' relations with friends gradually decrease. Also more than half of the group studied by Anderson (1970) had been obliged to give up some former leisure activity. Above all, he argued that organized activities were also hindered such as trade union, political, cultural and some sport activities.

Data and Research Methods

The study utilized survey method. Primary data were used in the study. The data were collected among nurses in Osun State, Nigeria. The sample consisted of 322 nurses drawn from two hospitals in Osun State namely; Obafemi Awolowo University Teaching Hospital Complex (OAUTHC), Ile-Ife and Osun State General Hospital Complex, Osogbo. The former represent Federal and teaching hospital while the latter represents state managed hospital. A pre-survey visit to the two hospitals revealed that there are a total of 645 nurses in both. A proportion of 50% (322) were selected from this number through random sampling procedure. The composition was 107 males and 215 females. Their age ranged from 19 years to 56 years with a mean 34years and a standard deviation of 1.074years. Two standardized psychological tests namely: Shift Work Questionnaire and Family Life Questionnaire were used to collect data from respondents. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyze the data in this paper based on bivariate analysis.

Table 1: Summary of the MANOVA on Gender, Shiftwork and Family Life

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	sig
Corrected Model	754.166	8	94.271	16.445	.000
Intercept	61617.393	1	61617.393	1.0755E4	.000
Gender	92.840	1	92.840	16.196	.000
Shiftwork	113.230	2	56.615	9.876	.000

The table above the hypothesis for this paper was tested at $p < 0.05$ level of significance.

Hypothesis: The hypothesis states that shift work will have no significant influence on nurses' family life. Result from the table indicates that there is significant main influence of shift work on family life ($F [2,321] = 9.876, p < 0.05$). This finding shows the joint influence of the three shift work schedules (permanent morning, morning/afternoon and morning/afternoon/night) on family life of nurses under study. The null hypothesis is accepted.

Discussion

The result of the hypothesis suggests that the three shift arrangements (permanent morning, morning/afternoon, and morning/afternoon/night) have significant influence on nurses' family life. When we now examine the nature of the contribution of each of shift work schedules, it was discovered that morning/afternoon/ night shift has greater influence nurses' family life. This implies that having to be on shift arrangement which is not fixed can actually pose a number of challenges. An example of such could be in the area of household responsibilities expected of a wife. Since such work arrangement is done in such a way that nurses have to rotate between morning, afternoon and night, regular family activities may be difficult to follow through. This further implies that both family members and nurses as well will have to continually adjust each time the shift changes. This is practically relevant in the areas of going to pick children at school, and preparation of meals for members of their families.

Conclusion

From the analysis of data collected and interpretation of results, the study concluded that shift work has influence on nurses' family life;

Contrary to popular belief, this study has been able to prove that shift work does not influence nurses' level of satisfaction on the job. However, it has influence on their family life, whether single or married.

Recommendations

Premised on the findings from the study and coupled with the fact that shift work schedules cannot be separated from nursing profession; a number of recommendations are suggested.

- Shift workers need to carefully plan family activities ahead; they may even plan days off in advance if possible,
- Shift workers also need to cultivate the habit of setting time aside just for themselves and their spouses.
- Government and policy makers alike, on their part, need to turn to family-friendly policies in order to reduce the negative effects of shift work on nurses' family life. Such may include flexible work schedules,
- Policy makers may also include family orientation programmes, such as spouse awareness programme and recreational activities for nurses, their spouses and family members once in a while.

Conclusively, high level support from spouse is highly recommended to facilitate improved family life among nurses.

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INTEGRATING THE MARKETING CONCEPT WITH TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT (TQM) FOR CUSTOMERS' SATISFACTION IN THE NIGERIAN BANKING SECTOR

AGADA, SOLOMON AGADA
Department of Economics and Business Studies
Redeemer's University, Ogun State.
E-mail: axispmtc@yahoo.com
Telephone: 08097801827

Abstract

To continue to be relevant in the market and to attract and retain customers in the midst of competition, business organizations seek for better ways to improve on their products, business processes, infrastructure, hard and software techniques, organizational systems, and the quality of human resources which will transform the quality of their offerings to their target markets. The focus is customer satisfaction given at a level that surpasses that of rivals. Total Quality Management (TQM), and the Marketing Concept have been examined in the present study to be a veritable stable for achieving the goal of customer satisfaction especially where there is adequate management commitment and a systematic cultural orientation to continuously improve on business processes and for all members of the organization to see innovation basically in the interest of the customer.

Keywords: Customer, Quality, Marketing, Culture, Satisfaction, Banks, Processes.

INTRODUCTION

Organizations seek for ways to improve on their offerings to customers better than their competitors especially in today's world of commercial aggressiveness and global competition. Dealing with customers' needs and wants require an adoption of a veritable market-oriented philosophy that would propel the trend of activities in both the endogenous and exogenous domain of organizational business activities. Successful businesses know that a market-oriented approach is the better way to reach the customers and satisfy them and is the only justification for going into, and being in business to ultimately translate into a rewarding bottom-line.

This is a philosophy that modern business organizations must imbibe to be successful and to make a distinctive statement in the market place. This idea is expected to be extended to all aspects of the business functions; marketing, production, finance and most especially the human resources department which of course, is the repository of the most valuable capital responsible for the transformation of other resources that will engender a total quality outlook for the business in both products and organizational culture. The Nigerian banks especially post consolidation in 2005, have been eclectic in their marketing and management strategies even in the midst of a harsh business environment. The struggle to attract and retain customers through the creation of attractive financial products and services is ubiquitous with a lot of handbills, catalogues, personal selling, and advertisements. Efforts have also been made assiduously to improve on systems, methods, culture refinement, software and hardware archetypes.

Organization culture guides the way businesses do their things different from other people with the objective of affirming a market position that will blossom their image for a long time. Culture is expected to be imbibed, and transmitted overtime cumulatively, to future generations of members of the organization (Achumba, 1996). Therefore, total quality management should be ingrained in the organization's culture as a way of setting a bench mark for best practices. Total Quality Management (TQM) is a philosophy of managing a set of business practices that emphasizes continuous improvement in all phases of operations, 100 percent accuracy in performing tasks, involvement and empowerment of employees at all levels, team-based work design, benchmarking, and total customer satisfaction (Thompson, Strickland & Gamble, 2005).

The marketing concept as a philosophy of business is sine qua non for driving the vehicle of any business organization. It should be a culture that an organization must choose among the various concepts and including the broadened concept of marketing. Boone and Kurtz (2004), opine that, the expanded concept of marketing activities permeates all organization functions and would be carried out in accordance with ethical practices that will effectively serve the interests of both society and the organization. This concept also incorporates the marketing variables- product, price, promotion and distribution (place). They further

stressed that the evolution of the marketing concept is borne out of the dynamic paradigm shift from a seller's market- one in which demand exceed supply to a buyer's market- one in which supply exceeds demand. In view of this, the advent of a strong buyer's market created the need for consumer orientation in business and a crucial change in management philosophy (Boone & Kurtz, 2004). This position was buttressed by Rosenbush (2001), that integrating the marketing concept and total quality management (TQM) objectives of successful business organizations introduces the marketer at the beginning rather than at the end of the production cycle and integrates marketing into each phase of the business.

Consequently, marketing through various studies and research, will establish for the engineer, the designer, and the manufacturer, what the customer wants in a given product, what price he or she is willing to pay, and where and when it will be wanted. Marketing will have authority in product planning, production scheduling, and inventory control, as well as in sales, distribution, and servicing of the product (Rosenbush, 2001). The fully developed marketing concept is a company-wide consumer orientation with the objective of achieving total long run-run success. All facets of the organization must therefore contribute first to assessing and then to satisfying customer needs and wants through the systemic orientation of the organizational methods and members about marketing concept and total quality management.

A major problem confronting business organizations is their inability to effectively integrate marketing and management strategies such as the appropriate marketing concept and total quality management principles. Without a clear philosophy to guide business operations, culture, competition and management, such an entity may be considered as a tread in the dark without a direction. A clear direction guided by a sound and credible philosophy depicts a business organization with a mission and a vision. Prior research on the adoption of the marketing concept by small firms reveals that small businesses have been more reluctant than larger firms to embrace the marketing concept to achieve organizational goals (McNamara 1972; Peterson 1989). Another important factor according to other previous empirical studies investigating the extent of implementation of the marketing concept in large- and medium-sized organizations is the ignorance of certain basic features that make this unique concept of TQM so appropriate in the current business environment (Lawton & Parasuraman 1980; McNamara, 1972). Similarly, Meziou (2009), observe that the marketing concept notion is still foreign to many managers or small business owners who have never attended a formal marketing course or seminar; therefore, it is plausible that many businesses are implementing the marketing concept without being consciously aware they are doing so. Thompson et al (2005), state that quality improvements processes of one kind or another have become globally pervasive management tools for implementing strategies key to defect-free manufacture, superior product quality, superior customer service, and total customer satisfaction and that TQM takes a fairly long time to show significant results. Achieving an effective integration of the marketing concept and TQM in a country like Nigeria where businesses complain of a high cost of operations pose an uphill task. This is because, the effort is a continuous pursuit without a finish and is aimed at instilling enthusiasm and commitment to doing things right from the top to the bottom of the organization. Apart from the banking sector in Nigeria where some of the top banks are making concerted efforts to adopt customers – satisfying initiatives, most businesses are struggling to survive. It becomes difficult for such proactive strategy of integration to be adopted with ease, business hardly pose attractive bottom lines, insecurity and poor infrastructural facilities, policies somersaults, and other troubles that may impinge against this laudable business culture. Existing study on TQM and marketing concept does not explore the need for integration and does not have results on Nigeria specific factors therefore; the present study examines how these concepts can be integrated to foster customers' satisfaction in businesses especially in the banking sector.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

This study aims at examining the impact of integrating the marketing concept with total quality management (TQM) for customers' satisfaction in the banking sector in Nigeria. The objectives therefore are:

- i. To determine the integration of the marketing concept with TQM in rendering banking services by banks for customers' satisfaction in Nigeria;
- ii. To develop a typical model of integrating the marketing concept with TQM for organizational performance and customers' satisfaction.
- iii. To examine the impact of organizational culture in the blending of both marketing concept and TQM standards for customers' satisfaction in the Nigerian banking sector.

CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Davison (1987), in what may be the first use of the term "integrated marketing", revised his 1972 study to argue for marketing as an integrated, organization-wide enterprise. As understood by Davison, integrated marketing meant an approach to marketing that permeates the business, with every part combining to satisfy consumer needs at maximum profit. Total Quality Management (TQM) as a management concept was coined by Deming (1982). The basis of TQM is to reduce the errors that occur during the manufacturing or service processes, thereby increasing customer satisfaction, streamline supply chain management, and involves modernization of equipment and the highest level of workers training. Principally, among other objectives, TQM aim is to limit errors to 1 per 1 million units produced and is often associated with the development, deployment, and maintenance of organizational systems that are required for various business processes. TQM - Marketing concept integration therefore means the combined organizational strategy to ensure a defect-free products and services on a continuous basis by orientating organizational members to be customer focused in all the business activities and processes, and to aim at customers' satisfaction.

Types of Marketing Concepts

According to Kotler and Armstrong (2008), the marketing concept as a management orientation include the production concept; which holds the view that consumers will favour products that are available and highly affordable, the product concept; holds the view that consumers will favour products that offers the best in quality, performance, and innovative features, the selling concept; holds the view that consumers will not buy enough of the firm's products unless it undertakes a large-scale selling and promotion effort, the societal marketing concept; emphasizes the need for organizations to create a balance between their drive to satisfy consumer's short-run needs and their long-run welfare, it therefore posits that marketing strategy should deliver value to customers in a way that maintains or improves both the consumer's and society's well-being. Lastly, the ultimate marketing concept is the marketing management philosophy that emphasizes that achieving organizational goals depends on knowing the needs and wants of target markets and delivering the desired satisfactions better than competitors do. It emphasizes that the consumer should be treated as a king and assumes the market approach that marketing starts with consumer and ends with the consumer.

Integrated Marketing Concept, Integrated Marketing Communications, and Integrated Value Creation

As a marketing strategy, integrated marketing is inter-dependent with integrated marketing communications (IMCs), while IMC aims to ensure consistency of message and the complementary use of media, integrated marketing is concerned with the alignment and focus of the whole organization. Schultz and Kitchen (2000) identified four stages of IMC concluding with an integrated value-based model. According to this interpretation, as the organization becomes more committed to achieving consistency and differentiation across all customer contact points the business management challenge moves from marketing and marketing communication to the whole organization, requiring a cultural and systemic infrastructure for integration. This in turn calls on new practices and higher-order levels of organization management, higher customers' satisfaction orientation and TQM practices which may result for example, at this point, the merger IMC and customer relationship management (CRM). The concept of integrated marketing is focused on the creation of value, this require that organizational members need to be united in the creation of distinctive or differentiated value in order to achieve productive synergy as customer experiences across the range of marketing communications, service interactions and product consumptions need to achieve consistency and congruence.

TQM and Six Sigma (6)

The main difference between TQM and Six Sigma is the approach. TQM tries to improve quality by ensuring conformance to internal requirements, while Six Sigma focuses on improving quality by reducing the number of defects. Six Sigma is a [business management strategy](#) originally developed by [Motorola](#), USA in 1981. As of 2010, it enjoys widespread application in many sectors of industry, although its application is not without controversy. Webster, (1994) and also Wayland and Cole(1996) state that Six Sigma seeks to improve the quality of process outputs by identifying and removing the causes of defects, and minimizing [variability](#) in [manufacturing](#) and [business processes](#). It uses a set of [quality management](#) methods, including [statistical methods](#), and creates a special infrastructure of people within the organization such as the "Black Belts", "Green Belts", etc. who are experts in these methods. It follows a

defined sequence of steps implying quantifying financial targets in cost reduction, profit increase and reduction in errors or mistake-proofing resulting in better controls on the business processes. According to them, a six-sigma process is one in which 99.99966% of the products manufactured are statistically expected to be free of defects (3.4 defects per million). They indicate that Motorola set a goal of six sigmas for all of its manufacturing operations, and this goal became a byword for the management and engineering practices. From the strategic point of view, the orientation will help with customer satisfaction through quality and serve as the source of competitive advantage and critical factor to business performance (Webster, 1994; Wayland and Cole, 1997).

According to Mohr-Jackson (1998), total quality orientation and market orientation are complementary philosophies with potential benefits for improving business results and such congruence helps the marketing function from taking greater responsibilities in quality management, improved communication with other business functions like operations and production and ultimately the adoption of TQM is critical for successful application of the marketing concept within the firm.

Organizational Culture and Customer Satisfaction

Total quality management objectives and marketing concept orientation can hardly be achieved in isolation of a defined culture. Organizational or corporate culture according to Thompson et al (2005), refers to the character of a company's internal work climate and personality as shaped by its core values, beliefs, business principles, traditions, ingrained behaviours, and style of operating. It is depicted by the attitude of members of the organization as in "this is the way and how we do what we do here". Cultures vary from company to company and are tailored to suit the company's mission and strategic vision. They carry along with them imbued ethical standards and are expected to be enduring.

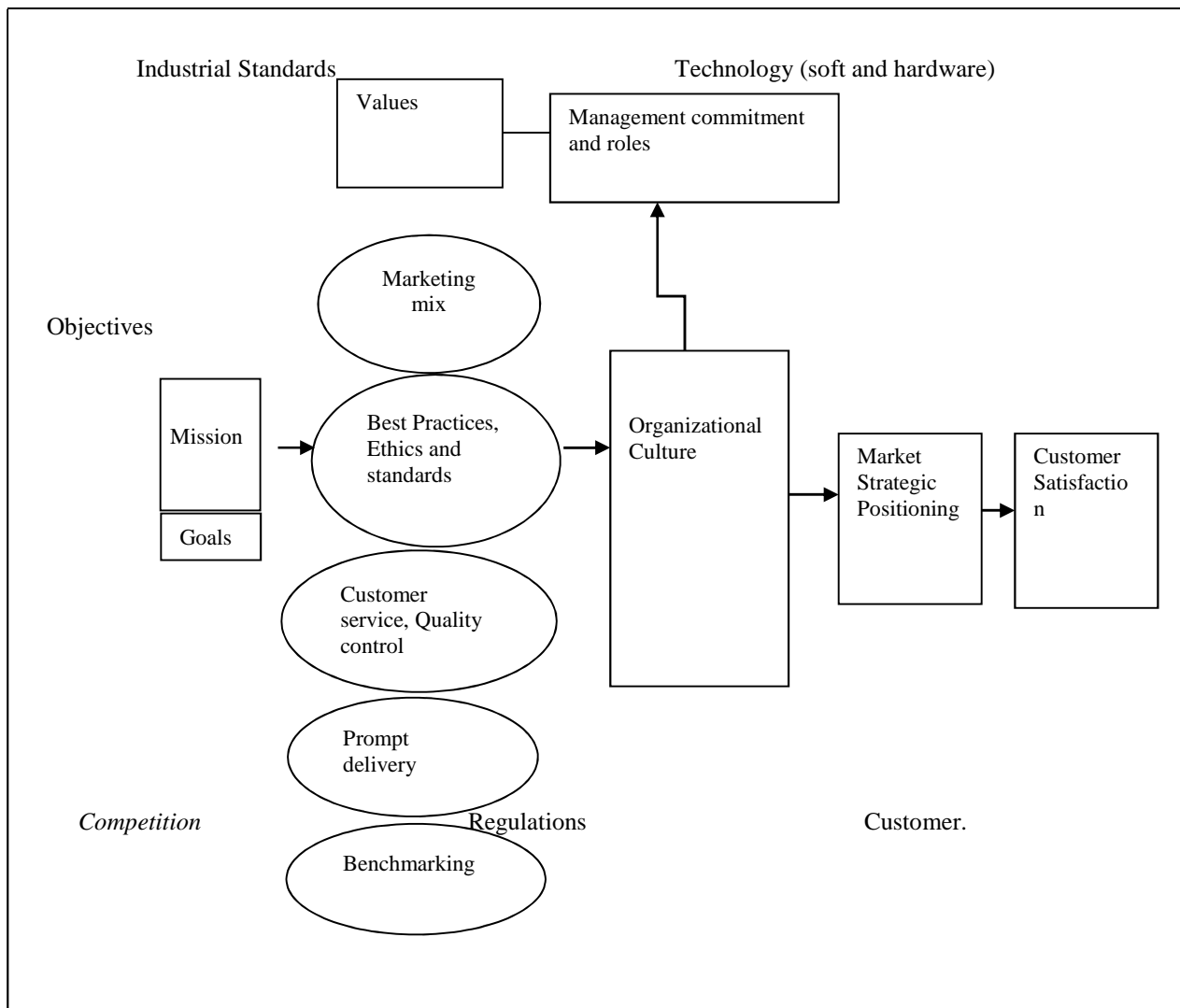
Classifications of Organizational Culture

Schein (1985-2005) defines organizational culture as a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, and that must have worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct perspective to solving the problems. According to Schein, culture is the most difficult organizational attribute to change, outlasting organizational products, services, founders and management and assets. Schein therefore illuminates culture by [observation](#), which he described by three [cognitive](#) levels of organizational culture. They include the organizational artifacts which are organizational attributes that can be seen, felt and heard by the uninitiated observer. These include the facilities, offices, furnishings, visible awards and recognition, the way that its members dress, how each person visibly interacts with each other and with organizational outsiders, and even company [slogans](#), [mission statements](#) and other operational [creeds](#). Secondly, the organizational values, which according to Schein deals with the professed culture of an organization's members. At this level, local and personal values are widely expressed within the organization. Organizational behavior at this level usually can actually be studied by interviewing the organization's membership and using questionnaires to gather attitudes about organizational membership. The third and the deepest level, from Schein study depict the organization's [tacit assumptions](#). These are the elements of culture that are unseen and not cognitively identified in everyday interactions between organizational members. There are the elements of organizational culture which are often perceived as taboo to discuss inside the organization and mostly these '[unspoken rules](#)' exist without the conscious knowledge of the membership. Those with sufficient experience to understand this deepest level of organizational culture usually become adapted to its attributes over time, thus reinforcing the invisibility of their existence. Surveys and casual interviews with organizational members cannot draw out these attributes rather much more in-depth methodology is required. Notably, culture at this level is the underlying and driving element often missed by organizational behaviorists in carrying out organizational cultural studies.

[Handy](#) (1985), looks at organizational culture which some scholars have used to link [organizational structure](#) to organizational culture from four typologies thus: A **Power Culture** which concentrates [power](#) among a few, control radiates from the center like a web, power and influence spread out from a central figure or group. Power derives from the top person and personal relationships with that individual matters more than any formal title of position. In a **Role Culture**, people have clearly delegated authorities and roles within a highly defined structure and typically, these organizations form hierarchical bureaucracies where power derives from a person's position and little scope exists for expert power. A **Task Culture** requires teams to be formed to solve particular problems. Power derives from expertise as long as

a team requires expertise and these cultures often feature multiple reporting lines of a [matrix structure](#). It is strategically a small team approach, with members who are highly skilled and specialist in their own wealth of experiences. A **Person Culture** exists where all individuals believe themselves superior to the organization thereby subordinating the corporate objective; survival can become difficult for such organizations, since the concept of an organization suggests that a group of like-minded individuals pursue the organizational goals. Although in some organizations this may be plausible, as some professional partnerships can operate as person cultures, because each partner brings a particular expertise and clientele to the firm.

Figure 1: Managing the Integration of Marketing Concept and TQM for Customer Satisfaction.



An Integrated Total Customer Satisfaction Concept [Model by Researcher].

The diagram depicts a total approach to customers’ satisfaction with the integration of TQM and marketing concept in relation to the organizational mission and goals. The drive by organizational members toward achieving these are laid in the specific objectives of the organization spelt out in form of TQM and Marketing concept practices.

Evolving Organizational Culture

The Directive Communication psychology to evolving culture according to Carmazzi (2007), suggests that while the idea of having a Leadership Enriched (LE) organization is inspirational, it would require substantial leadership resources to develop. The concept of Evolving the Culture assumes that every

individual in the organization is interested in doing a good job, and the behaviours that manifests in poor performance are manifestations of psychology the group or organization has created through policies, leadership and poor communication. This implies that the organizational work processes is expected to follow a systematic step in attaining quality in production and customer service.

Business Process Reengineering. Business process reengineering (BPR) began as a private sector technique to help organizations fundamentally rethink how they do their work in order to dramatically improve customer service, cut operational costs, and become world-class competitors. A key stimulus for reengineering has been the continuing development and deployment of sophisticated information systems and networks. Leading organizations are becoming bolder in using this technology to support innovative business processes, rather than refining current ways of doing work business process reengineering is one approach for redesigning the way work is done to better support the organization's mission and reduce costs. Reengineering starts with a high-level assessment of the organization's mission, strategic goals, and customer needs.

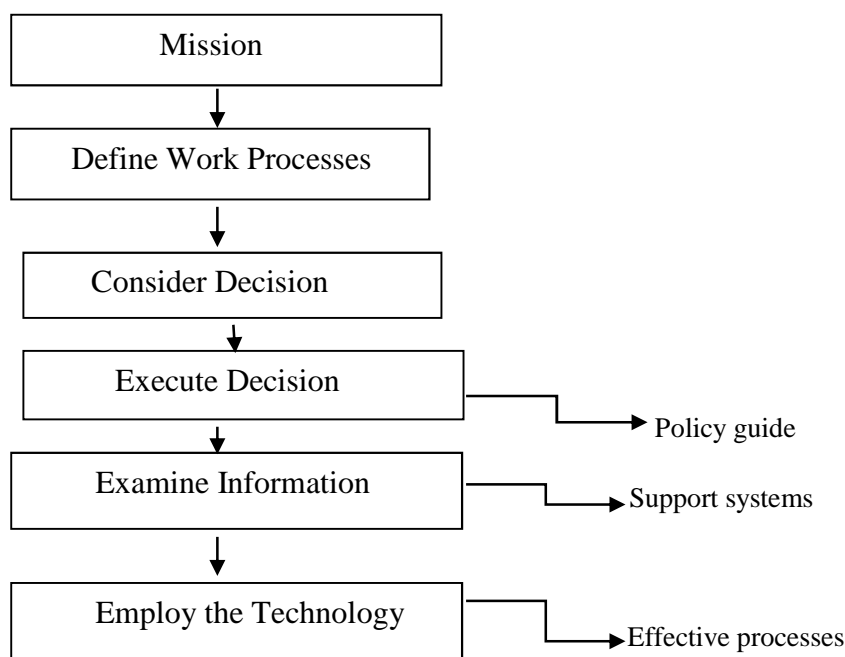


Figure 2: Business Process Reengineering Implementation [Model by Researcher]

MARKETING CONCEPT AND TQM IN BANKING SERVICES IN NIGERIA

The banks play a pivotal role in any economy as a mediator between the surplus and deficit sectors in respect of credit creation. In the advent of universal banking services in Nigeria and recapitalization of banks in 2005, the banks gamut of services included most financial services as they became financial supermarkets offering various financial packages under one roof. The need to develop new quality products and services implies a need to deploying effective and efficient hard and software techniques and consequently, best practices and distinctive business programs and philosophies came to fore amid competition accentuating the relevance of TQM and the marketing concept. Innovation in all facets of the banks' structures have taken enormous dimensions ranging from staff recruitment, ICT applications, management styles, cultures, service processes and the marketing programmes. Without any serious deliberate efforts, the banks seem to be adopting the integration of the two management concepts (TQM and Marketing) concepts as tools for competitive advantage. As at November, 2011, Fitch rating agency rated nine Nigerian banks to be among the top 1000 banks in the world and among the top 25 banks in Africa. The same report indicated that Nigeria is the only country in Africa to have nine of its banks listed among these categories. The Vanguard (2012), reported the ranking of four top Nigerian banks; First Bank, GT Bank, Zenith Bank, and UBA with a combined brand value of \$607million placing Nigeria among the World Top 50 by brand value and second in Africa behind South Africa. The ranking which was done by a London-based company Brand Finance Plc, a world's leading brand valuation consultancy firm named FirstBank of Nigeria Plc as the number one bank brand in Nigeria in its current Top 500 World Bank

Brands Ranking. The good reports are evidence of the management practices of these banks recognized for their commitment to ensuring customer satisfaction and reliable and effective banking service processes.

Conclusions

The need for businesses to have a defined marketing and management concept that drives its strategy has been emphasized in various literature and concerns. Marketing concept and TQM are an example of a twin concept that be integrated to have a successful market presence among competitors. These can work if ingrained into the structure of the organisation (Handy, 1985) and become applied as an enduring culture by organizational members from time to time (Achumba, 1996; Thompson, Strickland & Gamble, 2005). Nigerian banks will achieve the benefits of these concepts through an integrated approach involving basically TQM, marketing concept, and integrated marketing communications, as well as other ancillary best practices. As Mohr-Jackson (1998), opines, total quality orientation and market orientation are complementary philosophies with potential benefits for improving business results and such congruence is of a great deal to marketing success. The problem of the unpopularity of the marketing concept and the difficulty in adopting this concept (Meziou, 2009), can be overcome by orientating organizational members to seen the customers as the main “reason for the seasons” and a systematic approach to ensuring quality banking service; defect-free, continuous improvement, quality and innovative culture will help to ensure better customer satisfaction.

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**AN EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS OF THE IMPACT OF FOREIGN PRIVATE INVESTMENT (FPI)
ON CAPITAL FORMATION IN NIGERIA, 1980-2009**

ORUTA, LAWRENCE IGWE
Department of Economics,
Ebonyi State University, Abakaliki
Ebonyi State, Nigeria.
igweoruta65@yahoo.co.uk

&

OKULEGU BETHRAN ENYIM
Department of Economics,
Ebonyi State University, Abakaliki
Ebonyi State, Nigeria.
senatorsengen@yahoo.com

&

NWEZE PAUL NWEZE
Department of Economics,
Ebonyi State University, Abakaliki
Ebonyi State, Nigeria.
nnwezepaul@yahoo.com

Abstract

A number of possible determinants of capital formation are investigated using Nigerian data covering 1980-2009 studied. Time-series estimates are obtained using an Error Correction Model (ECM) in which the speed of adjustment of the disequilibrium was found. Empirical results showed that foreign private investment (FPI) has significant impact on the capital formation in Nigeria within the period of study. More so, it was found that the estimated macroeconomic variables (Exchange Rate, Average Manufacturing Capacity and Index of Energy Consumption) have significant influence on capital formation. In the light of the findings, it was recommended that government should create conducive environment for foreign investment to come in. This can be done by fine tuning monetary policy to make interest rate attractive for both savings mobilization and investment. Government should as well invest in productive sector of the economy and minimize expenditure on things that do not add to the productive capacity of the economy.

Keywords: Foreign Private Investment, FPI, capital formation, exchange rate, energy consumption

INTRODUCTION

Economic theory shows that economic growth can be attained in two ways; increase in the efficiency with which those factors are used and the increase in the amount of factors of production. According to (De-Gregorio, 1998) growth is induced by the increase in investment (capital accumulation) and the efficiency of investments. In the late 1970s and early 1980s, most developing countries of Africa (including Nigeria) experienced unprecedented and severe economic crisis. This crisis manifested itself in several ways such as persistent macroeconomic imbalances, widening saving-investment gap, high rates of domestic inflation, chronic balance of payment problems and huge budget deficit (Akpokodje, 1998). Although

different reasons have been adduced for the slowdown of these economies, Greene and Villannueva (1991) attribute the problems to the decline in investment rates in the affected economies.

For example, in Nigeria Akpokodje (1998), maintained that domestic investment as a ratio of gross domestic product (GDP) declined from an average of 24.4% during the 1973 -1981 period to 13.57% during 1982-1996 periods. The average investment rate during the 1982-1996 period implied that the country barely replaced its dwindling capital.

In the same vein, private investment rate depreciated from 8.6% in 1973 -1981 period to 4.2% in the 1982-1996 era. Due to the fact that investment determines the rate of accumulation of physical capital (known as capital formation), it then becomes a vital factor in the growth of productive capacity of the nation and contributes to growth generally. It is in the light of this that is of great importance is being attached to increasing the magnitude of real asset investment in the economy. Foreign direct investment (FDI) has a lot benefits to developing economies such as;

First, consistent and regular inflow of foreign investment provides an important source of foreign exchange earnings needed to supplement domestic savings and raise investment levels.

Second, import substituting investment will reduce the import bills as investment in export industries will directly increase the country's foreign exchange earnings.

Some other benefits that might also accrue from increased foreign investment are the creation or expansion of local industries to supply inputs to the newly established plants; a rise in the overall level of domestic demand to boost incomes and, through taxation, state revenues; and the transference of labour (human capital) skills and technology.

Several variables which create dependence on foreign capital have been identified in the literature. They could be classified into fluctuating variables such as exports, imports and invisible; offsetting variables like debt service and reserve creation, and rigid variables which include minimum level of imports, stage of economic development and exportable surplus (Ogamba, 2003).

External capital flows could also be non-debts creating flows (as in official transfers or grant in aids and direct investment flows), debt creating flows (as in official development finance), commercial bank loans and international bond offerings; or could equally be a hybrid, for example, foreign portfolio investments and international equity offerings. Of late, Nigeria has embarked upon several trade liberalisation policies so as to free FDI flows into the country (Adegbite and Owuallah, 2007).

The literature is replete with evidence that private investment in most developing countries is more directly related to growth than public investment (see Akpokodje, 1991; Serven and Salimano, 1991; Khan and Reinhart, 1990)

Accordingly, it is now widely accepted that the expansion of private investment should be the added impetus for economic growth in developing economies (Chhibber and Dailami, 1990). Many developing countries have over the years relied very much on the inflow of financial resources from outside in various forms, official and private capital flows as well as direct foreign investment, as a means of speeding up their economic development (Olaniyi; 1988, Odozi, 1995; Ekpo, 1997 and Uremadu, 2006). However, these countries have shown preference for direct foreign investment because they regard direct foreign investment as a means of counteracting the sluggish trend in official and private portfolio capital flows. Generally, capital from outside can be very helpful in speeding up the pace of economic development and can act as a catalytic agent in making it possible to harness domestic resources particularly in a developing country. But foreign capital, no matter how large the inflow, cannot absolve a recipient country from the task of mobilising domestic resources. Foreign inflows can, be complementary to domestic savings.

Statement of the problem

In developing economies, experience has shown that foreign capital alone cannot create any permanent basis for a higher standard of living in the future. Rather it complements domestic savings. Therefore greater dependence on internal sources of finance facilitates the successful implementation of any planned economic development in a country (Agu, 1988 and Uremadu, 2006). But after over two decades of economic adjustment, all relevant indicators have suggested that the recovery of private investment in Nigeria has been sluggish and slow.

Previous studies show that cumulative foreign private investment as a percentage of gross domestic product (GDP) has been fluctuating over the years 1980-2009. It has also followed a downward trend from the position of 7.12% (1980) to a peak of 12.79% (1986) and to its current status of 3.73% in 2009. The

same low and fluctuating trend has been exhibited by the gross domestic investment also known as Gross Fixed Capital Formation (GFCF). Certainly, macroeconomic policies: monetary, fiscal and exchange rate, have a bearing on the investment behaviour in a country (World Bank, 1994 and Akpokodje, 1998), but the impact of these policies on private investment behaviour in Nigeria is still largely unclear. Therefore, the questions which this research work tries to proffer solution to include:

1. What is the long run impact of foreign private investment on capital formation in Nigeria?
2. What are the macroeconomic variables that affect Capital formation with respect to Foreign Private Investment?

Objectives of the study

This paper examines the association existing between capital formation and other macroeconomic indicators of interest in the pursuit of macroeconomic policies in Nigeria. It will also highlight the complementary role played by capital formation to gross domestic savings towards filling the existing savings - investment gap in a bid to achieve desired investment goals and/or growth objectives in Nigeria in the years ahead.

Specifically, this research work seeks to determine some specific objectives such as:

1. To ascertain the impact of foreign private investment on capital formation in Nigeria
2. To examine the macroeconomic variables that affect Capital formation with respect to Foreign Private Investment.

Hypothesis of the study

Whether foreign direct investment has a significant relationship with capital formation and economic growth in Nigeria will be ascertained with the following hypothesis:

1. H_0 : Foreign private investment has no significant impact on capital formation in Nigeria
2. H_0 : The macroeconomic variables of Foreign Private Investment do not influence Capital formation in Nigeria.

Significance of the study

A study to determine the impact of foreign private investment (FPI) on capital formation in Nigeria is very important because;

First, it would help to reduce policy mistakes associated with the uncertainty of the impact of foreign private investment (FPI) on capital formation in Nigeria

Secondly, it would help to harmonize external and internal sector policies in order to manage foreign private investment (FPI) in Nigeria.

Thirdly, the result obtained from the test carried out would reveal to the policy makers, which of the variables to control and in what magnitude in order to achieve a desired macroeconomic objective.

Scope of the Study

This research work will cover the period 1980 – 2009 to enable us have a clear vision of the contribution of foreign private investment (FPI) on capital formation and on economic growth in Nigeria for the period under review. This work will also focus on whether human capital development through increased public expenditure on social sector activities, gross fixed capital formation leads to higher economic growth. Emphasis would be made on government expenditure on health as well as education.

Theoretical Literature

The preponderance of empirical studies that have explored quantitatively the determinants of foreign direct investment have concentrated more on economic than other factors. In particular, each of the authors, in his regression equations included those determinants he or she considered personally appealing. In what follows, we survey some of these empirical investigations.

A leading proponent of the economic approach to the determinants of foreign direct investment is found in (Dunning, 1973). On the strength of studies by scholars based on international production, he identifies three sets of influences on foreign direct investment to include the following; i. market factors such as the size and growth of the market measured by the gross national product (GNP) of the recipient country; ii. Cost factors such as the availability of labour, low labour costs and inflation; and iii. The investment climate as measured by the degree of foreign indebtedness and the state of the balance of payments (Chete, 1998).

In another study, Dunning (1981), develops an eclectic theory of international direct investment based on the theories of industrial organisation of location of a firm. Nonetheless, the treatise of this later study does not directly concern the subject in hand, Chete, (1998). Agarwal (1980), clarifies the determinants of foreign direct investments using two political factors of political stability and the threat of nationalisation, in conjunction with a variety of economic factors such as investment incentives, the size and growth of the recipient's market, its degree of economic development proxied by infrastructure, market distance and economic stability in terms of inflation, growth and balance of payments.

In his extensive survey of the literature on the determinants of foreign direct investment, he finds mixed evidence with respect to the impact of political instability.

Lewis (1978), lays emphasis, to some extent, on political factors too. He tested the dual hypotheses that economic considerations are the prime determinants of foreign investment flows and that political variables are of secondary importance. His model uses a step-by-step regression for 25 developing countries from three continents: Africa, Asia and Latin America to establish that economic variables are more important than the political ones.

All the above studies except, Dunning (1981), were pre-occupied with the determinants of foreign direct investment in developing countries. A respectable number of studies have also been conducted for developed countries particularly for the United States and the European Community (eg. Scapellato and Balough, 1983 and Lunn, 1980)

Olopoenia (1983) explores the role of foreign capital inflow in the development processes of underdeveloped countries via its impact on savings. He fails, however, to reach unambiguous conclusion, contending that the effect of foreign investment on saving depends on the savings hypothesis used. Additionally, Oseghae and Amenkhenan (1987), examines the relationship between oil exports, foreign borrowing and direct foreign investment in Nigeria, on the one hand, and the impact of these on sectoral performance, on the other hand. They surmise that foreign borrowing and FDI impacted negatively on overall GDP but positively on three main sectors (manufacturing, transport and communication, and finance and insurance). The decision to invest by an enterprise domiciled in an industrialised country in developing countries is often motivated by higher expected profits in comparison to the alternative investment possibilities at home or in other industrialised countries (Chete, 1998 and Olaniyi, 1988). The relative advantage of such investment is a function of both economic and political influences (Ogamba, 2003). Even if prevailing economic conditions seem favourable and the outlook for the future promising, it is entirely possible that investment may not materialise due to prevailing unstable political conditions. Hence, the need to consider foreign direct investment decisions which will impact on domestic capital formation would be brought into sharp focus in the present study.

Olaniyi (1988) investigates the impact of direct foreign capital on domestic investment to ascertain its overall contribution to the enhancement of the domestic savings capacity in Nigeria. His model of domestic savings and investment financing in Nigeria empirically tested the impact of FDI on the level of domestic savings and investment. His results conform that domestic savings is by far more relevant in determining investment growth than foreign capital inflows in Nigeria. At best, the latter complements the former. This view has also been confirmed by the works of both Uremadu, (2006) and Adegbite and Owuallah, (2007).

Evidently, from the Nigerian studies reviewed so far, there seems to be a dearth of research explicitly devoted to the impact of foreign private investment neither on capital formation nor on the determinants of foreign private investment in the Nigerian scene proper thereby re-enforcing the need for this current effort.

With respect to the foreign studies surveyed earlier, it is apparent that, in general, empirical exploration of the determinants of foreign direct investment has not been definitive on what are the main factors.

In particular, it is largely inexplicit what role the economic factors play relative to political factors. Curiously, the less than satisfactory state of research on this theme can be traced to issues of content and of statistical methodology. In relation to content, the studies show wide variance of economic and political factors used as arguments. And no convincing reason rooted in the theory is advanced for the inclusion or exclusion of particular variables (Chete,1998).

Thus, a drawback in most of these works is that their empirical estimation and the variables used as causal factors are not guided by theoretical considerations but mere ad-hocery as postulated in (Chete, 1998). The conclusion therefore is trite that the existing state of research shows serious conceptual and statistical weaknesses, providing further impetus for this study.

Empirical Literature

Keynes (1936), pioneered the discovery of an independent investment in the economy, in contrast to, the widespread belief (that is, the Wicksellian loan market) that all available saving is automatically invested so far as the interest rate is attractive. Keynes' main contention was that investment is a function of the prospective marginal efficiency of capital relative to some interest rate which reflects the shadow cost of the invested funds. According to Keynes (1936), because of incomplete and uncertain information about private investment volatility in the future, potential investors would depend on their "animal spirits" in making their investment decisions rather than a rational calculation of an inherently intermediate distant future (Chete, 1998).

Investment theories that followed the tradition of the Harod Domar growth models emerged in the 1950s and 1960s. This was the precursor to the familiar accelerator theory. This theory posits investment as a linear function of changes in output derived from a fixed proportion of production technology. Thus, given an incremental capital-output ratio, it is easy to compute the investment requirements needed to achieve a given output growth target. In his model, profitability expectations and cost of capital considerations are ignored in the determination of investment.

The Neo Classical Approach to investment was next in line. Mainly spurred by the desire to obviate the shortcomings of the Harod Domar formulation, particularly in its simplistic assumptions, this approach introduces factor substitution in the derivation of the demand for capital from the firm's cost minimisation problems. Consequently, the desired capital stock is shown to depend on the rental cost of capital (which, in turn, depends on the price of capital goods, the real interest rate and the depreciation rate) and the level of output. This approach too has been attacked on account of inconsistency of the assumptions of perfect competition and exogenous output, the inappropriateness of static expectations and the introduction of delivery lags in an ad hoc manner.

Tobin's "Q" theory of investment of 1969 is an alternate formulation of the investment function. The theory postulates that the ratio of the market value of the existing stock of capital to its replacement cost (otherwise termed Q ratio) is the force driving investment. Tobin, subsequently elaborated two reasons why Q may differ from unity which include delivery lags and increasing marginal costs of investment.

Abel (1981) and Hayashi (1982), both, in separate studies, attempt a reconciliation of the Neo-Classical and Q approaches to investment. By showing that the latter follows from the firm's optimal capital accumulation problems under adjustment costs, they proved that what drives investment is marginal Q, that is, the ratio between the increase in the value of the firm due to the installation of an additional unit of capital and its replacement costs.

However, marginal Q may not be observable as it will generally diverge from the observed average Q (which essentially is the market value of existing capital in terms of new capital), except under competitive equilibrium and constant returns to scale. Both will also diverge if firms confront quantity constraints in real asset or financial markets. In such a situation, average Q will, at best, provide some and not all of the information required to make investment decisions.

This disequilibrium approach to investment is associated with Malinvaud (1980, 1982) and Sneessens (1987). In this respect, investment is a function of both profitability and output demand considerations. Malinvaud (1982), splits investment decision into two stages: the decision to expand the level of productive capacity, and the decision about the capital intensity of that additional capacity. The latter depends on profitability variables like the relative cost of capital and labour. By contrast, the capacity decision relates to the degree of capacity utilisation in the economy as an indicator of demand conditions.

In Sneessens (1987), net investment is a positive function of the gap between actual and long-run equilibrium capacities. This in turn, is a reflection of differences between actual and equilibrium rates of capacity utilisation and between actual and equilibrium mark-up rates. Therefore, investment depends on both profitability (discrepancies between actual and equilibrium mark-up rates) and on sales constraints (discrepancies in rates of capacity utilisation). By implication, investment decisions may be reached in a setting in which some firms confront current and expected future sales constraints, a crucial departure from both the Neo-Classical (Jorgenson) and the Q (Tobin) models.

There exists an expanding literature on the effects of financial constraints on investment, for example, as in (Fazzari, Hubbard and Peterson, 1988a, 1988b; Caloris and Hubbard, 1989), the central argument here is that internal finance (retained earnings) and external finance (bonds, equity or bank credit) are not perfect substitutes. The discrepancy in the cost of different sources of financing is due to asymmetric information where bankers in the capital market cannot evaluate accurately the quality of firm's investment opportunities; thereby leading to existence of opportunity cost of internal finance generated from cash flows and retained earnings.

According to this view, investment will be very sensitive to financial factors such as the availability of internal finance or the access to capital markets (Chete, 1998). Finally, another feature of investment in developing countries of sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) is the high import content of capital goods. This buttresses the contention in the two gap model (Chenery and Bruno, 1962 and Bacha, 1982), that the lack of foreign exchange may constitute a major constraint to sustain high rates of investment and growth in developing economies. Therefore in countries like Nigeria where domestic and foreign capital goods are highly complementary, the lack of foreign resource to import machinery and equipment will always constitute an impediment to growth. In other word, foreign exchange is a crucial determinant factor in capital formation among developing countries of Africa. This is a serious issue when viewed from the current perspective of our study. The macroeconomic determinants of capital formation in a developing country like Nigeria take leaf from (Agarwal, 1980). This is carried out here under.

1. Gross Fixed Capital Formation (GFCF)

It is defined as an addition to stock of capital assets set aside for future productive endeavours in real sector which will lead to more growth in physical capital assets of the country. Capital formation captures all the real-value-added to the economy in real-asset-terms which will lead to further enhancement of savings, investment and generation of more wealth in future. Capital formation derives from savings accumulation. It has a positive impact on private savings accumulation in the sense that increase in capital formation will lead to more savings. When savings accumulate it will lead to an increase in gross domestic investment (GDI) and income generated as a result of the investment projects made will, in turn, lead to GDP growth (Uremadu, 2006).

2. Exchange Rate (EXR)

Obadan (1994) traces the importance of exchange rate on inflow of foreign private investment and notes that its importance as the Centre-piece of the investment environment derives from the argument that a sustained exchange rate misalignment in terms of over-valuation or under-valuation, is a major source of macroeconomic disequilibria in developing countries.

Consequently, an over-valued exchange rate or highly distorted foreign exchange rate will discourage exports and negatively affect foreign private investment environment.

The theoretical literature is ambiguous about the direction of the effect of real exchange rate on the rate of investment. On the one hand, a real depreciation raises the cost of imported capital goods, and since a large chunk of investment goods in developing countries is imported, domestic investment would be expected to fall on account of significant depreciation. On the other hand, a significant depreciation, by raising the profitability of activity in the tradable goods sector, would be expected to stimulate private investment in this sector but it depresses investment in the non-tradable goods sector. For low-income African countries, Oshikoya (1994), for instance negative, ascertains a negative impact of the real exchange rate on private investment. Chete and Akpokodje (1997) in Akpokodje (1998), also report a relationship between the real exchange rate and private investment in Nigeria.

2. Foreign Private Investment (CFPI)

There is a growing consensus that an increase in cumulative foreign private investment, in addition to, inflow of foreign direct investment would complement domestic savings to meet investment needs in a particular LDC country (Olaniyi, 1988 and Uremadu, 2006). Expectedly, foreign investments should contribute to the development needs of the host economies hence substantial flows of CFPI are usually desired. Therefore, the benefits derivable from CFPI are good but they neither substitute for the aids of official development assistance flows (Aremu, 1997). Thus, a high inflow of CFPI would lead to rise in gross domestic investment (which will, in turn, lead to growth).

3. Average Manufacturing Capacity (AMC)

Average Manufacturing Capacity measures per amount of output or productivity of factory or economy at a given period of time. Manufacturing remains one of the most powerful engines for economic growth. It acts as a catalyst to transform the economic structure of countries, from simple, slow growing and low-value activities to more productive activities that enjoy greater margins, are driven by technology, and have higher growth prospects. But its potential benefits are even greater today. With rapid technological change, sweeping liberalization and the increased defragmentation and internationalization of production, manufacturing has become the main means for developing countries to benefit from globalization and bridge the income gap with the industrialized world. These are some of the many arguments that justify the importance of promoting manufacturing in the developing world.

According to the Bureau of Public Enterprise (BPE) (2006) players in the Nigerian industrial and manufacturing sector can be classified into four groups, Multinational, National, Regional and Local. However, the Manufacturers Association of Nigeria has categorized its industries into Large, Medium and Small Scales in line with the National Council of Industries (NCI) classification.

7. Index of Energy Consumption (IEC)

Pfeffermann and Madarassy (1992) identify, among other macroeconomic factors, that capacity utilisation relies much on efficiency of industrial or energy production, that are major determinants of foreign direct investment. They discover that the size of the domestic market and improved capacity utilisation are positively related to direct foreign investment, while inflation and volatile exchange rates have negative effects on foreign investment. Efficient infrastructural development proxied here by index of energy consumption (INDEXEC) will create conducive environment for high foreign private capital inflows and increased domestic investment. Hence, a positive relationship is hereby expected.

Research Methodology

This chapter focuses on the research method that will be adopted. Regression analysis based on the classical linear regression model, otherwise known as Ordinary Least Square (OLS) technique is chosen by the researcher. The researcher’s choice of technique is based not only by its computational simplicity but also as a result of its optimal properties such as linearity, unbiasedness, minimum variance, zero mean value of the random terms, etc (Gujarati 2004).

Estimation Procedure

At this level of research, using time series data, the researcher estimates the model with ordinary least square method. This method is preferred to others as it is best linear unbiased estimator, minimum variance, zero mean value of the random terms, etc (Koutsoyiannis 2003).

In the preliminary test, the following tests shall be conducted. They include:

Unit root test

Co- integration test

Error Correction Mechanism

Unit Root Test: It is used to test for the stationarity of the time series data. Augmented Dickey fuller will be used in the process. In considering the levels the data could be said to be integrated of, Augmented Dickey fuller (ADF) test statistics shall be compared with the critical values at 5% level of significance. A situation whereby the ADF test statistics is greater than the critical values with consideration on the absolute values, the data at the tested order will be said to be stationary. Augmented Dickey-Fuller test relies on rejecting a null hypothesis of unit root (the series are non-stationary) in favour of the alternative hypotheses of stationarity. The tests are conducted with and without a deterministic trend (t) for each of the series. The general form of ADF test is estimated by the following regression.

$$Y_t = \alpha + \beta_1 Y_{t-1} + \beta_2 \Delta Y_t + \dots + \beta_n \Delta Y_{t-n} + \epsilon_t \dots \dots \dots (3.3)$$

$$Y_t = \alpha + \beta_1 Y_{t-1} + \beta_2 \Delta Y_t + \dots + \beta_n \Delta Y_{t-n} + \epsilon_t \dots \dots \dots (3.4)$$

Where:

Δ is a time series, t is a linear time trend, Δ is the first difference operator, such that $\Delta Y_{t-1} = Y_t - Y_{t-1}$, α is a constant, n is the optimum number of lags in the dependent variable and ϵ_t is the random error term. The null hypothesis is that $\beta_1 = 0$. If the null hypothesis $\beta_1 = 1$, then we conclude that the series under consideration (y_t) has a unit root and is therefore non-stationary.

If the ADF test fails to reject the test in levels but rejects the test in first differences, then the series contains one unit root and is of integrated order one I(1). If the test fails to reject the test in levels and first differences but rejects the test in second differences, then the series contains two unit roots and is of integrated order two I(2). The Philip- Perron (PP) Unit Root Test is implemented to justify the results ADF test. The equation is thus:

$$y_t = \alpha + \beta_1 y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t \dots \dots \dots (3.6)$$

Co-Integration Test: It is used to test for the long run relationship between the variables. And a long run relationship is found on these variables in which we will study. Johansen Co-integration Approach will be undertaken by the researcher in the course of the analysis. Hence, the use of Johansen Co-integrating Normalized coefficients to ascertain the nature of the long run relationship between the estimated variables. Engel and Granger (1987) pointed out that a linear combination of two or more non-stationary variables may be stationary. If such a stationary combination exists, then the non-stationary time series are said to be co-integrated.

Johansen’s methodology takes its starting point in the vector auto regression (VAR) of order P given by

$$Y_t = \mu + \alpha_1 Y_{t-1} + \dots + \alpha_p Y_{t-p} + \epsilon_t$$

Where

Y_t is an nx1 vector of variables that are integrated of order commonly denoted (1) and ϵ_t is an nx1 vector of capital formation.

This VAR can be rewritten as

$$y_t = u + \alpha_1 y_{t-1} + \dots + \alpha_i y_{t-i} + \epsilon_t$$

To determine the number of co-integration vectors, Johansen (1988, 1989) and Johansen and Juselius (1990) suggested two statistic test, the first one is the trace test (trace). It tests the null hypothesis that the number of distinct cointegrating vector is less than or equal to q against a general unrestricted alternatives $q = r$. the test calculated as follows:

$$\text{trace}(r) = -T \ln(1 - \lambda_r)$$

Where

T is the number of usable observations, and the $\lambda_{1,s}$ are the estimated eigenvalue from the matrix. The Second statistical test is the maximum eigenvalue test (max) that is calculated according to the following formula

$$\max(r, r + 1) = -T \ln(1 - \lambda_{r+1})$$

The test concerns a test of the null hypothesis that there is r of co-integrating vectors against the alternative that r + 1 co-integrating vector.

Error Correction Mechanism (ECM): The purpose of the error correction model is to ascertain the speed of adjustment from the short-run disequilibrium to the long-run equilibrium state. The greater the coefficient of the parameter, the higher the speed of adjustment of the model from the short-run to the long-run equilibrium.

The ECM (p) form is written as:

$$y_t = \alpha + \beta_1 y_{t-1} + \dots + \beta_i^* y_{t-i} + \epsilon_t \dots \dots \dots (3.7)$$

Where Δ is the differencing operator, such that $y_{t-1} = y_t - y_{t-1}$.

Presentation and Analysis of Results

The attempt to analysis the impact of Foreign Private Investment (FPI) on Capital Formation in Nigeria led the researcher to subject the data collected to Unit Root, Cointegration, and Error Correction tests. The results and their discussions are presented hereunder.

Unit Root Test

The Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) and Philip Perron (PP) formulae were employed to test for stationarity or the existence of unit roots in the data. The test results are as presented below:

Augmented Dickey Fuller Unit Root Test
Trend and Intercept

Series	ADF Test Statistic	5% critical values	10% critical values	Order	Remarks
GFCF	-5.135097	-3.5796	-3.2239	1(1)	Stationary
EXR	-5.503775	-3.5796	-3.2239	1(1)	Stationary
FPI	-4.523919	-3.5796	-3.2239	1(1)	Stationary
AMC	-3.772078	-3.5796	-3.2239	1(1)	Stationary
IEC	-6.025913	-3.5796	-3.2239	1(1)	Stationary

Phillips-Perron Unit Root Test
Trend and Intercept

Series	ADF Test Statistic	5% critical values	10% critical values	Order	Remarks
GFCF	-5.129735	-3.5796	-3.2239	1(1)	Stationary
EXR	-5.603752	-3.5796	-3.2239	1(1)	Stationary
FPI	-4.463016	-3.5796	-3.2239	1(1)	Stationary
AMC	-3.952267	-3.5796	-3.2239	1(1)	Stationary
IEC	-6.562682	-3.5796	-3.2239	1(1)	Stationary

The empirical test shows that GFCF, EXR, FPI, AMC and IEC are integrated of order one. They are integrated of the same order; 1(1). From the above tables, it was found that both ADF and PP Test with trend and intercept, indicated that time series are integrated of the same order. The level of their integrations indicates the number of time series have to be differenced before their stationarity is induced. Considering the ADF and PP test statistics at 5% and 10% critical values, it is observed that test statistics are greater than the critical values. Thus, the series are said to be stationary at that level.

Analysis/Implication of Results

As the study analyses the the impact of foreign private investment (FPI) on Capital Formation in Nigeria, co-integration test is conducted to examine the long run relationship between the variables under study. The summary of the Johansen Cointegration Test is shown in the Table below. The model was chosen with the linear deterministic test assumption.

Johansen co integration test for the series; GFCF, EXR, FPI, AMC and IEC

Eigenvalue	Likelihood Ratio	5 percent critical value	1 percent critical value	Hypothesized No. of CE(s)
0.929152	186.3540	68.52	76.07	None **
0.827210	117.5263	47.21	54.46	At most 1 **
0.754111	71.87870	29.68	35.65	At most 2 **
0.625332	35.40399	15.41	20.04	At most 3 **
0.316123	9.879398	3.76	6.65	At most 4 **

*(**) denotes rejection of the hypothesis at 5% significance Level

L.R test indicates 5 cointegrating equation(s) at 5% significance.

Normalized Cointegrating Coefficients: 1 cointegrating Equation(s)

D(GFCF,1)	D(EXR,1)	D(FPI,1)	D(AMC,1)	D(IEC,1)	C
1.000000	-0.028948	2.132035	15577.13	-14550.23	-41574.45
	(0.03206)	(0.57474)	(6224.46)	(2397.28)	

The Johansen Cointegration Test shows that there are five cointegrated vectors. In Johansen’s Method, the eigenvalue statistic is used to determine whether cointegrated variables exist. Cointegration is said to exist

if the values of computed statistics are significantly different from zero. The Likelihood Ratio is higher than 5% critical value and the eigenvalues are found as (0.929152, 0.827210, 0.754111, 0.625332 and 0.316123). The Likelihood Ratio of GDP, MS, INT and EXR are greater than the critical values at both 5% and 1% level of significance. Also, the Eigenvalues of GFCF, EXR, FPI, AMC and IEC are significantly greater than zero. In other words, the null hypothesis of no cointegration among the variables is rejected in at least four equations. The test result shows the existence of a long-run equilibrium relationship in four cointegrating equations at 5% significance level.

The sign of the coefficient estimates of the variables can be seen from the normalized co-integrating equation. An increase in the exchange rate (EXR) and IEC will bring about a decrease in GFCF by 0.03 and 14550.2 respectively on the average in the long run. However, a unit increase in FPI and AMC, on the average, will bring about increase by 2.13 units and 15577.1 units respectively in GFCF. Holding these explanatory variables constant, it is found that GFCF reduces by 41574.5 units.

Error Correction Mechanism (ECM)

As noted, the ECM is meant to tie the short-run dynamics of the cointegrating equations to their long-run static dispositions. ECM rule holds that a negative and statistically significant error correction coefficient is a necessary condition for the model to be validated. In this case, the error correction coefficient is -0.893989. The negative sign of the coefficient satisfies one condition and also, the P-value for the Error Correction Term is 0.00 which is less than 5% level of significance. The two important criteria implies the ECM(-1) validates that the dependent variable (GFCF) and the explanatory variables (EXR, FPI, AMC and IEC) have a long run equilibrium relationship. The fact that the R-square value (0.577395) is less than the Durbin Watson statistics (0.9794) satisfies the acceptance of the model. The coefficient reveals that the speed of adjustment of the disequilibrium is 89.4% annually. As the R-square value is less than the Durbin Watson statistics, it implies the model is not spurious. Thus, the model is desirable.

Test of Hypotheses

The short run coefficient of the differenced variable {D(FPI)} which is 2.83 is statistically significant. This is confirmed by the p-value of the same parameter estimate (0.0096) which is less than the 0.05 level of significance. Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected while the alternative is accepted on the basis that foreign private investment has significant impact on capital formation in Nigeria within the period under study; 1980-2009. The calculated F-statistics is 6.29 and its P-value (0.000817) implies that the joint influence of the explanatory variables is statistically significant. Hence, the entire regression plane is significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and it is concluded that the macroeconomic variables of Foreign Private Investment influences Capital formation in Nigeria.

Summary

This work has examined the impact of foreign private investment on capital formation in Nigeria. One of the objectives is to evaluate the significant impact of foreign private investment affects capital formation in the domestic economy and the other objective is to estimate the impact of capital formation and foreign private investment on economic growth in Nigeria. In order to achieve these objectives, we estimated the model using Error Correction Mechanism. It is found that the variables specified in the model are integrated of order one. Augmented Dickey fuller test was employed to ascertain the stationarity of the time series data.

In the estimated Error Correction Model, it is found that foreign private investment has a significant impact on capital formation in Nigeria. The model showed that the macroeconomic variables of Foreign Private Investment has influence on the Capital formation in Nigeria There is thus a long run equilibrium relationship among the variables as the error correction term is significant and negative. The speed of adjustment is high as the disequilibrium is corrected by 89.4 per annum.

Conclusion

The important conclusion from this study is that foreign private investment affect private capital formation positively in Nigeria. This is consistent with most of the findings in the empirical literature. Therefore the benefits derivable from cumulative foreign private investment are good but they neither substitute for the aids of official development assistance flows (Aremu, 1997). Thus, a high inflow of CFPI would lead to rise in gross domestic investment (which will, in turn, lead to growth). More future research is needed to study how the technology of foreign investment and multinational corporations makes domestic firms

efficient or inefficient and to ascertain the external effectives on the productivity and performance of domestic firms.

Recommendations

In the light of the research findings, the following recommendations are made;

- Government should create conducive environment for foreign investment to come in. This can be done by fine tuning monetary policy to make interest rate attractive for both savings mobilization and investment. This can be achieved by making sure that neither the interest rate nor the spread is too high.
- Government should invest in productive sector of the economy and minimize expenditure on things that do not add to the productive capacity of the economy.
- Capital investments in infrastructure are the key to economic growth because this would help reduce cost of investment and production. The idea of not funding important public projects and privatizing should be discouraged because the economy is not ripe for such harsh policies.
- Efforts should be geared by government to reduce exchange rate distortions and or misalignment, increase export of locally manufactured goods and raw materials in a bid to raise value of the local currency, the naira; earn more foreign exchange and allow market forces to properly fix exchange rate. This policy thrust will most likely result into increased capital formation in Nigeria needed for our real sector investments and industrial growth.

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THE RELEVANCE OF MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT: THE NIGERIAN EXPERIENCE

ORUTA, LAWRENCE IGWE

Department of Economics

Ebonyi State University

Abakaliki

lgweoruta65@yahoo.co.uk

&

SYLVESTER OGBUEGHU (Ph.D)

Department of Economics

Ebonyi state University

Abakaliki

&

OKULEGU BETHRAN ENYIM

Department of Economics

Ebonyi State University

Abakaliki

senatorsengen@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

This paper unfolds the relevance of manpower development from the conceptual and methodological perspectives. On the conceptual perspective, the paper analyses the effort of the Nigerian State at developing manpower vis-à-vis the efforts of organizations at manpower development and eventually situating the relevance of manpower development as encompassing both State and organizational efforts. On methodological perspective, organizational techniques for manpower development were discussed; the relevance and problems against manpower development in Nigeria were unfolded with the researcher's stating the options of enhanced government regulatory capability and persuasive device as means of improving manpower development in Nigeria.

Keywords: manpower, development, state efforts, relevance, Nigeria.

INTRODUCTION

The relevance of manpower development in Nigeria could be situated vis-à-vis economic development. Conversely, the focus of this paper is not geared towards unfolding the distortions of colonialism on manpower development in Nigeria; rather, it is geared at the development of indigenous manpower to serve as the propelling force for national growth and development understanding the operational concepts by looking at the relevance and compatibility of manpower development, the common methodological perspectives for manpower development in organizations with implication on the aggregate economy as well as unfolding the relevance and problems of manpower development in Nigeria. In addition, it involves the building of capacity and harnessing the State's human resource which constitute a sine-qua-non for development. The above advantage was vividly conceptualized by Harbison (1973) when he stated that: *Human resources constitute the ultimate basis for wealth of nations, capital and natural resources are passive factors of production; human beings are the active agents who accumulate capital, exploit natural resources, build social, economic and political organizations, and carry forward national development.*

Clearly a country which is unable to develop the skills and knowledge of its people and to utilize them effectively in the national economy will be unable to develop anything else.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The conceptual framework of this paper is geared towards having a proper understanding of the concept manpower development and how it can develop the indigenes and serve as the propelling force for national growth and development. It is important to accentuate that manpower development could be defined as “the existence of unskilled and/or skilled humans that need training or re-training to perform specific task in society” (Ekpo 1989). Thus, manpower development could be seen as organizational specific. This is because it is largely a function of organizational manpower need or job specification. That is, it could be viewed as the adaptation of the human resources available in the country to the needs, objectives and orientation of a given organization.

Conversely, the relevance of manpower development could be viewed as a concept which is generic because of its focus on turning out human resource that is needed for the development of the State (Drucker 1999). As a result, development of manpower views man as the most important asset in the society (Chalofsky and Reinhart 1988; Ekpo 1989; Drucker 1999; Muchinsky 2000). A typical example of the manifestation of this concept could be viewed from the perspective of the Nigerian educational system which is anchored on the 6-3-3-4 system which sought to address the manpower need of the country through mechanisms geared towards developing manpower that would boost the nation’s socioeconomic and technological advancement (FGN 1998). However, as earlier stated, both concepts could be used interchangeably in that they are both encompassing of each other. For instance, using the example of the 6-3-3-4 educational policy in Nigeria which was classified as most compatible to the concept development of manpower in the sense that the mechanism involve is turning out human resources that would serve as inputs to industries. It is also important to emphasize that unbundling the system into parts, indicate that the parts 6, 3, 3, and 4 could be viewed as manpower development because it involve the process of training manpower for meeting specific sectoral needs. From the above background, the researcher’s conception of manpower development encompasses both organizational specific through training and re-training of staff to meet up with organizational requirements, as well as the turning-out of human resource that is needed for the economic development of the State.

UNDERSTANDING MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT

It is important to state that the lack of adequate emphasis on manpower development as a tool for development in Nigeria on the part of government as well as the organized private sector could not be far-fetched from the lack of understanding of both the concept and methods for manpower development in a post-colonial Nigerian State in which the process of human resource development for national growth was distorted by colonialism with the attendant negative orientation that was injected into political leadership (Ekpo 1989). Thus, manpower development became an elitist design that was geared to favour capitalist mode of production in which labour was relegated to the background among the factors of production. From the above background, one could therefore argue that there were distortions in both the concept and method of manpower development in the Nigerian State as it was oriented towards serving capitalist interest. This no doubt account for the discrepancies in the educational system, a mechanism designed for manpower development which is meant to serve national interest.

However, it has been also argued that effective poverty alleviation scheme must involve the development and utilization of local resource including human for solving local problems (Robb 2000; Omodia 2005). Thus, manpower development is central to solving the present problem of poverty in Nigeria.

BASIC PROBLEMS OF MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

Colonial Experience: There have been several arguments regarding the distortions in manpower development of national growth in Nigeria as a result of colonialism which was fashioned towards economic exploitation (Ekpo 1989; Ake 2001; Dauda 2003). It could be recalled that the advent of colonialism led to the integration of the Nigerian economy into the World Capitalist System thereby placing minimum premium on labour when compared to other factors of production. This poor performance of indigenous labour by the colonial government no doubt has persisted in the post-colonial Nigerian State. As a result, this problem account for the lack of adequate attention given to labour as a critical part of the production process in Nigeria.

Poor Political Leadership: Closely related to the problem of colonial experience as a problem of manpower development in Nigeria is poor political leadership which is further deepening the problem of

manpower development in Nigeria. This factor has manifested itself in poor funding of education over the years (Baikie 2002), disparity or class in manpower development between children of the rich and the poor (Omodia 2006).

Political Insane: In the aspect of political instability, there is no doubt that a country which fails to adequately develop her manpower would be doing so at the expense of her socio-economic and political stability Omodia (2004) stressed the dysfunctional use of the nation's human resource among the youths in propelling political instability when he stated that: *...there has been situations in which the Nigerian youth especially, those of poor family background were used as tools for disrupting the political democratic system through rigging, thuggery and ethnic conflicts. These factors of rigging, thuggery in addition to economic mismanagement, personal ambition or selfishness among others, were the factors that terminated the First and Second Republic.* Thus, manpower development could help the youths in the development of self and in improving the quality of their political participation.

Poor Manpower Planning: This problem is associated with the poor data base that is needed for manpower planning in Nigeria both in the rural and urban centres. This problem no doubt constitute a major hindrance on effective manpower development in Nigeria (Baikie 2002; Oku 2003).

METHODS FOR RELEVANCE MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

The methods for relevance manpower development in Nigeria could be viewed from several basic perspectives:

1. Orientation: This method of manpower development could be said to be an integral part of the recruitment exercise in that once an employee has been found appoint able, it is expected that such an employee need to be positively oriented in line with the vision and aspiration of the organization for effective discharge of function. And since employee function in an organization is basically affected by his perception of the organization vis-à-vis the rules and principles that exist in the organization. It therefore follow that an employee undergoes formal and informal orientation in a place of work.

While the formal orientation focuses on job specification and occupational demands placed on the employee, the informal orientation involve the social interaction that take place in the place of work which could either boost productivity or be detrimental to it Orientation (Koontz et al. 1980). Therefore, the method of manpower development is quite indispensable because it helps in boosting the productivity of workers which is needed for competing in the global market.

2. On the Job Method of Manpower Development: This method is basically different from the orientation method in that while orientation is at the point of entry into the organization or a new assignment; on the job method is a process through which knowledge and experience are acquired over a period of time either formally or informally. This involves the following:

(a) **Coaching:** This is a method on the job training and development in which a young employee is attached to a senior employee with the purpose of acquiring knowledge and experience needed for the performance of tasks. (Yalokwu 2000).

(b) **Job Rotation:** This method either involve the movement of an employee from one official assignment or department to the other, in order for the employee to be acquainted with the different aspects of the work process or through job enlargement – That is given additional responsibility to an employee who has been uplifted as a result of the acquisition of additional skill or knowledge (Yalokwu 2000; Lawal 2006).

(c) **In House Training:** This involves a formal method on the job training in which skills and knowledge are acquired by employees through internally organized seminars and workshops geared toward updating the workers with new techniques or skills associated with the performance of their jobs. (Lawal 2006).

(d) **In Service Training:** This involves training outside the organization or workplace in higher institution of learning or vocational centres under the sponsorship of the organization or on terms that may be agreed upon between the organization and the worker (Lawal 2006).

3. Committee/Work Group Method: This method entails manpower development through the involvement of employees in meetings, committees and work group discussion geared towards injecting inputs in form of decision making as regard solving organizational problem. This method is quite indispensable, especially in the aspect of training employees for managerial functions or heading organizational units.

4. Vestibule Training Method: This is a method of manpower development through the acquisition of skills in a related working environment (Nongo 2005). Under this method the trainee practices his skill with identical equipment that he uses or he is expected to use in his actual place of work. This method is most suitable for sensitive operations where maximal perfection is expected. The purpose is therefore to enable perfection at work place.

5. Apprenticeship Method: This involves the acquisition of skill through extensive practice for over a period of time by the trainee. This type of manpower development device could either be formal or informal. In the informal environments the trainee is attached to the trainer, and he/she is expected to pay for an agreed period of apprenticeship (Nongo 2005). In the formal environment on the other hand, an employee of an organization could be placed under apprenticeship in the organization with pay.

6. Enhanced Regulatory Method: The method of an enhanced regulatory capability is on the part of government for effective enforcement of manpower policies. This is quite indispensable based on the need to ensure quality manpower development irrespective of sex, class, ethnic affiliation etc. These points could best be appreciated considering the liberal nature of most government policies which tend to snowball into elitist benefit in terms of policy outcome.

7. Internally and Externally Method: The need for government to be persuasive in making organizations embraces well designed policies at improving the development of manpower in Nigeria are both (a)internally and (b)externally.

(a) Organizations should be made to see reasons why a careful manpower development plan should form part of their function and objectives during there planning. As a matter of seriousness and urgency, the success of organizations should not only be measured in terms of the magnitude of profit through the adoption of outdated personnel administration technique, but, basically on the contribution of the organization in enlarging the confidence of its workers through manpower development.

(b) The external factor involves the contribution of organizations to the development of manpower through financial support meant to boost adult education, vocational education, and specialized research institutes etc. in which the individual end-up being a useful tools to the development of the economy.

However, The tools and methods for manpower development in organizations differs, and it is largely determined by the objectives of organizations, the idiosyncrasy of management staff or the chief executive, the organizational policy, as well as the organizational environment. Thus, it is a common feature to see methods for manpower development varying from one organization to the other, just as a given organization can be tailored at adopting different methods at different times or a combination of techniques at the same time.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This paper have been able to situate what could be referred to as manpower underdevelopment to socio-economic and political problems in Nigeria by looking at the problems that could limit the capacity of expansion in education to stimulate growth and development such as under-employment, low absorptive capacity, shortage of professionals, regional imbalances, brain-drain, poverty, political instability and economic underdevelopment.. The persistence of many of the problems in spite of the various policy formulation and responses points to the need for a more focused, responsive, functional and qualitative educational system. To contribute significantly to economic growth and development, education must be of high quality and also meet the skill-demand needs of the economy.

It is not a noble achievement for any sector of the economy to exist for years only to make a negligible contribution to economic growth, which is not commensurate with its life span and investment. There is a need for more commitment by the authorities not to interfere with decisions such as curriculum or teachers' responsibilities. Parents should not wish to fulfill their life expectations in their children by selecting careers for them or by suggesting subjects that they should study. They should not also encourage or assist their children and wards to purchase certificates.

Government, in its employment policies, should lay more emphasis on specialization and competence rather than paper qualifications.

From this background, it is therefore important to conclude that manpower development as a concept and method should be able to take its rightful place as a tool for development in Nigeria through the recognition of the fact that it is the most active and indispensable in the process of production even at the global age.

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NEWSPAPER COVERAGE OF THE DETHRONEMENT OF DEJI OF AKURE: A STUDY OF THE NATION, NIGERIAN TRIBUNE AND NIGERIAN COMPASS

IFEDAYO DARAMOLA

**Department of Mass Communication
Adekunle Ajasin University, Akungba-Akoko,
Ondo State, Nigeria.**

&

MONISOLA OMOTAYO

**Department of Mass Communication
Adekunle Ajasin University, Akungba-Akoko,
Ondo State, Nigeria.**

&

AJIBOLA OLARINOYE

**Department of Mass Communication
Adekunle Ajasin University, Akungba-Akoko,
Ondo State, Nigeria.**

ABSTRACT

Countries of the world where the traditional institution still exist, it is a highly respected Institution. The institution exists side by side the modern government. In Nigeria, the traditional institution held sway before the colonial government as the only recognized government in each community or town. The institution is symbolized by a traditional ruler who is called by different titles – Oba (Yoruba), Igwe or Eze (Igbo); Obong (Calabar); Emir (Northern part of Nigeria); Etsu (Nupe) etc. In England, the traditional ruler is simply the king or queen. The traditional ruler (king or queen) is the custodian of the tradition of his/her people. He maintains the custom and the value system of the society. By his position, he is expected to be a man of integrity, who never engages himself in untoward acts. Any thing contrary to the expected character of the king is rebuffed, and rejected by the people, including the press which is the minor of the society. This was exactly what the traditional ruler of Akure, Oba Oluwadare Adesina did on Sunday, October 30, 2010 when in the company of two chiefs and his new wife, he went out of the palace to beat up his first wife, Olori Bolanle in her private house, two kilometer away from the palace and poured a substance alleged to be acid on her. This action became a press affair and was seriously condemned by all. The data based study employed content analysis as a methodology to determine the objectivity or otherwise of press coverage of the incident. The study also relied heavily on ethical theories as its theoretical framework. The study concluded by saying that the newspaper were fair in their reportage of the incident as the coverage was based on the true stories of what the traditional ruler did which was considered by the generality of the public as unethical, undignifying behavior and a breach of Yoruba value system.

Key Words: Traditional ruler, Akure, Beat up, Acidic substance, Unethical, Undignifying, Reportage, Yoruba value system, Content Analysis.

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The data-based study set out to examine the coverage of the dethronement of the traditional ruler of Akure, Oba Oluwadare Adepoju Adesina (Osupa III) Ondo State Nigeria by looking among other things, the magnitude and frequency of coverage of the deposed king using content analyses as a research design to determine these variables including objectivity or otherwise of Nigerian Newspapers having regard to the fact that a traditional ruler is a very important personality in Nigeria.

Four research questions were raised. The first is what was the magnitude of the press coverage of the deposed monarch? Second, did the press precipitate the Deji's dethronement? Third, what was the degree of objectivity of the press report on the dethronement of Deji Akure? The last question is concerned with the depth of reportage: what was the depth of coverage by the press using paragraphs of the stories as determinant? Three newspapers – *The Nation*, *Nigerian Tribune* and *Nigerian Compass* were content analyzed.

INTRODUCTION

The traditional institution is an important institution in Nigeria and other climes where the institution is still in force. The traditional institution is symbolized by a traditional ruler often referred to as king or queen who is the custodian of the people's tradition and culture. Traditional institution was a known institution in Europe up till 17th Century when many of the countries began to take up arms against the monarchy. It is on record that in 1688, the people of England deposed their king. This action later resulted in constitutional monarchy.

News writing is a universal feature of the press. Activities concerning a traditional ruler cannot but received the attention of newspaper, radio and television because of the personality involved.

On Sunday May 30, 2010 by 5.30PM, the traditional ruler went to his estranged first wife *Olori* Bolanle in the company of another wife to beat her up and poured a substance purported to be acid on the *Olori* which caused her skin a severe damage. After the incident, the Deji said in a statement made to the police that he went for the traditional rites which would formally terminate *Olori* Bolanle of being an *Olori*. On sighting this, the brothers of the *Olori* along-side some others vandalized the king's vehicle (Pathfinder jeep) and later the scene turned to a free-for-all fight. The incident shocked most Nigerians including the Press which saw the incident as an unusual occurrence. The Deji, Oba Oluwadare Adesina was thereafter dethroned by the Ondo State government. Until his dethronement, Oba Oluwadare Adesina had his short reign enmeshed in several crises ranging from alleged dethronement of some notable chiefs and constant harassment of land owners and extortion even from taxi drivers and market women (TELL, June 2010).

The Yoruba land as a whole is known for its rich culture in which traditional rulers are revered to a very high esteem. They believe the monarchs are the second to the gods, hence, they are called "*Oba alase ikeji orisa*" (king, the ruler and second-in-command to God) (Olu-Aderounmu, 2005). Akure, the Ondo State capital has a rich culture and according to 1991 chieftaincy law two ruling houses, the Osupa and the *Ojijigogun* ruling houses both from *Asodeboyede* ruling house were recognized. The *Ojijigogun* comprises of Adesida, Faturoti and Arosoye, the Osupa had only one house and some unspecified descendants. Adesida royal family had provided good leadership starting from Oba Afunbiowo Adesida I (the longest reigning monarch in Akure) who reigned for 60 years (1897 – 1957). He was succeeded by Oba Ademuwagun Adesida II a lawyer and the son of the former king (1957-1973). Ademuwagun was succeeded by Oba Adelegan Adesida III (1975 – 1991), when Oba Adelegan passed away he was succeeded by his brother Oba Adebobajo Adesida IV (1991-1999) (Ogunjobi and Abimbola, 2003). At the death of Oba Adebobajo Adesida, Osupa royal house was tipped to produce the next king. This paved the way for interested members of the Osupa royal house to contest for the exalted office of the king of Akure. On March 12, 2003, Prince Adegbola Adelabu (a.k.a. Ileri) was elected by the kingmakers to mount the stool, but his election was rebuffed by the people of the town claiming that he was not an indigene. Thereafter, Prince Oluwadare Adepoju Adesina was enthroned but since he took over the throne his attitude was unroyal and ignoble. Many of his subordinates and supportive chiefs cautioned the traditional ruler but he would not soft pedal. He introduced hooliganism, gangsterism and brigandage to a supposed dignified position of a traditional ruler.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study is anchored on ethical theory. Ethics is a branch of philosophy that studies morality of man and by extension, the society. Ethics is from the Greek word, *Ethikos* (moral) and *Ethos* (character) which refers to the values or rules of conduct held by a group or individuals. Hence, it is associated with moral philosophy. To that extent, ethics refers to a code of morality, or system of moral principles that governs the appropriate conduct of a group and that of its members.

Ethics as moral philosophy is according to Okunna (2003 : 1-2) that branch of knowledge which is concerned, with the standards of good or bad conduct in society, using societal norms as a basis for the evaluation of human conduct or behaviour. Omole (2000) as cited by Okunna (Ibid) goes further to say that ethics is shared

normative values, which any society holds dear, and are used to judge the behaviour or performance of any member of that society, particularly traditional rulers who are supposed to be custodians of the custom of the society. Ethics set out the minimum of acceptable behaviour, which any member should attain to be regarded as a good ambassador of the society.

Ethical theories according to Rossouw (1994) propose the appropriate reasons on which our moral decisions should be based and have been developed to identify how we should determine what is actually good, not only for ourselves but also for others. An Ethical theory is defined as a principle put forward to explain, describe or predict human ethical behaviour.

The easiest way for a man to ruin his life is to lose his character and that was exactly what happened in the case of the traditional ruler in question when he fought his wife in the public, against the tradition, custom and value system of the society. As a result of the action, he was rejected by the general public and hence his dethronement by the state government. Nonetheless, human history is filled with numerous stories illustrating human cruelty as well as strong position on respecting others (Obono et al, 2006).

METHODOLOGY

This study examines newspaper coverage of the dethronement of the traditional ruler of Akure, Ondo State, Nigeria Oba Oluwadare Adesina (Osupa III) by Ondo State government in 2010. The selected research design for this study is content analysis so as to provide more reliable data for better understanding of the coverage of the incident by Nigerian newspapers.

Content analysis is a systematic method commonly used in media studies to describe and analyze media content in a more comprehensive way, a way less prone to subjective selectiveness and personal opinion. Evidence of long use of content analysis in communication research attested to its pedigree.

In an attempt to provide a dependable definition to the method, Walizer and Wienir (1978) say it is any systematic procedure devised to examine the content of recorded information. Krippendorf (1980) who cites an 18th Century Swedish study of ninety hymns of unknown authorship as one of the earliest documented cases of quantitative content analysis of printed texts, defines the method as a research technique for making replicable and valid references from data to their context (Hansen et al, 1998:91-129). A classic definition was provided in 1952 by Bernard Berelson in his book, *Content Analysis in Communication Research*, a text that popularized content analysis as a recognized method by media scholars. Berelson (1952:18) defines the method as a research technique for the objective, systematic, and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication. Kerlinger (1986) must have supported Berelson when he defines content analysis as a method of studying and analyzing communication in a systematic, objective and quantitative manner for the purpose of measuring variables. Both Berelson and Kerlinger's definitions are similar in one respect. They both emphasize systematicity, objectivity and quantitateness of data. This brings to bear that content analysis as a systematic method permits selection of content according to explicit and consistently applied rules. Kerlinger (1986:525) draws home the importance of content analysis when he says, "one important characteristic of content analysis is its general applicability, especially now that the use and availability of computers make its application much easier than it used to be."

The purpose of adopting content analysis method for the study is premised on the fact that instead of interview and survey which may prove difficult to reach participants and those affected in the incident the communications, or texts that people have produced, printed and documented, are used to answer research questions

There is no gain saying the fact that some of the merits of content analysis method cannot be found in other research method, it must be placed on record that content analysis is not use to measure variables, rather it is used to determine the magnitude of coverage and frequency of various communication phenomena. With these, a researcher can draw inference of whether certain contents are favourable, unfavourable or neutral to a particular individual or cause. As already pointed out else where in this study and would be seen later, content analysis method will reveal whether some newspapers are biased against the deposed traditional ruler or not. It would also reveal the degree of objectivity of certain newspapers and their neutrality.

BRIEF HISTORY OF THE DETHRONED KING

The five year reign of the Deji of Akure, Oba Oluwadare Adepoju Adesina, Osupa III who mounted the throne of his fore fathers on November 26, 2005 ended abruptly on Thursday, June 10, 2010 when the

Ondo State government deposed him from the throne (Oladoyinbo, *ibid*). Oba Adepoju who had lived in three countries in Europe returned to Nigeria to ascend the throne of the Deji of Akure on November 26, 2005. He immediately betrayed his inner flaws as a powerful character that could meet with tragic failings. He started by converting the spouse of one of his strongest financier and a bosom friend. He recruited hoodlums and social misfits to terrorize and extort illegal fees from individual traders and property developers.

He was also sending thugs, popularly known as 60 x 120 to displace people from lands legitimately acquired. According to Adekunle (2010), his lack of consultation and ability to take advice led to his misadventure, going by the Yoruba, and also Akure traditions. Many elders insisted that the alleged action of the monarch was a desecration of inviolable sacredness of royal authority and powers (*sharpedgenews.com*, (*ibid*). He also started acting contrary to tradition by coming up with unfounded allegations against his second-in-command, the Lisa, High Chief Folorunsho Davies and made attempt to remove him because he counseled the king against his untoward activities

In December 2009, he sat with *Sharpedgenews.com* for an interview, where he said nothing to dispel the allegation instead; he accused the Lisa of having enjoyed a degree of prominence that he was reluctant to yield after the *Deji* was crowned. He also took on the *Erelu* of Akure, Chief (Mrs.) Adefunmilayo Adekanye, who traditionally is the Woman Leader of the kingdom and demoted her for advising him to soft-pedal. He propped up the *Eyelobirin* with money and “enchantment” to be the woman head of the city. This did not go well with the kingmakers and important chiefs. He also became land speculators by laying claim to lands and towns that have long been adjudged as autonomous.

The king was allegedly encouraged by some highly placed chiefs in Akure to takeover territories already delineated as Akure North Local Government. The attitude and actions of Oba Adesina were met with stiff opposition by his chiefs who upbraided him. When they discovered that he was adamant they demanded that he should vacate the throne. Thirty two chiefs of Akure appended their signatures to the document on November 7, 2009 and demanded an apology from him when he failed to send the apology he was asked to vacate his Palace. He was however, saved by the state governor Dr. Olusegun Mimiko. Some other allegations as highlighted by Alade, (2010) are that Oba Oluwadare Adesina the banished Deji of Akure was found fighting on the street with various personalities in the town, among whom was a cement distributor, whom the ex-Deji fought because he was selling his cement at a subsidized price (TELL, June, 2010).

He also quarreled with the state police command when he wanted to forcefully eject the police from their land. This led to another face-off between him and the police. One of the king who advised him (king) against the action Chief Abegunde was seriously beaten by the ex-Deji in the public and was later admitted into hospital.

ROLES OF TRADITIONAL RULERS IN YORUBA LAND

The era preceding colonialism represented the golden age of traditional rulers in Nigeria. During the period, traditional rulers were the political, religious, cultural and economic leaders of their various communities. The traditional rulers were conceived by their subjects as divine beings whose authority was not to be questioned. On this basis, the Yorubas conceive and address their traditional rulers as *Oba alasejikeji orisa* (King, the ruler and second-in-command to God) (Olu Aderounmu, 2005). The traditional rulers are also addressed as *Kabiyesi*, (there is no question of any querying your authority). Under the British colonial rule, they became subordinates of the colonial exploitative objectives.

A traditional ruler is identified as the ruler or the most supreme or paramount sovereign in any village, town or city in Nigeria. In most cases, he is recognized by his subjects as their spiritual leader and chief custodian of traditions. He is seen as the soul of the community’s survival and progress. Generally, a traditional ruler is a carrier of the aura and regal splendor as well as dignity and power at every point of his appearance. The traditional rulers and their offices were to be accorded utmost reverence by the people whose thought was that doing otherwise could result in anger and punishment from the gods.

The power vested in the monarchs was reduced to the minimum with the military regime taking over the native authority (police), beginning from 1966 the prison and the court which had hitherto remained the instrument of social control in the hands of the traditional rulers were also taken over. They were not considered of any relevance as their input became minimal, non executive and external in local

government. Infact, they were obviously removed from the main stream of the decision making process. Section 178, of 1979 gave recognition to the monarchs and the traditional institutions by making them advisers to the executive arm of government. There was in each state, a council of chiefs or a council which according to section 140 sub-section I was to be represented in the council of state at the Federal level. This development appears promising to restore the monarchs back to their pride of place once again. The 1999 constitution did not carve out a visible area of responsibility for the traditional rulers beyond using them to mobilize the grassroots people such that the politicians saw them as a good means to attain electoral victory. The political class sees and uses traditional rulers as conduit for winning election. Some traditional rulers use their position to beg for contracts.

LITERATURE REVIEW

CONCEPT OF DETHRONEMENT

According to www.princeton.edu, dethronement means deposition, the act of deposing someone or removing a powerful person from a position or office. Audioenglish.net defines dethronement as the act of ejecting someone or forcing one out of a position. From English mini dictionary, dethronement can be defined as the art of removing a king or queen from power or to remove somebody from a position of authority. Usually, when a king or queen is known to have breached the tradition or commits act contrary to the tradition, the law permits the state exclusive council to dethrone him or her. Hence the removal of Oba Oluwadare Adesina is in consonance with the power vested on the state executive council.

HISTORY OF AKURE

Akure the capital of Ondo State is an ancient town in Yoruba land. Its origin is embedded in mutual co-existence and understanding. Indeed, its beginnings stemmed from a peaceful agreement between settlers. The primitive settlers who had pitched their tents around what is today Akure came to what looked like a round-table conference in which authority was conceded to one person while the other groups agreed to play the second fiddle. Oral tradition has it that there were many settlements scattered around the place, notable among these are the present *Upalefa*, *Igan*, *Ileru* along the present Oba Adesida Road, and *Odopetu Asodeboyede*, the grandson of Oduduwa came to these settlements to settle. (Olu Aderounmu, 2005).

According to Olu Aderounmu, (ibid) *Asodeboyede* was a farmer, warrior and a hunter of elephants. Like every Ife man having the royal blood running in his veins, *Asodeboyede* on arrival had the ambition to annex and unite the various settlements who were already finding it difficult to agree among one another who was to be the leader. With the active support of one *Ourokutu*, *Asodeboyede* became the compromised candidate to head the fragmented settlements. He thus merged them into a single geo-political entity known today as Akure and assumed the political and spiritual headship of Akure. The Oba (King) built his palace between the settlements, almost equidistant between *Odopetu*, *Upalefa* and *Omoloju*. But the credit of giving the united settlements the name Akure was not of his making. That went to *Omoloju* his successor who was a prince from Epe, a village ten kilometers North of Ondo town. He was believed to be the first person to settle on the site of Akure. Story has it that one day as he was trying to clear a bush path at a spot between *Isikan* and *Oke-Aro* junction of the present *Arakale* Road, the wrist beads (*Akun*) he wore in his hand broke (ibid).

This very spot where the beads cut was named "Akun-re" meaning a place where my beads broke. His name became *Alakunre*, thereafter, *Omoloju* then enstooled himself as *Alakunre*. The name *Akunre* was later contracted to *Akure* which sticks till today. In 1180, *Omoloju* became the *Deji* of *Akure*, he was the first Oba to wear beads. He reigned for 20 years. Between 1200 and 1313, eight kings reigned in quick succession before the enthronement of Oba *Obagbeyi* in 1313. *Obagbeyi* who was from *Oba-Ile* in *Akure* with full royal parentage reigned for 50 years (ibid). He was also credited with the establishment of *Erekesan* market and the introduction of *Isibi* dancers, a cultural organization that survives till date.

Akure has been fortunate to have a crop of far-sighted, progressive, courageous and magnanimous kings that played significant roles in the development of the town. Since the reign of Oba *Asodeboyede*, 45 Obas have reigned in the ancient kingdom. The modern rulers include Oba *Afunbiowo Adesida* (1), known as a philosopher king who enthroned the *Adesida* dynasty from 1897 till date. All the obas from *Adesida* dynasty have provided good leadership and promoted the image of *Akure*.

Akure became a state capital when Ondo State was created on February 3, 1976. The present *Ekiti* State was part of Ondo State until October 1, 1996 when it was carved out of the latter. Though

modernity is taking its toll, it has not lost touch with its cultural root. Akure has very rich cultural heritage. As from the end of June when new yam is harvested, a lot of festivals are celebrated. Most of the high chiefs have days set aside for “Odun ijesu titun”(new yam festival). (www.sunnewsonline.com). Other festivals include *Egungun, Ogun and Aeregbe festivals*. Nobody opens shop or hawks on *Aeregbe* day for fear of the goods being looted by *Aeregbe* worshippers.

AKURE MONARCHS

Olu Aderounmu, (2005), has diligently captured the history of Akure and his kings. The first Deji of Akure was Deji Asodeboyede (1150-1180). He was the first Deji in Akure land and the grandson of Oduduwa. Asodeboyede was said to be a farmer; warrior and a hunter of elephants. Alakunre (1180-1200AD) succeeded him. As earlier mentioned Alakunre was the first Oba to wear beads. According to history, when he was clearing a bush for farm, the beads on his wrist snapped. Later he decided to pitch his tent at this place which he named “Akunre” (a place where my beads snapped). Ogbolu (1200-1225) succeeded Alakunre; he was the son of the first Deji Asodeboyede. His mother hailed from Ita-Ogbolu. He left to become king in Ita-Ogbolu. When he left due to the conflicting reports on his kingship, he went to sell “ewe” (leaves) at the junction which was later called *Ita* (Junction). Ogbolu was made the king and was titled “elewe” of Ita Ogbolu. Odoro (1225 – 1245) a brother of Ogbolu reigned after him. He was an Ifa consultant. Odoro is credited for choosing a place where Obas should be buried at Obele. Obasisan was the fifth Oba in Akure land. His reign was peaceful and progressive in Akure. He was also the son of Asodeboyede, his real name was given as Sekungbola. He created Idiagba market which was patronized every 5 days (ibid). The kings of Akure are listed in the table below:

FIGURE 2
Shows the emergence of Akure Monarchs from (1150AD – 2010)

1.	ASODEBOYEDE	1150 – 1180
2.	ALAKUNRE	1180 – 1200
3.	OGBOLU	1200 – 1225
4.	ODORO	1225 – 1244
5.	OBASISAN	1245 – 1261
6.	OBARISAN	1262 – 1277
7.	OTEMOYE	1277 – 1287
8.	IMOLUMODE	1287 – 1299
9.	OLARAKO	1299 – 1305
10.	OJAZRAWA	1305 – 1313
11.	OBAGBEYI	1313 – 1363
12.	OGOGA	1363 – 1393
13.	EYE-ARO (FEMALE)	1393 – 1419
14.	ELESE OBAYE	1419 – 1434
15.	OLOFINLEYO	1434 -1474
16.	OLOFINJIGBAYAWO	1474 – 1494
17.	OBAWAIYE	1495 – 1513
18.	OBALUA	1513 – 1533
19.	OGUNJA	1533 – 1554
20.	OBA ALAYA	1554 – 1576
21.	ORIYA	1576 – 1599
22.	ATAKUMOSA	1599 – 1623
23.	ELEYOGBUTE	1623 – 1648
24.	GBOGI	1648 – 1678
25.	AMAYABEKUN	1678 – 1705
26.	EYEMON (FEMALE)	1705 – 1735
27.	ORUDU	1735 – 1748
28.	OSORO	1748 – 1768
29.	ARAKALE	1768 – 1818
30.	OGUNLEGBOJU	1819 – 1823
31.	AUSI	1823 – 1828

32.	AJALAGA	1828 – 1832
33.	OSUAN	1832 – 1834
34.	OSUPA	1834 – 1846
35.	AGBOYERE	1846 – 1849
36.	AMORO (AYO ERO) (FEMALE)	1850 – 1851
37.	OMOREMIOSUN	1851 – 1852
38.	OJIJOGUN	1852 - 1882
39.	ODUNDUN	1882 – 1890
40.	AROSOYE	1890 – 1897
41.	AFUNBIOWO ADESIDA I	1897 – 1957
42.	ADEMUAGUN ADESIDA II	1957 – 1973
43.	ADELEGAN ADESIDA III	1975 – 1991
44.	ADBOBAJO ADESIDA IV	1991 – 1999
45.	OLUWADARE ADESINA OSUPA III	2005 – 2010
46.	ADEBIYI ADEGBOYE ADESIDA	2010 TILL DATE

Source: (Entertainment Hope, March 2003, Vol. 1, No. 33, P.5).

The longest reigning Deji of Akure was Oba Afunbiowo Adesida (I) who reigned from 1897 to 1957. He became the king at the age of 65 and reigned peacefully for sixty (60) years as king. Infact, he was recorded as the best king that had ever reigned; his reign was seen as good and peaceful. His son, Adegunsoye Ademuwagun took over after him (1957-1973).

It took roughly 2 years for Deji Adelegan Otutubiosun Adesida III (1975 – 1991) to succeed Ademuggun. When Deji Otutubiosun joined his ancestors in 1991, it took less than a year for Deji Ataiyese Adebobajo Adesida (1991-1999), to succeed Adelegan. Deji Ataiyese Adebobajo passed away in 1999 at the age of 72 and it took nearly 6 years for the deposed Deji Oluwadare Adepoju Osupa III to succeed him on November 26, 2005 because of crisis and refusal of natives to accept Prince Adegbola Adelabu who was unanimously selected by the kingmakers on March 12, 2000. Indigenes of Akure rejected the choice of Adelabu on many grounds including that he has no royal blood. It was alleged that his father came from Idoani a town in Ondo State and his mother from Irese a village close to Akure. Besides, he was accused of being a shylock businessman who never forgives his debtors. But within five years, (November 26, 2005 to June 10, 2010) Oba Oluwadare Adepoju Adesina reigned as the Deji of Akure, he lost the right to the crown of the esteemed stool in June, 2010.

The king was deposed from the throne on June 10, 2010 by the government and thereafter banished to Owo, another town in the State, thus giving Akure kingmakers the chance to select another new king (www.thenationonline). Prince Adegboye Adesida, was subsequently elected and crowned to replace the deposed Oluwadare Adesina on August 12, 2010 as Afunbiowo II.

PROCEDURE FOR THE APPOINTMENT OF DEJI

By tradition the selection process of a new king in Akure starts three months after the death of a reigning king (Deji). The Akure town council meets under the leadership of the Olisa at the Ashamo's house in Idiagba quarters. All the titled men would attend with the addition of the head of minor groups (Youth) and the women chiefs, except members of the royal family.

The *Iwarefa mefa* proceeds to consider the names of all the eligible candidates for the throne, which must be Princes especially the sons of the immediate and past Deji provided, they were born in the palace after the succession of their father (Omo Ori Oye), their mothers are *Oloris* (Queens) who are recognized wives of the Deji, they are expected to be of good character without any special ailment.

Having gotten all their names, a cowry or a stone is given a special marking for each person. The Ashamo then whispers the names of each candidate to a respective cowry or stone all of which are then handed to the Oshinio, an Ifa priest, who proceeds to consult the oracle. He returns and hands back the cowry or stone which has the best portent, and after examination, the Olisa announces the name of the successful candidate.

The Ologboshere (the bodyguard to the king) is then dispatched with the *Erinshe Company* to fetch the man who emerges and his brothers who had run to their farms if any of them may feel inclined to vent the disappointment at their non election of the chosen man. The new candidate for Deji is brought by the Erinshe to his own house where he performs a ceremony named Ararapon. He is then taken to the Ashamo’s house for nine days during which he is expected to prove himself as capable of impregnating a woman. Thereafter he proceeds to Igbo Alakunre, the old site of the founder, Asodeboyede house.

All the townsfolk are present there and acclaim him as Deji by chorusing “kaabiyesi’, there he is carried by Ajana, the head of the Ogbe chiefs, to the oye’s house in the Idiagba quarters near Erekesan market, where he remains until he is taken to the *Afin* (palace) and a priest of the *Obalufin juju* called the Ejiro, places the crown on the head of a palace official called “*Saya*”, who removes it and places it on the Deji’s head. Only members of his personal family live in the *Afin* (Palace). The palace chiefs and messengers live in Erekesan around the market place.

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This study generally evaluates the way and manner in which the Deji of Akure’s dethronement was reported in the Nigeria Press using three national newspapers “*The Nation, Nigerian Tribune and Nigerian Compass*” as case studies.

For this study, the editions of May 31 to June 30 2010, were surveyed and studied, totaling 93 editions. Thus, only 58 editions that reported the dethroned Deji of Akure were content analyzed. Purposive sampling technique was adopted for the study.

The unit of analysis in the study were news, feature articles, letters-to-the editor, opinions/comments relating to the dethronement of the king as covered by the newspapers.

The categories of analysis were prominence, balance and frequency. However, this chapter seeks to answer all the research questions put forward on page one of this study.

RESEARCH QUESTION 1

What is the magnitude of Press coverage of the Deji’s action?

This question has to do with how often the Press reports the Deji’s dethronement in the three national dailies, the level of the occurrence and degree to which it was reported by the Press. This research question would be answered using:

1. Frequency (number) of coverage of the Deji of Akure’s dethronement.
2. Frequency of types/forms of story covered.

Table 1: Distribution according to the frequency of coverage

Types /Forms	The Nation	%	NigerianT ribune	%	Nigerian Compass	%
Straight News	12	50	14	71	14	90
Editorial	-	-	-	-	-	-
Features/opinion	7	29	2	8	2	10
Letter to the editor	-	-	-	-	1	5
Opinions/Comments	5	21	5	21	1	5
Special Interview						
Total	24	100%	24	100%	18	100%

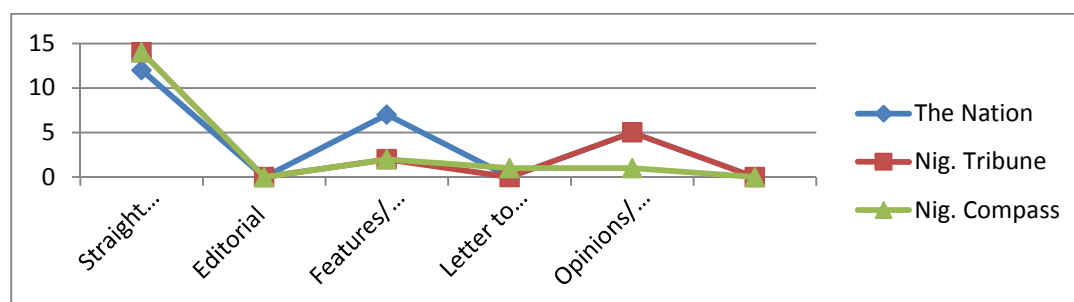


Table 1 above reveals that out of the 24 stories reported by *The Nation*, 12 (representing 50%) were straight results, 7 (representing 29%) were features while 5 (representing 21%) were opinions and comments. Similarly, *Nigerian Tribune* reported 17 straight news (representing 71%), 2 features (representing 8% and 5 opinions/comments (representing 10%) 1 letter to the editor (representing 5%) and 1 opinions comments (representing 5%).

The report indicates that in the distribution of Deji’s dethronement, into different forms/types.

News story has the highest frequency of 12 (representing 50%) in *The Nation*, 17 (representing 71%) on *Nigerian Tribune* and 14 (representing 70%) in *Nigerian Compass*. This is as a result of the incident which was sudden and new stories always come in short form. Besides, the news item goes straight to the point and saves the consumer the stress of reading lengthy stories.

Interpretation

This research question has to do with the position of the press in reporting the Deji’s dethronement. The level of importance the Press gave to the reportage of Deji of Akure’s dethronement. This would be answered and discussed by using:

1. The Front Page
2. The Back page
3. Inner page

The pages will be analyzed in *The Punch*, *The Nation* and *The Sun* within the period of study. The pages signify the importance the Press attached to its coverage using these three National news papers as case studies, one after the other. The front page stories are the most important, followed by back page and the inner respectively.

RESEARCH QUESTION 3

What is the degree of objectivity of the Press report on the dethronement of Deji of Akure?

The parameter for determining objectivity or otherwise of the newspapers are favourable, unfavorable and neutral stories reported on the Deji of Akure’s dethronement.

This question will be answered using:

The Balance in the reportage; that is, any article or write up that seems to justify or acquit the Monarch’s alleged acts. The negative stories are the ones that are unfavourable to the incident, the favourable stories supports the action of the king while neutral stories are ones that did not take side on the matter.

Distribution of reports in each of the newspapers according to balance.

From the analyses above, it can be deduced that reports about the dethronement of Deji of Akure were frequently used by the selected newspapers. Most of the reports were straight news stories while others also appeared as features, editorial and comments.

Table 2: Showing distribution of stories according to prominence

Position	The Nation	%	Nigerian Tribune	%	Nigerian Compass	%
Front page	8	42	14	58	16	50
Inner page	10	53	13	29	-	20
Back page	1	5	3	13	4	
Total	19	100	24	100	20	100%

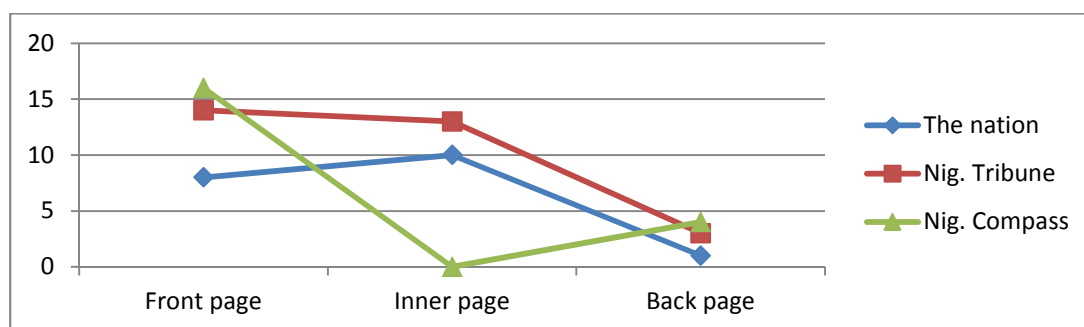


Table 2 above indicates the prominence of news reports according to position and importance attached to them. All the newspapers of study reported the incident in the front page to set agenda of discussion for the general public. Hence *The Nation* had 8 stories (representing 42%) but extended to the inner page with 10 stories (representing 53%), *Nigerian Tribune* had a total of 14 stories (representing 58%) out of a total of 24 reports in its front page while *Nigerian Compass* had 16 (representing 80%) of its total 20 report in the front page.

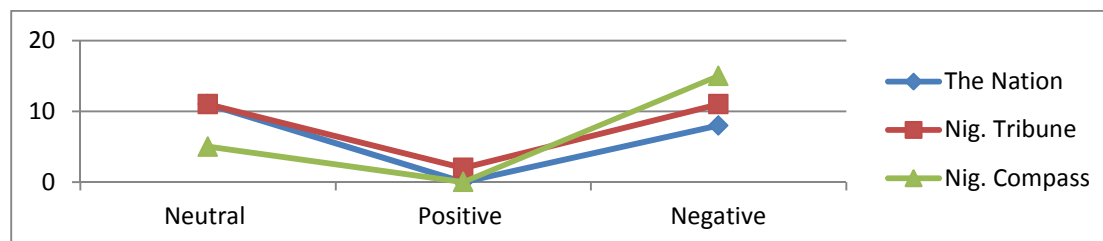
This report indicates that in the distribution of the of Deji of Akure’s dethronement stories into different pages, the front page has the highest occurrence of stories. The report also indicate that in *The Nation* 10 stories in (representing 53% were in the inner pages and 1 (representing 5%) appeared at the back page. *Nigerian Tribune* had 7 stories (representing 29%) in the inner pages and 3 stories (representing 13%) at the back page. Similarly, *Nigerian Compass* published 4 stories (representing 20%) at the back page.

Interpretation

It was clear from this analyses that *Nigerian Compass* gave more prominence to the incident more than other newspapers with 16 news stories (representing 80%). It can be inferred that Nigerian newspapers gave prominence to the incident.

Table 3.1: Showing distribution according to balance of the reportage of the dethronement of Deji of Akure by the selected newspapers

Balance	The Nation	%	Nigerian Tribune	%	Nigerian Compass	%
Neutral	11	58	11	46	5	25
Positive	-	-	2	8	-	
Negative	8	42	11	46	15	75
Total	19	100	24	100%	20	100%



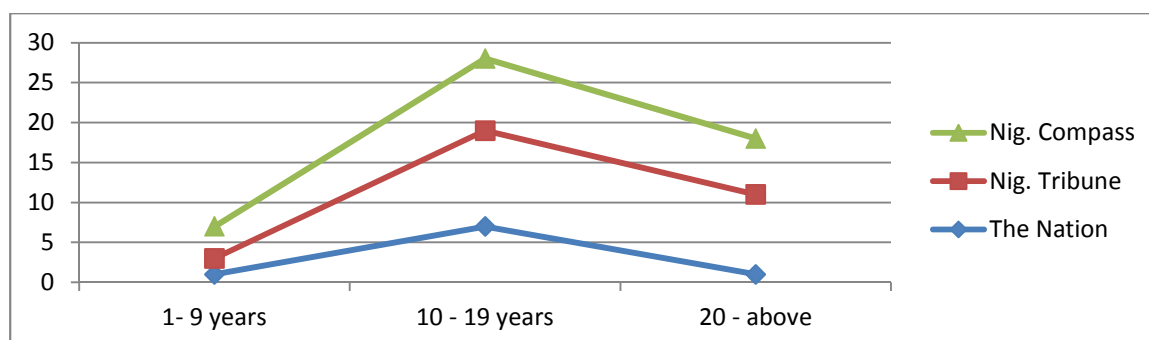
The data presented in Table 3 reveals that only *Nigerian Tribune* published 2 negative stories (representing 8%) of the total stories about the incident: *The Nation* published 11 neutral stories (representing 53%) and 8 negative stories (representing 42%); *Nigerian Tribune* had 11 neutral stories (representing 46%) and 11 negative stories (also representing 46%), *Nigerian Compass* published 5 neutral stories (representing 25%) and 15 negative stories (representing 75%) of its total reports.

Interpretation

It was clear from the above that Nigerian newspapers were amazed by the action of the king which amounted to a breach of the ethical codes of the society and desecration of the value system of Yoruba people and are exalted office he occupied.

Table 4.1: showing distribution of reports according to column

Columns	The Nation	%	Nigerian Tribune	%	Nigerian Compass	%
1 – 9	1	5	2	8	4	20
10 – 19	7	37	12	50	9	45
20 – above	1	5	10	42	7	35
Total	19	100%	24	100%	19	100%



The data in Table 4 above indicates that *The Nation* published 11 reports (representing 58%) in 1-2 columns, 7 reports (representing 37%) in 3-4 columns and 1 report (representing 5%) in 5-6 columns. *Nigerian Tribune* published 2 reports (representing 50%) in 3-4 columns and 10 reports (representing 42%) in 5-6 columns, while *Nigerian Compass* published 4 reports (representing 20%) in 1-2 columns, 9 reports (representing 45%) in 3-4 columns and 7 reports (representing 35%) in 5-6 columns.

Interpretation

The analyses above reveals that *Nigerian Tribune* level of reportage of the Deji of Akure's dethronement story was high as majority of the reports i.e. 12 (representing 50%) and 10 (representing 42%) were devoted to 3-4 and 5-6 columns respectively which are considered the most important as only 2 reports (representing 8%) appeared in 1-2 columns.

Similarly, *Nigerian Compass* also attached more importance to the reportage of the incident as 9 reports (representing 45%) and 7 reports (representing 35%) were devoted to 3-4 and 5-6 columns respectively which are considered the most important as 4 reports only (representing 20%) were published in 1-2 columns and considered the least important.

The Nation newspaper too, presented 11 reports representing 58% in 5-6 columns and 7 reports (representing 37%) in 3-4 columns which were also considered the most important only 1 report (representing 5%) was devoted to 1-2 columns and was considered the least.

RESEARCH QUESTION 4

What is the level of the reportage by the Press using columns as determinant?

The research question will be answered using space which is again determinant by

- column
- paragraphs devoted to each report.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The study of the newspaper reportage of the Deji of Akure's dethronement has been able to reveal the following:

- The Press lavishly reported the Deji's dethronement,
- Analysis revealed that the angle in which the Press reported the Deji's dethronement stories were mostly on the negative side.
- The Press devoted more columns and paragraphs to the Deji of Akure's dethronement giving it enough importance.
- The press gave enough prominence to the Deji of Akure's dethronement as majority of its stories were concentrated on the front page extending to inner pages.
- Majority of the stories were focused on the negative side, while the positive sides were ignored. This can be attributed to the phobia the Nigerian press already have for the traditional institution giving their pass deeds especially during the annulment of June 12 presidential election by General Babangida administration. Many of the traditional rulers were known to have compromised their stand and gave their support to the annulment.

CONCLUSION

This study has so far examined the way and manner in which the Deji of Akure's dethronement was reported in the Nigerian Press. The summary of findings therefore leads to the conclusion that the Press is a bit fair in its reportage of the Deji of Akure's dethronement.

This is supported by the Agenda Setting theory that news media raise issue to high level of importance and makes an issue an agenda of discussion (Daramola 2003) confirms this position when he said "there is

relationship between news coverage and public perception of the importance of news". The public was able to realize that what the king did was condemnable and punishable. Hence the deposition of the king was acclaimed as good by members of the general public.

Thus, the Press did report the Deji's dethronement in its dailies in a way that attracted people to lay much importance to the story.

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**SIR JOHN D. MACDONALD AND THE PRAGMATICS OF NATION-BUILDING IN CANADA:
LESSONS FOR NIGERIA**

ADEMOLA ADELEKE (Ph.D)
Department of History and Strategic Studies,
University of Lagos,
Lagos State, Nigeria.
aadeleke@unilag.edu.ng
+234-8023678865

ABSTRACT

The article is a study on the nation-building policies of Sir John A. Macdonald, Canada's first prime minister who led the Liberal Conservative government from 1867 to 1873 and from 1878 to 1891. Sir John was one of the 'fathers of Confederation,' the constitutional negotiation process that gave birth to the Dominion of Canada with the enactment of the British North American Act in 1867. Through what became known as the nation-building policies, Sir John transformed disparate and disaggregated territorial entities brought together by an act of the British parliament into an integrated transcontinental nation and in the process laid a solid foundation for the transformation of Canada into one of the most advanced economies in the world. The article analyzes Sir John's nation-building policies, his vision for his country, and how he manoeuvred through the maze of Canadian politics to bring these into fruition. The article uses the Canadian experience as a model for Nigeria whose citizens yearn for development and nation-building.

Keywords: Canada, Sir John A. Macdonald, Confederation, Nation-building, Nigeria

Introduction

Often times an individual, or a group of individuals, find themselves at a historical juncture that places in their path the opportunity to shape the destiny of their nation and chart the course for its subsequent development. These personages dot the pages of history and are easily recognisable as the "founding fathers" of their nations. The American founding fathers epitomise these historical figures.¹ Another such personage is Sir John A. Macdonald, Canada's first prime minister whose nation-building policies in the second half of the nineteenth century is the subject of this article.² Like the American founding fathers who got their acclaim for their role in framing the American constitution, Sir John was one of the 'fathers of Confederation,' the constitutional negotiation process that gave birth to the Dominion of Canada with the enactment of the British North American Act in 1867.³

1. The phrase, "founding fathers," was coined by United States Senator Warren G. Harding of Ohio in the course of his keynote address to the Republican Convention in Chicago on 7 June 1916. See R. B. Bernstein, *The Founding Fathers Reconsidered* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2009), 3-4. See also Colin B. Goodykoontz, "The Founding Fathers and Clio," *Pacific Historical Review*, 23, 2, (May, 1954), 111-123.

2. Sir John A. Macdonald was the prime minister in the Liberal Conservative government from 1867 to 1873 and from 1878 to 1891. After his death, the Liberal Conservatives continued in power until 1894.

3. On Confederation and the establishment of the Dominion of Canada see Ademola Adeleke, "Constructing a Nation through the Constitutional Process: The Canadian Experience," *Benin Journal of Historical Studies* Vol. 4, Nos. 1 & 2, (2002-2004), 81-103; R. D. Francis, R. Jones, and D. B. Smith, *Origins: Canadian History to Confederation* Fifth Edition (Toronto: Thomson Nelson 2004); P. B. Waite, *The Life and Times of Confederation, 1864 – 1867: Politics, Newspapers, and the Union of British North*

Through what became known as the nation-building policies, Sir John transformed disparate and disaggregated territorial entities brought together by an act of the British parliament into an integrated transcontinental nation and in the process laid a solid foundation for the transformation of Canada into one of the most advanced economies in the world. What were in the nature of these nation-building policies? What was Sir John's vision for his country, and how did he manoeuvre through the maze of Canadian politics to bring this into fruition? These are some of the questions explored in this article. The article seeks to use the Canadian experience as a model for countries such as Nigeria whose citizens yearn for development and nation-building.

Pragmatic Politics and Nation-Building in Canada

The enactment of the British North American Act by the British House of Commons in March 1867 transformed the British North American colonies into the Dominion of Canada, a transcontinental state allied to the United Kingdom but independent of the United States. The process, known in Canadian history as *Confederation*, was initiated in 1864 to resolve the conflict arising from the co-existence of English and French speaking Canadians in the British North American colonies of Upper and Lower Canada.⁴

Although the Dominion came into being in 1867, not even the territorial objectives of Confederation, which was to create a transcontinental nation extending from the Pacific coast in the west to the Atlantic coast in the east, had been attained. On the Atlantic coast, Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland remained outside the Dominion. The colony of British Columbia, created in 1866 when the mainland territory of British Columbia was merged with Vancouver Island, lay far out on the Pacific coast, with little or no connection with the Dominion except a common British heritage. And separating British Columbia from the Dominion was the thousands of square miles of territory, Rupert's Island, controlled by the Hudson's Bay Company and therefore outside the jurisdiction of the new state. For all practical purposes, the Dominion was in being, but it was yet to integrate all its territories into a state, much less fuse its people into a nation.

The United States remained a potent threat to the Dominion. American interests were heavily present in Rupert's Island. Even though the 49th Parallel was expected to delineate the boundary between the United States and British North America, Americans considered Rupert's Island, which was not under any sovereign entity, available for the picking. The purchase of Alaska from Russia, on the very day in March 1867 when Her Majesty signed the British North American Act, was a pointer to the threat, which America's *manifest destiny* posed to the survival and territorial integrity of the Dominion.

Within the Dominion itself, there were strong annexationist sentiments held by those who believed that the young state could not resist the pull of geography and would do well to join the United States. The Dominion would also have to resolve its relations with its native and half-breed population. In short, after Confederation, Canada remained "a geographical expression," according to the country's first Prime Minister, Sir John A. Macdonald, until he could implement his nation-building proposals.⁵

Students of Nigerian history would find the description of the Dominion of Canada as a "geographical expression" most familiar. The late sage and politician, Chief Obafemi Awolowo, had used the same

America Third Edition (Toronto: Robin Brass Studio, 2001); J. M. S. Careless, *The Union of the Canadas: The Growth of Canadian Institutions, 1841 – 1857* (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1967); Phillip Bucker, "CHR Dialogue: The Maritimes and Confederation: A Reassessment," *Canadian Historical Review*, LXXI, 1 (March 1990), 1-45; R. C. Vipond, "1787 and 1867: The Federal Principle and Canadian Confederation Reconsidered," *Canadian Journal of Political Science*, XXII, 1 (March 1989), 3-25.

4. See Adeleke, "Constructing a Nation"; Waite, *The Life and Times of Confederation*.

5. *Nation-building: the Transcontinental Railroad*. The CBC Digital Archives Website. Canadian Broadcasting Corporation. <http://archives.cbc.ca/politics/prime_ministers/topics/1456-9692/> (Accessed 29.11.2011).

expression to describe Nigeria.⁶ Both Canada and Nigeria faced formidable obstacles of nation-building, national integration, national cohesion and economic and social development after their emergence into statehood; the former in 1867 with the establishment of the Dominion, and the latter almost a century later in 1960. For Sir John, Canada remained a geographical expression in the 1860s because the business of Confederation remained unfinished. He was conscious of this and was determined, as he informed his friend James Cowan, “to complete the work of Confederation.”⁷

As the architect of Canadian nation-building, Sir John and his Conservative Party government did not spend their time creating a vision document. He was a transformational leader who envisioned his country’s future but was pragmatic enough to realise that actualising that vision would require adroit manoeuvring through the mucky waters of partisan politics. “I am satisfied,” Sir John told parliament in 1865, “to confine myself to practical things—to the securing of such practical measures as the country really wants.”⁸ To create the nation he envisioned out of “scanty and refractory materials,”⁹ he fashioned solutions based on the expediency of power and politics.

In January 1869, the Dominion government purchased and extended sovereign control over Rupert’s Land, owned originally by the Hudson’s Bay Company. However, its attempt to take administrative control of the territory ran into resistance from the Métis, frontiers-people and settlers of French and Native American ancestry. Fearing that government control of the territory would affect their land rights and threaten their hunting way of life the Métis, led by Louis David Riel, launched the Red River Rebellion against the Dominion government. The government prevailed over the rebellion in 1870 and shortly thereafter carved the territory into the province of Manitoba and the Northwest Territories.

British Columbia joined the Dominion in 1871 after the government of Sir John pledged to connect the province to the rest of Canada by railway. When Prince Edward Island also joined the Dominion in 1873, Canada was transformed into a truly transcontinental state, stretching from the Pacific to the Atlantic. How could this immense territorial space be integrated into a *nation* and how could the nation be placed on the right trajectory towards economic and social development? How could the concept *Canadian* be made meaningful to societies as distinct and distant as British Columbia and Prince Edward Island? Sir John and his cabinet saw these as questions of nation-building and responded accordingly.

The nation-building programme initiated by the government had three major components: the development of the country’s manufacturing base through tariff protection; the settlement of the west; and the construction of a transcontinental railway. However, as a seasoned practitioner of pragmatic politics, Sir John did not articulate these programmes at the same time; he also did not consider them as part of an integrated master plan designed by the government with pre-determined outcomes. The government did not produce a vision document based on any global index or comparison. On the contrary, Sir John determined what he considered to be the immediate needs of the new state, and worked within the limits of the prevailing political dynamic to attain the his goals. The government considered each of the programmes to be critical to nation-building and took practical measures to actualise them.

The construction of the transcontinental or Pacific Railway was the commitment the government made to get British Columbia into the Dominion. The government promised to begin the railway within two years after British Columbia joined the union and to complete it within ten years. Yet, the magnitude of the enterprise and the difficulties it would have to overcome were formidable indeed.

⁶ Obafemi Awolowo, *Path to Nigerian Freedom* (London: Faber and Faber, 1966), 47-48.

⁷ Quoted in Donald Creighton, *John A. Macdonald: The Old Chieftain*, Vol. 2 (Toronto: Macmillan of Canada, 1955), 111.

⁸ Province of Canada, *Debates* (1865), 1002. Cited in Rod Preece, “The Political Wisdom of Sir John A. Macdonald,” *Canadian Journal of Political Science*, 17, 3 (Sep., 1984), 465.

⁹ J. H. Aitchison, “Sir John A. Macdonald: Nation-Builder,” *The Canadian Journal of Economics and Political Science*, 22, 4, (Nov., 1956), 549.

Opponents of the project questioned the wisdom of building a 3000-mile line through unchartered territory, at enormous cost, just to bring 28000 “whites” in British Columbia into the Dominion. Was not the Union Pacific-Central railway in the United States an example of such financial folly? That line had been completed in 1869. Yet, in spite of the fact that California had a population of 2 million out of a total population of 39 million, the railway was a financial disaster by 1874. The Pacific Railway, its opponents argued, would suffer an even worse fate.

Critics of the Pacific Railway project also pointed to the financial problems of the Intercolonial Railway (renamed the Canadian National Railway, now North American Railways), which had been funded by the federal government to link the Maritime Provinces of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia with Montreal in Quebec, central Canada. If the Intercolonial, which passed through settled territory, was losing an estimated one million dollars a year, what would be the fate of the Pacific Railway, which was six times as long and would chart a course through uninhabited territory with formidable engineering difficulties? For the government’s critics the Pacific Railway would be an economic disaster, a perpetual drain on the resources of the state.

As it happened, the strongest opposition to the Pacific Railway came from members of the Liberal Party, which controlled the government of Ontario. Ontario had 45 per cent of the Dominion’s population and therefore carried a larger proportion of the tax burden. Hence, the province had a legitimate reason to be concerned about the project’s financial viability. Of even greater concern was the project’s interface with the politics of provincial relations. The Pacific Railway was expected to bypass Toronto, the commercial nerve centre of Ontario, and connect Montreal in neighbouring Quebec. Montreal, not Toronto, would reap the economic benefits of the Pacific Railway.

Like most issues in Canada, the transcontinental could not be disentangled from the political rivalry and competition between Ontario and Quebec. The competition was a reflection of the dialectic of “two nations” which was at the heart of Canadian history and politics. French-speaking Canadians were dominant in Quebec while Ontario was largely English-speaking. The Confederation programme that gave birth to the Dominion was motivated largely by the need to resolve the dilemma of “two nations.”¹⁰ While Ontario was not enthusiastic about the Pacific Railway, the project was critical to keeping British Columbia in the Dominion. It was also indispensable to maintaining the Dominion’s territorial integrity and transcontinental configuration. For Sir John, nation-building was impossible without the transcontinental railway. Without it, the state could hardly succeed in re-orienting the vision and character of its citizens from a north-south direction to an east-west *national* axis. The transcontinental was needed to infuse the new state with a Canadian essence.

It has been said of Sir John that he “had not perhaps a high code of political ethics,” that he often times “raised opportunism almost to the level of a political principle; yet it may be doubted whether a statesman of stricter views could have guided the destinies of Canada during the difficult period of his prime ministry...In many ways, the Dominion of Canada is today the creature of his statesmanship.”¹¹

These were indeed difficult times, not only for the Pacific Railway project but also for Sir John’s political career. The conjuncture between the project and Sir John’s political fortunes were brought home most vividly by the general elections of 1872. It happened that the government awarded the contract for the transcontinental to a syndicate organised by Sir Hugh Allen, a shipping magnate, railway promoter and financier. That was all right except that Sir Allen had contributed about \$350,000 to Sir John’s party’s campaign fund. The Liberal opposition got evidence of the contribution and charged that Sir John had sold the charter for building the railway to Sir Allen. Thus broke out the so-called *Pacific Scandal*, which forced Sir John’s government to resign in 1873. In the general election held shortly thereafter, the Conservatives were defeated overwhelmingly, and it appeared as if Sir John’s political fortunes had reached an inglorious end. Under the new Liberal government of Prime Minister Alexander Mackenzie, the Pacific Railway remained a dream, its actualisation made even more difficult by the depression that hit

10. See Adeleke, “Constructing a Nation”.

11. “Sir John A. Macdonald”, L’Encyclopédie de l’histoire du Québec/ <<http://faculty.marianopolis.edu/c.belanger/quebechistory/encyclopedia/SirJohnA.Macdonald-JohnAlexanderMacdonald-CanadianHistory.htm>> (Accessed 6 .4.2011)

Canada and the international financial market at the time. The downturn in the economy appears to have reinforced the prevailing view in the railway sector that the transcontinental could not be built ahead of western settlement.

Although the Mackenzie government was sympathetic to this view, it could neither ignore British Columbia's agitation for the railway nor the need to encourage western settlement. It nevertheless had to balance this with the prevailing depression. Consequently, the government decided to concentrate its efforts on improving communications with Manitoba while it negotiated with British Columbia for an extension of time for the transcontinental project. It also endeavoured to complete the Intercolonial Railway that linked the Maritime Provinces to the Dominion.

The economic depression of the mid-1870s brought the debate on unrestricted commercial reciprocity with the United States to the fore of national discourse. The United States had abrogated its reciprocal trade agreement with Canada in 1868. Since then, free trade Liberals across the country had canvassed for a renewed treaty with the United States. Attempts in this direction resulted in the Treaty of Washington, which came into effect in 1873. The treaty abolished tariff on Canadian fish exports to the United States. However, the American Customs Department put a catch to it when it ruled that the manufactured metals used for canned lobsters were subject to duty. The Americans were obviously reluctant to abide by the spirit of the treaty.

The ascension of the Liberals to power in a period of economic depression provided free trade advocates with the opportunity to pursue their alternative. What was needed, the free traders argued, was a comprehensive reciprocal trade agreement. Towards this end, the Mackenzie government initiated negotiations with the United States in March 1874. The American Secretary of State, Hamilton Fish, insisted that Canada would have to retain her tariff regime against Britain as a precondition for a Canada-US reciprocal agreement. Such a proposition was, understandably, distasteful to Canada. However, in the face of American insistence, the Liberal government agreed, albeit reluctantly.

If the Liberals found the draft treaty acceptable, other interests in the country found it completely repugnant. The public debate on the draft treaty revealed a strong protectionist sentiment in the country. As far as these interests were concerned, the draft treaty was an attempt to impose commercial union, which Liberals and other annexationist sympathizers had promoted since Confederation. The protectionists argued that commercial union would lead to political union with the United States, and that there was little to differentiate commercial union from unrestricted reciprocity. Hence, unrestricted reciprocity implied, in the final analysis, annexation. This was the nature of the argument against the Liberal-sponsored policy of commercial reciprocity between Canada and the United States.

At the vanguard of the league of opposition to the draft treaty were the manufacturers. They asserted that their American counterparts were already using Canada as a slaughter market, a convenient market for dumping. To be sure, Canadian manufacturers faced serious competition from stronger and better-capitalised industries in Britain and the United States.

Canadian manufacturers were undoubtedly motivated by enlightened self-interest. There was nevertheless congruence between this sectoral interest and the popular demands for work and development across the national firmament. Since the abrogation of the first reciprocal trade agreement, Canadian manufacturers had come to dominate the domestic market for processed goods, from agricultural machinery to soap and candles. Their business had also been boosted by the huge export opportunities created by the American civil war and the rapid development of transportation in Canada. It was therefore logical for them to believe that the domestic market was theirs by right. Canadians were also happy with the situation since the manufacturers' gains translated into more work for the citizenry and more development for the country. What both parties needed from the government was tariff protection to strengthen indigenous control of the domestic market and accelerate the process of development. Canadian manufacturers wanted tariff protection, Canadian citizens wanted work and development, hence the two found common cause in opposition to the draft treaty. When the Manufacturers Association of Nova Scotia passed a resolution asking the federal government to inaugurate protection and not reciprocity, this received wild acclaim across the country.

Unable to resist the pressure and popularity of the manufacturers' argument the Mackenzie government reluctantly agreed to raise tariff by twenty per cent, only to abandon the policy when it was criticised by free trade liberals. As events later proved, this costly political error would keep the Liberals out of power for the next eighteen years.

For a pragmatic politician like Sir John, the debate on tariff protection offered excellent opportunity to redress his political misfortune. While the Liberals were willing to swim against the tide of popular sentiment, Sir John realised immediately that the growing power of the manufacturers and the swing in public opinion towards protectionism could be harnessed for political purposes.

In 1876, he moved a motion in the House of Commons for a tariff policy that would benefit manufacturers, workers and farmers, in essence, a broad spectrum of the electorate. From this point forward, Sir John, whom the Liberals thought was washed out politically, began his inexorable ride back to power, on the crest of tariff protection. Having seized the political initiative Sir John also deployed a tactical strategy that conferred enormous political advantages on the Conservatives in the competition for power with the Liberals. Sir John believed that the word *protection* evoked negative images, which could offer his political opponents with some room to manoeuvre. He therefore appropriated the phrase *National Policy* to describe what was in reality a programme for tariff protection. In the 1878 general elections, Sir John and the Conservatives campaigned on a *National Policy* programme that would stimulate domestic manufacturing through higher tariff regime.

The *National Policy* evoked a pan-Canadian ideology that was in consonance with the nationalist sentiments of the electorate. Sir John's evocative statement to the voters: "There has risen in this country a Canadian Party which declares we must have Canada for Canadians"¹² doomed the Liberals and their free trade agenda. The Conservatives crushed the Liberals and took over power, with Sir John back in the saddle as Prime Minister.

In its first budget in March 1879, the new government implemented a tariff regime that imposed duties ranging from fifteen to thirty per cent on manufactured goods. It also imposed special duties on agricultural produce. The *National Policy*, Sir John told the House of Commons, would be permanent and would ensure a steady growth of Canada's industrial capacity. The principle of permanence guaranteed for the Conservatives the financial support of the manufacturers and the electoral support of workers and farmers, in essence, the Canadian electorate.

In 1880, the government made fresh attempts to charter the Pacific Railway. The contract was finally awarded to a syndicate led by the railway financier, George Stephen. Even then, it required adroit manoeuvres by Sir John to bring the project to fruition. We should recall that the first attempt to charter the project had precipitated the Pacific Scandal that led to the political demise of Sir John. Upon his return to power, Sir John prevailed successful on parliament to grant a loan to the Canadian Pacific Railway Company, CPRC. In March 1885, the company exhausted its funds and decided to seek another loan from the government. At this juncture, even the Conservative caucus was prepared to allow the company to go under. With the House of Commons unwilling to entertain another request for a bailout loan, the future of the railway appeared to be doomed. However, Sir John saw things differently; the CPR was more than an economic or financial project; it was a political imperative; a tool of nation-building.

The Northwest Rebellion, which occurred in this gloomy period, provided the Prime Minister with a timely opportunity to prove that the nation's ability to settle and defend the west depended on successful completion of the CPR. As Donald Creighton has noted, Sir John believed that he "could use the railway to defend the west. He could use the west to justify the railway."¹³ Echoing the Red River Rebellion of 1869, the Northwest Rebellion was once again organised by the Métis and was led again by Louis David Riel. The need to put down the new rebellion provided Sir John the opportunity to rescue the Canadian Pacific Railway. By the time the last spike was driven on 7 November 1885, the project had consumed \$150 million out of which the syndicate invested \$62 million. The balance was covered by a government cash

12. Waite, *Life and Times*, 91.

13. Creighton, *John A. Macdonald*, 417.

subsidy of \$25 million, a land grant of 25 million acres worth \$25 million plus the \$38 million the government spent in building a 730-mile section, which it handed over to the company.

As Sir John had envisioned, the CPR brought immediate benefits to the nation. It carried large numbers of farmers and settlers to the west and set the stage for the development of the region's resources. It stimulated the region's wheat economy that began spectacularly at the turn of the century. It re-oriented the west into the mainstream of Canadian business, which, under the aegis of the *National Policy* tariff regime, was gradually expanding into a truly national economy. Although it was not planned as such, the CPR turned out to be very complementary to Sir John's *National Policy*.

In the Maritimes, where the decline of the shipbuilding industry had created serious economic crisis, the *National Policy* was embraced as the agent of economic growth. This expectation was largely fulfilled. Between 1881 and 1891, the industrial growth of Nova Scotia outstripped that of all other provinces in eastern Canada. With just a fifth of the country's population the Maritimes by 1885 contained eight of Canada's twenty-three cotton mills, three of its five sugar refineries, two of the seven soap factories, one of three glass works, the two steel mills, and six of the twelve rolling mills. Naturally, Maritime manufacturers expected that Nova Scotia would ultimately become Canada's foremost industrial centre. This expectation did not consider the effect of Sir John's *National Policy* on the central provinces as well. As in the Maritimes, the *National Policy* accelerated industrial development in Ontario and Quebec. In fact, by the 1880s, industrial combines sponsored by capitalists of the Montreal Stock Exchange had absorbed the community industries in the Maritimes. Montreal emerged as the hub of the integrated economy that Sir John's *National Policy* had created for the nation.

Expectedly, the general elections of 1882, 1887 and 1891 were contested on the platform of the *National Policy*. The economic boom of the 1880s was attributed easily to the *National Policy*. Justifiably or not, the two were linked organically in the minds of the electorate, offering Sir John and his party enormous electoral benefits. As long as the policy endured, Sir John remained in power. The victory of the Conservatives in the 1891 election, the fourth in a row, provided sufficient proof that the *National Policy* platform had percolated into the consciousness of all Canadians.

Sir John's effort at nation building was obviously a success story. Without any vision document or blueprint, but with an intuitive understanding of his country's needs and unparalleled pragmatic political skills, Sir John transformed disparate entities into a political and economically integrated nation. The foundation established at Confederation in 1867 was now firmly consolidated. By the time Sir John died in 1891, he had transformed Canada from a geographical expression into a Canadian nation. The nation could march into the twentieth century, confident that it had tamed the iniquities of its spatial dimensions.

Conclusion and Lessons for Nigeria

Nigeria and Canada are both creations of British imperialism. Nigeria is blessed with a population five times that of Canada. Both are among the most resource-endowed countries in the world. However, whereas Canada has evolved into one of the most advanced nations in the world, Nigeria remains by all indices one of the most underdeveloped. Fifty years after independence (1960-2010), Nigeria has changed little from the "geographical expression" Chief Awolowo observed in 1960. In spite of the country's enormous natural resources and huge income from petroleum, poverty abounds. Over eighty per cent of the population live on less than \$2 a day. The society is beset with numerous ethnic, religious and social conflicts, which underline the need for a fundamental restructuring and reorientation of the polity.

On 1st January 2012, the democratically elected government of President Goodluck Jonathan gave Nigeria's a Greek gift by eliminating the so-called fuel subsidy on Premium Motor Spirit, PMS, known locally as petrol. Overnight, the pump price of a litre of the product jumped from NGN65 to NGN141, (US\$0.40 to US\$0.87); an increase of 116 per cent. The prevailing sentiment across the national firmament was that the fuel subsidy should be retained since it was the only visible benefit Nigerian's derived from the social contract that binds citizens with their rulers. The policy was therefore against the grain of public opinion, and Nigerians responded with massive demonstrations and a debilitating 6-day strike across the country. They fought desperately to compel the government to reverse its policy. However, as far as the government was concerned, popular sentiments and expectations; the views of the citizenry from which it

derived its sovereign powers; counted for naught. The government was determined to have its way, and, in the end, only agreed to reduce the new price to NGN97.

Unlike the leadership in Nigeria, Sir John and his Conservative ministry formulated policies that were in consonance with prevailing sentiments across the country. When it was clear that most Canadians supported tariff protection, the government formulated policies that encapsulated this popular sentiment, and came out with a programme it described as the *National Policy*, which proved beneficial to the country and laid the foundation for development and nation-building.

The Canadian experience demonstrates that visionary leadership, not vision documents and slogans, provides the key to unlocking the process of nation-building. The leadership must have a vision of the future it desires for the nation and citizenry. However, actualising that vision; translating what is essentially a mental image into reality is a function of the competence and commitment of the leadership; on the leadership's ability to conceptualize and implement its programmes; and on its ability to weave through the nation's political process; in essence, on pragmatic politics. Above all, the leadership must accept and abide by the sanctity of the social contract that binds it to the citizenry. It must accept that its primary responsibility is the security and well-being of the citizenry, from which it derives its legitimacy and sovereign powers. Sir John recognised this and the result was the creation of the Canadian nation. This is the lesson of the Canadian experience, and it is worthy of emulation by Nigerian leaders.

HEALTH CARE SERVICES DELIVERY: THE QUEUING THEORY APPROACH

AYANDELE, I. A. (Ph.D)
Department of Business Management
University of Uyo, Uyo
Akwa-Ibom State, Nigeria.
yinksure@yahoo.com
+2348036706090

&

M.P. NNAMSEH (Ph.D)
Department of Business Management
University of Uyo, Uyo
Akwa-Ibom State, Nigeria.

Abstract

The problem of long queues and waiting time in public health centers has become a phenomenon that has persisted for some time now. This study examines the activities of public hospitals in Akwa Ibom state, Nigeria and discovers that most public hospitals have inadequate facilities to cope with the medical demands of the citizens (majority of whom can not afford the charges at private health centers). The study concludes that since the much expected of government is yet to be received, the long queues and waiting time by patients can be minimized using the queue principles. The Study therefore, recommends among others, service discipline and especially the round-robbing technique to health workers as an option for effective service delivery.

Keywords: health, public hospitals, medical demands, effective service delivery.

Introduction

It is a common feature to experience queuing or waiting on a line as one makes attempt to receive one form of service or another. Very often, we have queues or waiting lines formed at the airport, petrol filling stations, bank counters, bus stops, electoral registration and voting centers. Others include railway stations, traffic light junctions, sports stadium, doctors consulting rooms, etc. Similarly, queues according to Okon (2008) are found in industries, shops where machines wait to receive tools, in warehouses where parts and inputs wait to be used, in telephone exchanges where incoming calls wait to mature among others.

A queue is formed when either units requiring service - commonly referred to as customers, wait for service or the service facilities stand idle and wait for customers. This implies that some customers wait when the total number of customers requiring service exceeds the number of service facilities. Some service facilities stand idle when the total number of service facilities exceeds the number of customers requiring service.

Queuing theory is the formal study of waiting in line and is an entire discipline within the field of operations management. Queuing theory is usually applied in situations where imperfect matching between the customers and service facilities is caused by one's inability to predict accurately the arrival and service times of costumers. It can also be used to determine the level of service, in terms of service rate or the number of offering the service and the cost incurred due to delay in offering service.

Queuing systems sometimes have a **finite queuing**; the number of customers in the system is not permitted to exceed some specified number. This means that any customer who arrives while the queue is **“full”** is

refused entry into the queue. In the **infinite** queuing system, the number of customers in the system is permitted to exceed some specified number.

In the healthcare sector, queuing is a familiar situation in Nigerian hospitals and maternity homes. It is even more compounded in the government-owned health institutions where patients wait for long hours or a full day without accessing medical facilities. The increase in number of people waiting in lines in the government health care institutions could probably be due to the affordable cost of treatment as compared to privately owned health institutions.

This study identified problem of long queues in Nigerian government owned health institutions, which in most occasions have subjected patients to untold hardships. Waiting for long hours without receiving medical attention results in stress which may lead to aggravated and complicated health problems sometimes, emergency cases are not promptly handled which often result in preventable deaths. In other situations, some patients do stay back home and suffer in silence with their health problems for the fear that they may not have prompt access to medical facilities in the affordable government hospitals.

The pertinent questions that come to mind now are: is it good to wait for so long before getting medical attention? What could be responsible for it? Is there no ways these perpetual long queues can be reduced to shorten the waiting time of patients? What efforts have management of government health institutions made to address these problems? Could queuing theory be of help in defining a pathway towards ensuring an effective and efficient health delivery services in government owned health institutions?.

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study include the under listed, to;

- a. examine the immediate and remote causes of long waiting lines in Akwa Ibom State general hospitals;
- b. find out if these hospitals have adequate facilities (personnel, infrastructures and equipments); and
- c. find out the impact of long waiting time on patients satisfaction and perception in terms of the services they receive from these hospitals.

Assumptions of the Study

In the course of this study, the following assumptions were made: That:

1. The patients who join the queue are generated according to a poisson process, i.e. the number of patients generated until any specific time has a poisson distribution.
2. There is balking – that is, a situation where the customer refuses to enter the system and is lost if the queue is too long;
3. The behaviour of patients towards government owned secondary health facilities would be similar, and that the service mechanisms have similar levels of effectiveness.
4. The waiting time comprises of the time of arrival of a patient for registration, till when he has consulted with the doctor and prescription made for him.
5. Service is delivered when a patient is diagnosed by a doctor and prescription made. This terminates the service time.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Attempting a definition of queuing theory, Budnicks, Mcleakey and Mojena (2004) write thus: A queue is a waiting line of “customers” (units) requiring service from one or more “servers” (service facility). The first to develop a viable queuing theory was the French Mathematician S. D. Poison (1781-1840). He used this distribution function to describe the probability of a prescribed outcome after repeated iterations of occurrences. The most important application of queuing theory occurred during the late 1800s, when telephone companies had the problem of knowing the number of operators to place on duty at a given time. At the time, operator who physically connected a wire to a switchboard switched on all calls. Each customer required his operator’s services. At this point, supervisors were faced with the problem of how many operators to keep on the boards to address issues of operators that would remain idle for minutes at a time.

If too few operators, then they would be overwhelmed by supply, and perhaps never catching up until additional help was added ([www.reference@business.com/encyclopedia](http://www.reference.business.com/encyclopedia)). In 1913, A.K. Erlang, a telephone engineer, was responsible for the early theoretical developments in the area of queuing (Nehmias, 1997).

Types of Queuing System

Budnick, Mcleavey and Mojena (2004), have identified five (5) types of queuing systems in what they call “Queue-Server Configuration”. These are:

1. **Single Queue - Single Server:** This is a single queue of customers waiting for service and only one phase service is involved. In Okon (2008), this model was further broken down into three sub-models, which are

a. **Sub-model 1**

[(M/M/1)]: (& / FCFS) exponential.

The following features are noted about the model:

- i. Exponential distribution of inter-arrival time or poison distribution of arrivals.
- ii. Single waiting line with no restriction no length of queue (i.e. infinite capacity) and no balking or renegeing.
- iii. Queue discipline is “first-come-first-serve”.
- iv. Single service with exponential distribution of service time.

b. **Sub-model II [(M/M/I)]: & /SIRO)**

This sub-model is identical to sub-model I with difference only in queue discipline, SIRO. SIRO means service in random order.

c. **Sub-model III: [(M/M/I)]: (N/FCFS)}**

Exponential service, finite (or limited queue). This model is different from the system here any customer arriving when the system has already contained **N customer** does not enter the system and is lost. This confirms the analysis in the work of Urua (2008), on the priority discipline queuing model for emergency cases.

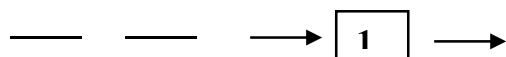


Figure 1: Single queue – single service

2. **Multiple Queue - Multiple Servers**

Multiple servers can be parallel, in series (tandem), or both.

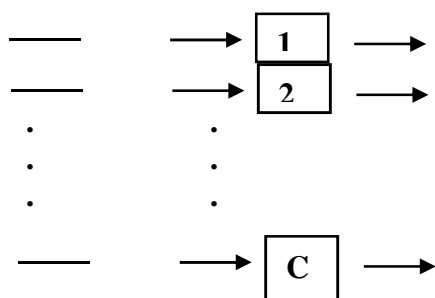


Fig. 2: Multiple queue – multiple servers in parallel

The above can be broken down into two

a. **Model (v) {(M/M/S): (∞/FCFS)}**

Exponential Service: Unlimited Queue

In this case, instead of single service channel, there are multiple servers in parallel equal to **S**. For this queuing system, it is assumed that customers arrive according to poison process at an average rate of } customers per unit of time and are served on a first-come, first-served basis at any of the service points. These servers are identical and each serving the customers according to an exponential distribution with

average of \sim customers per unit of time. When the service time distribution is similar, and the customers arrive at a uniform average time, all servers will be busy at the same rate.

If $n < s$, (number of customers in the system is less than the numbers of servers), then there will be no queue.

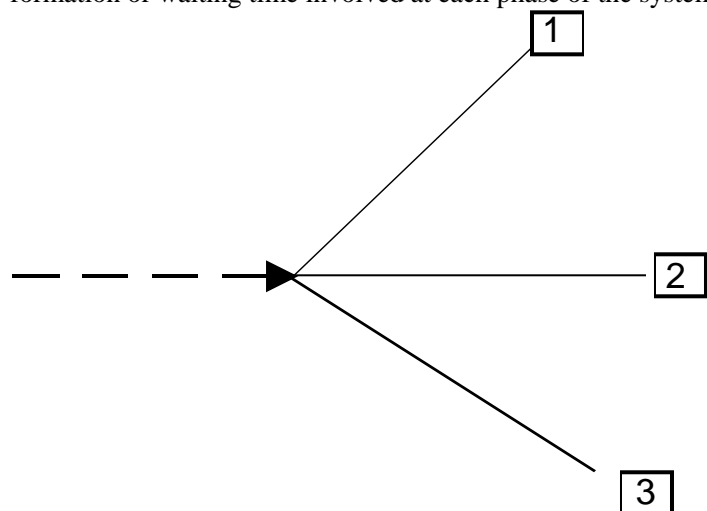
If $n \geq s$, (number of customers in the system is equal to or more than the number of servers) then all servers will be busy and the maximum number of customers in the queue will be $(n-s)$. The combined service rate will be $\sim n = s-; n \geq S$.

b. **Model (v) {(M/M/S): (N/FCFS) Exponential Service Limited Finite Queue**

This model is a further extension of model IV, the assumption of an unlimited waiting area for customers is not valid in certain cases as the parking area once full to its capacity, turns away arriving vehicles. Here, arriving vehicles are customers, each parking space is a server and there is no waiting space.

3. Single Queue- Multiple Servers in Parallel

In this case there is still a single queue but the service involves multiple phases, says Singh (2007). For example a PCP’s office patients first arrive at the registration counter, get the registration done and then again wait in a queue to be seen by the physician or for ancillary services. There is queue formation or waiting time involved at each phase of the system.



Single queue – multiple servers in parallel

Fig. 4: Single queue – multiple servers.

4. **Multiple – Servers in Series:** For the service system to render complete services to the customer, each of the customers must pass through each of the servers one after the other:

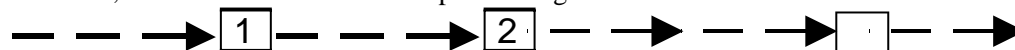


Fig. 5: Multiple Servers in Series

5. Multiple Servers, both in series and in parallel

According to Singh (2007), this type of system has numerous queues and a complex network of multiple phases of services involved. This type of service is typically seen in a hospital setting, multi-specialty outpatient clinics, etc. For example in an hospital out-patient clinic, patients first form the queue for registration, then they triage for assessment, then for diagnostic review, treatment, intervention or prescription and finally exit-from the system or triage to different providers.

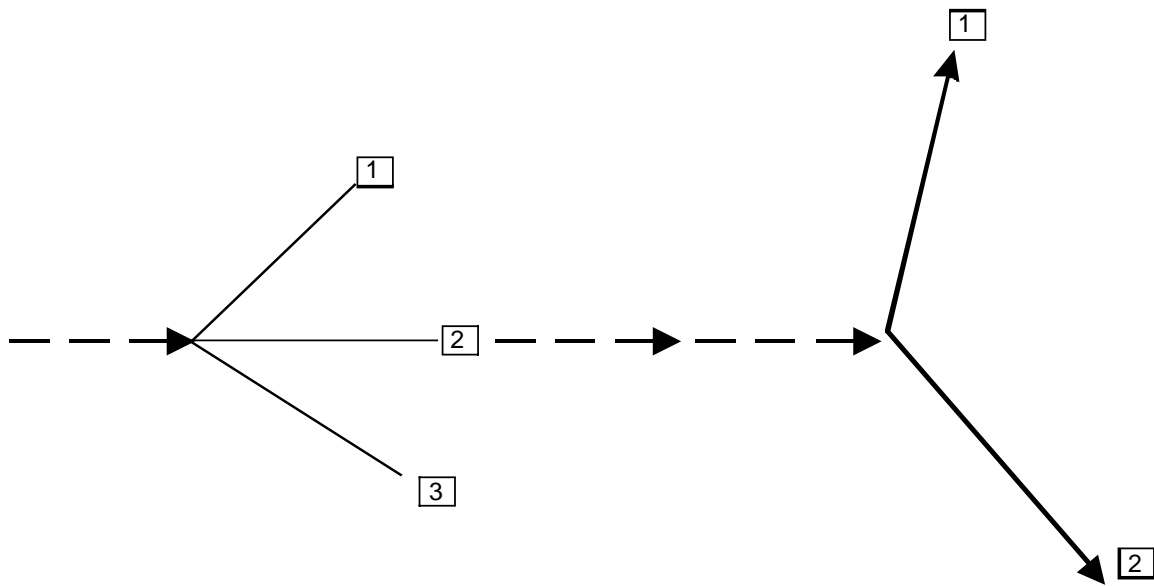


Fig. 6: (e) Multiple servers both in series and in parallel.

The Queuing System

In the words of Hillier and Lieberman (1995), the basic process assumed by most queuing models is the following: customers requiring services are generated over time by an INPUT SOURCE. These customers enter the *queuing system* and join a queue. At certain times, a member of the queue is selected for service by some rules known as the **queue discipline**. Addressing the “queuing system” Ezirim and Nwokah (2008) assert thus: the Queuing System consists of three (3) parts:

- a. The calling population (b) the queuing and
- b. the service facility. The required service is then performed for the customer by the Service Mechanism, after which the customer leaves the queuing system.

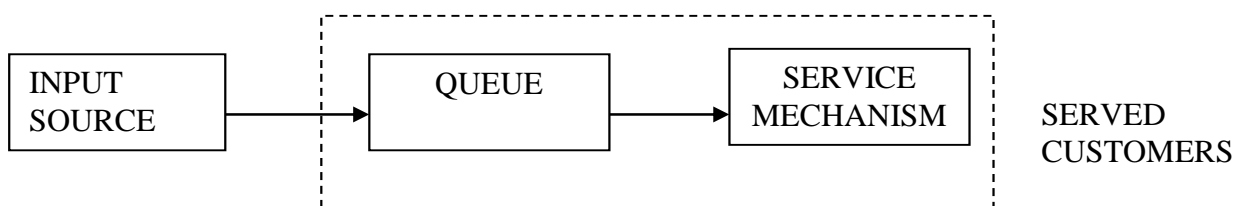


Fig. 10: The Basic Queuing Process
Source: Hillier and Lieberman (1995).

Input Source (Calling Population)

According to Hillier and Lieberman (1995) one characteristic of the input source is its size. This size is the total number of customers that might require service from time to time. i.e. the total number of distinct potential customers. In the same vein, Okon (2008) observes that customers requiring service are generated at different times by an input source, commonly known as population. An input source need not be homogeneous population but may consist of several sub-populations. For example patients arriving at OPD (out-patient department) of a hospital are usually of three categories: walk-in patients, patients with appointment and emergency patients.

Each class of patients places different demands on serviced facility; but the waiting expectations of each category differ significantly. An input source is characterized by: (a) size of calling population (b) behaviour of the arrivals, and (c) pattern of arrival of customers or jobs at the system.

Features of Queuing Process

Budnick, McLeavey and Mojena (2004) identify five (5) important features of the queuing process, they are, arrival process, queue configuration, queue discipline, service discipline and service facility.

a. Arrival Process:

The arrival process characterizes the arrival of units into the queuing system. The possible states or arrival conditions are not necessarily mutually exclusive. The following are the features of the arrival process.

1. The calling source can consist of single or multiple populations. For instance, a queuing system for operating rooms can be analyzed in term of a specific type of surgery (e.g. brain or open heart) or in terms of several or all types of surgery combined.
2. The Calling Source can consist of a finite or infinite number of units. Water to replenish a reservoir originates from an infinite population, whereas malfunctioning machines in a particular machine shop are members of a finite population. For many applications, the populations, although not infinite, are large enough that models assuming infinite populations serve as adequate approximations.
3. Single or bulk arrivals can occur. At a restaurant, families may arrive singly to make reservations but in bulk to eat their meals.
4. Total, partial, or no control can be exercised by the queuing system. The arrival of a component to be assembled in an automated assembly is totally controlled, airplane arrivals at an airport are partially controlled, and automobiles arriving at tollbooths are not controlled at all. Appointment schedules exercise a degree of arrival control.
5. Units can emanate from a deterministic or probabilistic generating process. If total control is exercised, then the arrival process is deterministic, if the time between arrivals is a random variable, then the generating process is probabilistic. Needless to say, the latter process represents most queuing problems.
6. The probabilistic arrival process can be described by either an empirical or theoretical probability distribution. The Poisson model, for example, is one of several theoretical distributions widely used to describe arrival processes.
7. The arrival process can be characterized by independent or conditional (dependent) arrivals. If the state of the system or the sequence or preceding arrivals does not affect subsequent arrivals, the arrivals are said to be independent; otherwise, arrivals are conditional.
8. A stationary arrival process may or may not exist. If the process is stationary, then the parameters (e.g. mean and standard deviation) and form of the probability distribution that describes the arrival process remain constant over time. The usual assumption is a stationary process as the mathematics become intractable otherwise.

Non-stationary processes can be treated by monitoring changes in the process and/or by the use of forecasting models, in which cases stationary models can be reapplied.

2. Queue Configuration:

Queue configuration refers to the number of queues in the queuing systems, their relationship to the servers and spatial considerations. A single queue can feed into a single server or multiple servers. Multiple queues typically align with an equal number of multiple servers (one queue in front of each other) (Budnick, Mcleavey and Mojena, 2004).

3. Queuing Process

The queuing process refers to the number of queues and their respective lengths. A queue is characterized by the maximum number of customers that it can contain. Thus, there may be a single queue or multiple queues. The length (or size) of the queue depends upon the operational situation such as physical space, legal restrictions, and attitude of the customers. In certain cases, a service system can be finite and on the other hand, it can be infinite. In many other situations, when arriving customers experience long queue(s) in front of a service facility, they often do not enter the service system though additional waiting space is available. The queue length, in such cases, depends upon the attitude of the customers, for example, when a motorist finds that there are many vehicles waiting at a petrol station, he may not stop at this station and may seek service elsewhere.

4. Service Discipline

Service discipline according to Nahmias (1997) refers to the policy established for the service facility in selecting customers for processing. There are five (5) basic types of service disciplines: they are

- a. First-Come, First Served (FCFS) or First –in First-Out (FIFO). This is often dictated by “fairness” as in the ticket numbering system of bakeries, meat shops, or delicacies.
- b. Last-Come, First – Served (LCFS), or Last-in First-Out (LIFO): This can be illustrated by an elevator queuing system whereby the last customers to enter are the first to exit on any given floor, or by coal to be removed from a coal pile.

Problems of Queuing Theory

Queuing theory and its implementation have been plagued by some problems. Beasley (2007) identifies one of them as the problem as deciding on “faster servers or more servers”. His argument is that the issue of recommending more servers is in contention with providing faster services by the same set of servers. In the view of Singh (2007), when there are more patients, that is longer queue, servers seem to be more serious and work faster than when the queue is not long. This places demand on management engineers to identify an optimal level of productivity of a medical personnel to justify the need for additional hand of service provider (doctors and nurses and other workers in the hospital).

Another problem is that steady-state results may fail to work when there is a sudden rise in the level of demand for service due to environmental conditions. Also, the queuing models have not identified favouritism as a factor in the queuing process. Medical personnel whose relation needs medical care may disregard the queue and concentrate with his relations against the rule. Nosek (2001) describes the “queue as American pasture, in contrary to what is being obtained in Africa (people here are not disciplined enough to observe queues).

- c. Service in Random Order (SIRO): This refers to some probabilistic process in selecting customers for service, as in a nail-packaging operation that packs nails randomly as they fall from a rotating drum, or in the selection of Bingo numbers. Service in random order does not require that anyone keep track of when units arrive at the queue.
- d. Round-Robin Service: This is a sequential method of partially servicing units in the queuing systems, as in the processing of jobs by a time-shared computer. Note that every unit in the queuing system is getting some services.
- e. Priority Service: This is a method of selection that biases the selection process according to predefined attributes. In general, units are serviced in order of decreasing priority. Examples include a time-sharing system that allocates CPU time on the basis of accumulated run time, favouring short-run jobs. Another is called “shortest operation next”, which always processes that unity with smallest expected service time. The result is fewer units in the queue but longer expected waiting times for units with high service needs. Emergency rooms in hospitals use priorities that are the functions of the seriousness of the needs of the arriving customer and that of the customers being serviced.

5. Service Facility: The service facility according to Ezirim and Nwokah (2005) may be classified according to the configuration of channel (Single or multiple) and the phase (Single or Multiple). Channel refers to the number of entering points through which customers may access service, while phase refers to the number of service through which customers must pass for service to be completed. The characteristics associated with service facilities are both design attribute and operating characteristics. They include (a) the service facility can have none, one, or multiple servers (channels). Queuing systems in supermarkets, for instance, include both self-service (no server) for grocery items and multiple servers for checkouts (b) multiple servers can be parallel, in series (tandem), or both.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This section of the study presents the methodology adapted to achieve the objectives of this study. It highlights the research design, area of study, population of the study, sample size, sampling technique, data presentation as well as data analysis.

Research Design: This study adopted a survey research approach. This was because it entails a direct contact between the researcher and the subjects. The primary data for the study were obtained with the use of questionnaire, personal interview, and observations.

Secondary Data: These were sourced from the library texts, journals, periodicals, magazines and hospital handbooks.

Area of Study

The area of study is the secondary health care system of Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria. The state is politically divided into three geo-political zones of Akwa Ibom North West (Ikot Ekpene), South (Eket), North East (Uyo). Each of these districts has fifteen (15) government owned hospitals, under the supervision of Hospitals Management Board.

Population of the Study

The population of the study comprises of the total number of patients who visit the forty five (45) government hospitals per week.

Sample Size

The weekly average population of patients visiting each of the hospitals was used as a framework for the determination of the sample size. For convenience sake and considering other limitations of this study, two (2) hospitals each were selected from each of the three senatorial districts of Akwa Ibom State. They are:

- a. St Luke’s Hospital, Anua = 118 = Uyo Senatorial
 - 2. St. Theresa’s Hospital, Use Abat = 72 = District
 - 3. Immanuel General Hospital, Eket = 83 = Oron Senatorial
 - 4. General Hospital, Iquito Oron, = 71 = District
 - 5. General Hospital, Ikot Ekpene = 102 = Ikot Ekpene
 - 6. St. Mary’s Hospital, Urua Akpan = 81 = Senatorial District
- Weekly average population of patients **527**

Sampling Technique

The stratified sampling technique was used in this study, with the senatorial districts as strata. From each of the three strata consisting 15 hospitals, the simple random sampling technique was used to select two (2) hospitals each.

The sample size of respondents (patients) from each of the six selected hospitals was obtained using the Taro Yamane formula thus:

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

Where

- n = minimum sample size
- N = Population of the study
- e = Margin of error

This study adopted 95% as its level of significance. However, the sample size was obtained as follows

- i. St Luke’s Hospital – Anua

$$n = \frac{118}{1 + 118(0.05)^2}$$

$$n = \frac{118}{1.295} = 91$$

Similar procedures were followed and applied to the other five (5) hospitals that gave us the total sample size as shown below:

$$\begin{aligned}
 n &= n_1 + n_2 + n_3 + n_4 + n_5 + n_6 \\
 &= 91 + 61 + 68 + 60 + 81 + 67 \\
 n &= 428
 \end{aligned}$$

Validation and Reliability of Instruments

The questionnaire was the main instrument used for collecting primary data. This instrument was carefully, properly, and critically examined by experts in the field of **test and measurement** and was adjudged **good** and **fit** for the purpose of the study; after all necessary corrections and adjustments were done. The instrument was also found reliable after a test run in one of the selected hospitals (St. Luke’s Hospital, Anua).

Data presentation and Analysis

A total of four hundred and twenty eight (428) copies of the questionnaire were administered on the respondents at the six (6) general hospitals across the three (3) senatorial districts of Akwa Ibom State. Four hundred and eleven (411) respondents (representing 96%) returned their questionnaires in good form. Hence the analyses done in this study were based on the 411 properly filled and returned copies of the questionnaire. This is shown in table 2.2

Table 2.: Questionnaire Administration pattern

S/N	Name of Hospital	Number of Questionnaire Administered	Number of questionnaire Returned in good form	Return rate %
1	St. Luke’s Hospital Anua	91	85	93
2	St. Theresa’s Hospital, Use Mbat	61	58	95
3	Immanuel Hospital – Eket	68	67	99
4	General Hospital- Iquita Oron	60	57	95
5	General Hospital – Ikot Ekpene	81	78	96
6	St. Mary’s Hospital – Urua Akpan	67	667	99
	Total	438	411	=96
	Average Return Rate			96%

Source: Field Survey, 2010

Table 3: Age Distribution of Respondents

Age Distribution	Number of Respondents	% of Respondents
15-24 years	61	15
25-34 years	74	18
35 – 44 years	113	27
45 – 54 years	128	31
55 years and above	35	9
Total	411	100

Source: Field Survey, 2010

The summary of the age distribution in table 3 is that about 58% of the respondents were active adults aged between 25 – 44 years.

From another perspective, we tried to find out the major effect of long queues on the patients. The analysis of the responses of the respondents as shown in table 5 shows that majority (282 or 69%) of them said that waiting on long queues has negative or adverse impact on their economics activities/interests.

Table 4: Effects of Long Queues on Economic Activities of Patients

Ratings	Number of Respondents	% of Respondents
Very High	282	69
High	121	29
Moderate	08	2
Low	-	-
Very Low	-	-
Total	411	100

Source: Field Survey, 2011

The respondents were asked to suggest areas they consider necessary for improvement in government general hospitals. Their suggestions are shown in **table 5**.

Table 5: Areas That Require Urgent Improvement

Areas	Number of Respondents	% of Respondents
Doctors consulting Room	203	49
Out- patients dept(OPD)	76	18.5
Number of beds/spaces	117	29
X-ray and theatre units	06	1.5
Laboratory	09	2
Total	411	100

Source: Field survey, 2011

Information in table 5 shows that 49% or 203 of the respondents opined that there is urgent need for the improvement of facilities in Doctors’ Consulting rooms, seventy six (76 or 18.5%) considered the out patients department (OPD) as the most critical unit to be considered. 29% suggested increment in the number of bed spaces. However, the x-ray and the theatre units were not considered as areas slowing down the pace of work.

In the interview conducted by the researcher, very many (296 or 72%) of the respondents attributed, government delayance in providing necessary facilities in the general hospitals as a major factor responsible for long queues in the general hospital.

Hypotheses Testing

Three (3) Hypotheses were formulated and tested in the course of this study. They are as shown below in their Null (Ho:) form

Hypothesis One

Ho₁: Inadequate facilities/personnel do not significantly contribute to long waiting time in Akwa Ibom State government Hospitals.

The testing of this hypothesis was based on question 10 on the questionnaire. The responses are shown on table 6.

Table 6: Medical Facilities And Provision of Health Facilities

Age Distribution of Respondents	Respondents					Total
	Very high	High	Moderate	Low	Very Low	
15 – 24	51	10	-	-	-	61
25 - 34	54	10	-	-	-	74
35 – 44	93	10	10	-	-	113
45 – 54	65	55	6	-	1	128
55 and Above	6	20	7	2	-	35
Total	279	105	23	2	1	411

Source: Field Survey, 2011

Table 7: Chi-Square Statistical Analysis

Fo	Fe	(fo-fe)	(fo-fe) ²	(fo-fe) ² /fe
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51	41.0	10	100	2.4390
64	50.0	14	196	3.9200
93	76.0	17	289	3.8026
65	86.0	-21	441	5.1279
6	23.0	-17	289	12.5652
10	15.0	-5	25	1.6666
10	19.0	-9	81	4.2631
10	29.0	-19	361	12.4482
55	33.0	22	484	14.6666
20	9.0	11	121	13.4444
0	3.0	-3	9	3.0000
0	4.0	-4	16	4.0000
10	6.0	4	16	0.6666
6	7.0	-1	1	0.1428
7	2.0	5	25	12.5000
0	0.4	-0.4	0.16	0.4000
0	0.5	-0.5	0.25	0.5000
0	0.8	-0.8	0.64	0.8000
0	0.9	-0.9	0.81	0.9000
2	0.2	1.8	3.24	16.2000
0	0.1	-0.1	0.01	0.1000
0	0.1	-0.1	0.01	0.1000
0	0.2	0.2	0.04	0.2000
1	0.3	0.7	0.49	1.6333
0	0.08	-0.08	0.0064	0.0800
Total				115.5663

The calculated χ^2 is **115.5663**.

According to the decision rule, reject the null hypothesis (H₀) if the chi-square calculated value is greater than the table value and accept the alternative hypothesis (i.e. reject H₀ if $\chi^2_{Cal} > \chi^2_{Tab}$).

Hence, we reject the null, hypothesis which states that inadequate facilities do not significantly contribute to long waiting time in government hospitals in Akwa Ibom State. However, since χ^2_{cal} (**115.5663**) is greater than χ^2_{tab} (**26.296**).

We hereby uphold the alternative hypothesis that states that inadequate facilities/personnel do significantly contribute to long waiting time in government owned hospitals.

Hypothesis Two

H₀₂: The distribution of service time does not follow exponential distribution

The average service time collected from the selected general hospitals were used in testing the second hypothesis.

Table 8: Average Service Time in Selected Hospitals in Akwa Ibom State

S/N	Time (Minutes)	Average Frequency(f) of service for the week	Mid-point	ft
1.	1 – 30	2.1	15.5	32.55
2.	31-60	2.0	45.5	91
3.	61-90	2.2	75.5	166.1
4.	91 – 120	1.9	105.5	2,004.5
5.	121 – 150	2.2	135.5	298.1
6.	151-180	1.8	165.5	297.9
7	181 – 210	2.1	195.5	410.55
8	211 – 240	1.9	225.5	428.45
9	241 – 270	1.7	255.5	434.35
10	271 – 300	2.1	285.5	599.55
11	301 – 330	1.6	315.5	504.8
12	331 – 360	2.5	345.5	863.75
13	361-390	1.3	375.5	488.15

14	391 – 420	2.0	405.5	811
15	421 – 450	1.9	435.5	827.45
16	451-480	1.8	465.5	837.9
17	481-510	1.5	495.5	743.25
18	511 – 540	1.4	525.5	735.7
19	541 – 570	2.0	555.5	1,111
20	571 – 600	2.1	585.5	1,229.55
				12,915.6

Source: Statistical Analysis

The mean service time is given as:

$$E(t) = \frac{\sum ft}{\sum f} = \frac{12,915.6}{38.1}$$

$$= 338.99 \text{ minutes / patients}$$

$$\mu = \frac{1}{E(t)} = \frac{1}{339} = 0.0029 \text{ patients/minutes}$$

To test if service time follows exponential process, we apply the **goodness** of fit test, given as;

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(fo - fe)^2}{fe}$$

Where, **K – 1** is the **df** and **k** is the number of independent variables

The expected frequency

(fe) = $\sum f(t, \lambda)$ and $f(t, \lambda)$ is the exponential density function which is expressed as;

$$f(t, \lambda) = \lambda e^{-\lambda t}; 1, 2, \dots, n$$

$$fe_1 = 38.1 \times 0.0029 e^{-0.0029 \times 15.5} = 1.0563$$

$$fe_{20} = 38.1 \times 0.0029 e^{-0.0029 \times 585.5} = 0.2022$$

$$t^2 \text{ Cal} = 108.6224$$

The significant level α at 5% and 1% with **K – 1** degree of freedom gives $t^2_{0.001(19)} = 36.191$

Decision Rule:

Reject **H₀** if $t^2 \geq \text{tab}$ which states that “the service time does not follow exponential distribution”. This is because the chi-square goodness of fit test result is greater than the table values at both ends.

That is,

$$t^2 \text{ Cal} > \{ t^2 \text{ tab at 5\% and 1\% significant level, with 19 as df.}$$

Hypothesis Three

H₀₃: Long waiting time does not significantly affect the level of satisfaction
 Customers derive from the services rendered in General Hospitals.

Table 9: χ^2 Analysis of the effect of long waiting time on the level of patient’s satisfaction.

Sex Distribution of Respondents	Respondents					Total
	Very high	High	Moderate	Low	Very low	
Male	104	30	01	-	-	135
Female	142	126	08	-	-	276
Total	246	156	09	-	-	411

Source: Field Survey, 2011

The t^2 – test statistic for the test is

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{j=1}^c \sum_{i=1}^r \frac{(fo - fe)^2}{fe}$$

Where **fo** is the observed frequency and **fe** is the expected frequency .

The level of significance = **5%** and the degree of freedom is

$$(r - 1) (c - 1) = (2 - 1) (5 - 1) = 4$$

Then t^2 **0.005 = 9.488**

$$fe = \frac{135 \times 246}{411} = 80.8029$$

$$F_{10} = \frac{276 \times 0}{411} = 0$$

Table 10: Chi-square (χ^2) Calculation

fo	Fe	(fo-fe)	(fo-fe)²	$\frac{(fo-fe)^2}{fe}$
104	80.8029	23.1971	538.1054	6.6594
142	165.1970	-23.197	537.1008	3.2573
30	51.2240	-1.224	450.4581	8.7938
126	104.7591	21.2409	451.1758	4.3067
01	2.9562	-1.9562	3.8267	1.2944
08	6.0437	1.9563	3.8271	0.6332
Total				24.9448

Source: Statistical Analysis

∴ The calculated t^2 is **24.9448** while the t^2 table value is, **9.488**.

Decision Rule: Reject **Ho** if t^2 **Cal** \geq **tab**.

We therefore, reject the null (**Ho**) hypothesis, which states that “long waiting times do not significantly affect the level of satisfaction and loyalty of patients to states general hospitals. Hence we uphold the alternative hypothesis which states that “long waiting times do significantly affect the level of satisfaction patients derive from health services rendered by Akwa Ibom State general hospitals.

Discussion of Findings

The main thrust of this study was to examine the role that queuing theory plays in enhancing effective delivery of health care services in government owned general hospitals in Akwa Ibom State. To achieve this goal, four hundred and eleven (411) respondents filled and returned their questionnaires in useable form. They (the 411 respondents) were selected from six (6) hospitals across the three (3) senatorial districts of Akwa Ibom State.

From the study, it was discovered that there were actually long queues in most general hospitals in Akwa Ibom State. The results of the analysis of the data and the validation of various hypotheses revealed that inadequate facilities and personnel significantly contribute to the long queues in the hospitals. This according to statistics makes a patient who visits the health institution to spend an average of 250.26 minutes (4.17hrs) before he/she is serviced. The study also revealed that long waiting times affect a patient’s level of satisfaction and economic interest. Staying too long on the queue may discourage a patient from making a repeat, especially in Nigeria where many people depend solely on their pity trading to earn a living. The study in the same vein reveals that government often delays in providing the needed facilities to the state’s general hospital.

The study agrees with the work of Nahmias (1997) who says that “when we talk about purely random arrivals in queuing, we mean that the arrival process is a poisson process” which reveals that inter-arrival time and service time follow exponential distribution. This shows that there is a relationship between the arrival time (which follows a poisson process) and inter-arrival time and service time. The study further revealed that the areas of improvement that would reduce long waiting lines in government hospitals in

Akwa Ibom State would include; an improvement in facilities at the Doctors' Consulting room, increment in the number of bedspace and better/improved facilities for Out Patient Department (OPD).

Conclusion

The problem of long queues in general hospitals in Akwa Ibom State has become a phenomenon that has persisted for sometime now. The adverse effects of this scenario have been on both man and the society. Addressing the problem of long queues in our general hospitals is addressing issues that contribute to man's wholesome well being which will ultimately engender a healthy society. The study reveals problem of inadequate personnel/facilities due to government's insensitivity and delayance in making adequate provisions. This therefore, results in patients long waiting time to receive services in these hospitals. Hence, patients grow dissatisfied with the service system.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, we put forward the following recommendations:

- a. Government should make adequate provision for the improvement of health facilities/personnel in the various general hospitals across the three Senatorial districts of Akwa Ibom State. More consulting rooms should be put in place. Accessories and reasonable number of bed/space should be provided. The Out Patient Department (OPD) should be better equipped with modern information and communication technology (ICT) gadgets to handle data in a way that would be accessed and retrieved more easily. Also, more doctors and nurses should also be employed, trained and motivated to enhance their productivity.
- b. A performance standard should be established for health workers. Doctors and nurses should be made to work twice as fast as they do in the present service system.
- c. The various hospitals in the state should work hand in hand in a way that a congested hospital could easily make referrals to others who may not be as busy as at that time. This will reduce queues and engender higher level of satisfaction.

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THE INFLUENCE OF SOCIAL MEDIA ON INDIGENOUS CULTURE IN DIGITAL AGE

EMMANUEL JEGEDE (Ph.D)
Department of Theatre and Performing Arts
Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria,
Kaduna State, Nigeria.
e-mailJegedewisdom@gmail.com
08028264767

Abstract

The digital age and its array of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) have reduced the entire world to a global village. Social media however, constitute one of the most important and vital products of ICT and it is obvious that a highly developed network of social communication media is an essential requirement for national survival and attainment of relevance of every nation in a rapidly changing global environment. However, much as the social media technologies have the potential of impacting positively on indigenous development of a people, they could also hinder local cultural values and contents. Using a desk research therefore, this paper, inter alia, aims at critically examining the influence of the social media on indigenous culture. It also highlights some of the crucial methods of social communication media and their workings in the context of digital age. Finally, vital recommendations are made on how social media can be used to effectively bring about development in Nigeria.

Key words

Culture, social media, digital age, development, influence, communication.

INTRODUCTION

In the 21st century, means of communication have risen to many platforms. Technology has created new template of communications across the globe. Communication is the essential element that creates and maintains relationships. In the digital age, Communication technology has developed to become both simple and fast. For example, we no longer need to check up old classmates in phone directories anymore in order to find out what they have been doing. Instead of reading opinions and propaganda through newspapers, posters, commercial and even through billboards, free speech and related issues are written and posted online all over the world.

The coming of online social media has no doubt, altered the traditional way of life and daily realities, and has brought forth the infinite access to free speech in our social environment. For example, Kathleen and Anuhea (2010), have correctly observed that the social media environment through blogging on websites such as Twitter, Wordpress, MySpace and Facebook have manifested free speech. The digital age of social media has equally been helpful in keeping ourselves updated on our families and friends no matter where they are in the world. According to statistics, Facebook alone has more than 40 million active users world-Wide and about 50% of them log unto Facebook at any given day. Social media have indeed, become part of our daily realities especially in Nigeria. In view of this, this paper therefore, intends to consider some of the core forms of social media available in Nigeria and their influences on our indigenous cultural practice especially in the context of knowledge creation, information generation and dissemination, relationships building, corporate identities construction and norms and values.

Social Media in Digital Age

It is very expedient to consider the meaning of digital age before attempting to undertake a discussion on social media. According to the Wikipedia the Free Encyclopaedia, the digital age also commonly known as the Computer Age or Information Age, is an idea that the information age is characterised by the ability of individuals to transfer information freely and to have instant access to information that would have been difficult or impossible to find previously. The idea is linked to the concept of computer age or information

revolution, and carries the ramifications of a shift from traditional industry that the industrial revolution brought through industrialisation, to an economy- based manipulation of information.

The digital age formed by capitalizing on the computer microminiaturised advances, with a transition spanning from the advent of the personal computer in the late 1970s to the internet's reaching a critical mass in the early 1990s, and the adoptions of such technology by the public in the two decades after 1900. Bringing about a fast evolution of technology in daily life, as well as of educational life style, the digital age has allowed rapid global Communication and networking to shape modern society.

Among the Communication systems that the digital age has engendered is social media networks or sites which are web-based and are used to broadcast information and interact with individuals. Expatriating on this, Boyd and Ellison (2008) define Social Media as:

Web-based services that allow individuals to: (1) construct a public or semi public profile within a bounded system; (2) articulate a list of connections and those made by others within the system.

Boyd and Ellison (2008) argue further that social media are mobile- based technology which are used to turn Communication into interactive dialogue between organizations, communities and individuals. This Communication form is regarded as a group of internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of web 2.0 and that allow the creation and exchange of user generated content. Social media is ubiquitously accessible and enabled by scalable communication technologies. However, a researcher and media analyst- Biran Solis in Milena (2011) offers a rather straight forward definition of the social media as:

the democratization of information transforming people from content readers into publishers. It is the shift from a broadcast mechanism, one-to-one, and many-to-many model, rooted in conversation between authors, people and peers.

The above definition highlights the two core characteristics of social media: Communication is user-generated and it functions two-ways. It however, neglected to comment on the consequence of social media such as knowledge creation which is based on intrinsic nature. In the same fashion, most definitions are insufficient in highlighting all aspects of social media which is why this paper intends to shed light on some core forms of the media

Social media technologies take on many different forms including magazines, Internet Forums, Weblogs, Social Blogs, Microblogs, Wikis, Podcasts, Photographs or pictures, video, rating and social bookmarking. By applying a set of theories in the field of media research and social processes, Kaplan and Haelien (2010) created a classification scheme for the different social media types in their Business Horizons articles. According to them, there are six different types of social media which include collaboration projects (eg Wikipedia), blogs and Microblogs (egTwitter), Content communities (eg YouTube),social Networking sites (eg Facebook), Virtual Game Worlds (eg world of warcraft) and Virtual Social World (eg Second Life). Kaplan and Haelein (2010) contend further that social media services focus on some or all of seven functional building blocks such as identity, conversations, sharing relationships, reputation and group building. These building blocks help understand the engagement needs of the social media audience.

In the same vein, Megat (2011) adds that today, there are hundred of social media network sites operating all over the globe. Some of them are popular in certain countries while others have global reach. Some of these social media sites are targeted at very specific interest while others are general in nature. One of the best examples of a special interest social media network, according to Megat (2011), is Linked In- a very popular social network for business executives. As already stated above, other popular general social networks are sites such as Facebook, Twitter, Friendster, Bebo, MySpace, Blogger and many more.

Speaking further, Megat (2011) pontificates that no one predicted the extent and impact of social media networking at such a phenomenal scale. At one point, during 2005-2006, MySpace, a social media network that promotes independent music and the socialite scene across the globe, actually ranked higher than Google in terms of page viewed. The winning angle for this network was the ability of users to listen to new music and find out about the latest party as well as promote creativity through the creation of unique profiles and sharing of favourite videos. MySpace claims that, it has over 100 million music play lists with 5.5 billion song listened, 7 billion photos and at least 600 world famous celebrities blogging.

Apart from MySpace, Friendster.Com. is another popular social media site. Megat (2011) observes that Friendster. Com was launched in the year 2002. People blogging Friendster.com used a degree of separation concept called 'Circle of Friends' and promoted the idea that a rich online community can exist only between people who truly have common bonds, and it ensured there are plenty of ways to discover those bonds.

Anthony (2008) pontificates that the current most popular social media network site in the world is Facebook. Facebook, according to him, has grown into more than 300 million active users with an average of 505 of them logging onto Facebook everyday. Facebook.com is similar to Friendster, and started with an emphasis on the college community. From that, it just grew and grew in popularity and reach. At least, 8 billion minutes are spent on Facebook each day. One of the reasons Facebook is so addictive is because it is a convenient way to track the status of friends. Part of Facebook success is its creator's decision to open up and allow everyone to develop applications and run them on Facebook without charging them. The benefit of using Facebook is to let people meet without the need of occupying physical space while making use of digital identities.

Apart from Facebook, Blogs also constitute another social media site. According to Hinduja and Patching (2007), Blogs are also commonly used by both young and old people to express their views, interests and emotions, Blogs are usually individual web pages that are created by specific people to enable others read and post messages on these blogs. Youngsters also tend to prefer the use of blogs as a way of Communication because blogs are often seen to be very easy to use. Visitors to a blog are also given an opportunity to leave comments on the posted messages. Blogs have the same effects as social media networking websites because they allow people to share various experiences and to talk about things that are of particular interest to each other. You can find Blogs on topics that you find interesting by using search engines like technocratic, or Google Blog search. The easiest way to read blogs is to subscribe to ones you find interesting using the bloglines Google reader or Newsgator. Different types of Blogs available on the Net include personal, political, business, media and main stream media blogs.

What about Forums? In fact, Anthony (2008) believes that Forums are the longest established form online social media. According to him:

Online Forums commonly exist around specific topics and interests especially on the issues of cars and music Each discussion in a forum is known as a thread, and many different threads can be active simultaneously. This makes forums good places to find and engage in a variety of detailed discussion.

Basically, Forums are often built into websites as an added feature but some exist as stand-alone entities. Forums can be places for lively, vociferous debate, for seeking advice on a subject, for sharing news, for flirting or simply for whiling away time with idle chat. In other words, their huge varieties reflect that of face-to-face conversations.

Apart from Forums discussed above, another crucial online social media form is Potcasts. Anthony (2008) reveals that podcasts are audio or video files that are published on the internet and that users can subscribe to. It is the subscriptions feature that makes a podcast so powerful as a form of social media. People have long been able to upload audio content to the web but the subscription features means that people can build regular audiences and communities around their shows. It effectively puts private individuals or brands on a level playing fields with traditional media organizations when it comes to competing for people's attention with content online.

When new podcast is posted to the web, all the subscribers podcast services are automatically notified to download the programme to their computer's hard drive. The podcast can then be either listened to on the computer or downloaded unto an MP3 player such as an ipods. By and large, it can be concluded that social media is best understood as a group of new kinds of online media which share most or all of the following characteristics such as participation, openness, interaction, conversation, community, connectedness, accessibility and so forth and so on. Having briefly undertaken a survey of some basic forms of online social media, it is very essential to critically consider their influence on the indigenous culture.

THE INFLUENCE ON CULTURE

Online social media have a double-edged effect on indigenous culture since they are capable of impoverishing as well as enriching cultural values of local societies. It is imperative to have initial understanding of the term 'Culture' before explicating how social media can influence it either negatively or positively. Culture is the process of acquiring or learning the skills, lifestyles and behavioural patterns of members of the society in which one co-exists. Culture is the totality of the way of life of a people.

Adelabu (1999) defines culture as the overall process of a person's acquisition of values, habits, codes of conduct, knowledge, beliefs technology, morals, art, law and other capacities which are commonly shared and transmitted down to generations. Culture is a configuration of a number of cultural patterns. It stands for everything which is socially learned and shared by members of society. With this basic understanding of what culture stands for, it is expedient to point out that the online social media technologies have the potential of impacting negatively on indigenous cultural development. They could also help to strengthen and enrich local cultural values and contents.

Positive Influence

It is expedient for the Nigerian society to recognise the vast opportunities that the online social media networks offer for its cultural reinforcement, development and preservation rather than overstressing only their negative impact. Social media according to Czarniecky (2010), is a cultural tool. It plays so many cultural roles. Social media is a community, a sounding board, an educator, a recommender, a direction giver an exploration tool, an alert giver and a development indicator.

Czarniecky (2010) believes that the online social media reinforce and enlarge the cross cultural Communication and development. With the advancement of social media, people from different backgrounds and cultures have been given the opportunities to express themselves, their ideas, their talents, arts and creativity. The fact that you can have access to something posted from miles away indicates a shift in how regional and world cultures are spread.

Reinforcing the above position, Ekeanyanwu and Odukamaiya (2008) posit that social media networking means, an increased access to global information; it provides new information, different shades of entertainments and enables many Nigerians to share in the world events, views and ideas. In this case, it enhances cheaper and instantaneous interaction with people from all parts of the World; it increases the volumes, speed and availability of information in the global system; it boosts education, interaction, creativity and social development, it enriches their knowledge of other cultures; it improves their understanding and enlightens them on better ways or at least alternative ways to do things; it brings people together virtually and improves the level of interaction between different cultures or strengthens their exposure to other cultures of the world thus aiding their thinking outside the box. For some people, social media technologies have become their primary sources of knowledge creation and information on other cultures. It is therefore, argued that, by comparing the Nigerian cultural heritage as relayed on the net with other nations, they are enabled to appreciate their own cultural values better, observe their inherent shortcomings and modify some aspects of them where necessary.

Apart from the crucial roles that the social media play at corporate or cross-cultural level, the media in question also have a vital role to play at the inter-personal level within the Nigeria's cultural setting. Social media help immensely in enhancing the inter-personal relationship of individuals in Nigeria. The Nigerian society exists in a digital age where everything in our lives is spread out by as many media as possible and these media are also shaped by everyone. Social media therefore help to improve on the communication ability of an individual thus making them more aware of the happenings within their immediate environment. Thinking in the same way, Wheeldon (1920) believes that:

The significance placed on interaction and participation within social networking sites is evident in the numerous ways in which communication is encouraged. For example some social networking sites such as Myspace and Facebook offer users the ability to create sub-groups of people based on similar interests. These can vary from support groups to fan groups, to community organizations or school groups.

The basis behind these groupings and its implications are to share information and communication with one another with a view to creating personal and corporate identities. Apart from using these corporate identities to interact, people may have the intention to comment and respond to 'status updates' and statements or comments that others have posted, thereby initiating communication. Furthermore, on sites such as Youtube, people may even give a video response.

By allowing such responses, there is the prospect of not only achieving conversation but also of debate, of sharing information and of perceiving new ideas. It is this capability of interaction that makes social networking sites multi-dimensional in communication, unlike the one-dimensionality of other conventional media. As such, it also points to the fact that social media sites are often an extension of real life. By co-existing with life online, communication in the digital world is therefore no more of a threat than if a person were to join communities and interact with others in the offline world of robbery, terrorism and wicked bombings.

In the furtherance of this discussion, Wheeldon (2010) argues that online social media have obliterated geographical boundaries and temporal limitations, as earlier noted. The media under discussion offer the ability to access information and communicate with one another at any time and in any place and regardless of the physical location of other people. People can use Youtube, Facebook, Myspace, Twitter and other forms to bring people together who might otherwise never have met, and then encourage them to extend that experience into real world social functions. This is especially the case for minority groups who might ordinarily be ostracised or overlooked in offline communities or social situation. The virtual anonymity of online experience helps to reduce social discomfort and discrimination or stereotyping otherwise associated with real-life perceptions of age, disabilities, race, gender or culture. By communicating online, it allows people to see past physical differences and focus on a deeper connection discovering similarities that may have been previously disregarded.

There is an impact on education too. Hawkins (2008) observes that social media are also being used by teachers and students especially in the tertiary institutions in Nigeria. Teachers and professors are forums and groups to extend classroom discussions. Some of them routinely use Twitter to communicate announcements and other vital information to their students. It is a two-way process as students too are using these media to share Facebook with their teachers. Social media networks have also become platforms for doing good. Cultural artists all over the world use the networks to showcase their cultural heritages. Social activists also use them to spread word about their causes, enlist volunteers, embark on actions and raise funds. Hunter (2008) also notes that the business world is not left out. Social media is changing the way marketing is done in Nigeria. No longer can marketers rely on radio and TV to reach out to their publics, they have to also figure out how to influence people through social networks. Most organizations in Nigeria have jumped into the social networking bandwagon. Large and small organizations alike maintain Facebook fan pages and Twister feeds.

Based on the above, it is relevant to state that, the platform of social media has taken the power of the word creation to a new level capable of transforming companies, business cultures and society communication in general. In this connection, Vinnie and Ayuna (2010) argue that online social media are fast altering the methods of advertising by merging both the advertiser and the advertised. Through Facebook and Twitter, Vinnie and Ayuna (2010) also believe that companies are able to fabricate and build virtual personalities. Just as the telephone made distance relative, social media has also made culture and companies relative. The result from this confluence is opportunity for dialogue between customer and business, rather than the typical one-sided communication that has existed through advertising and this communication is visible to the world population through Myspace, Twitter, Facebook, Second Life and many others,. Social media have transformed companies into large personalities transcending them beyond just a brand. They can operate as a personal connection and can be also our friends.

Other crucial activities offered by social media sites include such services as multi player online games, polls, chat-rooms and messaging services, all of which endorse the idea of communicating and interacting with one other. In summary, social media networks in Nigeria have ready altered our world, our realities and our traditional ways of doing things.

Negative Influence on Local Culture

While social media is an integral part of daily life of the Nigerian people, there are a number of risks associated with its use especially on mental health, cyberbullying, texting/sexting, sexual solicitation, illegal content, identity theft, privacy violations and destruction of organic relationships within the society.

On the issue of interpersonal relationship, it is good to note that social media networks that we consider to be very helpful to people across the globe to unite and build relationships can also damage the relationships and make life miserable. It is often said that people who make use of the internet a lot tend to spend less time interacting with their families and friends. It is quite disappointing to learn that some people just prefer to have online friends and interactions rather than real life friends within their natural environments.

Consequent upon the above, social media users face severe health risk because they reduce face-to-face contact and become addicted to virtual world of relationships. Instant gratification of needs becomes their ultimate goals. According to the United States Internet activity (January 2010), users spent an average of 7 hours a month on Facebook. This makes Facebook a maximum time waster. In Nigeria, according to Online Network Harm (2009), more than 40% of people check their Facebook profile before getting out of bed in the morning and 35% check their accounts several times a day. Social media sites have played a significant role in making people become more isolated. Lack of face-to-face contact could alter the gene's work, upset immune responses, hormonal levels, functions of arteries and influence mental performance. This could increase the risk of health problems like cancer, strokes, heart disease and dementia.

Still on the issue of relationship, Biswajit and Jyoti (2010) point out that a survey by the American Academy of Matrimonial Lawyers (AAML) reveals Facebook as the main reason behind several divorces in the US. It also says 80% of divorce Lawyers use social networking site together evidence. Facebook is said to fuel divorce rate because it easily reunites old lovers and acts as a secret platform for dating. Contributing to this discussion, Carroll and Kirkpatrick (2011) argue that people in relationship may receive nude pictures or be pressurised to send nude pictures of themselves to a partner. Relationship abuse on social media can also include sending non-stop text messages or posting cruel comments on a boy friend or girl friend's Facebook or Myspace page. Cell phones, instant messaging and social networking websites areas are all increasingly being used to monitor, threaten and harass relationship partners. These phenomena paint a gloomy and sordid picture of online social media use in the context of social interaction, local values and norms.

Apart from relationship crisis which social media may worsen, privacy is another major concern. The African society places a lot values on privacy which online social media are out to frustrate. There is therefore, a narrow gap between private and public life in the digital age of social media networking. Once you put personal data, image or video on web site, you are helpless to control its distribution. Though you can set its privacy level in the profile but you are sharing them with an unknown web administrator. Tomorrow, your personal information may lend in the hands of parents, teachers, employers, criminals or marketing companies. Fully identifiable information like first name, date of birth, place of work, zip code easily available to anybody registered at Facebook can be used to estimate a person's social security number at his own personal detriment. Social networking sites are becoming a threat to the privacy of an individual within his or her cultural setting.

Closely related to the above is the use of online social media in the production of the society of cybercriminals. Ideally, social media networks are designed to be used to make contacts with people and build a network of healthy relationship in the society. Today, it seems offering cybercriminals a great advantage to target victims. The secure feeling of being anonymous on the Net encourages a person to commit Cyber crimes that normal person would have never committed in real world.

Apart from the above, it is pertinent to say that the online social media influence is also on work productivity in Nigeria. In this regard, Gaudin (2009) points out that people spend hours chatting with their friends and browsing profiles on social networking sites. It becomes a compulsive habit to visit own profile several times in a day for checking friends' updates, changing status and commenting on others photos and videos. Consequently, this process often diverts employees' attention from the office work. Social media research in Nigeria reveals that about 47% of the employees use Facebook during work hours and this

results in 1.5% drop in employees' productivity in those companies that allow full access to Facebook. These problems associated with social media usage need to be addressed if the media are to contribute maximally to development. We therefore offer the following recommendations;

Recommendations

This paper has immensely dwelt on social media discussing both its positive and negative influences on our ways of life. In view of the negative influence that the social media have on indigenous culture, we therefore recommend the following so that its potential can be fully utilised for the development of our society:

- (i) Local cultural transmission can be done through online social media. Each cultural group in Nigeria could create websites where their artworks, rites, values, folklore and traditions can be displayed and appreciated.
- (ii) It is equally important to increase the access of the Nigerians to the online service both as consumers as well as producers of global communication. Therefore, providing improved online social media and communication infrastructure in Nigeria is crucial if the people must exploit the potentials inherent in globalization. Orientation programmes need to encourage Nigerians to become producers of information and communication and not consumers of information. They should be experts not just only in downloading information online but equally in uploading information for others to download at the same pace.
- (iii) Parents, stakeholders and individuals need to educate themselves about the effective use of the online social media as well as knowing the common risks associated with it, in order to help them understand and navigate the technologies.
- (iv) Greater resources need to be provided by the government to community organizations, libraries, schools in order to provide education about online safety issues. Similarly, internet providers such as social networking sites (Facebook, YouTube and MySpace) need to continue to work with policy-makers and ministry of communication information to create awareness and opportunities for privacy protection of the public and to develop technologies that can assist them in staying safe.

Conclusion

As the Information Age advances, social media become more and more of a widely used source of communication. It has become so popular that it is completely changing the way people view and respond to society; and opening up new ways for people to interact with each other. This process has both positive and negative influences on our way of life as already captured above. However, it is difficult if not impossible for people to interact without an exchange or transfer of values, ideas, beliefs and knowledge. Therefore, tolerance of cultural pluralism which is a feature of the global system is tendered here as the remedy. Rather than worrying over whose culture dominates the system, the concern of developing countries like Nigeria, perhaps, ought to be on how to exploit the opportunities of the online social media to make cultural statement in the global arena.

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**COALITION BUILDING TO FIGHT CORRUPTION AT THE BASE OF THE PYRAMID: THE
ROLE OF THE CIVIL SOCIETY IN NIGERIA**

ABUBAKAR, USMAN (Ph.D.)

**Department of Local Government & Development Studies,
Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria,
Kaduna State, Nigeria.
E – mail: biouzman@yahoo.com
+2348133815776**

ABSTRACT

Corruption is not a new issue. It has lived with us for centuries now. What however, stares us in the face is how public funds are squandered with impunity and reckless abandon. During the past few years, academics and members of the civil society have realized the link between corruption and economic growth, with this relation distorting the allocation of resources. It is in the quest for good governance that this article was written. The methodology was basically qualitative with a high dose of content analysis and drawing from the experience of other countries to instill best practices in Nigeria. The paper is of the view that the anti-graft and law enforcement agencies alone cannot successfully wage and win the war against corruption. It is the view of the paper that fighting corruption, which is a socio-cultural issue, needs the support and coalition of the civil society.

Key Words: Coalition Building, Corruption, Local Government and Civil Society

Introduction

The War Against Indiscipline (WAI) launched in 1984 was a watershed by the then military junta, General Muhammadu Buhari to fight corruption in Nigeria. Since then, both public and private sector organizations including civil society organizations have put the issue of corruption on the front burners of our national discourse. Corruption is widely acknowledged as a national problem, a ‘cankerworm that has eaten deeply into the fabrics of the Nigerian society’. Hitherto, the discussion of corruption and corrupt practices were limited to law enforcement agencies but as the level of public awareness grew coupled with advocacy made by transparency international; the call for its containment has been widely canvassed for. Thanks also, to the role of civil society for its effective and sustained campaign against the national malaise

Several reasons account for the growing desire to fight corruption. First is the insistence by international donor agencies that good governance premised on rule of law, transparency and accountability shall guide development assistance to countries. Second, is the consolidation of democracy and democratic principles which enable citizens to use their voice and vote and renewed liberty and freedom to confront corrupt leaders by embarking on anti-corruption crusades. Thirdly, corruption has stifled the attraction of foreign investors who are apathetic to corrupt practices, and less willing to accommodate the risk associated with corruption.

Statement of the Problem

Corruption, as a national phenomenon and a developmental problem has been on the front burner of Nigeria’s agenda for several decades now. Since the Buhari Administration launched the War Against Indiscipline and Corruption (WAI & C) in 1984, several other initiatives have shaped the country’s fight against corruption.

- i. The establishment of Independent Corrupt Practices Commission (ICPC)
- ii. The Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC)

These institutions, particularly with the ushering in of democratic governance in Nigeria were established to support the government's fight against graft and take into account the responsibility of good governance for its citizens. Government from the above scenario has been doing it alone as far as the fight against corruption is concerned. Several decades after these institutions aimed at fighting corruption have been established, the problematic of this study is why corruption has not been combated. Again, why is it that the people for whom the war is waged (citizens) have not been fully engaged in the fight against the graft.

Definition of Concepts

i. Corruption

Corruption is referred to as the abuse of public office for private gain (Human Right Watch, 2006:17). The definition encompasses instances where "public officials accept, solicit or extort bribes; and when private actors offer bribes to subvert circumvent public policies for competitive advantage or profit". According to the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC; 2006:6), corruption is principally a governance problem that translates into a failure of institutions and a lack of capacity to manage society by means of a frame work of social, judicial, political and economic checks and balances. When these formal and informal systems break down, it becomes harder to implement and enforce laws and policies that ensure accountability and transparency. The entire process runs counter to the rule of law. Two forms of corruption have been identified by the World Bank. To them, these are state capture and administrative corruption. State capture refers to "actions of individuals, groups, or firms in both the public and private sectors to influence the formation of laws, regulations, Decrees and other government policies (i.e. the basic rules of the game) to their own advantage by means of the illicit and non-transparent provision of private benefits to public officials". Administrative corruption on the other hand, gives (advantages to either state or non-state actors as a result of the illicit and non-transparent provisions of private gain to public officials). By these, state officials "simply misdirect public funds under their control for their own or their families' direct financial benefit.

As a result of the misuse of public funds, corruption becomes a major impediment in the achievement of overall development. This glaring lack of transparency and accountability undermines government's ability to effectively provide the basic necessities of life to a majority of its citizens. As at 1999, when President Olusegun Obasanjo assumed the leadership of the country, over 70% of Nigerians live below the poverty line, life expectancy was put at 54 years, infant mortality stood at seventy-seven per 1000 births, maternal mortality was 704 per 100,000 life births with 30% of children under five years being underweight and access to safe drinking water limited to about 50% of the population (NEEDS, 2004:95). Having briefly defined corruption and its attendant problems, our attention will now focus on the formulation of a hypothesis to guide our discussion in this paper.

ii. Civil Society

The civil society is considered as the realm of association between the household and the state. (sondhi;2000:22) For him this typically includes professional organizations' as well as other formal and informal non-profit associations. Such associations fulfill the functions essential for aggregating and expressing societal interests. Other functions carried out by civil societies includes but are not limited to social integration, social participation in state governance and promotion of democratic values. Civil society organizations create pressure for policy reforms, improved governance as well as monitoring the state's activities to keep tab on abuse of office or corruption.

Hypothesis

Our qualitative survey clearly suggests a symbiotic relationship concerning the role of the civil society in combating corruption in Nigeria. We therefore, hypothesize that government efforts will be sustained to the extent that the civil society participates as a partner in fighting corruption in Nigeria. This hypothesis is premised on the grounds that institutions established by government alone cannot on their own help to fight corrupt practices save with the active participation of the civil society. Viewed this way, combating corruption is not a matter of creating institutions and making laws, but rather it is an activity that is deeply rooted in the civil society itself.

Research Methodology

Of recent, landmark improvements have been made in an attempt to measure corruption, construct composite corruption indices and the design and implementation of surveys. With these developments, it is now possible to construct a framework that analytically links empirical research with operationally

relevant utilization. This landmark improvement was made by the economic development institute at the World Bank in collaboration with the Transparency International and Local NGOs. The trio developed a methodological framework or a methodological approach that integrates one empirical framework and the components identified for understanding and combating corruption. In the words of Sondhi, 2000:5) this overall approach links worldwide database and analysis with determinants of corruption, in-depth country analysis and country action programme (Kaufmann, Pradhan, and Ryterman, 1998 as cited in Sondhi, 2000:5). This research paper will adapt the World Bank Framework to understand and explain the role of civil society in combating corruption in Nigeria and also discuss the recent initiatives embarked upon by the country in this regard.

Anti-Corruption Analysis and Action

Database and Analysis	and	Determinants of Corruption	of	Country Analysis	Action Programme
Worldwide and regional data and analysis		Political patronage		Political Will	Institutional priorities
Prevalence of corruption		Administrative labyrinth		Civil society understanding	Political will and government role
Consequences of corruption		Lack of punishment		Focus Groups	Civil Society
Country governance factors		Social environment		Task forces	Role of International Community

Adapted from: Kaufman, Pradhan and Ryterman (1998)

Literature Review

A body of literature that objectively addresses the problem of corruption, has grown considerably in recent years (Elliot, 1997, Coolidge and Rose-Ackerman, 1997, Gandhi, 1998, Gill, 1998, Girling, 1997, NDC, 1999, Kaufmann and Sachs, 1998, Mauro, 1995, Paul and Guhan, 1997, Shleifer and Vishnay, 1998, Stapenhurst and Kpundeh, 1998, Vittal, 1999, World Bank, 1997, Sondhi, 2000). The analysis of these works (literature) points out that corruption in Nigeria and elsewhere is a complex phenomenon with deep – seated problems of policy distortions, institutional incentives and governance. It is therefore, very difficult to proscribe corruption by mere legal niceties. The reasons for this are very simple: In Nigeria, the judiciary, the law enforcement agencies, and even the anti-graft bodies are not immune to the vagaries of corruption.

Causes of Corruption

There is no doubt that corruption has eaten very deep into the fabrics of the Nigerian society. The Police, the judiciary, the Customs, Immigration have at one point in time or the other being charged with colluding with the political leadership to indulge in systemic corruption. The scandals in the second, third and fourth republics in Nigeria’s democratic history reveal among others the following public officials being accused of corrupt practices: former speaker of the House of Representatives, former Ministers and even former Governors including numerous local government chairmen across the country. Nigeria’s experience with corrupt practices reveals that despite the very beautiful laws, rules, regulations, procedures and methods of transaction of government business, probity and accountability has not been ensured in governance.

The major factor in the analysis of the cause of corruption is poverty. A poor employee is someone who cannot guarantee three square meals from his monthly salary. Considering the downturn and inflation in the economy, the average take-home pay cannot take the employee home as this money can hardly feed a household in a month. Poverty therefore, lures many workers into some unwholesome practices ranging from taking kick-backs before conducting government business. This has resulted in some instances of government properties being stolen or where the theft has been perpetrated the treasurer or account section of the department put on fire. In the words of Eke (1989), the major plank of political culture in many African countries is the network of political corruption. For him, political corruption has to do with the illicit diversion of public funds for private purposes – from public realm to private realm. The implication of this for our discussion of combating corruption at the base of the pyramid is that both the manager and the managed are involved in public corruption.

Many Nigerians are of the view that a public office holder is a failure in so far as he does not enrich himself and his kith and kin in acquiring large chunk of wealth when he leaves the public service. This attitude has become a culture in both our public and private lives to the extent that where a public officer is pronounced guilty in the service for diverting public funds for use elsewhere, he may be pronounced a hero by his primordial groups who benefits from his alleged official misconduct. For those who follow the rules and retire at the end of their service with nothing to show for it, they are seen as an object of hatred and rejection by their immediate kith and kin. This culture and practice within which our public work is conducted hardly encourages probity and accountability.

Following the above observation also is the level of mistrust prevalent in the Nigerian society. For instance, Onu (1994) observed that Nigerians hardly repose any trust or confidence in public servants, especially the political officer holders. This result in the misrepresentation of whatever action they undertake in the interest of the public. The nexus between corrupt politicians and corrupt bureaucrats has been proven in recent years by scandals like the Halliburton scam, oil subsidy scandal involving FarukLawan a vocal member of the House of Representatives and a billionaire oil magnate Femi Otedola. Other cases that are still being proved are those of the former Speaker of the House of Representatives DimejiBankole and his deputy Nafada. Because of this top-down flow of corruption, it has become very difficult to stop or limit it and this has serious repercussion on the society at large.

Dilatory Administrative System

Our administrative systems and procedure are very cumbersome and tardy. The administrative system has inbuilt provisions for delays “prolonged litigations and evasions”. Its provisions are suited to the promotion of corruption at all levels, as graft provides the quickest immunity from delays and punitive actions. Its provisions foster an outlook which is subversive to social equity. Another factor which has greatly contributed to the rising trend of corruption in Nigeria is that corrupt practices are often handled with levity. Those at the helm of affairs who should mete out punishment and disciplinary actions shirk in their duties and show unwillingness to use the hammer against corrupt individuals. Reasons for this range from: political or trade union pressures, sheer ineptitude in handling criminal investigation whereby the guilty are allowed to go scot free or where they are penalized, they only go behind bars for few years with the stolen wealth not confiscated; which they come back to enjoy.

The justice system is equally slow and inefficient. It takes several years for cases of corruption to be decided and even in some instances; corrupt political officials who can pay their way are often discharged and acquitted. A good example is the case of James Ibori, Former Governor of Delta State whose case could not be efficiently handled in Nigeria, safe for the Courts in London which are trying him under the money laundering offence. The result of this dilatory and inefficient process is that the accused often escape punishment because of the length of time that the case keeps dragging on. Seen this way, we can say that justice delayed is justice denied particularly in the cases of corruption.

Socio-Cultural Environment

The socio-cultural environment in which public administration is practiced has a very powerful impact on it. Most of the bureaucrats in the public service are influenced by the ethos in the socio-cultural environment. In Nigeria, corruption has found a place to roost, issues such as bribery, nepotism; favoritism, god-fatherism and even tribalism have become acceptable decimal in the society. Little wonder therefore, that primordial factors often take precedence over meritocracy. Communities often roll out drums and give chieftaincy titles to people who acquire wealth through fraudulent means without regard to investigating how they come about such wealth. In the words of Sondhi (2000:13), it is no surprise therefore, that at times the corrupt political leaders walk majestically to the court and acknowledge their supporters greetings as if they were to receive award for public service.

CONSEQUENCES OF CORRUPTION

Corruption is both a developmental and moral issue. Corruption kills development. Because of the misuse and diversion of public funds, and the reduced productivity of public investment, corruption is a major impediment to good governance. Corruption also undermines all government programs that have been advocated for by the World Bank. In the Indian experience, the Supreme Court of India observed that:

Corruption in a civil society is like cancer which if not detected in time is sure to malignise the polity of the country leading to disastrous consequences. It is termed as a plague which is not only contagious but if not controlled spreads

like a fire in a jungle. Its virus is compared with HIV leading to AIDS, being incurable. It has also been termed as royal thievery. The socio-political system exposed to such a dreaded communicable disease is like to crumble under its own weight (AIR2000, S C870)

The impact of corruption on the living standards of the average Nigerian is clearly very visible in both the urban and the rural areas. The Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation (NNPC) and the Power Holding Company of Nigeria (PHCN) which are largely responsible for the provision of petrol and electricity respectively are among the most corrupt government agencies in Nigeria. In Nigeria, the production and distribution losses in the Power and Oil sectors are estimated to be over 50% out of which almost 35% is attributed to bunkering which is done with the connivance of NNPC employees. Corruption reduces government revenue, its capacity for investment with a negative balance of payment. Corruption also has adverse effect on human development by increasing the cost of basic social services through sharp practices. Accesses to social services are often restricted through the creation of artificial scarcity with the intention for one to corruptly enrich himself. With access to public service being linked to illegal cash payment, (bribery) the cost of corruption raises the price of these services. From the political perspective, corruption increases injustice and disregard for the rule of law. This manifests itself when basic human rights and freedom are commercialized. Police arrests and investigation come under threat and results in personal vendetta rather than solid legal facts. Corruption has very dire consequences for a civilized society. It is a cankerworm likened to the Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS) which can lead the polity in to catastrophic situations.

COMBATING CORRUPTION

Going by the number of institutional mechanisms put in place by government to tackle corruption, it can be inferred that the government has taken the bull by the horn in eradicating this cankerworm in the society. Thanks to the establishment of institutions such as the Independent Corrupt Practices Commission (ICPC), the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC). In spite of the elaborate and multi-layered arrangement put in place by the government to nib corruption in the bud, save for the noise and elaborate publicity by the media, no appreciable blow has been dealt with corrupt officers at all the tiers of government in Nigeria. This may appear pedestrian but when the facts are laid bare, it becomes very glaring that only lip service is paid to the very important issue of eradicating corruption. There is a near absence of political will and commitment on the part of the leadership at all levels. Little wonder why the established anti-graft agencies cannot work. The political leadership is in itself not leading by example. The recalcitrant and lip service being paid to the twin issues of probity and accountability can only be addressed from within: after all "charity they say begins at home". Not until the leadership at all level live by example and are able to draw a dividing line between private conscience and public morality or personal gain from overall national interest, the continuous plundering of the public treasury will continue unabated. The situation becomes much more worrisome where perpetrators enjoy the political patronage of the leadership.

At the bureaucratic level, corruption can be checkmated where the principles of probity and accountability are strictly enforced. At the moment, there is a near absence of accountability in the polity. Everyone in the public service is a lord unto himself (Oga), not accountable or answerable to any one nor respects the rule of law. In the bid to combat corruption, a public service administration reform should be designed in order to minimize opportunities for corruption; this can be done by simplifying procedures and regulations, minimizing the discretionary powers of decision makers by introducing for instance rotation mechanisms and reward for merit performance within the service. Sensitizing and providing incentives for local government employees in their daily jobs is also very important. The present system where files go round several offices before decisions are taken should give way to new pattern of decision making that is simple and transparent. This further calls for advanced management techniques and methods in the workings of the public service so that efficiency and productivity can be enhanced.

Civil Society Coalition

Building coalition between civil society and government is a very important step in fighting corruption. Coalition building is the process of involving different stakeholders from government and civil society to design institutional reforms in a particular polity. The civil society has a key role to play in combating corruption. They constitute stakeholders and the affected party of corruption and thus their active support

in the fight against corruption becomes imperative. In Nigeria, a growing number of structures, institutions and associations outside government have emerged for the joint pursuit of shared interests. They range from professional associations and various forms of non-governmental organizations. They have kept watch and provided oversight functions in shaping opinions, building coalition and monitoring the conduct of government business. The Score Card methodology and of recent, the performance contract management approach embraced by local governments is an innovative instrument to track and expose corruption in public services. The application of the score card and particularly the performance contract has not only raised the awareness of the citizens but also mobilized them to rise up against corrupt practices at the local government level.

Realizing the need to integrate public policy with public participation, the Federal Government of Nigeria commissioned a review of service delivery in the country in 2008. A report: Service Delivery in Nigeria: A RoadMap was published in February 2008 with a service delivery program which should aim at:

- i. Create citizens and customers demand
- ii. Instill higher expectation of public services
- iii. Communicate service entitlements and rights
- iv. Publish information about performance
- v. Redesign the services around customers' requirements.

Progressive as this bold attempt by the government was, it was initiated from the top with no civil society participation. The servicom Charter hardly saw the light of the day with the expiration of the tenure of the initiator. With the passing into law, the freedom of information bill by the National Assembly, and the development and use of interactive websites in Ministries, Departments and Agencies, a positive step in keeping the citizens informed in the conduct of government business and consequently track corrupt practices have been put in place. A participatory process is gradually evolving in Nigeria with citizens participating in the formulation and monitoring anti-corruption crusades: a phenomenon hardly ever thought of during the country's experience with Military governments. It is expected that with the freedom of information and fertile ground for civil society to operate that the coalition to combat corruption will win the battle and instill probity and accountability in governance.

CONCLUSION

The debilitating effects of corruption on the Nigerian economy are so glaring to everyone and need not be recounted here. The pervasiveness of the scourge points to the weakness of existing mechanism to tackle corruption. Tackling corruption therefore requires a multi prong approach that addresses a set of fundamental institutional determinants. The call being made is for an institutional reform that promotes civil society coalition with government in a participatory manner to nib corruption in the bud. This approach it is hoped will promote and support the efforts of the anti-graft agencies and the law enforcement agencies which themselves are corrupt.

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ANATOMY OF PRINT MEDIA: A SYNOPSIS OF THE BASICS

ZORTE MAAMAA (Ph.D)

Department of Mass Communication

Bingham University, Karu

Nassarawa State, Nigeria.

+2347038068838;

zortema@yahoo.com

Abstract

The print media are expansive field of study. New communication technologies are further making the print media explosive and fusing in nature. In the light of the importance of print media in the broader field of communication, this paper sets out to expound on its anatomy. This way, the paper appraises the meaning, development and types of print media. The paper also captures the editorial policy essence, registration procedure and ownership nature of print media. In addition, it addresses the organizational structure, enterprise culture and news structure of print media. Furthermore, it identifies the styles, laws and ethics of print media. The paper takes a last look at the internet and key challenges in the print media industry today.

Keywords: print media, anatomy, communication, editorial policy.

INTRODUCTION

Communication is a large field of study. As a discipline communication arts or studies embrace and tap knowledge widely from other disciplines, such as Political Science, Sociology, Philosophy, Linguistics, Anthropology, Psychology etc. Its scope is spread across intrapersonal, interpersonal or dyadic, group, organizational, cross cultural and mass communication.

Other areas of communication concern are public relations, advertising, development communication, environmental communication, health communication, human communication and, you name it. Many of these areas have developed into full-fledged disciplines. A good example is mass communication.

Mass communication itself is an embodiment of a host of other disciplines. This is epitomized in Professor I.E. Nwosu's edited book: *Mass Communication: One Course, Many Professions*. As a course of study, mass communication is the arts of communicating simultaneously to heterogeneous audiences through the mass media of radio, television, film, newspaper, magazine and book. These basic media could be divided into electronic and print. Any fresh person that is interested in print journalism therefore has the three basic media of newspaper, magazine and book, to study.

PRINT MEDIA

The print media have existed for a long time. It is the oldest of the mass media. Okunna (1999, p.32) reminds us that:

From 300 to 200 B.C. the first symbols evolved from pictographs which at that time had become increasingly stylized. These symbols developed into primitive alphabets, which marked the beginning of recorded history. This was how the Sumerians developed the first known pictographic writing called cuneiform, in 3500 B.C., and how the Egyptians developed hieroglyphics in 3100 B.C. However, the first real alphabet was developed in the Mideast in the period 1800 to 1600 B.C. Thereafter, the stage was set for the emergence of the forerunner of the modern print media.

Today, the print media have grown fast and have proliferated all over the world, resulting in a widespread availability of books, magazines and newspapers of all types, shapes and sizes. For example, in Nigeria at the beginning of 1990s, there were about 140 newspapers, magazines and similar publications. However by 1990, within a period of less than ten years, this number of publications had doubled to 300. At the moment, Nigeria is awash with print publications of all sorts.

In spite of the present economic challenges, new books, newspapers and magazines are continually being published in Nigeria and elsewhere in the world. But the worrisome thing is that illiteracy, poverty and poor state of infrastructural facilities especially in countries that are still developing are hindering readership and patronage of the print media industry. Yet it is important to take an overview of historical development in the print media industry.

DEVELOPMENT

BOOK: A book is a bound print publication wrapped in cloth, hard or paperback. The historical development of book is long. The short of it is that, earliest records, from remembered time, show *book* in clay tablet form in Babylonia. The Egyptians papyrus plant (from where the modern word paper was coined), which grew along the River Nile, is often credited with the earliest inexpensive writing materials.

Sandman and other researchers (1976, P.30) note that the first known book, *the Book of the Dead*, was written in Egypt between 1580 and 1350 B.C. Thus, the present form of book yielded from the intervention of paper in China, in the first century A.D. However, the intervention of printing technique which evolved in China, and in Europe in the fifteenth century led to mass production of books without resorting to the “laborious process of hand copying” as MacBride (1981, P 6) describes it.

A more impressive revolution in printing technology occurred the year 1450. That year Johan Gutenberg’s breakthrough puts practical end to 1221 and 1445 wood copper movable types of the Chinese and ushered in the modern European age of printing which, six years later, produced the famous Gutenberg Bible. No wonder McQuail (1987, P.9) says: “the history of modern media begins with the printed book- certainly a kind of revolution ...”

NEWSPAPER: a newspaper is an unbound printed publication of latest information in words, pictures graphics and other illustrative materials presented in regular intervals. Chronologically, newspaper came after book to serve the commercial interest of employees and customers of large business. The first printed news report originated in the form of pamphlets or news books. It first appeared in China in 500 A.D., thereafter, in England and other European countries in the early 1550s.

The first regular newspaper was spotted in England in 1621. The first England daily newspaper, Daily Courant, was founded in 1702. The first full name is Iwe Irohin in *Ara Egbu ati Yoruba*, literally translated as newspaper for the Egbu-speaking people and Yoruba. An English missionary of the Anglican Mission, named Reverend Henry Townsend, started it in Abeokuta in December 1859.

MAGAZINE: a magazine is a bound printed pamphlet containing various interesting information in words, pictures graphics and other illustrative materials presented weekly, monthly or periodically as the case may be. Magazine appeared in the last quarter of the nineteenth century. It came as a response to people’s desire and need for entertainment, family relaxation and enlightenment, social and cultural improvement.

The African challenge (1947 – 1951), a Christian faith-based publication was the first known magazine in Nigeria during the colonial era. Thereafter, *the Nigeria Gazette* (1900), and later the general interest *Nigeria Handbook came up in Lagos* (1917). Then *the Bulletin of Education Matters*, which later become the *Nigeria Magazine*, was first published in 1927, before the *Nigerian School Master* in 1934. Other titles: the Nigeria Digest, the Nigeria Year Book, Torch, Quite and countless of them appeared on the news stand years preceding Nigeria independence in 1960.

After 1960, many more magazines appeared. As a matter of fact, the real boom period for magazine however started to bloom in 1970 and blossomed into the colourful big names (Newswatch, Tell, The News etc) available on the news stand to date.

TYPES

As forms of print media, book, newspaper and magazine are diverse in types. Often, agreement is hard to reach on classification of these types. As a result, they follow a system or pattern based on their subject matter or content, purpose or objective, target audience, area of circulation or geography and frequency of publication. Sometimes they are classified according to their times, format and method of publication,

achievement, profession or business and religion etc. In fact, print media classification has no uniformity, their typology simply “blur and blend” according to Uyo (1987, P. 10).

For instance, Sandman and other researchers (1976, P. 292) classify book into educational and general-purpose books. Educational books they say, include primary and secondary textbooks, college textbooks, standardized textbooks, university press books, subscription reference books, technical and scientific books, business and professional books and medical books. Examples of general-purpose books include mass-market books (paper backs), trade books, book club books, mail-order books, religious books and juvenile books.

Newspaper also, could be classified into daily and weekly, tabloid and broadsheet, morning newspaper or evening newspapers. Other types are neighborhood community, provincial or regional, national and international newspapers.

Similarly magazines could be classified into the general-interest magazine, the special interest magazines and the newsmagazines. The general-interest magazine also called *omnibus* magazine is in mass circulation nature in addition to the fact that it contains variety of materials with human-interest appeals. The special interest or specialized, is a magazine published to meet the interest of a special or like-minded audience, of a profession, a religion, age, sex, ethnicity, school of thought, etc. Most primarily concerned with news is the newsmagazines, which provides dept and interpretation of news in features, columns, articles, gleaned from the society.

POLICY

All these types of books, newspapers and magazines are not produced without guiding principles, which state or outline their goals and audience. This explains why Udoakah (2001, P. 48) says: those principles are what constitute the editorial policy. Adding that:

An editorial policy takes into consideration the objectives of the newspaper or magazine, the readership and, of course, the paper's source of funds, the prevailing policies, values, and laws of the environment within which the newspaper or magazine operates. It thus shapes the character of the publication, influences its content and dictates its frequency, and format.

In a broad sense, Seymour-Ure (1969) cited in Udoakah (2001, P. 48) calls an editorial policy, actions or decisions on a paper's overall style and contents. Corroborating, Ekwelie (2000, P. vii) avers “How a newspaper or a magazines is produced is in part a function of policy and in part a matter of style”. In other words, policy may determine the stories that are actually published and the slant or style to follow. Just like every other genre of the mass media, the print media exist to inform and educate the public. They also entertain, mobilize and keep watchful eye on government programmes, activities and polices, in public trust.

NEWS-STRUCTURE

Thus, as custodian of public trust, the print media perform its functions through the writing of editorials, feature, articles, columns, advertisements, news etc. Sometimes, the print media cover events in the environment and write investigative, in-depth, specialized, interpretative or spot reports in public interest. Writing for the print media takes on unique structure distinctive from the electronic format. For example, a typical print news story contains the head, lead and body.

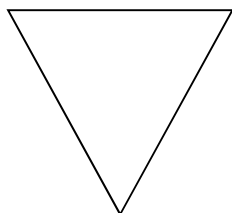
The head or headline (and topic or title in the case of book) functions according to Akinfeleye (1962), to grade, sell, summarize, draw attention and make the newspaper or magazine more attractive. The lead or intro is the first paragraph of the news story. Lead writing has often been facilitated by a formula which helps the writer to answer certain crucial questions right in the first paragraph of the news story. Such questions as: who is involved, what happens, where, when, why and how? These five questions each beginning with W and the last H, gave birth to the 5Hs and H formula.

Types of lead vary; depending on the function the lead performs. A few of them are summary, descriptive, quotation, narrative and question. Others may be direct, delay and contrast leads etc. A lead writer however

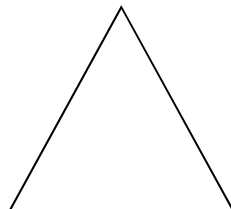
needs to be precise, specific and objective and attribute opinions. Also, there is need to stress the usual, odd thing and use questions and quotation sparingly.

The body of the news story includes all other paragraphs outside lead and headline. The body takes diverse models or structure such as: the inverted pyramid, pyramid, modified or screw structures.

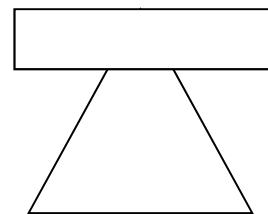
See diagram:



Inverted pyramid



Pyramid



Screw

Although generations of print media writings have toed this pyramidal line, the approach is not the same outside straight or spot news. Read this supportive view of Mencher (1996, P. 159), he says:

However, use of the inverted pyramid does limit the story telling abilities of the writer. Sometimes the writer may want to withhold the key element for a few paragraphs, or even until the end of the story. Sometimes the story is better told when the climax is at the end than when it is at the beginning.

For other story types like feature, article, column etc, there exist various approaches such as the 1-2-3, chronological, linear and so on.

STYLE

Style is important. It guides print media production in such matters as spelling, abbreviation, capitalization, writing code etc. Also, it influences issues of gender, ethnicity, race and religion. Adherence to style therefore gives the print media stability, excellence, creates a recognizable personality, makes for ease of production and generates appealing readership. The point is; style is often dictated by policy. It gives the media a unique and a distinctive figure, image and huge personality, such as *Time*, *Tell*, *Guardian* etc have accomplished through their elitist, yet simple and flowery styles.

Style could be learnt from stylebooks, style sheets, oral instruction and by studying the books, newspapers and magazines themselves. By definition, Summers (1995, PP. 14-37) has viewed style as ‘a particular way of doing something, designing something, or producing something especially one that is typical of a particular group of people’. More journalistically, Aligwe (1999, P. 185) states that style involves the ‘peculiarities about the rhythm of a writer’s work resulting from diction and sentence construction’. Ultimately a good style should give every genre of the print media a creative and aesthetic makeup and design.

REGISTRATION

Whatever may be the policy and favourable style (complex, simple, conversational, humorous, flowery, etc.), the news media or publishers must first get its business name registered with Corporate Affairs Commission. This may come as a one-man business, partnership, joint venture, or a limited liability company to get business started.

OWNERSHIP

Whether it is registered as private, legal entity and, or public company, the owners of print media straightaway begin to exert themselves in line with their stated or unstated goals. Often, the nature of ownership in any given country reflects the country’s political system.

ORGANIZATION

Once print media owners settle down to business, the need to organize and run their businesses effectively and efficiently is taken serious. Organization is needed to enhance and to facilitate the attainment of policies in all print media outfits. In any case, the organizational chart operated at *Macmillan* may not be the same with *MaGraw-Hill* or *Spectrum Books* or *Aboki Publishers*. Neither would the same structure apply across *ThisDay* or *TheSun*, *NewsWatch* or *TheNews*.

Whatever is the case, a typical book publishing outfit is divided into: management, editorial, art and production, finance and account, marketing and sales, warehouse, field representative departments, etc. In like manner, a newspaper or magazine organizational structure could be fashioned out, line and staff. The editorial is the line sector. And, within the editorial is the news department. Usually, other departments could be feature, sports, women, entertainments, arts, production, library, business, circulation and production. Yet others might be mechanical, electrical, administration, finance and accounts, etc.

Obviously, these departments bear the names of their responsibilities or job roles and the designations vary from one media house to the other. To achieve success, enterprise and teamwork are germane. As a point of duty, hard work and team playing are required from every employee from the reporter up the ladder to the editors and down the road to the print shop where papers actually go to bed.

LAW

The print media do not operate outside the purview of the law. Print media runners are expected to be mindful of the legal implications of their practice. A few of the laws are:

- a. *Copyright*: A constitutional rather than privileged rights of an author or originator of a creative work to reap the benefits accruing to his work by exercising maximum authority or control over the reproduction, distribution and commercial use of his work for a special period. In Nigeria, the law regulating it is Copyright Decree of 1988, which replaced the Copyright Act 1970.
- b. *Defamation*: This law exists to protect the reputation of the individual (both his moral reputation and his professional reputation) from unjustified attack. Such attack may be dealt with either as a civil or as a criminal matter. In civil law it is a tort- that is "a civil wrong for which monetary damages may be claimed" (Greenwood and Welsh, 1985, P. 96). Defamation in print is libel.
- c. *Contempt of Court*: Is broadly defined as any act which is calculated to embarrass, hinder or obstruct court in administration of justice, or which is calculated to lessen its authority or its dignity, committed by a person who does not act in willful contravention of its authority or dignity, or tending to impede or frustrate the administration of justice or by one who being under the courts authority as a party to a proceeding willfully disobeys its lawful order or fails to "comply with an understanding which he has given" (Black 's Law Dictionary, 6th ed.) cited in Ewelukwa (2004,P. 145).
- d. *Privacy*: This entails "a person's right to be left alone, to keep his name and picture out of the mass media, is his right of privacy" (Click and Baird, 1979, P. 274).
- e. *Official Secrets Act*: The Official Secrets Act is registration made by the government to prevent people who have custody of secret or official documents, such as policy decisions, contacts and actions of government from recklessly divulging them to the public" (Ewelukwa, 2004, P. 242).
- f. *Obscenity*: This refers to "sexually, offensive language or behavior, especially in a book, play, film, etc" (Summers , 1995, P. 746).
- g. *Law of Sedition*: This is simply, "any form of communication that tends to poison public mind against any government of the day" (Nwodu, 2006, P. 170).
- h. *Press Freedom*: Section 36 (1) of 1979 constitution (now section 39(1) of 1999 constitution states inter alia: "Every person shall be entitled to freedom of expression

including freedom to hold opinions and to receive and impart ideas and information without interference. See also Article 19 of Universal Declaration of Human Rights; Article 19 (2) of the International Convention on Civil and Political Rights; and the First Amendment Act of the United States of America's 1770 *Bill of Rights*.

ETHICS

In the same vein, ethics, like laws, spell out knotty issues upon which print media practitioners are expected to be ethically responsible. Details of ethical prescriptions are documented in the 1998 journalism codes of ethics in Nigeria. A few of the issues covered are press freedom, social responsibility, plagiarism, public interest, access to information, children and minors, violence, reward and gratification and discrimination. Others are privilege, accuracy, fairness, editorial independence, objectivity, welfare, decency, safety and justice, etc.

TECHNOLOGY

Internet is the newest technology that is thrilling the print media. It is a global network of computers, which enables multimedia transmission of text, pictures, graphics, audio and video. Access to internet search engines such as www.google.com, yahoo.com or infoseek.com turns out a corpus of useful information to the print media in fleet seconds.

Besides, audiences now assess, read, and subscribe to their favourite books, newspapers, and magazines at designated websites. Arens, (2002, P. 503) adds that with computers came "revolutionary media options" such as the internet and CD-ROM, challenging traditional print media to adopt. Newspapers and magazines are rushing to make alliances with cable, regional telephone, and online companies to get a toehold in the interactive information market. Despite this Mbachu (2003, Pp. 185-186) observes that:

... just as the internet is bringing benefit to the print media, it is also creating possibilities that represent threats to newspaper and magazines ... Where the internet appears to pose threats to the media, they appear to be more in favour of broadcasting.

CHALLENGE

Perhaps, the most imposing challenge to the print media at the moment is the ongoing electronic media onslaught posed by the internet. As a matter of concern, all media forms, print and electronic, have collapsed walls of differences into one fusing internet media. Which is why in desperate move to stay afloat in business, the print media have delved into terrain previously the exclusive preserve of wire services or news agencies. In the United State for instance, Mbachu (2003, P. 188) notes that:

All the leading newspapers have also set up news services. The Washington Post and the Los Angeles Times are running a joint news service. The New York Times also has its own news service. To firm up their hold in the traditional newspaper publishing business, the New York Times, the Washington Post and some leading European newspapers had teamed up some years back to set up the international Herald Tribune published out of Paris, and aggregating materials produced by all the members organizations to produce a newspaper with an international appeal.

CONCLUSION

The print media are broad, growing field. The subjects raised in this presentation are few, selected out of a lot. Discussions on these few areas are not only introductory but are mere hints. In fact, each of these mentioned areas are also concerns for huge academic discourse. A comprehensive approach to the print media would no doubt require a textbook treatment. Even at that, not everything may be covered. Besides, a more explosive cause for concern is rooted in multimedia. A situation where all media forms are increasingly getting mixed, may pose no end to introducing a fusing media.

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NIGERIAN PRESS AND CREDIBLE ELECTIONS: A SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY VIEWPOINT

ZORTE MAAMAA, Ph.D
Department of Mass communication
Bingham University, Karu
Zortema@yahoo.com
+234703806883

Abstract

Political power lies with the people. Elections offer the people the opportunity to decide those to whom they will entrust power. Mass media, being the custodian of public trust, must therefore stand up to the challenge of aiding a peaceful, free, fair and transparent process of political transition of power. For today's democratic process to work, the mass media in Nigeria and elsewhere in the world, whether private or public, electronic or print, must see their role as largely a social responsibility obligation to the nation. In doing so, mass media organizations must look beyond publicity and stenographing. As a matter of fact, there are crucial things they must do and must not do as well. This paper examines these things. The paper suggests that the solution journalism spirit should drive mass media on the path of success any time there is elections in Nigeria.

Keywords: Press, political power, mass media, election, transition.

Introduction

Election is a decisive process in the political history of any society. People's collective will expressed in election is capable of moving a nation forward or backward. Electorates who choose wisely are able to produce good leaders. Entrusted with positions of responsibilities, good leaders work hard to provide for their people and move their countries forward in the global community of nations.

To make a wise choice during election, three core factors may guarantee it. First, if the electoral process is peaceful, free, fair and transparent. Second, if qualified, trustworthy aspirants or candidates are running for elective offices. Third, if electorates are well informed on the process and the aspirants vying for various offices. When these three conditions are met, any country may conduct elections rightly described as credible.

Mass media

Communication is a spring of life. It is useful for human habitation and co-existence. No society survives and succeeds without communication. That explains why some scholars view it as a social affair (Cherry, 2000; Apkan, 1987; and Wisdom, 1997). Communication is therefore at the heart of social intercourse and it is crucial in bringing people together and advancing mutual, peaceful relationships and development. Daniel and Spiker (1987, P.5) describe it as "life-blood" of society, that create what Barker and Camarata (1990, PP. 443-67) call "knowledge moments". Communication is indeed such a pervasive thing, a sort of key to survival that no society can do without in its various forms.

The media of communication, especially mass communication, are therefore devices by which communication is made possible. These include radio, television, cell phone, newspaper, magazine, book and the new media of internet etc. The totality of these devices is what is referred to as the mass media. The mass media are generally accepted as agents of development and social change in society. They are reputable agents of socialization, sensitization and mobilization of people for advancement and empowerment of society. The mass media have been known to foster peace, unity, progress and the common good of society, known in Liberal theory as the *Fourth Estate* of the realm. The mass media are also the watchdogs of society. They exist to perform certain core functions to society.

Of the critical functions of media to society, the most widely acceptable is based on Harold Lasswell's "three major activities" and the fourth activity added by Charles Wright (1959, P.9):

1. Surveillance of the environment
2. Correlation of parts of society in responding to the environment

3. Transmission of social heritage from one generation to the next
4. Entertainment.

As Wright notes, surveillance refers to the collection and distribution of information concerning events in the environment, both outside and within any particular society, such as the news functions of the mass media. Correlation involves interpretation of information about the environment and prescription for conduct in reaction to events in society, such as the editorial or opinion function of the media. Transmission of social heritage focuses on the communication of knowledge, values, and social norms from one generation to another or from members of a group to newcomers, such as the education function. Entertainment includes communicative acts primarily intended to amuse irrespective of instrumental effects, such as sports, games, performances, riddles and jokes, cartoons, puzzles, etc.

Social responsibility theory

This paper is anchored on the social responsibility theory. This theory is relevant and related because it holds that the mass media must recognize the social responsibility it owe society in the conduct of peaceful, free and fair elections and give thought to how it would best discharge that responsibility. The social responsibility theory is, first a product of the 1947 Hutchins Commission in the United State of America. The commission appraised the successes and failures of the press and the whole gamut of issues surrounding press freedom and limitations. The theory perceives ownership of media as a public trust rather than an unlimited private franchise.

Summing up the main concerns of social responsibility theory, McQuail (2000, P. 150) notes that:

1. The media have obligations to society and media ownership is a public trust
2. Mass media should be truthful, accurate, fair, objective and relevant.
3. The media should be free, but self-regulated.
4. Media should follow agreed code of ethics and professional conducts.
5. Under some circumstances, government may need to intervene to safeguard the public interest.

Concepts of peaceful, free and fair elections

Peaceful elections suggest or imply that the environment for the conduct of elections should be devoid of war, battle, violence, disruption, crisis, conflict and trouble of any sort. Hence, the situation or atmosphere for elections should be orderly and without fighting or physical or psychological torments of any kind. Whereas, elections are considered **free elections** when all qualified and dully registered parties, voters etc are allowed without hindrance to participate in the process of choosing their choice aspirants or candidates for any office of public trust. **Fair elections** imply that everyone has been guaranteed equal opportunity to vote and be voted for without any discrimination.

Elections are therefore **free and fair elections** if no parker (be they electorate, aspirant, candidate or party etc) is short changed, denied, disallowed or prevented from enjoying the constitutional right of full participation and involvement in the electoral process before, during or after elections as required by electoral law of the land in a **transparent** and **credible** process. The electoral process is deemed transparent in so far as it is open, clear, and could be verified by accredited independent or public observers and authorities as allowed by law. Being so credibility of the elections is adjudged by public acceptance, believe and trust in the political system and electoral process.

Media and politics in Nigeria

There is no doubt that the mass media have exercised commendable courage and made laudable mark in politics in Nigeria. Arguably, most of the credits for Nigeria's independence in 1960 are attributed to the Nigerian press for its unrelenting campaign for the termination of colonial rule not only in Nigeria but elsewhere on African continent. Besides, at every juncture in the nation's struggle for true nationhood the media consistently stood up to be counted. Whether it was in the fight against neo-colonialism or fascism or military dictatorship, the role of the Nigerian media over the years has been rather remarkable despite a few dark spots in that odyssey. As the Sunday Newspaper (2009, P.3) recalls in a comment:

At great cost to itself, the Nigerian press fought
Gallantly on the side of the people. Some press
Fellows got killed. And some were maimed for
life. Yet none of that could stop the press from

taking up the responsibility assigned to it by the Nigerian constitution – which is to hold government accountable to the people to exposing the excesses of government officials.

What is more, one still recalls the **Salisu Buharigate** and the role of the press in foiling former president Obasanjo's brazen attempt to go for a third term contrary to the provisions of the constitution. From the foregoing and many more, it is clear that the mass media do not lack the courage to deliver on their political or democratic responsibilities to the society.

What the mass media must do

To effectively assist in the conduct of a peaceful, free and fair elections in Nigeria in line with their core functions and social responsibility obligations to society, the mass media must among other things endeavor to give priority attention to:

1. Likely conflict situations in the political environment, before, during and after elections
2. Quality of mass media news and reports on elections
3. A solution-based approach to mass media practice

Likely conflict situations in the political environment

Conflict is inevitable in any given human society. This is true in so far as in the course of human interaction people must deal with difference as well as similarities. And, because the very nature of conflict itself has to do with struggle, disagreement, controversy, strife is often engendered. This follows the incompatible behaviours which are usually in the character of conflict itself. There is no intention however to discuss the nature of conflict here but rather to identify likely conflict situations within the political terrain for which the mass media must keep watch in order to avoid eruptions that could disturb peaceful conduct of elections. Before this is done, it is imperative to quickly stress the high need for voter education before elections are conducted.

Voter education before elections

Voter education is very fundamental to the conduct of peaceful, free and fair elections anywhere in the world. As noted earlier, only informed electorates could be trusted to conduct themselves properly and vote wisely during elections. The mass media owe it as a duty to prepare the electorates with adequate information, intelligence, facts and figures. Uninformed electorates are gullible electorates. They could be easily tricked and misled into *thuggery* and other criminal acts that derail peaceful conduct of free and fair elections.

Before elections therefore, electorates must be thoroughly informed and educated on the existing political parties, their manifestos and candidates they are fielding for elective public offices. The people need information, education and analysis on key elections officiating bodies and how they operate. For example, the people should know what the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) stands for, how it operates, the power it has and the power it does not have. The people need to know what they as citizens ought to do to help, assist and protect the electoral system and process to succeed peacefully, freely and fairly.

In addition, electorates need to be prepared to know what to look out for in aspirants or candidates vying for public offices. They need mass media help to appreciate the implications of party manifestos and political promises by politicians at rallies and debates such as the Network News 24 Television Presidential Debate, the AIT EDO DECIDE, Edo State Governorship Debate beamed on many stations and Lagos State Governorship Debate recently organized by Channels Television. (Log on to: govtdebate@channelsstv.com; www.channelsfacebook.com/govtdebates;

[twitter@govtdebate.com](https://twitter.com/govtdebate.com); and govtdebate@channelsstv.com).

Electorates clearly need sensitization on what, where, when, who, why, and how to vote wisely, how to protect and how to defend the vote cast as well. Remember that knowledge is power. Quality information and education will inoculate the people against all ills of democracy and good governance.

Also, mass media search light should be beamed on the activities within and between political parties. Critical areas of likely conflicts that call for mass media monitoring and helpful generation of ideas are many. A few of them include:

1. Lack of internal democracy
 2. Controversial policy on zoning and power rotation
 3. Factional interest within a political party
 4. Mismanagement of party funds
 5. Negative electioneering campaigns
 6. Winners takes it all attitude of some politicians
 7. Lack of sportsmanship spirit in defeat
 8. Failure in reaching consensus and alliance between politicians and political parties
- Outside the political parties, mass media eye must be closed on criminals, trouble-shooters and other flashpoints in the society. Other likely situations of conflict may include:
1. Abuse of power of incumbency
 2. Late allocation and approval of funds for elections
 3. Frequent amendment to the electoral act
 4. Controversial and frivolous court judgements', orders and injunctions etc
 5. Civil society unrest
 6. Unguided comments by local and international observers
 7. Security lapses and loopholes

During elections

Elections are more prone to conflict on D-DAY. As watchdogs, mass media election reporting task is challenging on an election day. They are expected to give coverage to events as they unfold. The fourth estate of the realm is also looked upon to give a comprehensive, convincing and acceptable account of every thing that happened during elections and thereafter. On election day or days, mass media are expected to do more than mere publicity and reporting of speeches. The mass media should rather:

1. Give on-the-spot coverage of the elections
2. Monitor to see that due process and code of conduct for elections are kept
3. Keep searchlight on trouble shooters, trouble spots and flashpoints
4. Monitor voting and counting of the results
5. Grant the people enough access to the mass media channels
6. Assist the people to protect and defend votes cast
7. Call the police or other agencies on essential duties if or when there is an emergency situation
8. Offer useful solutions, help, assistance etc when the need for such arise

After elections

After elections some politicians and political parties explode in happiness while others do so in anger. It is usually hard often times to get a victor to be generous in victory and a vanquished to concede defeat. Sometimes the battle ground merely shift to a court room where lawyers inundate judges with burden of proof and prayers. All the same, the mass media must:

1. Stand by the people and defend their will expressed in transparent, free and fair elections
2. Publish the correct results of elections as issued by the independent electoral commission, INEC
3. Reject result of rigged elections even though they are released by the INEC
4. Roundly expose and condemn sharp practices and criminal behaviours' during elections
5. Loud and reward stakeholders as well when it becomes necessary to do so
6. Call for a truce initiate a peace building process between conflicting parties and politicians
7. Encourage winners to be magnanimous in victory and losers to show sportsmanship in political defeat
8. Challenge rigged elections results and other criminal acts in the court of law and in the court of public opinion too
9. Call and mobilize for mass protest against electoral wrong doings only as a last resort.

Writing on "Newspaper and the management of political conflict in Nigeria" Anim (2004, P. 118) appears to recognize the above tripartite nature of conflict (before, during and after elections) when he observes that:

Political campaigns prior to the elections represent conflict situation, yet the end of electioneering and the election of a new government or new set of politicians only set a foot another conflict situation when opposition

parties trade tackles with the party or parties in power

Without doubt, reporting elections is as good as reporting conflict situation. Journalism must thus be guided by these six core duties of reporting in time of conflict put forward by the Institute of War and Peace Reporting, quoting Park and Deshapriya(2011):

1. To understand conflict and how it develops and how resolution can emerge.
2. To report fairly, to report the complexities and how opinions of all factions and to make our own allegiances, if any, clear to readers and viewers.
3. To report the background and causes of conflicts, to accurately represent both the legitimate and perceived grievances of all parties and remind readers that even perceived grievances are important to perpetuating and resolving conflicts.
4. To represent the human side, to represent their trauma and the human stories of all the conflict's victims in a balanced, professional and non-exploitative manner. This is an obligation both to those people and to our readers.
5. To report on peace effort, of those working peace and reconciliation every bit as much as those who exacerbate the conflict, including seeking out sources outside the primary belligerents.
6. To recognize our influence and how our reporting will affect the conflict and the lives of people in it

Quality of news and reports

Whether a journalist reports before during and after elections, mass media audiences ask for nothing but the truth. Since the nature of truth is sometimes controversial and limited, the quality of news stories and other reports are determined by a set of professional principles. Such as:

1. Factualness
2. Balance and Fairness
3. Objectivity
4. Accuracy
5. Attribution
6. Identification
7. Neutrality

Solution- based approach to mass media practice

Mass Media scholars, professionals and other stakeholders hold divergent views on what should be best practice approach for mass media. Should the mass media merely gather and report events as they occur? Or should mass media merely interpret and explain various perspectives, angles, and implications of recorded and reported events as it is done on Ray Power FM's political platform and many other juicy radio and television programmes across the country today? More importantly, should the mass media go as far as to shape the focus, give direction and show the people the way things ought to go in this elections? Jimoh (2005, P. 433) raised similar question when he asks: "is the journalist a mere chronicler of events as they unfold or is he to take active part in shaping the the direction and shape of news"

It should be noted that journalism or mass media practice that rests at the level of recording events can not bring quality challenge to any society and indeed the electoral processes. The challenge of elections in Nigeria requires mass media that can show direction, give leadership, initiate peace building process, point the way forward and proffer solutions to problems and challenges before, during and after elections. Solution journalism therefore, is an approach whose time has come in Nigeria. Solution journalism moves the practice of mass media beyond the shore of oratory to the domain of action. It is a journalism that progresses past the edge of ideas to the Zone of problem solving. Solution journalism advocates involvement, not only to point the light but to take the lead in executing the ideas and solutions they put forward.

What the mass media must not do

For a hitch free and fair elections in Nigeria, the mass media must in the spirit of social responsibility simply avoid the following:

1. Over-heating the polity with sensational slanting of headlines
2. Accepting bribe and other forms of inducement
3. Playing up religious, ethnic or sectional sentiments above national interest.
4. Conspiracy of silence when serious or critical issues of national interest are at stake.

5. Being compliant to ownership, government or other interest at the expense of public interest.

Conclusion

Solution journalism raises hope. It no doubt poses many questions too. On the mass media partway to do it bit however, challenges abound. A few of them include funding, media ideology, ownership interest, untrained persons in the profession, illiteracy, poverty, hunger, and you name it. That notwithstanding, a peaceful, conducive atmosphere is required for the conduct of free and fair elections in Nigeria. Yet no political society is without conflict that sometimes disturbs the peace.

Despite this, mass media are ordinarily expected to function in line with the core essence of social responsibility expectations party captured on McQuails list. Yet, solution journalism which drives on the spirit of giving help, giving aid, giving support and going the extent of doing something to ensure that a problem is solved is in high demand in our developing free nation today. As a matter of fact, democracy is hardly possible without a free press. This is why the Freedom of Information Act should provide unhindered access to information in a free world. After all said and done, a free media should articulate solutions and give credible leadership in public interest and do so in all fairness'

Although the mass media could be used for good or bad, for negative or positive as Egbon (1995) and Kaduna (quoted in Graham, 1983) have said, but let this acknowledged power of the mass media be used to foster, guarantee, engineer and provide a peaceful environment for the conduct of free and fair elections in Nigeria.

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**THE POLITICS OF INTERNATIONAL ARBITRATION OF AFRICAN BOUNDARY
CONFLICTS: A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF INTERNATIONAL COURT OF JUSTICE (ICJ)
VERDICT OVER BAKASSI PENINSULA**

EWAH, GABRIEL OSA
Nigerian Institute of Transport Technology, Zaria,
Kaduna State, Nigeria.
gabrieewah@yahoo.com

Abstract

This article focuses on the politics of International Arbitration of African boundary conflicts, with particular reference to ICJ verdict over the legal title on the disputed Bakassi Peninsula between Nigeria and Cameroon on 10th October, 2002. We based our analysis on the perspective of conflict management theories. The study evaluated the United Nations Commission on the law of the sea, arising from the unilateral and divergent claims of the maritime National over the natural resources of the submerged portions of the world's Continent. In the process, the study raised the issue on the plights of thousands of Nigerians inhabiting in Bakassi Peninsula in which the study pointed out in its dissenting opinion; That the court failed to reckon with this reality; in consequence of which we christens the judgment of the court as "artificial decision" The findings of the study revealed that the court basically predicated its judgment on the dubious Colonial instrument, such as the 1913 Anglo-German agreement. The outcome of the case further underscores the imperative of vigilance in the light of the case of re-colonization of Africa. Finally, the study suggested that permanent resolution to Bakassi disputes lies not really in the ICJ verdict, but if the duo neighbouring states sincerely agreed to cooperate, coexist, respect each other's claims, and doing so in the spirit of give and take, such disputes would become a thing of the past.

Key Words: Arbitration, Politics, Bakassi Peninsula, Conflicts, Boundary.

INTRODUCTION

The means available for the settlement of International Disputes are commonly divided into two groups. Those considered so far, namely negotiation, mediation, inquiry and conciliation, are termed diplomatic means, because the parties retain control of the dispute and may accept or reject a proposed settlement as they see fit. Arbitration and judicial settlement, on the other hand, are employed when what is wanted is a binding decision, usually on the basis of International law, and hence these are known as legal means of settlement as applied between Nigerian and Cameroon dispute over the oil rich Bakassi Peninsula. Onu (2004:14).

The verdict of the International Court of Justice (ICJ) on the disputed Bakassi peninsula between Nigeria and Cameroon on 10th October, 2002, has gone down in history and will continue to be remembered by both Nigeria and Cameroon on their claims and counter-claims over the ownership of the disputed Bakassi Peninsula. For, it was on the date that the International Court of Justice (ICJ) at The Hague ruled that sovereignty over the disputed Bakassi peninsula lay with the Republic of Cameroon. The world Court's decision was based on the Anglo-German Treaty of 11th March, 1913, signed between Britain and Germany. Also cited in its ruling was Yaounde II Declaration of 1st June, 1975, between President Ahmadu Ahidjo of Cameroon and Nigeria's former Head of State, General Yakubu Gowon, (rtd.) With this judgment, Nigeria has thus, lost out of the legal, political, historic, diplomatic, lobbying and many at times the clash of arms that characterized the contentious oil-rich Bakassi Peninsula.

In line with the above, Prince (2005) recalled that since April, 1994, the Republic of Cameroon filed a case against the Federal Republic of Nigeria at the International Court of Justice (ICJ) at Hague challenging Nigeria of illegal occupation of its territory, the Bakassi Peninsula. Indeed, the two neighbouring Countries, Nigeria and Cameroon could not resolve the controversy over the ownership of the Bakassi

Peninsula which had been a contentious issue, leading to conflicts, confrontations, skirmishes over 1,600 kilometres from the Chad area to the sea. By this ruling, the International Court of Justice (ICJ) expects Nigeria to immediately withdraw her troops etc and cede the territory Bakassi Peninsula to Cameroon Republic. Bakassi is occupied and populated mostly by Nigerians of Efiks Origin, Ibiobios, Efiats, Ijaws, Afikpop (Igboos), most of whom are fishermen and traders. In order words, the land and the resources belong to Cameroon and the people of the Peninsula to Nigeria.

Moreover, since the 10th October, world Court's ruling, tension have been very high not at the Bakassi area, but also at the Timber, banana and cocoa rich Boki regions of cross river of Nigeria, sharing a common borderland with the Republic of Cameroon. These areas are Danare, Biajua, Bumaji, Okwa and Okwangwo Communities in Boki Local Government Area of Cross River. The (ICJ) in awarding the oil-rich Bakassi Peninsula to Cameroon has raised many fundamental issues, i.e the land, people and resources; nationality, citizenship and allegiance, emigration and immigration; self-determination/self-government in the form of a United Nation (North-West and South-West Cameroon), to decide their fate, and finally, the issue of national security, military, and strategic. The verdict also generated so much comments and reactions local, national and International. Significant among these is the Federal Government of Nigeria rejection of the world Court Ruling. In spite of the attitude of President Obasanjo that handed over Bakassi to the Republic of Cameroon without due consultation of the Nigeria Senate. On the other hand, Cameroonian officials and diplomats have said that the decision of the International Court of Justice is not negotiable.

This study believed that the World Court decision may not have put to rest the problems of the disputed Bakassi Peninsula, even if it was in favour of Nigeria. Thus, the study shall seek to verify the extent of imperialist involvement in the Bakassi dispute and how this impacts on the ICJ Ruling. We shall also evaluate the content and substance of Nigeria's defense and how these informed the ICJ verdict. It is our contention that the ICJ ruling per se cannot guarantee permanent peace in the area; rather the two Countries should resort to the principle of peace making based on constructive engagement.

THEORETICAL ANALYSIS

Conflict is a phenomenon that is an important part of human existence (Isard, 1992:1) and natural part of our daily lives (Weeks, 1992: 6). Conflicts that take place within a society may be the result of several factors. For this reason, in the works of classical social theorists from Marx and Comte to Samuel and Sorel, explanations for social conflict, whether on a small or large scale, whether resulting from interactions between social groups or caused by external factors have been an issue of common concern.

However, Conflict is conceived as inevitable and persisting in all human interactions and interrelationships. Of course, conflict has two faces, that which negatively affects society through violent acts between people, and that, which positively contributes to the development of human relationships and social interaction. International conflicts and conflicts within divergent cultures necessitate flexibility in management approaches and understanding of context and procedure in order to choose an appropriate mode of dispute resolutions. As succinctly noted by Farlane, (1999: 19). "Modern conflict theorists have moved away from the study of rules and system towards the study of disputes themselves. This challenges students of disputes resolution to consider the relationship of rules to conflicts management and dispute resolution, both as a matter of theory and in practice".

It is argued that, international conflict management is a dynamic, inter disciplinary field, consistently evolving as a response to problems in international relations. Conflicts management can be functionally understood by what it seeks to accomplish: Prevent the eruption of destructive conflict, facilitate a move from violent to spoken conflict, and enable a transformation from conflict to lasting peace by addressing root causes and effects of conflict.

Contemporary scholars have been debating that, the aim of the theoretical analysis of conflict is to develop an understanding of the variables, processes, strategies and techniques that interact to develop or form the basis for conflict management. However, rather than provide a package of tools and strategies that have to be stretched in order to apply to a variety of conflict situations, our pre-occupation here is to identify the challenges that conflict management faces in practice and way to deal with them, conflicts persist in Africa because the root cause of these have not been addressed. In their practical solutions to conflicts

Amoo and Odendaal (1997:155) identified accountable, democratic governance as key to managing conflict constructively and channelling individual and group expressions of identity in positive ways. The conflict management theory as applied in the near resolution of the Nigeria Cameroon border crisis is worth reassessing. The different steps toward the resolution of the conflict in practices is very similar to the modern tool kit in the management theory for the resolution of conflict, that is, from conflict resolution stage to the state-building state. The setting up of the United Nations Mixed Commission between Nigeria-Cameroon boundary crises is an added sophistication to the whole problem of crisis management in the Bakassi.

Furthermore, parties have continued to espouse peace and dialogue in the quest for finding a lasting solution to the problem of peace along their common border even after adjudication of the case by ICJ, which perhaps could have deepened the crisis. The above vividly underscores the need for political solutions to the problem over Bakassi. The theory of conflict management identified five devices and strategies of conflict management. These include: Conflict prevention, Peace-making, Peace keeping, Post conflict peace building and State building. In addition, the need for constructive engagement in conflict in order to bring about conflict prevention is undermined by global injustices and also in relation to many other forms of oppressive power relationships. Hence, no matter the conflict management strategies, peace and harmonious interrelations between and among states can only be guaranteed in atmosphere of constructive engagement in conflict relation derived from justice, fairness and truth.

In the arbitration of the Nigeria-Cameroon boundary disputes by the ICJ, there are several facts indicating that there could have been complicity on the part of the learned judges of the ICJ especially, because of the economic interest at state within the Bakassi peninsula and the involvement of imperialist therein. Thus, the study shall seek to verify the extent of imperialist involvement in the Bakassi dispute and how this impacts on the ICJ Ruling. We shall also evaluate the content and substance of Nigeria's defense and how these inform the ICJ verdict. On the same vein, the politics of International arbitration seeks to undertake a brief discussion that arbitration is only one of the gamuts of mechanism of conflict management under the rubric of pacific strategies.

The Colonial Foundations of the Nigerian-Cameroonian Borderlands

Between the Republic of Nigeria and Republic of Cameroon, there is an international boundary which stretches from the Atlantic Ocean to the Lake Chad area covering a distance of about 1,600 Kilometres. Like most of the international boundaries of Africa, the Nigeria-Cameroon boundary was inherited from colonial powers by the modern-day nations of Nigeria and Cameroon. The origin of the boundary goes back to 1885, when a line was drawn to separate areas of British control from German possessions. It was however later in 1893, that Britain and Germany fixed the Anglo-German boundary drawing a definite line between their territory possessions. This was followed by further delimitations in 1893, when the Franco German boundary was fixed. (See Annual Report of Survey Department, 1930).

Following these territorial alignments between the three colonial powers, Britain, France and Germany in 1903 the German territorial borders were defined and between 1912-1913 the Anglo-German boundary was finally fixed. These arrangements which took several years of negotiations, conquest and occupation were however rendered obsolete by the defeat of Germany in the First World War which saw the Country losing all her territories in Africa. After the First World War it was agreed to partition the German possession of Kamerun between France and Britain. Following series of Negotiations, the process of boundary demarcation was completed in January, 1921, and on July 10th 1922, the League of Nations formally approved the demarcations and handed over partitioned land of former German Kemerun to British and France to be administered as mandated territories.

France administered her portion of former German Kemerun as a unit. Britain, on the other hand, divided her portion into two namely British Northern Cameroons and British Southern Cameroons. The British Northern Cameroons was administered as part of Northern Region of Nigeria, while the Southern Cameroon was administered as part of the Eastern Region. The situation remained unchanged till 1963, when the plebiscites were held, and Southern Cameroon's voted to join the Federal Republic of Cameroon, while Northern Cameroons opted to join the Federal Republic of Nigeria. The outcome of the plebiscites thus brought with it a modification of the Nigeria-Cameroon boundary, whereas the boundary in the north

was essentially the Anglo-Franco boundary, the boundary in the South became a re-incarnation of the initial Anglo-German boundary. Anene (1961:186)

Ordinarily, Cameroon and Nigeria, being neighbours, should enjoy friendly relations, co-operating in many fields and living in peaceful co-existence. To be sure the two Countries have concluded several bilateral agreements. Moreover, citizens of the two Countries move almost freely across the boundary to live on the other side of the border, after satisfying negligible immigration formalities. Indeed, it is not unusual to find Cameroonians, who have lived in Nigeria, for some many years that, though in theory retaining their Cameroonian Citizenship, they regard themselves as Nigerians and vice-versa. There is however, one major problem between the two Countries, Cameroon and Nigeria have been embroiled in major boundary disputes and clashes, and these have often become so intense as to threaten law and order, security, peace and tranquillity, and peaceful co-existence in the affected border areas. It is not uncommon to read in newspapers or to hear from the electronic media that Cameroonian security agents particularly gendarmes have crossed the border, invaded and annexed Nigerian villages and perpetrated various atrocities, invariably with impunity. Usually, the Nigerian populace will react with emotional outbursts, while the Nigerian Government will also protest against the atrocities and takes to diplomacy and ultimately the dispute could appear to be settled.

The boundary disputes between Nigeria and Cameroon are not a new phenomenon. From the very beginning, the Cameroon-Nigeria boundary was unsatisfactory since the colonial powers hardly gave a thought to political, ethnic, linguistic and historical ties, etc binding peoples together, colonial agents merely drew boundaries regardless of whether they cut through kingdoms, ethnic groups, polities, towns and villages. This manner of arbitrary boundary adjustment had its associated problems. These boundaries actually posed as problems for the colonial powers, but, apparently, they were able to keep things in check until they handed over power at independence. For instance, even though there were disputes between Britain and Germany, and subsequently France over the boundary, these disputes were usually settled amicably through bargaining, compensating or concession of other territories by one power or the other. At independence, Nigeria and Cameroon inherited the colonial boundary and the attendant difficulties, a problem that was further accentuated by the desire of Southern Cameroons to be joined with the Republic of Cameroon in 1961. Though Nigerian and Cameroonian leaders inherited the boundary structures left behind by the colonial authorities, they do not seem to have inherited the remedy for the problems because, the two independent states have little or nothing to bargain with or even concede. Asiwaju (1989:124).

This study therefore sets out to examine the nature of the Cameroon-Nigeria border problems and to recommend solutions. The Study accordingly begins by attempting to establish the exact boundary bequeathed to Nigeria and Cameroon by the colonial powers. The purpose of attempting to establish the various boundary demarcations is to show the boundary bequeathed by the colonial powers. (See Asobia) In addition to showing the effects of the boundary demarcations, the study also examined the causes and treats incidents of border disputes. Thus effort is made to show the exact nature of the boundary inherited by Nigeria and Cameroon..

THE ICJ ARBITRATION ON THE OWNERSHIP OF BAKASSI PENINSULA

The International Court of Justice as constituted comprises the following:

- 1) The President, Gilbert Guilause of France
- 2) The Vice President t, Shi Jiuyong of China
- 3) The Registrar, Mr Phillipe Coureur of Belgium.

The judges are to sit in the proceedings brought by the Republic of Cameroun to the International Court of Justice on 28th March 1994 with respect to the frontier and territorial dispute between the Republic of Cameroun and the Federal Republic of Nigeria. Given the present composition of the Court and the fate that the Court is being presided over by the jurist from France, it beholds on this study to attempt an analysis of the political strategic and economic interests of France in the dispute. In doing this, the study is not unmindful of the fact that presiding judges are expected to be impartial in the jurisdiction of justice. According to Atte et al (1992).

Sequel to the arbitration of the land and maritime boundary between Cameroon and Nigeria, (Cameroun V. Nigeria: Equatorial Guinea intervening), the Court determined the boundary between Nigeria and Cameroon from Lake Chad to the Sea. The Court requested each party to withdraw all administration and military or police forces presently on territories falling under the sovereignty of the other party. In its judgement, which is final, without appeal and binding for the parties, the Court determines as follows, the course of the boundary, from North to South, between Cameroun and Nigeria.

1. In the lake Chad area, the Court decides that the boundary is delimited by the Thomson-Merchant declaration of 1929-1930 as incorporated in the Henderson-Freudian exchange of notes of 1931 (between great Britain and France) finds that the boundary starts in the Lake from the Cameroun-Nigeria- Chad Tripoint and follows a straight line to the mouth of the River Ebeji as it was in 1931 (whose co-ordinates it also defines) and thence runs in a straight line to the point where the river to day divides into two branches (see ICJ press communiqué's 98/23 biss, "preliminary objections summary of the judgement of 11 June, 1998", p.4.
2. Between Lake Chad and the Bakassi Peninsula, the Court confirms that the following instruments delimit the boundary.
 - i. from the point where the Thomas Mar Chad declaration of 1929-1930 (Paras 2060), as incorporated in the Henderson-Florian exchange of notes of 1931;
 - ii. from Tamyar peak to pillar 64 referred to in Article xxii of the Anglo-German agreement of 12 April 1913, by the British order in council of 2 August 1946;
 - iii. from pillar 64 to the Bakassi Peninsula, by the Anglo German agreements of 11 and 12 April 1913.

The Court examined point by point seventeen sectors of the land boundary and specifies for each one how the above mentioned instruments are to be interpreted (paras 91, 96, 102, 114, 119, 124, 129, 134, 139, 146, 152, 155, 160, 179, 184 and 189 of the judgement). For details on the above refer to <http://www.icjij.org/icjww/ipresscom/press2002/imprescom2002-26cn20021010.htm>

3. In Bakassi, the Court decides that the boundary is delimited by the Anglo-German agreement of 11 March 1913 (Articles xvii-xx) and that sovereignty over the Bakassi Peninsula lies with Cameroun. It decides that in this area, the boundary follows the Thalweg of the river Akpalorum (Akwayafe), dividing the mangrove islands near Ikang as far as a straight line joining Bakassi point and king point.
4. As regard the maritime boundary, the ICJ, having established that it has jurisdiction to address this aspect of the case, which Nigeria had disputed, fixes the course of the boundary between the two states' maritime areas. It judgment, the court requests Nigeria expeditiously and without condition to withdraw its administration and military or police forces from the area of lake Chad falling within Cameroonian sovereignty and from the Bakassi Peninsula. It also requests Cameroon expeditiously and without condition to withdraw any administration, military or police forces which may be presented in the land boundary from Lake Chad to the Bakassi Peninsula on territory French pursuant between pursuant to the judgment fall within the sovereignty of Cameroon.

In addition to the above, the ICJ took note of Cameroun's undertaking, given at the hearing, to "continue to afford protection to Nigerian living in the (Bakassi) Peninsula and in the Lake Chad area"

The 10th October, 2002, 150-page judgment of the ICJ awarded sovereignty over oil-rich Bakassi Peninsula to Cameroun. Of course the ruling of the ICJ was predicted on Article xviii-xx of the Anglo German agreement of 11 March 1913 and on the Yaoundé 11 and Maroua declaration of 1971 and 1975 respectively, by which General Yakubu Gowon purportedly ceded the Bakassi Peninsula to Ahidjo's Cameroun.

AN IMPACT ANALYSIS OF THE ICJ RULING OVER THE BAKASSI PENINSULA

The dimension of Local and international jurists as well as informed political scientists, and political commentators have reacted variously to the ICJ ruling over the legal title of Bakassi Peninsula. Legal luminaries apologetic to the Nigerian cause frowned at the judgment and remarked that old calendar, encompassing the Bakassi Peninsula, was in 1913, a protectorate and not a colony of Great Britain.

According to them, a "protectorate " signifies authority assumed by a strong state over a weak under developed one, without direct annexation. This is in centre administration to a "colony" or a land settled by people from another country, to whose government it is, in some degree, subject. In view of the

Germany in 1913, having regard to the time-worn legal maxim *quod non dabitur* (he who hath not cannot give).

However, the above judgment is not intellectually right and convincing. That the territory then was a protectorate further conferred Britain the power to legislate and administer the territory in line with her accepted patterns, preferences and choices. Besides, the provisions of the foreign jurisdiction acts of 1890 and 1913 (consolidated statutes) under which the crown's power of legislation was established in protectorates and trust territories as follows: Whether the jurisdiction acquired is based on treaty, capitulation, grant, usage, sufferance or other lawful means, it may be held and exercised in as ample manner as if acquired by cession or conquest of territory.

Following from above, we can validly argue that the jurisdiction available to crown in a country under its protection was acquired by conquest (see *Sobhuza II v Miller* (1926) AC 51 at 524). As a corollary of the above, the Anglo-German agreement of 1913 acquired validity on the strength of the provisions of the foreign jurisdiction acts, particularly of 1890 (*Ibid*).

Meanwhile, Justice Abdul Koroma, while faulting the ICJ ruling remarked that by denying the legal validity of the 1884 treaty, while at the time declaring valid the Anglo-German agreement in 1913; the court decided to recognise a political reality over the express provisions of the 1884 Treaty (see, the bulleting from information department, ICJ, 2002). The problem with this line of thought is that justice Koroma appears to be oblivious of the established legal maxim *leges posteriores priores contrarias abrogat* (later laws abrogate prior contrary laws).

To substantiate the conclusion drawn from the argument posited by justice Koroma, the court's verdict is that the colonial treaties (between Britain and Germany, 1913, and between Britain and France, 1939) according to the Southern and Northern border respectively were valid legal instruments. Similarly, the court ruled that the agreements between Nigeria and Cameroun in 1971 and 1975 are also valid legal instruments. These treaties or agreements, according to the court, established legal right of sovereignty, for each of the parties, and formed a sound basis for defining and demarcating the contentious international boundaries between the two countries. Indeed the post 1913 treaties signed by the two countries merely reinforced the earlier treaty signed between Britain and Germany in 1913; nothing can be furthered from an objective reality and truth.

In what appears most objective and analytic evaluation of the ICJ ruling? Asobie in his Article "Bakassi Debacle: contending principles and political conflicts" stated among others, that the world court could not give a ruling different from this considering the evidence before it much of which emanated from the Nigerian side, and given the nature of Nigeria's defence which he considered rather weak and apologetic. He observes that the Nigeria's position was weakened from the start by earlier position, often publicly stated, on the matter. For instance, as earlier indicated by a policy statement issued by Abubakar Tafawa Balewa's government in October 1960, the Nigerian government had explicitly and unequivocally endorsed the doctrine of *uti possidetis* jury policy in relation to colonial boundaries. This Asobie noted, guided the legal team that represented Nigeria as clearly stated by Auwalu Hamisu Yadudu, a member of the team, and once adviser to General Sani Abacha (1993-1998). "there is no way we can escape relying on pre-independent instruments that shaped African countries. And these instruments do not exactly show the border as we would want it to be in Nigeria" (the Guardian, October 27, 2002:10)

Having premised the defense on the above, the Nigeria team found themselves rationalising what they accepted as illegal occupation legalised by the principle of effective occupation. When we consider the Guardian Newspaper reports of October 13, 2002: 12; November 2, 2002: 8; October 11, 2002:3; November 1, 2002: 9; and November 4, 2002: 9; we shall observe that Nigeria government by omission or commission accepted the sovereignty of Cameroon over Bakassi Peninsula as revealed by Titilayo Abiodun, a surveyor when had worked in Nigeria's survey department, "the Nigerian government had earlier "adopted" the Anglo-German treaty of 11th March 1913 treating it as valid, and as a sound basis for the declination and demarcation of the boundary between Nigeria and Cameroon (see Asobie, for details).

Other indicting instances abound. In 1972 for example, through a letter written to Nigeria's Minister of External Affairs by Nigerian Commissioner of Justice and Attorney-General of the Federation, Dr Taslim

O. Elias, and in 1984 via a letter written to the military governor of Cross River State, Lt. Col. Daniel Archibong, by Rear Admiral V. L. Oduwaiye, declaring that "Bakassi Peninsula and the Rio-del Rey estuary are definitely in Cameroun territory. Similarly, as late 1993, Nigeria's foreign affairs minister, Alhaji Baba Gana Kingibe, at the point when Nigeria sent troops to Bakassi, distributed maps to journalists which, among others indicated that Bakassi was lock, stock and barrel, in Cameroun (the Guardian, October, 13 2002:1-2). This official self-indictment naturally undermined the quest to "appropriate" Bakassi peninsula even on the principles of effective occupation, law of accretion or self-determination.

In the midst of the present reality, the Nigerian loyal representatives at the court placed the burden on the Nigerian case on the principle of effective occupation and historical consolidation. In the circumstance, the presentation of Nigeria's case was rather apologetic. Perhaps, in a bid to avoid paying compensation to Cameroun for Nigeria's alleged illegal occupation of Cameroonian territory, the Nigerian team at the court pleaded. Even if the court should find that Cameroon has Sovereignty over these areas (that is, the Lake Chad area and the Bakassi region): the Nigerian presence there was the result of a 'reasonable mistake or honest belief. Accordingly, Nigeria cannot be held internationally responsible for conduct, which, at the time it took place Nigeria has very reason to believe, was lawful (the Guardian, November, 4, 2002:8).

As expected, the ICJ rejected the argument advanced by Nigeria, which was predicated principally on the claim of effective occupation. As Gilbert Guihalaume, the presiding judge, later explained. It moreover rejected the theory of historical consolidation put forward by Nigeria and accordingly refused to take into account the affectivities relied upon by Nigeria. It ruled that in the absence of acquiescence by Cameroon, these affectivities could not prevail over Cameroon's conventional titles (THE GUARDIAN October 11, 2002:3).

Perhaps, Nigerian delegation was aware of the futility of predication its case and defense on the principle of self-determination. Indeed the actions of previous Nigerian governments would still have damaged the case; and hence make hollow the defense. It should be revealed that in February 1961, the United Nations afforded the Efiks, the Ekois and the Bokis (regarded as Nigerians), as well as other ethnic groups in Southern Cameroon the opportunity, through a plebiscite, to vote on whether they wished to integrate with the federation of Nigeria or with the Republic of Cameroon. At the time, the British administered the people of Bakassi Peninsula as part of southern Cameroon. Out of a total population of about 1,500,000, only 354,113 adults of 21 years and above representing 23.6% of the population, registered or voted. Those who voted for union with the Republic of Cameroon numbered 233,571, representing 65.95% of the registered voters. Moreover, those who voted for integration with Nigeria numbered 97,741 or 27.6% of the registered voters. Given the result of the plebiscite, the UN general assembly endorsed either states to vote, and indeed Nigerian voted, for the resolution endorsing the results.

The above speak volumes on Nigeria's uncoordinated and self-indicating and fledgling defense over the legal title over the Bakassi Peninsula. The case was lost severally even before the ICJ ruling and indeed the 1975 Maroua accorded recklessly signed by General Gowon and Ahidjo of Cameroon sealed Nigeria's legal claim and consolidated sturdy Cameroon defense over the legal title of Bakassi Peninsula. Indeed, overwhelming evidence points to the fact that Nigeria had illegally occupied foreign land, and the principles of effective occupation and self-determination could not apply here probably because the Nigerian government was more interested in the oil-rich land and not on the welfare of the inhabitants, and probably because Cameroon refused to acquiesce to the occupation. Nothing can be furthered from an objective reality.

CONCLUSIONS

The study observed that there are complex interactive relationships within and between the international system to be accounted for in order to fully understand the substance of politics involved in the adjudication and arbitration of phenomenon of border problems on the African continent. The study noted that the approach to international politics rests on the belief that institutions are the key means of promoting world peace where institutions are seen as sets of rules that stipulate the ways states relate with each other. They prescribe acceptable forms of state behaviour and unacceptable kinds of behaviour, these forms are typically formalized in international agreements but states are not compelled to obey the rules. Indeed, institutions like the International Court of Justice call for the de-centralized cooperation of individual sovereign states, without any effective mechanism of command. The study observes that the right to accept or reject the jurisdiction of the ICJ is an indication that the States do not want impartial arbitration,

even if it can be relied upon to produce 'fair decisions' or its ability to produce credible judgement based on the following:

First, it takes many years to decide on any dispute, in a rapidly changing world, few states have the patience to wait on the Court and not be tempted to alter the 'Status quo'. Second, the Court has always been conservative (In the sense of Cautions) and legality, and has not found a way of dealing with new problems which needs law-creating roles. Thus, the overall goal of interventions which is to transform a mutually hostile 'Win-lose' orientation into a collaborative 'Win-lose' syndrome relationship has quite often been wished away.

The judgement of (ICJ) in awarding the oil-rich Bakassi Peninsula to Cameroon has raised many fundamental issues, i.e the land, people and resources; nationality, citizenship and allegiance, emigration and immigration; self-determination/self-government. It also generated so much comments and reactions local, national and International. Significant among these was the Federal Government of Nigeria rejection of the world court ruling. Be that as it may, this study believes that the World Court decision may not have put to rest the problems of the disputed Bakassi Peninsula, even if it was in favour of Nigeria. Thus, it is just an end to phase one of the dispute, and the beginning of yet another chapter which if care is not exercised, may generate to more dangerous problems, war may not be completely ruled-out Happily, both countries (Nigeria and Cameroon) are committed to a peacefully resolution, and have therefore, dispelled rumours of clash of arms.

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THE IMPACT OF ETHICS AND PROFESSIONALISM IN THE NIGERIAN BANKING INDUSTRY

IKPEFAN, OCHEI AILEMEN (Ph.D)

**Department of Banking & Finance,
Covenant University, Ota,
Ogun State, Nigeria.
ochei_ikpefan@yahoo.co.uk;
+2348053013418**

&

AYENI, OLUWATOB1

**Department of Banking and Finance,
Covenant University, Ota
Ogun State, Nigeria.
topsyqueentreal@yahoo.com
+2348034926364**

ABSTRACT

Ethics is concerned with the code of values and principles that enables a person to choose between right and wrong, and therefore, select from alternative courses of action. In recent past the banking industry specifically the deposit money banks have witnessed insider abuse, frauds, greed, poor internal controls etc and has led to CBN intervention. These acts resulted from unethical behaviour from employees and management. The focus of this study is to investigate the impact of ethics and professionalism in the banking sector in Nigeria using selected banks as the case study. The methodology employed is the survey method. One hundred (100) questionnaires were distributed to selected deposit banks and Eighty Seven One (87) were retrieved. The percentage method was adopted to analyze the data obtained and the response from the questionnaires was then presented using the Statistical package for Social Science (SPSS). The evidence generated from this study reveals that many Nigerian Banks and Bankers are aware of the Code of Ethics and Professionalism in the Banking Industry but not all Nigerian banks have adopted the Code. It was also found that unethical behaviour is responsible for distress in banks. The sanctions for unethical/unprofessional conducts appear to be too weak. We therefore recommend the need to promote greater awareness of Ethics and the Code of Ethics in the Nigerian Banking Industry, as this is the best way of promoting ethical behaviour. To curb distress in banks, the Regulatory Authorities should ensure that penalties and stiff sanctions are imposed on banks for unethical practices and for outright violation of rules and regulations sufficient to deter such violations and discourage unethical behaviors in future.

Key words: Deposit money banks, Ethics, Professionalism

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Banks play multifarious roles which include acting as financial intermediary between the surplus generating units and the deficit spending ones. As Oghojafor *et al.* (2010) explained, "The banking industry plays a major intermediation role in an economy by mobilizing savings from surplus units and channeling these funds to the deficit units, in particular private enterprises, for the purpose of expanding their production capacities". It is important to note that through the intermediation function that banks not only earn the volume of their income by way of interest margin but also pay out returns to savers, compensating them for the opportunity cost of their money. Therefore, if any bank is unable to recover the funds it lends out, its own existence as a going concern would be undermined. This will also impair a bank's ability to meet the withdrawal needs of depositors. Consequently for any bank to perform very well in its operation, certain issue need to be addressed especially in the areas of ethics and professionalism.

According to Haslinda et al (2009) "Business ethics is a study of business activities, decisions and situations where the rights and wrongs are addressed; it is a form of applied ethics that studies rules and principles within a commercial context and any obligations that apply to persons who are involved in commerce". Professionalism is an important part of managing any business. Professional employees enhance the image of the business, help employees deal well with customers, and will help the business grow and succeed. In the banking industry, professionalism becomes even more important due to the complex aspects of the business. Promoting professionalism in banking involves training and coaching employees on the various areas important to the industry. The Chartered Institute of Bankers of Nigeria (CIBN) and Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) have played important roles in training and re-training of employees in the Nigerian Banking Industry. The question often asked is whether training of employees has led to the desired impact on the Nigerian banking industry.

The banking industry in Nigeria witnessed a lot of changes following the liberalization of banking business as part of the Structural Adjustment Program (SAP) introduced in 1986 to revamp the economy. However, the phenomenal increase in the number of banks heightened competition amongst the banks. The stiff competition for customers and deposits led to sharp unethical practices leading to the distress in some of the banks. According to Sikka (2008), "fraudulent financial practices seem to be part of an 'enterprise culture' that persuades many to believe that 'bending the rules' for personal gain is evidence of business acumen". This attitude has led to the distress of banks in Nigeria, which brought about the desire to introduce a Code of Ethics and Professionalism in the industry to stop the detracting menace and also to sanitize the industry. Banks are not only expected to operate professionally but ethically so that the general public would have confidence in the system.

It is generally acceptable that any organization either charitable or non charitable must have set down rules and regulations guiding her operations otherwise anarchy will be the order of the organization's operations. The problem is that banking business is becoming more complex and the borderline between what is legitimate and illegitimate becomes more blurred. This adds to the need for banks to adhere to a strong set of values to guide them when they are faced with decisions regarding ethical issues. Hortacsu and Ozkan-Gunay (2004) however argued that "ethical and professional values are still not firmly entrenched and followed in the banking system. Many banks are associated with accepting bribes in return for loans, lending to connected parties and cheating customers". More so, an ordinary bank customer does not have the opportunity and adequate knowledge to understand banking transactions, which is a requirement of the ethics of disclosure in banking business (Freckle and Lurie, 2003). According to Ahmad (2004), "The mad rush by banks to meet the N25 billion capital base requirements in 2005 created a series of unethical and sharp practices in the industry according to the interim report issued by the Nigerian Deposit Insurance Corporation (NDIC)". On Friday, April 14, 2006, Daily Trust Newspaper published a strong warning given by Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) to Nigerian Banks that are engaged in the unethical and unprofessional behavior of de-marketing other banks through false information and unfounded rumor. The publication is a further confirmation of the unscrupulous, unprofessional and unethical behaviors and attitude that had bedeviled the Nigerian banking sector.

Anthony *et al* (2005) also noted that "A good number of notable Banks in Nigeria have been distressed and consequently become financially dwarfed. It must however be stated that this banks got to where they are due to various forms of unethical practices, they include ICON Ltd (Merchant Bankers), Premier Commercial Bank Ltd, Ivory Merchant Bank Ltd, Peak Merchant Bank Ltd to mention a few, were all liquidated between year 2000-2003". On August 14, 2009, the Governor of the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN), Mallam Sanusi Lamido Sanusi, exercising his powers as contained in Sections 33 and 35 of the Banks and Other Financial Institutions Act (BOFIA) 1991, as amended, announced the firing of the chief executive officers (CEOs) and board of directors of five banks in Nigeria and replaced them with CBN-appointed CEOs and boards of directors. Forty-eight days later, on October 2, 2009, he announced an additional sack of three bank chief executive officers (CEOs) and their respective boards of directors (and replaced them with Central Bank of Nigeria appointed CEOs and directors), bringing it to a total of eight bank CEOs and their respective Board of Directors who were fired from their jobs as helmsmen of financial institutions in 2009. The affected banks were Afribank Plc, Platinum Habib Bank (PHB) Plc, Equatorial Trust Bank Plc, Finbank Plc, Intercontinental Bank Plc, Oceanic Bank Plc, Spring Bank Plc and Union Bank Plc.

It is safe to say that currently most of these banks have either been distressed or acquired by other banks as in the case of Intercontinental Bank Plc acquired by Access Bank of Nigeria and Oceanic Bank Plc acquired by Ecobank transnational Inc. on October 25, 2011 and October 14, 2011 respectively, most of which were traced to unethical practices. The focus of this study major is to investigate the impact of ethics and professionalism in banking sector in Nigeria using selected banks as the case study. It is to investigate to what extent the code of ethics has helped to sanitize the banking industry and ensure stability of the banking system. The study will therefore establish the level of awareness and appreciation of the code of ethics and professionalism in the banking industry; establish the role played by bank regulatory bodies in implementing the code of ethics and the level of adoption of the code and to determine whether unethical practices and mismanagement are responsible for the distress in the banking industry. For the purpose of this research work, the following research questions were formulated: such as to what extent are banks aware of the Code of ethics and Professionalism in the banking industry; the roles played by bank regulatory bodies in implementing code of ethics and the level of unethical practices which has caused distress in the banking industry?

Since this research work is aimed at investigating the prospects and challenges of ethics and professionalism in selected banks in Nigeria, it would not be easy to visit all the banks in Nigeria, therefore ten (10) banks would be selected to enable us generalize the research findings. This study is very important in the sense that it will analyze the impact of ethics as well as professionalism in banking industry in Nigeria as well as assist bank management in the development of manpower which will serve as a good managerial tool for effective human resources management and empowerment to the government at large. The remainder of this paper is divided into four sections. Section two and three dwells on literature review/theoretical framework and methodology. Section four explains data collection, analysis and interpretation while Section five ends the paper with conclusion and recommendations.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE/THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Francis (2010) analyzed the functions of the banking system to include but not limited to: the development, administration and implementation of monetary policies that ensure stability in the Nigerian economy; the provision and management of financial resources and services to the Nigerian society in order to drive economic activities; the provision, management and storage of instruments of negotiation and exchange; the mobilization of financial resources from locations where they are least needed to where they are most needed; and the provision of information technology driven systems and platforms to support economic activities within and beyond the borders of Nigeria. Donli (2003) postulates that if these functions are efficiently carried out, the economy would be able to mobilize meaningful level of savings and channel these funds in an efficient and effective manner to ensure that no viable project is frustrated due to lack of funds

Smith and Smith, (2002) defines Ethics as the integrity measure, which evaluates the values, norms and rules that constitute the base for individual and social relationships, from a moral perspective. Kumar (2007) explained that "Ethics is concerned with the code of values and principles that enables a person to choose between right and wrong, and therefore, select from alternative courses of action". The Webster Dictionary (1913) defines ethics as "The science of human duty; the body of rules of duty drawn from this science; a particular system of principles and rules concerning duty, whether true or false; rules of practice in respect to a single class of human actions; as political or social ethics; medical ethics". Erondu et al (2004) hold that the study of "ethics" focuses on issues of practical decision making, including the nature of ultimate value, and standards by which a human action can be judged right or wrong, good or bad

Erondu et al (2004) hold that the study of ethics focuses on issues of practical decision making, including the nature of ultimate value, and standards by which a human action can be judged right or wrong, good or bad. For Nnadi (2006), ethics applies to any system or theory of moral values or principles. For Beauchamp and Bowie (2001), ethics is the general term referring to both moral beliefs and ethical theory on human conduct. Jelena (2007) posited that the subject of business ethics (collective or business /ethics) is the effect of the social nature of morality, and the feedback effect of business morality on the business environment. Business ethics helps us to identify benefits and problems associated with ethical issues within the firm and business ethics is important as it gives us a new light into present and traditional view of ethics (Crane and Matten, 2007). Nilsson and Westerberg (1997) hold that ethics and business not only can, but must go together, for to do business without concern to ethics is the surest way to fail. Bowie

(2001) and Egels-Zandén et al (2010) attest to the necessity of ethics in business communities and practices. For them, business ethics is about how the nature of business is understood as a morally compelling domain of human activity. Given that business activities (e.g. banking) play major roles in any society, people within a society expect that organizations and firms (businesses) will accept their roles as “citizens” and that these businesses will behave as good citizens, i.e. they will behave ethically. Bowie (2001) emphasizes this when he says, “if business ethics is a fad, it is a fad that has lasted for over thirty years and one that continues to have resilience”.

To Ahmed (2003), business ethics is a form of applied ethics that examines rules and principles within a commercial context; the various moral or ethical problems that can arise in a business setting; and any special duties or obligations that apply to persons who are engaged in commerce. Technically, philosophers would divide ethics into branches: meta-ethics, normative ethics and applied ethics. Normative ethics is the branch concerned with the issues which largely have to do with the notion of moral obligation. Meta-ethics is the most amorphous of the areas of ethics. Meta-ethics is a branch of [analytic philosophy](#) that explores the status, foundations, and scope of moral values, properties, and words. Meta-ethics focuses on *what morality itself is*, meta-ethical positions may be divided according to the way we respond to questions such as, what exactly are people doing when they use moral words such as “good” and “right”? This branch of ethics tries to apply ethical theories to “real situations” it is sub categorized into -Professional Ethics which is generally a branch of applied ethics that focuses on the actions of people within a certain profession.

Profession and Professional

According to Ali (2005), professional ethics are the moral standards, principles and regulations that guide the course of professional behaviour. Professional ethics are both individual and institutional in nature and it can be learned during the course of study of the profession. Professional ethics also rely upon one’s own personal sense of moral behaviour and judgment. It goes on to state that a professional strives to exceed the level of excellence required by law or commercial interests. Business professionalism isn't just about making money and impressing people. It also involves fundamental values of integrity, commitment and respect for oneself and the wider community. Idolohor (2010) points out that Professional ethics are the moral standards, principles, and regulations that guide the course of professional behaviour. Professional ethics are both individual and institutional in nature. Professional ethics can be learnt during the course of study of the profession. Professional ethics also rely upon one’s personal moral behaviour and judgment

According to Sanusi (2003), the professional character has at least two components which are to master and practice the expertise of the profession to the highest level of competence the individual can manage. The external standards require minimum or adequate competence. The internal standards of a professional aspire to the highest possible level of competence. And a commitment to use these high levels of competence to serve others. In the first instance, the duty of service runs to the client, but it can run to fellow professionals, to others who stand in some relationship to the client. McDowell (2000) further points out that one can aspire to professional status, but achieving it depends on acceptance and admittance by others. This social acceptance proceeds through a series of steps which includes, being admitted to a professional school, passing the courses, which signifies that adequate competence in various “types and levels” of technical expertise has been attained, passing the state certification examination. Being licensed, and locating or establishing a position of employment or service within the profession.

In Nigeria, entry into the banking profession is not strictly restricted but banks are expected to obtain good reference from schoolmasters / previous employers and other reputable individuals in the society before new entrants are offered jobs. However, the Banks and Financial Institutions Act (BOFIA), 1991 Section 43 (4) provides that “Any person whose appointment with a bank has been terminated or who has been dismissed for reason of fraud, dishonesty or conviction for an offence involving dishonesty or fraud shall not be employed by any bank in Nigeria”. The restriction is to ensure that persons with bad character and all those involved in dubious activities harmful to the industry and the public are not given the opportunity to perpetrate their nefarious acts. Denying persons who lack morality and ethics entry into the noble banking profession aims at sanitizing the industry from the outset. This is facilitated by circulating the names of all dismissed / terminated bank staff amongst all the banks in Nigeria by the Central Bank of Nigeria. However, it is difficult, if not impossible to detect fraudsters from the pool of fresh graduates

being considered for employment by a bank. In Nigeria, the Chartered Institute of Bankers of Nigeria is responsible for the professional training of bankers.

Theoretical Framework

Three important theories that underpin this study will now be discussed. They are Shareholder theory, Stakeholder Theory Model and Systems Theory Model.

Shareholder theory

This states that a person is acting ethically if they act in a way to maximize profit for their shareholders. The shareholders are simply anyone that owns a piece of the company and therefore profits on the company gaining revenue. Nilsson and Westerberg (1997) postulates that there are some benefits to belief in shareholder theory. A good result of shareholder theory is that it tends to maximize productivity. When the only thing that is worried about is generating revenue, then the business tends to find the most efficient way to utilize resources to generate the greatest level of revenue possible. This efficiency can be deemed important because it means that there is little wasteful spending and wasted resources which are important as they are limited on this earth. One major problem is that it doesn't take people like customers, the environment, or employees into account, so it could potentially hurt them. If a business decides to maximize profits, randomly fire employees, sell defective products to customers, and pollute the environment, they might still be considered ethically good as long as resources are being used efficiently. If they are committing "off- balance-sheet" transactions that are considered within the realms of the law in order to maximize profit, then they might seem ethical under shareholder theory.

Stakeholder Theory Model

Ethical Behaviors in business practices lead to business success, and a stable financial system. Stakeholder theory attempts to address the question "what is the purpose of the corporation and in whose interest should it be run?" From a theoretical standpoint, it is generally held in business ethics circles that the Stakeholder Theory, by Ed Freeman, arose as an alternative theory to the traditional notion of the function of business that emphasized shareholders only. Freeman, however, points out that the general ideas of the stakeholder theory predate his postulation (Jones, Wicks and Freeman, 2001). Pondar et al (2006) also allude to Freeman's position when they opined that, within the stakeholder theory framework, companies are seen as involved in the social system and forced to enter into a 'new social contract'. This 'new social contract' presents a mix of reciprocal expectations of the role and responsibilities of each of the involved parties in a corporate and social environment This contract also demands that companies perform social, ethical and environmental responsibilities. Jones, Wicks and Freeman (2001) criticize the traditional notion of the firm put forward by the Nobel Prize winner Milton Friedman that the ethical obligation of business managers is to seek profits for the stockholders only, a single set of stakeholders. For Jones, Wicks and Freeman, this traditional notion (seeking profits for stockholders only) of the firm or business organization is myopic as it places too much emphasis on shareholders to the exclusion of other stakeholders. As such, they hold the position that, business managers must go beyond a simplistic and narrow perspective of the objectives of the firm to include other stakeholders other than the shareholders. Acting ethically here would thus entail business managers fulfilling responsibilities to the firm and its wide array of stakeholders.

For Donaldson and Preston (1995) the stakeholder theory requires of anyone managing or affecting corporate policies to possess, as a key management attribute, the simultaneous attention to the legitimate interests of all appropriate stakeholders, both in the establishment of organizational structures and general policies and in case-by-case decision making. As seen in Jones, Wicks and Freeman (2001) or in Pondar et al (2006), or yet still Donaldson and Preston (1995), the central argument of the Stakeholder Theory is based on two premises: first, that to perform well, business organizations and their managers need to pay attention to a wide array of stakeholders and secondly, managers have obligations to stakeholders which include but extend beyond shareholders (Jones et al, 2001). In other words, the stakeholder theory holds that making profits for the firm and its shareholders, as well as fulfilling other duties to other groups associated with the firm are the essence for which a firm exists.

Systems Theory Model

The regulator in a financial system must first be ethical in character and action in order to exercise its mandate as a banking ombudsman. Closely related to the stakeholder theory of business ethics is the

systems theory approach. As an ethical theory, systems theory also attempts to connect business and ethics (Nilsson and Westerberg, 1997). According to the systems theory ethicists, social phenomena cannot be fully understood in isolation. Rather they must be viewed as parts of the larger system within which they interact with other elements of the system that is, within the systems theory framework, the optimization of the goals of individual components (subsystem goals) is to be pursued only to the extent compatible with the pursuit of overall system goals. For Ackoff (1987), ethical judgment should be based not on rules that are to be applied to the outcomes of decisions or end product, but to the decision-making process involving stakeholders'. Although Ackoff's postulation smacks of idealism, a point which he admits, his points hold true when we consider the CBN intervention that arose out of the misconduct of some management personnel at some deposit money banks in Nigeria. Some Nigerian banks' personnel (management stakeholders of firms) were prevented by the CBN (regulator stakeholder) from further decision-making affecting other stakeholders in the system. That is to say, the actions of a part of the system could have consequences on the rest of the system, as such the system in its essence or in search of its ultimate goal will constantly seek to balance itself or maintain equilibrium. As such, it can be said that the system theory places emphasis on maintaining balance of the overall system and that subsystem interests are subordinate to the overall system interests.

Unethical Practices in Nigerian Banking

The First Professional seminar series to discuss "Ethics and Professionalism in the Nigerian Banking Industry" took place at the Gateway Hotel Ota from 31st July to 2nd August 1992 under the auspices of the Africa Leadership Forum. Some of the major highlights were as follows: "Greed was identified as one of the causative agents for the high incidence of fraud and other unprofessional conduct in the Nigerian banking industry. There was apparent moral laxity in the larger society. The practice of government employing non-professional managers into critical positions undermines ethical standards and professionalism in the industry". It was remarked that crime and fraud would continue to flourish, unless those who perpetuate it are decisively dealt with. Unrealistic government directives encourage corrupt practices in the banks. Some of the reasons for unethical practices in Nigeria are conflict of interest, greed, fraud and insider abuse, internal control, regulation, supervision and surveillance.

Conflict of interest

The Professional Banker, like any other professional is usually faced with role conflicts on daily basis in discharging the professional duties in the society. McDowell (1991) provides that different relationships exist between the professional and others. Kultgen (1998) clearly states that under the principle of role responsibilities, professionals primarily serve clients, employers, and special sectors of the public who come to them for aid. A profession is part of the larger social system. It is complemented by other action-systems, professional and non-professional.

Guy (1990) and McDowell (1991) on the other hand states that there is the formal ethical prescription that a professional must prefer the interest of the client, as well as the currently accepted primary goal of all economic or business activity, which is to make as much profit as possible. Professionals should not be greedy and lose sight of their professional duties to their clients.

Greed

According to Gup (1990) "Greed is the motive for bank crimes". Dishonest and greedy loans have been the bane in the banking industry, which has accentuated the distress syndrome in the industry by weakening the deposit base of banks. This happens when bankers disregard laid down policies and the tenants of banking and connive with customers to obtain questionable loans and other facilities from a bank.

Frauds and Insider Abuse

Gup (1990) defines insider abuse as a technical term that "refers to a wide range of misconduct by officers, directors and insiders of financial institutions committed with the intent to enrich themselves without regard for the safety and soundness of the institutions they control, in violation of civil banking laws and regulations and perhaps also in violation of criminal banking laws. Owualah (1996) states "poor quality staff has also been blamed for the weak internal controls, frequent contravention of statutory regulations and the growing spate of frauds in the system". He further states, "It is trite to say that frauds now constitute one of the most worrisome problems cutting across all banks in Nigeria and inflicting huge financial losses on their victims.

Unethical practices in Nigerian banks still manifest themselves in various forms. This is because the entire economy has been pervaded with corruption. The banking sector of the economy has not been spared. Unethical practices creep into Nigerian banks right from the point of entry when staffs are being recruited. This is what is called “Relationship Employment”. It means employment not based on merit but based on beneficial relationships the bank will derive by offering a job to someone who is a relation to a wealthy customer or potential customer. The bank expects the new employee to attract huge deposits from his relation to the bank. Ethics and good conduct are therefore sacrificed for the deposits and professionalism is thrown overboard.

Another similar and peculiar unethical practice in the Nigerian banking industry is the debasement of womanhood. The Osibodu Committee carried out discreet investigations and reported that the institutions involved in such unethical practices encourage the young girls to meet their targets by “any means”. Some of the girls who responded to the questionnaires sent out by the Osibodu Committee confirmed that they have been sexually harassed by their employers for failing to meet their targets and have been threatened with job losses. According to Unegbu (2004) “some critics have criticized the banking sector for celebrating prostitution in the guise of marketing banking services and products”. The implication is that in an effort to attract deposits by all means, these bankers may contravene the provisions of the Money Laundering Act by collecting deposits from questionable persons. Heermance (1924) points out that “unethical practices are not only a menace to society but it jeopardizes the standing of the group as a whole, and tends to depreciate the value of its service. Therefore in order to be able to combat this, the tools below are needed:

Internal Controls

Gup (1990) points out that management is responsible for devising and maintaining internal controls. According to him, internal controls can be defined as the plan of organization, method, and measures used to safeguard assets, to ensure the accuracy and reliability of data, to ensure compliance with policies and applicable laws and regulations, and to promote management efficiency. Therefore lack of corporate culture manifests in the following situations: “absence of code of ethics; absence of a clear policy on conflicts of interest; lack of oversight by the bank’s board of directors, particularly outside directors; absence of planning, training, hiring, and organizational policies; absence of clearly defined authorities and lack of definition of the responsibilities that go along with authorities; and lack of independence of management in acting on recommended corrections”.

Regulation, Supervision and Surveillance

Nwankwo (2001) defines banking regulation as “a body of specific rules or agreed behaviour either imposed by some government or external agency, or imposed by the explicit or implied agreement within the industry that constraints the activities and business operations of the institutions in the industry to achieve defined objectives and act prudently.” Most of the regulations governing the operation of banks are codified by legislation. Moreover, following the introduction of Universal Banking in 2000, the Central Bank of Nigeria introduced the Financial services Regulation coordinating Committee (FSRCC) for greater supervision and surveillance. The focus of regulation has therefore been to reduce the risk of bank insolvency and the potential cost of bank failures to depositors, Sanusi (2003). Laws and regulations are promulgated to ensure discipline and compliance with specified standards. Enforcement of banking laws is therefore necessary for the banking industry in order to avoid distortions in the system. Appropriate sanctions are prescribed by the Central bank of Nigeria (CBN), Nigerian Deposit Insurance Corporation (NDIC), or any appropriate Act applicable to banks. These are aimed at checking concealment of financial and economic crimes as well as other unethical practices, which are detrimental to the banking industry and the economy.

Contraventions, Sanctions and Penalties

McDowell (1991) writes that the present structure of professions leaves a large area of autonomy or discretion to individual professionals, and it is within that area of professional freedom that abuse occurs. He opines that there are three possibilities, Complete and unregulated autonomy with the hope that internalized notions of competence and ethics will assure that autonomy is exercised wisely. Since 1952, there have been many governmental regulations put in place, which invariably affect banking operations and the way banking businesses are conducted. These regulations have been enacted to check criminal and

unethical conducts. According to the Chartered Institute of Bankers in Nigeria (2004) certain conduct and practices are considered unprofessional / unethical which include but are not limited to:

Conflict of Interest: Engaging in extraneous activities, which constrain a bank's primary responsibility and also Colluding with third parties to inflate contracts.

Abuse of Trust/Office: Abuse of position and taking advantage of the institution to enrich oneself and Collusion with the bank's customer to divert credit facilities for unauthorized purposes.

Full Disclosure: This is simply a lack of appropriate disclosure in dealing with other players and customers in the market place. It also includes imposition of previously undisclosed charges on customer's accounts. And failure to submit report on dismissed / terminated staff to Central Bank and other relevant agencies. Full disclosure could also be Concealment of fraudulent acts perpetuated by employees.

Misuse of Information: Misuse, manipulation or non- disclosure of material information on operation supplied to regulatory authorities with intent to mislead. Misuse of confidential information gained through banking operations. Running down competitors through deliberate misinformation.

Insider Abuse: The improper granting of loan to Directors, insiders and political interests and other misdemeanor as appropriately provided in BOFIA, insiders conversion of bank's resources to purposes other than the bank's business interest. Granting of unsecured credit facilities to internal / external customers in contravention of the provisions of banks & other Financial Institutions Act (BOFIA). Granting of waivers on non- performing credit as detailed in BOFIA

Offer and Acceptance of Gratification: Offering / Acceptance of gratification to / from customers and potential customers to do business, applying unequal standards and finally imposing unfair penalties by the regulator with the intention to induce gratification.

Non Compliance with Standards and Guidelines: This includes Non- conformity with the Nigerian Accounting Standards. CBN Prudential Guidelines, NDIC regulations thereby resulting in incomplete or false information, and also refusal to recognize inherent risks in the portfolio of contingent liabilities.

Aiding and Abetting: Aiding and abetting the failure of a new staff to meet the financial obligation of the previous employer and aiding and abetting within and outside the organization, an example of this is employing new staff without obtaining suitable references.

Code of Banking Practice

According to the Chartered Institute of Bankers of Nigeria(2004), the governing principles of the code are to set out the standards of good banking practice which banks will follow in their dealings with their customers ,as well as to provide guidelines for banks to make them act fairly and reasonably in all their dealings with customers and other banks, cause banks to help customers to understand the operation of their accounts and to give them a good understanding of their banking services including known risk relating to the operations; as well as to maintain confidence in the security and integrity of the banking system. Banks must recognize that their systems and technology need to be reliable to protect their customers and themselves. The following have been noted by the Chartered Institute of Bankers of Nigeria (2004).

In **Opening an account** banks are required by law to satisfy themselves about the identity and address of a person seeking to open an account to assist in protecting their customers, members of the public and themselves against fraud and other misuse of the banking system. There should be written **terms and conditions** in respect of the various types of financial services offered by them. Banks must disclose to their customers in sufficient detail the basis of the **charges incidental** to the operation of their accounts. Banks will inform customers about the interest rates applicable to their accounts, the basis on which the interest is calculated and when it will be paid to their accounts. Each bank will have its own internal procedures of handling customers' complaints fairly and expeditiously. Banks will observe a strict duty of **confidentiality** about their customers (and former customers') affairs and will not disclose details of customers' accounts or their names and addresses to and third party, including other companies in the same

group, other than in the four exceptional cases permitted by law, All banks should insist on their staff signing "Declaration of Secrecy" to guarantee the confidentiality of customer information. Banks will on reply to status enquiries made about their customers and explain how the system of Status Enquiries (Bankers' References) works. Except in response to a customer's specific written request or where a customer has given his express written consent, banks will not pass customers' names and addresses to other companies in the same group for **marketing** purposes. Banks should not make the provision of basic banking services conditional on customers giving such written consent. In particular, banks should ensure that all advertising and promotional literature is fair and reasonable, does not contain misleading information and complies with all relevant legislation, whether relating to their own Bank or their competitors banks.

Banks will provide customers with details of the exchange rate and the charges which will apply to **foreign exchange transactions**. Banks will provide customers wishing to effect cross-border payments with details of the services they offer. Banks will advise private individuals proposing to give them a guarantee or other security for another person's liabilities, that by giving the **guarantee** or their party security he or she might become liable instead and that he or she should seek independent legal advice before entering into the guarantee or third party security. Guarantees and other third party security documentation will contain clear and prominent notice to the above effect. A bank should at all times and as expeditiously as possible seek adequate information about the credit-worthiness of any other bank before engaging in **inter-bank transaction** with it. Banks should accord priority to inter-bank obligations.

Linkage between Distress and Unethical Practices in the Banking Sector

Distress in banking parlance connotes situations where there is trouble with the bank. It is another way of saying that there are signs of insolvency and the bank may not be in a position to meet its obligations and commitments as and when they fall due. According to the Munn's Encyclopedia of Banking and Finance, Cited by Owualah (1996), "a failed bank is one closed temporarily or permanently on account of financial difficulties. Canon (2004) aptly states that, "Banking is about confidence, character, trust, and ethics. It is neither the racing field for cowboys nor the dancing floor for beauty pageants". This is because "a bank is a very sensitive institution dealing with people's lives, capital and confidence". For this reason, he suggests that government should intensify investigations into the "history, character, integrity, and financial standard of would-be directors" to prevent cowboys from emerging on the board of directors of banks. Gup (1990) said "the cause of most bank failures is loans that went bad. But why did the loans go bad? The answers may be found in "macro-economic instability or overconcentration in real estate loans". Bankers may have no control over macro-economic policies but certainly, they are in full control over their exposures to the real estate sector of the economy and indeed all other sectors; and professional and prudent appraisals of such loans would reveal the obligor limits and the level of safety needed for a "safe and sound" banking practice. Unethical practices cannot stand the test of time and banks which survive on public confidence must be ethical in all ramifications in order to provide safe and sound banking environment. For this reason and many others, the Central Bank of Nigeria has continued to issue guidelines and regulations on important issues affecting the banking industry.

Impact of Central Bank of Nigeria in Sanitizing Unethical Behaviour in Nigerian Banks

Statutory and self regulation of ethics in the banking industry is a product of government enactment or promulgation of laws to prevent and penalize malpractices and unethical behavior in the banking industry. Babaita (2001) listed the following statutory regulations already in force in the banking industry to include:

- i. Banks and Other Financial Institutions Act 1991 as amended 1998.
- ii. The Failed Banks Decree that identifies lists and prescribes appropriate offences in that Decree and in other Decree.
- iii. The Advance Fee Fraud and Other Related Offences Decree 1995.
- iv. Money laundering Act (2004) that makes it obligatory for banks to make routine reports that may throw up money laundering activities as well as to report suspicious transactions of any amount.
- v. CBN professional code of conduct.
- vi. The NDIC decree No 22 of 1998 that establishes obligations for banks officers

According to Francis (2010) there are two major regulators in the Nigerian banking industry namely the Nigerian Deposit Insurance Company (NDIC) and the Central bank of Nigeria (CBN). These are

government institutions set up by law to regulate, monitor and control the activities and actors in the banking, and entire financial sectors of Nigeria. They formulate policies and procedures that ensure a sound and stable financial system. They also ensure that other actors in the banking system operate within the defined policies and practices. The NDIC is the government’s agency responsible for guaranteeing the payment of deposits up to the maximum limit in accordance with its statute in the event of failure of an insured financial institution. It also supervises banks so as to protect depositors; fosters monetary stability; promotes an effective and efficient payment system; and promotes competition and innovation in the banking system. Francis (2010) postulates that the Central Bank of Nigerian and the Nigeria deposit Insurance Company have greatly helped to combat unethical practices in Nigeria. For example Central bank intervened in the year 2009 by the firing of the Chief Executive Officers (CEO) and the boards of directors of eight banks and replaced the fired officers with external CBN- appointed officers and injected 420 billion naira (\$2.8 billion) of government funds into the affected eight banks to address their insolvency and liquidity challenges, thereby stabilizing the Nigerian banking system from potential collapse. Ahmad Bello (2004) revealed that the sanctioning of the affected bank executives had far reaching impact on various sectors and organizations, particularly the capital market, insurance, corporative societies, among others. An x-ray of powers of the intervention made by CBN was done and the aggregate view on the subject points to the fact that the sanitizing of banks was timely, expedient and falls within the legal frame work of the CBN Act and the Nigerian constitution.

METHODOLOGY

The research design chosen for this project is the survey. This is because according to (Saunders 1997) the greatest use of the questionnaire is made by the survey strategy. It allows the collection of a large amount of data from a sizable population in a highly economic way. The basic research instrument used in this study is the questionnaire. This involves the administration of well-structured questionnaires to respondents. The responses were analyzed and used to test the hypotheses from which valid decisions and conclusions were drawn. Two methods of data collection are adopted in this study. A well-structured questionnaire was prepared and administered on (10) deposit money taking banks in the country. There were twenty-two (22) questions in all, which were subdivided into two parts. Part one consists of thirty (14) questions with options of Yes or No. Part two consists of thirteen (8) questions.

Sources of secondary data have been fully acknowledged in the references. According to (Asika, 1991), “The population is a census of all the elements or subjects of interest and may be finite or infinite” “The full set of cases from which the sample is taken is called the population” (Saunders et al: 1997). The population in this study consists of bankers and customers in the banking industry in Nigeria. The entire population can therefore be estimated to run into thousands and is therefore too large as some banks employ as many as seven thousand staff. It is therefore imperative that a sample of the population must be taken for the purpose of this research. . Thus, this study is based on a sample size of 100 bankers drawn randomly from the selected ten deposit money taking banks and customers. The random sampling method was employed in this research. The Simple random sampling procedure has been employed because it is easy to administer and saves time. As for the reliability instrument, we considered the reliability and the validity of the questionnaire. The research work is valid because the instrument used is correctly designed and administered; it measured exactly what it set out to measure. The research work is also reliable as there is consistency and stability in the instrument used. All variables were analyzed with the use of Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS).

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

The percentage method adopted to analyze the data obtained and the response from the questionnaires was then presented using the Statistical package for Social Science (SPSS). It analyses the questions raised as reflected in the questionnaire which was distributed to the ten deposit money banks namely Guaranty Trust Bank, First Bank, Ecobank, and United bank for Africa (UBA), Access bank, Sterling bank, Skye bank, Fidelity bank, Union bank and Main street bank as well as customers. An interview was also conducted on the respondents. Table 4-1 shows the Responses received from the Questionnaires.

Table 4-1: Analysis of Respondents Characteristics

Questionnaire	Respondents	Percentage
Returned	87	87%
Not Returned	13	13%
TOTAL	100	100

Source: Research Survey (May, 2012)

From the table 4-1 above, 100 questionnaires were issued to the various banks, regulators and the customers and 87% of questionnaires were returned while the remaining 13% of questionnaires issued were not returned. The 87% returned questionnaires was then used to form the basis of this data analysis.

Table 4-2: Sex Distribution of Questionnaires

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	63	72.4	72.4	72.4
	Female	24	27.6	27.6	100.0
	Total	87	100.0	100.0	

Source: Research Survey (May,2012)

Table 4-2 shows the gender distribution of respondents. 87 participants took part in this study and out of this number, 63 participants representing 72.4% were male participants. 24 participants representing 27.6% were females. This shows that there is gender balance. The female participants constitute a good proportion of this survey and form part of all the categories under this survey.

Table 4-3: Age Distribution of the respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	20-29	23	26.4	26.4	26.4
	30-39	43	49.4	49.4	75.9
	40-49	13	14.9	14.9	90.8
	50-59	8	9.2	9.2	100.0
	Total	87	100.0	100.0	

Source: Research Survey (May, 2012)

Table 4-3 shows the age distribution of respondents. There was no respondent below the age of 20 years. The range is from 20-60 as the retirement age in the banking industry in Nigeria is 60 years. Majority of the respondents fall within the productive age bracket of 30-39 years which represents 49.4% of the population while the minority was represented by 50-59 with a percentage of 9.2% of the total population. This implies that the respondents were well aware of the research questionnaires presented to them and were therefore sufficiently mature to make informed decisions and judgment based on the questionnaires presented to them. Consequently, the researcher is confident that the information provided by the respondents is reliable.

Table 4-4: Marital Status of Respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Single	56	64.4	64.4	64.4
	Married	31	35.6	35.6	100.0
	Total	87	100.0	100.0	

Source: Research Survey (May, 2012)

Table 4-4 shows that 64.4% of the respondents are single, while a total of 35.6 of the population are married.

Table 4-5: Category of Respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Bank Staff	74	85.1	85.1	85.1
Depositors	13	14.9	14.9	100.0
Total	87	100.0	100.0	

Source: Research Survey (May,2012)

From the table 4-5 above, a total of 85.1 percent of Bank Staff participated in this survey While 14.9% of the total population were depositors.

Testing of Hypothesis

This research work made use of the T-statistics under the Social Package for social sciences to test the validity of the hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1

Null (Ho): Banks in Nigeria are not aware of the Code of Ethics and Professionalism in the banking industry.

Alternative (Hi): Banks in Nigeria are aware of the Code of Ethics and Professionalism in the industry

From the hypotheses, research questions 7 and 12 would be used to form the basis of the analysis.

Question 7: Is your bank aware of the code of Ethics and Professionalism in the banking industry

Table 4-6: Hypothesis 1

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid No	2	2.3	2.3	2.3
Yes	85	97.7	97.7	100.0
TOTAL	87	100	100	

Source: Research Survey (May, 2012)

The Table 4-6 above shows that 97.7% of respondents are aware of the code of ethics and professionalism in the banking industry

Table 4-7: One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Is your bank aware of the code of Ethics and professionalism?	87	.98	.151	.016

Source: Computerize data from SPSS (May, 2012)

The one sample statistics table 4-7, above shows that we have 87 observation denoted by N and the mean number is 0.98, the standard deviation is 0.151, while the standard error mean is 0.016 which is 16% therefore we consider this acceptable because the mean is greater than the standard deviation

Table 4-8: One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 0					
	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper
Is your bank aware of the code of Ethics and professionalism?	60.457	86	.000	.977	.94	1.01

Source: Computerize data from SPSS (2012)

Column 2 in the table 4-8 above shows the t-test value which is 60.457, the third column calculates the significance level using the table of critical value, given the degrees of freedom, 86, and level of significance of 0.05, the t value of 1.9879 is critical for =0.05(2 tail)

Decision

The decision rule states that if the one tailed critical t-value is less than the calculated t value and the means are in right order then we reject the null hypothesis. From the table above the critical t-value is 1.9879 and the calculated is 60.457, therefore 60.457 > 1.9879 so we reject the null hypothesis, this implies that Banks are aware of the code of Ethics and Professionalism in the Industry.

Hypothesis Two

Null (Ho): Professional bankers do not manage many banks in Nigeria.

Alternative (Hi): Professional bankers manage many banks in Nigeria.

This hypothesis will make use of questions 20

Question 20: Professional bankers should be appointed to manage all the banks

Table 4-9: Hypothesis 2

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	18	20.7	20.7	20.7
Disagree	1	1.1	1.1	21.8
Agree	1	1.1	1.1	23.0
Strongly agree	67	77.0	77.0	100.0
Total	87	100.0	100.0	

Source: Research Survey (May,2012)

Table 4-9 depicts that 77% of the respondents believe that professional bankers should be appointed to manage all banks while 20.7 strongly disagreed.

Table 4-10: One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Professional Bankers should be appointed to manage all banks	87	4.13	1.641	.176

Source: Computerized data from SPSS (May, 2012)

The table 4-10 above shows that we have 87 and the mean number is 4.13, the standard deviation is 1.641 while the standard error mean is 0.176 which is 18% approximated therefore we consider this acceptable

Table 4-11: One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 0					
	T		Sig. (2-tailed)		95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper
Professional Bankers should be appointed to manage all banks	23.453	86	.000	4.126	3.78	4.48

Table 4-11 shows a t-test value of which is 23.453, using the table of critical value, given the degrees of freedom, 86, and level of significance of 0.05, the t-value of 1.9879 is critical for =0.05(2 tail)

Decision

From the table above the critical t value is 1.9879 and the calculated is 60.457, therefore $23.453 > 1.9879$ so we reject the null hypothesis, Professional bankers manage banks in Nigeria

Hypothesis Three

Null (Ho): Many banks in Nigeria are not distressed due to unethical practices and Mismanagement.

Alternative (Hi): Many banks in Nigeria are distressed due to unethical practices and mismanagement.

Hypothesis three will make use of question 18

Question 18: Unethical practices create distress in the Banking Industry

Table 4-12: Hypothesis 3

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Undecided	1	1.1	1.1	1.1
Strongly agree	86	98.9	98.9	100.0
Total	7	100.0	100.0	

Source: Research Survey (May, 2012)

Table 4-12 above 98.9% of the respondent strongly agreed that unethical practices create distress in the Banking Industry while 1.1% were undecided.

Table 4-13: One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Unethical practices create distress in the banking Industry	87	4.98	.214	.023

Source: Computerized data from SPSS (May, 2012)

The observation above in Table 4-13 is 87 with a mean of 4.98 and a standard deviation of 0.214, the standard error mean is 0.023 which is 23% therefore it is considered acceptable

Table 4-14: One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 0					
	t		Sig. (2-tailed)		95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper
Unethical practices create distress in the banking Industry	216.500	86	.000	4.977	4.93	5.02

Source: Computerized data from SPSS (May, 2012)

From table 4-14 above, the t-test value above is 216.500, calculating the critical value using the table of critical value we have 1.9879

Decision

From the table above the critical t value is 1.9879 and the calculated is 216.500, therefore $216.500 > 1.9879$ so we reject the null hypothesis and accept the null hypothesis implying that many banks in Nigeria are distressed due to unethical practices.

5.1 FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATION

Empirical Findings

1. The overall empirical evidence generated from this study reveals that many Nigerian Banks and Bankers are aware of the Code of Ethics and Professionalism in the Banking Industry but not all Nigerian banks have adopted the Code. This implies that the industry is not fully sanitized in order to curb unethical and unprofessional practices for restoration of public confidence in the system for efficient financial intermediation and for the economic development of the country.
2. The sanctions for unethical/unprofessional conducts appear to be too weak, such sanctions taken includes the removal of the name of the member from the register of registered members, submission of the names of de-listed members to the Central Bank of Nigeria and the Nigeria Insurance Deposit Corporation as well as Banks where the member is employed. The problem however is that the removal of the name of a professional banker from the register does not prevent the banker from carrying out his normal duties, this only means that the banker cannot parade himself/herself as a professional banker.
3. Banking is a profession but entry into the banking profession in Nigeria is generally unrestricted and so it is difficult to enforce ethics as the industry has not been able to sieve out professional from non-professional bankers for the purpose of sanctions for unethical practices. Unrestricted entry into the banking profession in Nigeria is partially responsible for the unethical practices in the banking industry.
4. The Sub-Committee on Ethics of the Bankers Committee and The Chartered Institute of Bankers of Nigeria have made tremendous efforts at sanitizing the banking industry in Nigeria
5. The general awareness and adoption of the Code of Ethics has helped to reduce the number of banks being sanctioned by the Central Bank of Nigeria for violating its rules and regulations. Where sanctions were imposed, they were not mainly for unethical practices but for some other routine lapses
6. Many professional bankers are at the helm of affairs of most of Nigerian banks and are capable of providing ethical leadership for the banking profession. The study further showed that many Nigerian banks encourage professional training amongst their staff in order to prepare them for the challenges ahead and ensure that there is adequate manpower to carry on as successful business entities with ethical values which can provide modern and efficient banking services to the large banking public in Nigeria.

7. Most of the frauds in the banking industry were due to insiders/ collaborators and this has materially affected the level of ethical expectations from Nigerian banks as majority of respondents who are bankers themselves observed that Nigerian banks/bankers have not lived up to their ethical expectations.
8. The study also revealed that there is an urgent need for legislation of ethics contrary to the views expressed in the literature review that ethics cannot be legislated as ethics is morality and one cannot legislate morality. In spite of this, we found out that many respondents want Ethics to be strictly enforced in banks by the Central Bank of Nigeria and this should be done by legislation. The obstacle however is that ethics is morality and one cannot legislate morality.
9. The study also found that there are core ethical values in Nigerian banks added to this is the discovery that most Nigerian banks encourage ethics training and this should be sustained. Ethics training is also receiving the desired attention in virtually all the banks in Nigeria as the banks encourage professional training amongst their staff.

Recommendations

1. There is still need to promote greater awareness of Ethics and the Code of Ethics in the Nigerian Banking Industry, as this is the best way of promoting ethical behaviour. The Chartered Institute of Bankers of Nigeria should step up and sustain enlightenment campaigns for ethical behaviour in the banking industry through seminars, workshops, newsletters, journals, magazines and other publications.
2. Stiffer sanctions should be given to unethical/unprofessional conduct and there should be sufficient penalty for unethical practices to deter deviation from ethical behaviour, as compliance with the Code of Ethics is not optional but compulsory for all banks and bankers in Nigeria.
3. There is unrestricted entry into the banking industry which is responsible for a lot of unethical practices; therefore stricter entry into the banking industry should be enforced, this would help in reducing unethical practices in the banking industry.
4. Efforts need to be intensified to cultivate and promote ethics and the desire for self-regulation by ensuring that all Nigerian banks adopt the Code of Ethics in the banking industry
5. Professionalism in the banking industry should be promoted and to this end all bankers must register with the Chartered Institute of Bankers of Nigeria, which has the responsibility for professional training of Bankers in Nigeria. The Regulatory Authorities should ensure that only professional bankers are appointed to top management positions in Nigerian banks
6. To curb distress in banks, the Regulatory Authorities should ensure that penalties and stiff sanctions are imposed on banks for unethical practices and for outright violation of rules and regulations sufficient to deter such violations and discourage unethical behaviors in future.
7. It is recommended that Ethics and Professional training should be made compulsory for all professional bankers and all other bank workers in the banking industry in Nigeria. Ethics training should be introduced as a course in all tertiary institutions (universities, Polytechnics & Colleges of Education) in Nigeria for early exposure to ethics and ethical behaviors amongst students and leaders of tomorrow so that they can appreciate the benefits of ethics and professionalism early in life.
8. Since it would be difficult to legislate ethics in the banking industry it is recommended that Enforcement of Ethics should therefore be at the individual banks as it is said that the best form of regulation is self-regulation.

Conclusion

Since banking is based on trust, transparency and confidential behaving ethically is in the best interest of businesses as well as in the interest of other stakeholders in the system. To behave unethically has dire consequences for all stakeholders and for the system. It is therefore not sufficient to have a code of ethics. The Code must be readily available to all bankers to promote ethical awareness; it must also be able address all ethical issues and problems for proper professional guidance; the code should be evaluated frequently to ensure that it is current and not stale and must be enforceable to ensure conformity by all professional bankers; and finally it must be readily adopted by all banks. All Nigerian banks must therefore

see ethics as part of their core management functions and provide ethics training in their organizations. All Nigerian banks should have corporate cultures for guidance of employees and this should be built and sustained for the benefit of the banks and their employees. Ethical practices will certainly eliminate distress in the banking industry, restore confidence in the payment system and bank failures in the economy.

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APPENDIX

Covenant University
Ota, Ogun State, Nigeria.
Department of Banking and
Finance, School of Business,
College of Development Studies.
March, 2012.

Dear Respondent,

This Study/Research is designed to understand better how **the code of Ethics and Professionalism in the banking industry in Nigeria has helped to sanitize the banking profession**. This is an issue of great importance to bankers and the general public. You are one of a small number of people who are being asked to give your opinion on this issue. In order that the results will truly represent the banks, it is important that your questionnaire is completed and returned. All the information you give will be totally confidential. Thank you and God Bless.

Yours truly,

Ikpefan, O.A/Ayeni Oluwatobi

SECTION A

- a. Name of your organization: _____
b. Age: 20-29 () 30- 39 () 40 – 49 () 50 – 59 ()
c. Gender: M () F ()
d. Marital Status: Single () Married () Divorced ()
e. Category of respondent. Bank staff () Depositors () CBN staff ()
f. Position of Bank staff (Bankers only): Junior () Middle Management ()
(c)Top Management ()

PART ONE

Please tick Yes or No for the following questions.

1. Banking is a profession? Yes () No ()
2. Unrestricted entry into the banking profession is responsible for unethical practices. Yes () No ()
3. Ethics should be strictly enforced in banks. Yes () No ()
4. Are there core ethical values in your bank? Yes () No ()
5. Do you practice these ethics? Yes () No ()
6. Does your bank encourage professional training? Yes () No ()
7. Is your bank aware of the code of Ethics and Professionalism in the banking industry? Yes () No ()
8. Has your bank been adhering to the Code of Ethics and Professionalism? Yes () No ()
9. Has your bank ever been sanctioned by the CBN for violating ethical rules? Yes () No ()
10. Our bank identifies with the Chartered Institute of Bankers of Nigeria. Yes () No ()
11. There are many Professional Bankers in our employment. Yes () No ()
12. The Sub-committee on Ethics and professionalism has classified certain conducts as unethical / unprofessional. Are you aware of these conducts Yes () No ()
13. The sanctions for unethical / unprofessional conducts appear to be too weak. Yes () No ()
14. Has any Professional Banker(s) been dismissed / terminated in your bank for fraud related case(s)? Yes () No ()

PART TWO

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of these statements, TICK the ONE that corresponds with your answer.

SA = Strongly agree, A= agree, U=Undecided , D = Disagree, SD = Strongly disagree

		SA	A	U	D	SD
15	Banking is based on Trust, Confidentiality and Transparency					
16	The C.B.N. should regulate Ethics in the banking industry					
17	Ethics should be enforced in the banking industry by legislation.					
18	Unethical practices create distress in the banking industry					
19	Greed and lack of professional training are responsible for the high incidence of fraud in the banking industry					
20	Professional Bankers should be appointed to manage all banks.					
21	How do you feel about the following statement? 'Bankers should place their client's interest before their own					
22	Most of the frauds in the banks are due to insiders/collaborators					

SOCIAL CONTEXT OF PREVENTION AND MANAGEMENT OF INFERTILITY IN NIGERIA

JAMES, GODSWILL
Department of Sociology
Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria,
Kaduna State, Nigeria.
godswillz@yahoo.com
+234-8037030868

ABSTRACT

The incidence of infertility in Nigeria has assumed an alarming proportion and is a major public health problem. Although some studies have looked into the problem of infertility, current knowledge of the factors contributing to infertility is limited. And given that these studies are mainly conducted by medical experts, they present just a partial view of the situation without necessarily locating the problem of infertility within the social context in which it occurs. This paper examines infertility in Nigeria especially as it relates to its social and behavioural aspects. In carrying out this research, the author relied mainly on secondary data. It is observed that there is no adequate health policy and services that tackle infertility in Nigeria. Again, inability to comprehensively understand socio-cultural dimensions of infertility has largely resulted in the failures of family and reproductive health interventions and population policies in many Sub-Saharan African countries. The author concludes, with rare instances, that interventions at resolving the problem of infertility should be focused at prevention rather than treatment.

Key words: Infertility, Nigeria, Social context, Reproductive health interventions, Public health problem.

Introduction

Infertility constitutes a grave emotional and social problem in societies where great importance is attached to having children (Caldwell and Caldwell, 2000; 1978). The contradictory scenario however, is that Sub-Saharan Africa, characterized by high fertility also represents areas of highest prevalence of infertility. Estimates suggest that about 20-30 percentage of couples in Africa experience primary and secondary infertility (Okonofua, 1999). The most affected areas lie within the central African region referred to as the “infertility belt” of Africa (Okonofua, 1999; Romaniuk; 1969). Although Nigeria does not fall within the infertility belt, there are indications of high and rising prevalence levels (CDC, 2000). In spite of the high prevalence of infertility, significant efforts have not been made at tackling the problem.

Even though the population policy of Nigeria (section 4.1B of 2004) affirms the need for family planning clinics to assist infertile couples desiring to give birth to children, infertility is yet to be addressed as a public health issue (Okonofua *et al.*, 1997). This low level of response negates the Action Plan of the International Conference on Population and Development held in Cairo in 1994, which echoed the importance of guaranteeing reproductive health rights to every individual. The lack of adequate focus by policy makers on the problem of infertility has often resulted in its further intensification. For instance, having multiple sexual partners and abortion, which are parts of the coping mechanisms among infertile persons. This predisposes them to sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) and reproductive tract infections (RTIs) that could result in infertility. According to the analysis of the World Fertility Survey (WFS, 1972 and 1978) and the Demographic Health Survey (DHS, 1990), the prevalence rate of infertility among various regions in Nigeria is between 6 and 19 percent (Araoye, 2003). In the same vain, data also show that about 70 percent of gynecological cases reported at the hospitals in Nigeria are of infertility (Okonofua, 1999). This makes it imperative to understand the social and behavioral concerns with respect to infertility in Nigeria.

Indeed the problem of infertility has been subjugated for perceived urgent concerns of high population growth through fertility and increasing incidence of unplanned pregnancy, unsafe abortion, sexually transmitted diseases and lately HIV/AIDS (Boerma and Mgalla, 2001; Widge, 2001; Okonofua *et al.*, 1997; Romaniuk, 1969). Family planning services that treat infertility are not adequate and widespread. They are most not affordable to the majority that is socio-economically impoverished. Given that these studies are mainly conducted by medical experts, they present just a partial view of the situation without necessarily locating the problem of infertility within the social context in which it occurs. In fact, studies on infertility have been neglected in the social sciences, and abandoned at the slab of medical science (Greil, 1997). Although there were demographic studies on infertility in the past, these were largely confined to the infertility belt. The implication is that there is paucity of data that could lead to a comprehensive understanding of this complex phenomenon.

While some researches have addressed fertility issues in Sub-Saharan Africa, studies related to the social context of infertility in the region on the other hand are not extensive (Larsen, 2003; Caldwell and Caldwell, 2000; Boerma and Mgalla, 2001; Okonofua, 1999; Okonofua *et al.*, 1997; Greil, 1997). The few that exist have espoused female aspects of infertility alone while creating the impression that infertility is not equally a problem experienced by males. Isiugo-Abanihe (2003) recently stressed the crucial role of the male factor in fertility and family health issues. Indeed, inability to comprehensively understand socio-cultural dimensions of infertility has largely resulted in the failures of a number of family and reproductive health interventions and population policies in many Sub-Saharan African communities; as a major public health problem in Nigeria, infertility has contributed to inappropriate contraceptive behavior and poor sexual and reproductive health of women.

Evidently, there is no adequate public health policy and services that tackle infertility in Nigeria in spite of the International Conference on Population Development (ICPD) Plan of Action, which states that reproductive health services should include the prevention and appropriate treatment of infertility. This paper therefore examines infertility in Nigeria especially as it relates to its social and behavioral aspects as well as prevention and management.

Conceptual Clarifications

There are various conceptions of infertility, which depends on context it is being used. The medical conception refers to infertility as the inability of a couple to achieve pregnancy within 12 months of regular unprotected sexual intercourse (Leke, 2003), while demographers often define infertility as the proportion of (married) women between ages 40 to 45 who are childless. Another demographic definition refers to infertility as the absence of live born children or the presence of few children, or, primary and secondary infertility respectively (Frank, 2003). Demographers use the term infertility to refer to all forms of unsatisfied fertility including sterility, fetal loss whether as a result of spontaneous or induced abortion or stillbirths. Thus infertility refers to shortfalls in live born children whether or not pregnancy (ies) has occurred. This paper therefore takes into account these varied conceptions of infertility owing to various socio-cultural, individual circumstance and experiences as well as structural and institutional meanings. For instance, the medical science definition, which views infertility only as when a couple or an individual is not able to conceive, is not sufficient for other institutions. For example within the socio-cultural context it is not sufficient enough for a woman to prove her fertility without her having live birth. Similarly, an inability to give birth to the desired number of children is perceived as infertility.

These pluralistic understanding of infertility further emphasize the importance of understanding the social contexts of infertility. Therefore for the purpose of this study, infertility refers to the inability of a man, woman or couple to achieve desired pregnancy or natural fertility in terms of preferred number, sex and time. There are two levels of infertility that is, primary and secondary infertility. **Primary infertility** refers to a situation where a woman has not achieved pregnancy or a live birth in her lifetime, or a man not being able to fertilize an ovum to achieve pregnancy or a live birth. The World Health Organization (WHO) defined primary infertility as when the couple has never conceived despite regular unprotected intercourse for the past 12 months (Rutstein and Iqbal, 2004; Larsen, 2000). **Secondary infertility** refers to the inability of a woman to achieve a desired pregnancy or live birth following previous achievements, or the inability of a man's spermatozoa to fertilize an ovum for pregnancy or live birth following previous achievement. WHO defines secondary infertility as when the couple has previously conceived but is subsequently unable to conceive after 12 months of regular unprotected intercourse (Rutstein and Iqbal,

2004; Larsen, 2000). **Infertility Behavior** therefore refers to all biological and behavioral perceptions, attitudes, actions and reactions engaged in by both fertile and infertile persons in relation to infertility. It involves constellation of perceptions, attitude and actions and reactions towards infertility including its causes, consequences, treatment and prevention of infertility.

Prevalence of Infertility in Nigeria

The incidence of infertility in Nigeria has assumed an alarming proportion. Araoye (2003) asserts that difficulty in achieving desired childbirth accounts for more than half of the cases seen in gynecological clinics in the developing world particularly Sub-Saharan Africa. Nasah (1984) equally reports that 30-40 percent of consultations at family planning or gynecologic clinics relate to complaints of infertility. Findings in Nigeria also show a corresponding pattern as about 60-70% of all gynecological cases were for infertility (The Punch, September, 2003; Okonofua et al., 1997; Megafu, 2003).

According to Leke (2003), despite the increase in world population, 10-20% of couples in the world suffer from infertility. Brady (2003) estimates that 8-12% of couples experience some infertility problem during their reproductive lives. Leke (2003) puts the estimate at 25% of couples that experience some difficulty in achieving desired pregnancy at some stage in their lives. Geries and Rushman (1992) reported that an estimated 580 million people (approximately 5-8% of couples) around the world, experience infertility at some point in their reproductive lives. Of these, nearly 372 million persons (about 186 million couples) reside in low-and middle-income countries, with the exclusion of China (Rutstein and Iqbal, 2004). Frank (1987) estimates these proportions to be 3 percent based on the proportion of women who have reached the end of their childbearing years childless. Rates of primary infertility are between 3 percent in developed world and 10 percent in developing countries. The unavailability of data however makes the measurement of secondary infertility difficult. According to the United States, Office of Technical Assistance (OTA), almost three times as many women who suffer primary infertility suffer from secondary infertility.

The geography of infecundity in Africa shows different zones of low fertility with a large zone of hypofecundity extending through most parts of west and central Africa from Senegal, Mali, Burkina Faso and Niger through Cameroon, to Sudan, DRC (Zaire), Uganda, Kenya and Tanzania, Gabon (Leke, 2003). This region is referred to as the "infertility belt" in Africa (Okonofua, 1999; Romaniuk, 1969). Similarly, Sub-Saharan Africa is characterized by about 15-30% prevalence rate of infertility compared with reported rates of 5-10% in developed countries. In Nigeria, the increasing prevalence of infertility has been observed in several places. Udjo (1987) noted the incidence of low fertility attributable to pathological sterility among the Kanuri in Northern Nigeria. Okonofua (1999) asserts that about 800,000 couples experience infertility. A recent survey by the Obstetrics and Gynecological unit of the Lagos State University Teaching Hospital, Ikeja, reveals an increase in the number of infertility cases in Nigeria over the past ten years (that is, 1992 to 2002), to range from 1,347 to 2,861, while weekly cases increased from 26 to 55.

Some experts have drawn some implications from this high prevalence of infertility in Africa and established a relationship with the high prevalence of fertility. Frank (1987) for instance; found that variations in levels of infertility alone accounts for 60% of the variation in fertility levels. Adjei and Adansi-Pipim (1989) and Frank (1983) equally assert that the inability of women to satisfy their fertility desires explains their unwillingness to use contraceptives. This points out the need to review population policy and programmes to accommodate for the needs for regions of high infertility (Obono, 2003; Nkounkou, 1989).

Social Context of Infertility

The more important children are to the fabric of a given culture, the more important it is for couples to be fertile and the worse the consequences if a couple is infertile (CDC, 2000). Isuigo-Abanihe (1993) affirms that cultural dictates shape behaviors and one's environment affect reproductive efforts, outcomes, perceptions and motivations. Thus, infertility and perceptions towards it are hinged within some socio-cultural beliefs and practices. According to Greil (1997), infertility is not specifically a physiological state but also a social status. However, economic, socio-cultural or psychological factors such as educational level, socio-economic role of women, migration patterns, income level and distribution, agricultural production, land tenure practices, perceived value and cost of children, customs regarding marriage and sexual behavior have not been studied among causes of infertility. For instance, Nasah (1984) reports that

socio-cultural and family pressures often make couples perceive themselves as infertile after less than one year of marriage. Savage (1992) and Widge (2001) noted that when a woman is defined by her infertility, she internalizes the role of motherhood, which makes her feel worthless, and considers herself truly infertile. Many scholars shared the opinion that infertility is socio-culturally perceived as a punishment for wrongdoing. Witchcraft, promiscuity, infidelity, immorality, abortion are also notable perceived socio-cultural causes of infertility (Koster-Oyekan, 1999; Okonofua et al., 1997; Leke and Nasah, 1979). It is observable from the foregoing that socio-cultural perceptions of the causes of infertility tend to assume that infertility is often caused by the female factors. This is largely due to the patriarchal nature of the African societies, which tend to assume reproductive issues as a sole burden of women.

Although various studies have looked into the problem of infertility, current knowledge of the factors contributing to infertility is limited. In Africa, empirical analyses of infertility are complicated since data on factors contributing to infertility are not available. For instance, Sundby (1997) in a study in Gambia observed that half of the infertile couples failed to seek modern healthcare although they sought traditional care healers and spiritual leaders.

Nasah (1984) asserts that factors contributing to infertility may either operate singly or in combination. They are related to the physical environment in conjunction with the actual physical or psychological factors. For instance, while most infertility cases in Africa and the rest of the developing world are due to poor physical environment, inadequate basic health services and infection, predominant causes of infertility in the developed world are as a result of hormonal, psychological and development factors.

The contribution of gender to infertility remains controversial. While most studies have investigated the prevalence of female infertility, very few have studied male infertility. However, it has been suggested that males and females contribute equally to infertility (Chukudebelu et al., 1997). Nevertheless, reports from parts of Nigeria have reached different conclusions. While some showed an equal contribution of male and female partners to infertility (Alemnji and Thomas, 1997; Olatunji and Sule-Odu, 2003), others showed a disproportionate contribution of male and female partners (Esima et al., 2002; WHO, 1987). For instance, in a study among 10,000 couples by the WHO in 1987, the male factor was responsible in 33 percent of the cases, female causes account for 25 percent, couples –related reasons form 20% while no cases of infertility was found in 15 percent of the couple. However, it is difficult to accurately determine the contribution of males and females to infertility, as fertility is relative and may manifest differently in different couples. For example, Leke and Nasah (1979) found infertility to be highly prevalence among women that marry at late ages.

According to Nigeria Demographic and Health Survey (NDHS, 1990), 4 percent of women aged 30 and above in Nigeria have never born a child while about 14 percent have secondary infertility. Similarly the NDHS (1999) reveals that about 4.2 percent of women aged 25-49 have no child and in southwest Nigeria, prevalence rate of infertility is 2.5 percent (NDHS, 1999). There are no corresponding figures for infertility among males.

Female Factors

There are varying statistics on the contribution of female and male factors to infertility. Sherris and Fox (1983) for instance, state that female factors account for between 50 to 70 percent of all infertility cases. More recent studies (for example Brady, 2003) tend to suggest an equal contribution of male and female factors to infertility. A major cause of infertility in women in Africa is acquired sterility due to pathological conditions, that is, Pelvic Inflammatory Diseases (PID). The most likely origin of PID is sexually transmitted diseases (STDS). In most cases of STDS and infertility, neisseria gonorrhoea and Chlamydia trachoma have been identified as precipitating factors (Larsen, 1989; Nasah, 1984; Leke and Nasah 1979). There is an intricate relationship that has been established between infertility and HIV/AIDS (Brady, 2003; Samudine et al., 1999a; Favot et al., 1997). Studies have documented that sub-fertile and infertile women have higher rates of HIV infection compared to fertile controls (Samudine et al., 1999; Favot et al., 1997).

Another major cause of pathological infection, which results in infertility, is infection from previous childbirth, pregnancy wastage and abortion carried out under unhygienic conditions (Larsen, 1989; Cisse, 1990; Leke and Nasah, 1979). Female circumcision, otherwise known as female genital mutilation, has

also been identified to result in pelvic infection which causes infertility (Owumi, 1996; Koso Thomas, 1989).

Some types of contraceptives have also been reported to contribute to pelvic infection and subsequent infertility in women. For example, some intrauterine contraceptive devices (IUDs) have been reported to aggravate the incidence of PID. Studies show that there exist misconceptions and fears among African women that the use of contraceptive results in infertility (O'Reilly, 1986; Chiwuzie and Dariah, 1986). Studies indicate that abortion is generally preferred to contraceptive use as a means of prevention of pregnancy (Chiwuzie and Dariah, 1986; Renne, 1996; Adediran in the Punch News paper, 2003). Permanent infertility may however result from contraceptive sterilization (that is, tubal ligation or vasectomy) if surgery is not properly carried out, thus meaning later undesired infertility for those who wish to reverse the process. Poor nutrition or malnutrition is another contributory factor to infertility (Romaniuk, 1969). Stress and illnesses such as malaria, and tubal tuberculosis are also identified as other possible factors for female infertility.

Male Factors

Studies on infertility have for long addressed female factors as being responsible for childlessness. However, more empirical findings have begun to prove otherwise. Okonofua et al (1997) for instance, in their study noted with interest that focus group participants did not mention the male partner as a contributory factor to infertility. They found among participants in the study that having an erection and being able to engage in sex was sign that a man was fertile.

According to Nasah (1984) 40 to 50 percent of infertility in Africa is due to male factors. However many causes of male infertility are yet to be known. The major known reasons for male infertility are blockage of sperm ducts, or disorders in sperm production resulting in poor semen quality, that is, too few sperm or abnormal sperm. Other contributory factors of male infertility are regarded as unknown or unexplained infertility. Leke and Nasah (1979) attribute these unknown factors to the lack of sophisticated investigatory procedures in Africa as in the developed countries.

Implications for Prevention and Management of Infertility in Nigeria

Interventions at resolving the problem of infertility should be focused at prevention (Okonofua, 2003). This is because most attempts aimed at the surgical treatment of infertility have achieved limited success (Nasah 1984). Conventional methods of treatment are poorly developed in many African countries, with treatment effectiveness not exceeding 10% of infertile couples (Okonofua 2003; Nasah, 1984). Part of reasons for this poor effectiveness is that many cases of infertility are presented in hospitals late when they have simply gone beyond the scope of the available treatment (Okonofua, 2003). Also, the cost for assisted Reproductive Techniques (ARTs) is still very high and beyond the reach of many even though they offer a breakthrough for major infertile cases. This is especially so for most parts of Africa. As Okonofua (2003) noted, in spite of high prevalence of infertility in Africa and the severe negative consequences for the reproductive health of women, very little resources presently exist for the treatment of infertile couples.

The new reproductive technologies (ARTs) and their accessories however, offer a major breakthrough for infertile cases especially those that have previously defied solution (Okonofua, 2003) especially with regard to the treatment of male infertility. Ajayi et al. (2003) report high success rates in the use of intracytoplasmic sperm injection (ICSI) for the treatment of severe male infertility in Nigeria. However the huge cost involved in the use of ARTs and the worsening reproductive health situation in Africa make its adoption inappropriate by government for the treatment of infertility (Okonofua 2003).

Several factors that posed challenges to acceptance and popularity of ARTs have been identified. This include the poor state of social infrastructures which makes provision of services expensive, poor economic situation, low level of formal education, as well as religious and cultural values. Many people still find it embarrassing to seek ART and therefore those who do so do it with a great deal of secrecy. It is noted that religion has a stronghold on people, as most infertile couples believe that God will eventually cause them to achieve a pregnancy (Ajayi www.wadn.org/ARTinWestAfrica1.pdf; Widge, 2001; Savage, 1992). The prevalence of HIV is also a potential challenge to the adoption of ARTs. Ajayi et al. (2003)

stated that experience from other parts of the world show that HIV zero positivity is not a contra-indication to ART especially when couples are zero-discordant.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Since genital tract infections have been identified as causes of male and female infertility in Nigeria, risk factor analyses are particularly important to determine the predisposing factors to genital tract infections that lead to fertility (Okonofua, 2005). Socio-demographic and behavioural risk factors such as patterns of marriage, timing of sexual debut, sexual frequency and numbers of sexual partners, past use of contraception and health-seeking behavior for genital tract infections are critical sexual and reproductive health issues in Nigeria, for which their association with infertility in later life is critically needed. As Okonofua (2005) rightly noted, such data are needed to support and planned efforts to develop programs for the prevention of infertility in Nigeria.

Nasah (1984) has highlighted some practical preventive measures for infertility which are worth recommending. These include sex education, public health and hygiene, control of sexual transmitted diseases, correction of nutritional deficiencies, early treatment of abnormal conditions, prevention of damage from trauma, heat, chemical and X-ray exposure, early investigation. When marriages are childless, improvement of obstetric practice and provision of accessible health services, avoidance of unnecessary operations or procedure and proper contraceptive counseling are also important measures.

However, when desired fertility is at the end not achieved, individuals, couples and their significant others devise measures to cope with the problem of infertility. These can be positive or negative reactions and may either palliate or aggravate the situation (SSRHN, 1999; Wretmark, 1999). Coping strategies towards infertility are varied in terms of their unique socio-cultural, socio-economic and individual experiences. They include religious activities, projection of anger, re-marriage, and extramarital affairs, helping and caring for others especially children, rearing pets, writing and child fostering.

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THE IMPLICATIONS OF LEADERSHIP STYLE ON WORKERS' MOTIVATION

BAHAGO, FATIMA JUMMAI SHAWAI
Department of Public Administration,
Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria,
Kaduna State, Nigeria.
jummaibahago@yahoo.com.au
+2348069648951

Abstract

This paper seeks to examine the concept of leadership, the various styles of leadership which could be employed in organizations. Finally, the effect of leadership style on workers' motivation is discussed – considering the fact that there is a link between leadership and motivation. In carrying out this study, documentary data were used. It is suggested that the interest of the individual workers should always be put into consideration in order to ensure the attainment of overall organizational goals and objectives.

Keywords: Motivation, leadership, workers, organization goal, style.

Introduction

The importance of employees in any organization cannot be overemphasized. All other resources, that is financial, material and technological, are vital for the successful operation and over all realization of the goals and objectives of any organizational set up. But there is no doubt that the human resources, of an organization are probably the only asset that can actively frustrate organizational goals.

The employees in an organization make all other resources in the organization functional and effective. No matter how well equipped an organization might be, it cannot function without people. Leadership at all levels must therefore be sensitive enough to direct and channel employee's energy and creativity towards achieving corporate goals. (Onah 2003:261)

The need for leadership to harmonise group efforts for attainment of organizational goals had led to the development of several ideas by writers over the years, each attempted an explanation into what makes a worker wish or want to work.

Although some believed that the primary motive of workers is for economic considerations, others looked at it from the psycho-social and humanistic perspective. Dubin (1978) for example looked beyond the mechanical man to the relations in the work situation, that the observed determinants of particular behaviour must lie outside the individual but in the social situation. This is to say Leadership behaviour is considered a relevant factor in work situation and is capable of influencing the level of motivation in workers and consequently organizational productivity.

The objective of this paper is to high light the role leadership plays in the motivation of workers in any given organization, discuss the meaning of leadership, motivation, as well as highlight the role leadership plays in the motivation of workers.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theory X and Y of McGregor (1960) was adopted as the theoretical framework for this paper. According to McGregor, theory X leaders are autocratic and have a hard approach to management theorizing that people inherently dislike work and need to be forced to make an adequate effort. Theory Y leaders on the other hand believe that people will operate using more self control and are motivated to work by responsibility. Behind every managerial decision or action are assumptions about human nature and human behaviour (McGregor; 1960:33). The assumptions of a leader about human nature, influence the decisions, policies and the actions of a leader. Consequently, a leader's assumptions are the cause not the consequence of employee's behaviour. Whatever style of leadership adopted by a manager, it will be based roughly around either theory X or Y. The success of the approach, will depend upon the acceptance

by the workforce. This means that the success of a leader depends to a large extent upon the rapport between the leader and the workforce.

CONCEPTUAL EXPLORATIONS

What is Leadership?

Leadership has been defined differently by various authors. According to Jay et al (2007:373), Leadership is the exercise of authority, whether formal or informal, in directing and coordinating the work of others to them, the best leaders are those who can simultaneously exercise both kinds of leadership: the formal, based on the authority of rank or office, and the informal, based on the willingness of others to give service to a person whose special qualities of authority they admire. A leader gives direction to his subordinates and harmonizes their activities. To Robbins and Coulter (2007:488), "Leadership is what leaders do". It is the process of influencing a group to achieve goals. To Koontz et al (1988); Leadership is defined as "influence, the art or process of influencing people so that they will strive willingly and enthusiastically toward the achievement of group goals". To them, leadership is predominantly concerned with the interpersonal aspect of management, therefore, people should be encouraged to develop not only willingness to work but also willingness to work with zeal and confidence.

According to Shackleton, (1995) in Torrington 2005:300) Leadership is the process in which an individual influences other group members towards due attainment of group or organizational goals. Basically, leadership is all about identifying a goal and possessing the motivational ability to influence a group towards achieving the goal.

Styles of Leadership

Different leadership styles determine the result during each circumstance in an organization. The ability of a manager to discern which is most appropriate in a given circumstance determines his effectiveness.

According to Goleman (2000), a consulting firm Hay/McBer came out with six distinctive styles of leadership after carrying out a research. The leadership styles are:

1. **THE COERCIVE STYLE:** This is a leader who demands immediate compliance to his dictates. His style is 'Do what I Tell you'. He creates a reign of terror, bullying and demeaning his executives, roaring his displeasure at the slightest missteps in achieving the business goals. This style is the least effective because of top-down decision making, it snuffs the ideas and the creativity from the bottom rung of employees who are motivated by more than money, this style erodes their performance. But it has its use; it can break failed business habits, shock people into new ways of working. And in turning around a company when a hostile take over is looming.
2. **THE AUTHORITATIVE STYLE:** Here, the leader is a visionary leader; he motivates people by making clear to them how their work fits into a larger vision of the organization. This style maximizes commitment to the organization's goals and strategy. By framing the individual tasks within a grand vision, this leader defines standards – giving performance feedback positive and negative- which revolves around that vision. This style works well in almost any business situation, particularly, when a business is in a drift. But while working with a team of experts or peers, who are more experienced than the authoritative leader, it gives an impression that the leader is being pompous and out-of-touch. If this leader becomes overbearing, he also undermines the egalitarian spirit of an effective team.
3. **THE AFFILIATIVE STYLE:** This leader revolves around its people – its proponents value individuals and their emotions more than tasks and goals. The leader keeps his employees happy and creates harmony among them, which has positive effect on communication leading to sharing ideas, inspiration and building trust. Because of this style, flexibility also rises among employees giving employees freedom to do their job in the way they think is most effective. This leader gives ample positive feedback on their day-to-day efforts, which is all the more motivating. These leaders are natural relationship builders. This style should not be alone. Its exclusive focus on praise can allow poor performance to go uncorrected; employees may perceive that mediocrity is tolerated. If one uses this style in close conjunction with the authoritative style he would have a potent combination.
4. **THE DEMOCRATIC STYLE:** The leader builds trust, respect and commitment by spending time, getting his people's ideas and buy in. By letting his employees themselves have a say in decisions, that affect their goals and how they do their work, these leaders drive up flexibility and

responsibility. He also by listening to employees learns what to do to keep morale high. In this democratic set-up, his followers are realistic on what cannot be accomplished. This approach is ideal when a leader is himself uncertain about the best direction to take and need ideas and guidance. The disadvantage of this system is, it can lead to endless meetings where ideas are mulled over, consensus remains elusive, and the only visible result is more meetings, particularly when crucial decisions have to be taken. At such periods, people end up being confused and leaderless. This style also makes much less sense when employees are not competent or informed enough to offer sound advice.

5. **THE PACESETTING STYLE:** Leader sets extremely high performance standards and exemplifies them himself. He is obsessive about doing things better and faster. He pinpoints poor performers and demands more from them. If they do not rise to the occasion, they will be replaced by those who can. This destroys the organization climate, as employees feel overwhelmed by pacesetter's demand for excellence and their morale drops. Guidelines for working may be clear in the leader's head, but he/she does not state them clearly. He/she expects employees to know what to do. The Pacesetter either gives no feedback on how people are doing or jumps in to take over when he/she thinks they are lagging. And if the pacesetter leaves, his flock suddenly becomes directionless. This style should be sparingly used, and works best when all the employees are self motivated, professionally highly competent and need little direction and coordination.
6. **THE COACHING STYLE:** Leaders help employees identify their unique strengths and weaknesses and tie them to their personal and career aspirations, encouraging them to establish long-term development goals and help them to conceptualize a plan for attaining them. They give plenty of feedback and instructions. Coaching leaders excel at delegating, even if it meant the tasks would not be accomplished. Their prime motive is long-term learning of their followers, although this style works best, it is seldom used, because many leaders don't have time in this high pressure economy for the slow and tedious work of teaching employees to grow. This style works well in many business situations and works particularly well when employees are already aware of their weaknesses and would like to improve their performance. In contrast, the coaching style makes little sense when employees, for whatever reason, are resistant to learning or changing their ways. The other danger of this style, is when the leader lacks the expertise to help the employees to grow. (Goleman; 2000).

Motivation

Beresn and Steiner (1964) define "motive", the root word of motivation as an inner state that energises and activates individuals toward a goal. Ogunbameru (2004) defines motivation as the force that energises behaviour, gives direction to it, and underlies the tendency to persist. It is the reason for doing something. People are motivated by various things some are motivated by money, others enjoy being with other people, others is for a sense of status importance, some others is to prevent boredom and for some, it is to satisfy ambition. There is little doubt that most people work to satisfy their needs. Motivators are those things and circumstances that induce people to perform.

Basic Elements of motivation

According to Fred Luthans (1964:240) the basic elements of motivation are as follows:

1. **Needs:** The best one word definition of a need is deficiency. In the homeostatic sense, needs are created whenever there is a physiological or psychological imbalance.
2. **Drives:** With a few exceptions, drives (or motives), are set up to alleviate needs. A drive can be simply defined as a deficiency with direction. Drives are action oriented and provided an energizing thrust toward goal accomplishment.
3. **Goals:** at the end of the motivation cycle is the goal. A goal in the motivation cycle refers to anything that will alleviate a need and reduce drive. (Ogunbameru: 2004: 161).

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP AND MOTIVATION

Motivation can be seen as a function which management perform to stimulate employees to contribute effectively to the achievement of company objectives .It is a multivariate function consisting of the existence of felt needs, the perceived probability that the need will be met, leadership style, and management attitude to the employees.

McGregor (1960) argued that the underlying assumptions of the manager determined the way they managed their employees and this in turn determined how the employees would react. Consequently, if employees were managed as if they operated on theory X then they would act in a theory X manner and vice versa if employees were managed as if they operated on theory Y then they would respond as theory Y employees would respond. Leadership Style should be more tilted towards theory Y, because theory Y encourages integration, it creates a situation in which a worker can achieve his/her own goals best by directing his efforts toward the objectives of the organization.

The effective utilization of human resources in achieving corporate objectives is dependent on appropriate motivational approach by the leadership. Those leaders who are employee oriented and emphasize interpersonal relationships such as building trust, camaraderie, a friendly atmosphere and take personal interest in the needs of their followers are more likely to be willing to satisfy their employees legitimate demands than those who are production-oriented. The production-oriented leaders tend to emphasize the task aspects of the job. The production oriented leaders regard group members as a means to the end. The link between leadership and motivation is crucial to overall attainment of organizational goals and objectives. Hence the leadership must therefore be sensitive enough to direct and channel employee's energy and creativity towards achieving corporate goals.

THE ROLE OF LEADERSHIP IN WORKERS' MOTIVATION

Leadership models are based on the assumption that one person can motivate another to act. The adopted leadership style is the main actor that influences employee motivation and hence it is vital in ensuring sound productivity.

Though, Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs theory was criticized that it is not really based upon organizations, the model can aid in the understanding of general motivations. According to the Institute of Personnel and Development (1997), motivations include pay, trust of management, job satisfaction, fairness and delivery of managerial promises.

A democratic leadership style may deliver some of these motivators. A democratic leader will develop a plan to help his/her employees to improve their own performance and job satisfaction. They will also encourage employees to share in decision-making process and recognize quality performance. It is most applicable when the organization houses a higher level of highly skilled employees or when problems need to be solved. Democracy encourages team building and participation and can benefit the organization in allowing increased creativity and morale.

The democratic leadership style has the theory Y assumptions with the underlying principles of integration and self-control. The autocratic leadership style on the other hand has the theory X assumptions with the underlying principles of direction and control which does not encourage motivation.

A lack of trust and low level of autonomy which is associated with harder managerial methods does not encourage motivation to work, and unmotivated workers tend to have high rates of absenteeism, produce poor quality products/services and be slow to react to management requests. On the other hand, workers who are motivated tend to be loyal, thereby reducing labour turnover costs, be enthusiastic and offer ideas, and so on. So well-motivated workers will assist in the achievement of company objectives.

Conclusion

Despite the linkage between leadership and motivation, some people have less internal energy and drive than others and less need for growth. Also, people who have high levels of energy and drive may satisfy these outside the work environment. While leaders may try to motivate people externally the greatest power for motivation comes from within and is therefore under the control of the individual rather than another. At the very best leaders can only enhance followers' motivation by the way they treat them, and at worst leaders may neutralize the motivational energy in their followers.

It should be noted that there is no one best way of leadership, circumstances at times dictate the most appropriate leadership style as earlier stated in the examination of the various styles of leadership and it is a sensitive and good leader that will know the best option in each circumstance.

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AN ASSESSMENT OF CORPORATE GOVERNANCE IN MICROFINANCE BANKS IN NIGERIA

KILLIAN OSIKHENA OGIEDU
Department of Accounting,
Faculty of Management Sciences,
University of Benin, Benin City
Edo State, Nigeria.
koogiedu@yahoo.com
+234803360045

&

OFE IWiyisi INUA
School of Management Sciences
National Open University of Nigeria,
Victoria Island, Lagos,
Lagos State, Nigeria.
+2348185643402

ABSTRACT

Corporate governance is a major issue in the corporate world as a result of the spate of failures of corporations. This failure rates are now more in Microfinance Banks in Nigeria. This study is on Assessment of Corporate Governance in Microfinance Banks. It is an empirical work that drew four research questions from literatures reviewed. Data were collected through the use of a thirty item questionnaire which was administered to twenty Microfinance Banks selected in Lagos state. The findings of this research work reveals that the Hands on type of Board of Directors was in operation in Microfinance Banks in Nigeria, board members of the were qualified to be members and that duties of the Chairman of Board were clearly spelt out and different from those of the Chief Executive Officer. But, it was discovered that most of them do not have Non-executive/external board members. It was recommended that regulatory bodies such as the Central Bank of Nigeria should ensure that these be Microfinance Banks made to comply with laid down rules and regulations to safeguard investors, depositors and other stakeholders.

Keywords: *Corporate governance, Microfinance, Board of Directors, Microfinance banks*

INTRODUCTION

Robust economic growth cannot be achieved without putting in place well focused programmes to reduce poverty through empowering the people by increasing their access to factors of production, especially credit. The latent capacity of the poor for entrepreneurship would be significantly enhanced through the provision of microfinance services to enable them engage in economic activities and be more self-reliant; increase employment opportunities, enhance household income, and create wealth (Mersland, 2008; Iganigan, 2008).

In Nigeria, Community banks were meant to deal with people at the grassroots. These people cannot access funds easily from the commercial banks because they cannot meet the requirements for obtaining credit from the mainstream banks. But, these community banks were not as effective as expected. The Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN), in order to ensure that credits get to the grassroots, decided to introduce the Microfinance Banks (MFBs) to replace the community banks. These MFBs were meant to boost

business operations of the grassroots people because foreign investors who have investments in commercial banks, which do not deal with the grassroots people, will now come to these MFBs where the grassroots people will get the funds easily without any stringent conditions which commercial banks always put up. Three (3) features distinguish microfinance from other formal financial products. These are: the smallness of the loans advanced or savings collected; the absence of asset based collateral, and; simplicity of operations (Iganiga, 2008).

The person who starts a company is referred to as a visionary. In the case of microfinance, the visionary is the person with the noble idea of lending small amount of money out, mostly to women and trusting that they will repay the loan. Initially, the visionary is not interested in making profit until the business starts making success. The visionary then reaches the conclusion that there is need to make profit to pay salaries or to attract investors to expand the business. At this stage, the infant business experiences the following challenges: (i)How does the visionary entrepreneur transfer the skills and inspiration that made the little institution a success into something larger?; (ii)How does the business deal with cash flow constraints?; and (iii)How does it obtain the legitimacy necessary to enable it to borrow?

The visionary is not knowledgeable on these issues and therefore brings in a professional who is referred to as manager (WWW.GDRC.ORG). The management staff is now saddled with the responsibility of running the business from day to day. In ensuring that the management is running with the vision of the business, a Board of Directors (BOD) is set up.

The role of board of directors is ensuring that the assets are protected in the interests of the shareholders (in the case of MFBs in Nigeria - depositors/lenders/investors) they represent. This is referred to as corporate governance. Failure to do so is the source for the scandals, lawsuits and criminal charges that now dot the corporate landscape. For non-profit organizations and boards of directors, the role is the same. There are assets, stakeholders, customers, standards, laws, regulations - all of which must be protected or adhered to. In the processing guidelines for the conversion of existing community banks to MFBs, appraising officers were meant to assess board operations and corporate governance of the community banks in Nigeria before converting them to MFBs (CBN, 2007).

The ultimate accountability for financial risk management rests with the board of directors. When an MFB is non-regulated, and especially if a few key individuals manage it, the importance of the board's role in supervising financial risk management is even more critical. The board plays a crucial role in setting financial policies and risk tolerance, while management is charged with ensuring the implementation of these policies at the operating level. Management must also ensure that individuals with the right capabilities are hired, carefully drawing lines of responsibilities between them. They must also guarantee that the magnitude of risks is adequately addressed. It should build the board's confidence in its capacity to implement these policies. Strong, open communication allows managers to identify and address the MFB's risks. However, it is also crucial that the apex bank execute its supervisory and regulatory roles *pari pasu* with the banks to ensure uniformity in corporate governance and management (Mohammed, 2010).

As at September 2009, there were 903 licensed MFBs in Nigeria and as at December 2009, 250 MFBs have closed shops. It is believed that their problems stem from corporate governance issues to corruption on the part of management and poor capacity in the banks. Many more are likely to close shop in the nearest future (Nwokoji, 2009). The Nigeria Deposit Insurance Corporation (NDIC) have noted that most managers of MFBs pay scant attention to issues of corporate governance. For example, complaints managed by managers of MFBs show that only few of them exhibit corporate governance in their operations (Ibrahim, 2009). From the review of literature on corporate governance as it affects MFBs in Lagos State, this paper intends to carry out an assessment on corporate governance in MFBs in Nigeria. The specific objectives include to; (i)determine the type of Board of Directors (BOD) in operation in MFBs in Nigeria(ii)determine the suitability of board members in MFBs in Nigeria (iii)determine the extent of separation of duties between BOD and Executive (Management) of MFBs; (iii)determine if the ratio of external board members to internal board members of MFBs in Nigeria is appropriate.

The remaining part of this paper will deal with: The Review of literature; Research Methodology; Data Results, Analysis and Discussion of Findings and; Conclusion and Recommendation.

LITERATURE REVIEW

MICRO FINANCING

Microfinance means providing the economically active poor and low income households with financial services, such as credit (to help them engage in income generating activities or expand/grow their small businesses), savings, micro-leasing, micro-insurance and payment transfers. The microfinance policy seeks to make financial services available on a sustainable basis to the economically active poor, low income earners and the Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs) through privately owned banks (Microfinance Banks). This is to create a vibrant microfinance sub-sector that provides the necessary stimulus for national growth and economic development (CBN, 2005).

Originally based on traditional forms of community financing (a cross between finance and development assistance), microfinance is found all over the world in places such as Africa, Latin America and Asia. The microfinance movement began in earnest in the early 1980s in places like Bangladesh and Bolivia and has, over the last 20 years, captured the interest of multilateral donor agencies and private sector bankers (Enugu Forum, 2006).

Most MFBs are, or have been, sponsored by donors, and their ownership structure spans from member-based cooperatives to investor-owned firms (Mersland, 2008). Hulme (2000) argues that MFBs are not a cure for poverty. However, MFBs could create and provide a broad range of microfinance services that would support poor people in their efforts to improve their own prospects and the prospects of their families. He believes that effective microfinance help the poor achieve the goals that poor people seek to achieve.

Before the emergence of formal microfinance institutions, informal microfinance activities flourished all over Nigeria. Informal microfinance is provided by traditional groups that work together for the mutual benefits of their members. These groups provide savings and credit services to their members. The informal microfinance arrangements operate under different names: *esusu* among the Yorubas of Western Nigeria; *etoto* for the Igbos in the East and *adashi* in the North for the Hausas (Mohammed & Hasan, 2008). The key features of these informal schemes are savings and credit components, informality of operations and higher interest rates in relation to the formal banking sector. The informal associations that operate traditional microfinance in various forms are found in all the rural communities in Nigeria (Otu *et al*, 2003 in Mohammed and Hassan, 2008).

Since its emergence, the number of microfinance institutions around the world has proliferated at a fast pace after the 1970s. Today there are more than 7000 micro – lending organizations providing loans to more than 25 million poor individuals around the globe (Mohammed and Hasan, 2008). A CBN study identified, as of 2001, 160 registered MFBs in Nigeria with aggregate savings worth N99.4 million and outstanding credit of N649.6 million, indicating huge business transactions in the sector (Anyanwu, 2004). This figure of registered MFBs has increased to 903 in Nigeria. (Nwokoji, 2009)

Microfinance banks can be established by individuals, group of individuals, community development associations, private corporate entities and foreign investors. Significant ownership diversification is encouraged to enhance good corporate governance of licensed MFBs. Corporate governance is now widely accepted as being concerned with improved stakeholder performance. Viewed from this perspective, corporate governance is all about accountability, boards, disclosure, investor involvement and related issues. Research has shown that “firms with stronger shareholder rights had higher firm value, higher profits, higher sales growth, lower capital expenditure and fewer corporate acquisition ” (McRitchie, 2001).

Microfinance is being regulated in Nigeria by Banks and Other Financial Institutions Act (BOFIA) and Microfinance Policy, Regulatory and Supervisory Framework for Nigeria.

PRINCIPLES OF CORPORATE GOVERNANCE

According to USAID (2005), good governance is important because it prevents fraud and mismanagement, promotes sound decision making, avoids costly fines and litigation, creates/maintains a positive corporate image, attracts and retain clients, attracts and retain financing and investment (from commercial banks).

Good Governance is the process by which a board of directors, working through management, guides an institution in fulfilling its corporate mission and protecting the institution's assets.

Corporate governance, on the other hand, refers to the manner in which the power of a corporation is exercised in accounting for corporation's total portfolio of assets and resources with the objective of maintaining and increasing shareholder value and the satisfaction of other stakeholders while attaining the corporate mission (Kwakwa and Nzekwu, 2003). Thus, corporate governance is also concerned with the creation of a balance between economic and social goals and between individual and communal goals. To achieve this, there is the need to encourage efficient use of resources, accountability in the use of power, and, the alignment of the interest of the various stakeholders, such as, individuals, corporations and the society.

The key mechanisms of an effective governance framework are ownership (including institutional and managerial ownership), board and board structure (size and composition), CEO (manager) and director (board member) remuneration, auditing, information, and corporate control (Keasey, Thompson & Write, 1997)

During the last three decades, the study of corporate governance has become a major area of research (Denis, 2001, Denis and McConnell, 2003, Shleifer and Vishny, 1997). Adams and Mehran (2003) report systematic differences between the governance of banking and manufacturing firms. This indicates that effective governance structures may be industry specific. Most research on corporate governance is rooted in agency theory, indicating that there are agency costs stemming from the separation of ownership and control (management) (Jensen and Meckling, 1976, Fama and Jensen, 1983). These costs can be minimized depending on the existence and practical implementation of corporate governance mechanisms. Thomsen (2008) gives a long list of mechanisms, all of which may serve to mitigate agency costs. Examples include boards, creditor monitoring, managerial incentive systems, product market competition, moral standards, and legal protection. The rise in interest in the subject of corporate governance could be traced to the fact that there is now an increasingly clear separation of ownership from management, which has come to define modern corporations. This disconnection of ownership from management and the insulation of the owners from the day-to-day operations of the business have raised the need to install an appropriate framework for ensuring transparency and accountability in the management of the business venture (Alo, 2007).

Stakeholder theorists further widen the approach, arguing that, not only do managers need to respond to owners' interest, they also have to balance the need of several other stakeholders like employees, customers, local communities, and authorities (Freeman, 1984). According to USAID (2005) good governance can help an institution among other things: Prevent fraud and mismanagement; Promote sound decision making; Avoid costly fines and litigation; Create/maintain a positive corporate image; Attract and retain clients; Attract and retain financing and investment (from commercial banks).

CORPORATE GOVERNANCE CODE FOR MICROFINANCE BANKS IN NIGERIA

The National Executive Council (NEC) of the National Association of Microfinance Banks (NAMBS) liaises with CBN and other regulatory bodies, government, its agencies and other organisations on all issues relating to MFBs in Nigeria. It formulates its own standard code of corporate governance (Moses-Ashike, 2010). The cardinal objective for articulating and faithfully implementing a corporate governance code is to ensure that the bank's affairs are conducted in an orderly and responsible manner in order to ensure that the various stakeholders' expectations are met and indeed surpassed by the board and management who are entrusted with piloting the affairs of the bank. The Code among other things defines the roles and responsibilities of the board, and also that of the management. In view of the need to ensure that insiders related activities are effectively monitored and controlled to guide against abuses, the code sets acceptable procedures and guidelines for the conduct of insiders related activities. In order to underscore the board members political will to enforce strictly the code provisions, appropriate sanctions are provided for its violations. These sanctions include the following:

Where the MD/CE performance for consecutive two years fall below 50% of the budgeted target, his performance shall be adjudged not satisfactory, and appointment may not be renewed.

Where a loan granted to or guaranteed by a director remains non-performing for a period exceeding six months and is classified doubtful or loss, the director concerned will be called upon to repay the loan,

failing which his removal from the board may be recommended to the shareholders at the Annual General Meeting.

No director's related loan or any credit facilities nor the interest accrued thereon shall be written off without CBN written approval.

Where a contract awarded to an interested director is unsatisfactorily executed, such a director will be compelled to refund the bank's fund disbursed for the contract, in addition to being blacklisted from enjoying the privilege of introducing or recommending anyone for future contracts.

The Board of Directors may review the contents of this code from time to time as the need and developments warrant. (FIRAS, 2010).

The operational framework for Microfinance banks issued by CBN set a minimum of two and maximum of seven directors for MFBs. Members of board are appointed by shareholders and approved by the CBN (FIRAS, 2010).

CORPORATE GOVERNANCE IN MICROFINANCE BANKS

The Board of organisations providing financial services must assume a higher level of fiduciary responsibility than those boards offering non-financial services since financial institutions are entrusted with the public's money. Boards of MFBs have two additional responsibilities beyond those of other financial institutions. First the individuals that borrow money from MFBs do not have alternative sources of funds, which suggest that the MFBs financial failure might mean an end to an individual's access to any capital. Second, boards of MFBs also need to consider the fact that the insolvency of large-scale MFBs could have a severe impact on the domestic and international microfinance sector (Benson, 2005).

Also, governance in MFBs has assumed increasing importance for several reasons. Firstly, as MFBs grow in their outreach, the size of their assets, as reflected in their portfolio, grows to considerable size. Ensuring effective management of this growth requires added input and involvement from the board of directors. Secondly, the increasing numbers of MFBs are becoming regulated and assuming the responsibilities and challenges of a regulated entity. Capturing deposits from savers and investors is an important challenge and requires the greatest oversight. Thirdly, MFBs are operating in increasingly competitive markets, and maintaining or increasing market share has become an important component of their strategic objectives (Jacobs, Mbeba & Harrington, 2007).

Researchers have come up with practices to overcome these challenges and they include: boards should consist of individuals with technical and managerial skills; potential board members must recognize and be committed to fulfilling the dual mission that guides the operation of MFIs; board must be the appropriate size; separation of roles between Chairman of Board and CEO; detailed definition of chairman and board committees role; good ratio of internal to external board members (Benson, 2005, Cull, Demiguc-Kunt & Morduch, 2004). These will be treated in the following sections

Board Structure

According to USAID (2005) and Jacobs et al (2007), there are different types of board structures which could be said to be in a spectrum. At one end is the Advisory board or it might be labeled a 'rubber stamp' board. At the other end of the spectrum is the 'hands on' board or "super micro managing" board. The board governance model or structure description serves as a continuum to guide boards in their own formation. A board needs to understand the advantages that arise from each of the board types and to tap these advantages as appropriate. However, regardless of the board that emerges in an institution, its functions as a governing body does not vary.

The Rubber-Stamp or Advisory Board is one that only reacts to and supports management. The board brings little or no value to the institution and is amenable to whatever strategy or programme is submitted for its approval. The institution is denied the benefit of varied thoughtful voices and experiences that are essential for its proper function and growth.

Representational Board: These boards include well respected and influential directors who provide public visibility for the institution and give the board credibility it might not otherwise have earned.

Hands On Board: The members of this board offer strong expertise and are actively involved in defining and monitoring the activities of the institution. Directors are kept informed of the ongoing operations and issues of the institution, and are well prepared for meetings and playing the proactive role in overseeing the management of the institution.

Multi-Type Board that balances representational members with microfinance expertise, and are generally better equipped to make informed decisions on a timely and efficient basis. This is the recommended board structure for a good MFB (USAID, 2005). This board would be able to make well-informed, timely, and efficient decisions because the board members have the skills and knowledge to do so.

This piece of research work will be considering, empirically, whether or not registered MFBs have heeded to these recommendations on board type to strengthen their corporate governance.

RESEARCH QUESTION 1: *Which of the following board type is being practiced in MFBs in Nigeria*
Selection Of Board Members

Good governance is contingent upon directors being guided by the highest standard of ethical behaviour. USAID (2005) have identified three aspects of ethical behaviour:

Duty of loyalty: placing the interest of the institution above self

Duty of care: being duly informed and participating in decisions prudently, and taking responsibility for actions

Duty of obedience: being faithful to the institution's mission by being transparent with shareholders and clients.

The board member must work to protect the interests of the company, hence of the shareholders. The qualifications and independence of the appointed board members have a direct impact on the success of the institution. According to TUSAID (2002), a board member must have the ability to understand and analyze basic financial reporting and must be familiar with legal rules and regulations. He must have the commitment to attend at least 75% of board meetings in each financial year and must have the potential to contribute with different specialisation, viewpoints, creativity, etc to the board.

RESEARCH QUESTION 2: *Have board members of MFBs in Nigeria met the necessary requirement to make them suitable to seat at board meetings?*

Separation Of Duties Between Board And Management

Boards are important in microfinance because of the relatively limited role of external market forces. The Board of Directors is an internal governance mechanism that helps resolve the agency problems between owners and managers. Corporate boards are elected by shareholders to monitor and advise managers. Benson (2005) asserts that the role of the chairman of board and the CEO should not be assumed by one individual. Separation of these roles ensures that the chairman can facilitate board meetings discourse without harbouring a conflict of interest. If the chairman were the CEO, he would not objectively facilitate a discussion that critically examined the firm's daily operations. Mersland & Strom (2007) discovered in their work "Performance and Corporate governance in Microfinance Institution" that financial performance is improved when the roles of the CEO and Chairman of Board are split. Also, the work of Kyereboh-Coleman & Osei (2008) shows that the independence of the board and a clear separation of the positions of a CEO and chairperson have a positive correlation with performance measures. Benson (2005) also suggests that each board committee should have their responsibilities spelt out clearly to ensure effectiveness and efficiency.

RESEARCH QUESTION 3: *What is the extent of separation of duties between the Board and Management of MFBs in Lagos State*

Proportion Of Board Members

The degree of alignment of board and shareholders objectives is measured in the empirical literature by the proportion of outside/independent directors on the board. More independent directors (non-employees not related to the company) are expected to act as better monitors and advisors. Some MFBs are subject to regulation and so may share some of the specific characteristics of boards in regulated industries. For example, board in banking have a larger proportion of outside directors than boards of firms in manufacturing (Adams & Mehran, 2003).

RESEARCH QUESTION 4: *What is the Ratio of Internal Board members to External Board members of MFBs in Lagos State.*

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY:

This research is of a survey design and it is an assessment of corporate governance in Microfinance Banks in Lagos State. Thirty five MFBs were visited but sufficient data could only be gotten from Twenty. The sample was conveniently selected. The questionnaire was a 5-point scale. The data collected were coded and entered into an SPSS spreadsheet. Descriptive analysis (frequency) was used to assess corporate governance in MFBs. The population of the study consists of all MFBs in Lagos. All the research questions are covered by the research instrument. Questionnaire item 1-12 were used in answering research question 1; Questionnaire item 13-21 was for research question 2; Questionnaire item 22-28 was used in answering research question 3 and: Questionnaire item 29-30 was for research question 4.

Face and content validity were ensured by the researcher who critically and thoroughly evaluated the questionnaire before they were administered. The questionnaires were personally administered to the respondents by the researcher who also collected them back in person to avoid misplacements or alternations.

DATA RESULTS, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Data Results and Analysis

Research Question 1: *Which of the following board type is being practiced in MFBs in Nigeria.*

In answering this question reference was made to Table 1

Table 1: Management staff response to board type

S/N	ITEM	AGREE %	UNDECIDE D %	DISAGREE %
1-3	Rubber-stamp board	90.00	0.00	10.00
4-6	REPRESENTATIONAL BOARD	80.00	20.00	0.00
7-9	HANDS ON BOARD	95.00	5.00	0.00
10-12	MULTI-TYPE BOARD	45.00	35.00	20.00

From Table 1 and Appendix 1(a-d), majority of respondents agree that Hands On Board is the most popular board in operation in Lagos MFIs. This is closely followed by Rubber-stamp board and then Representational board. Multi-type board is the least practiced board.

RESEARCH QUESTION 2: *Have board members of MFIs in Nigeria met the necessary requirement to make them qualify to seat at board meetings?*

Reference was made to Table 2 when answering this question

Table 2: Management staff response to suitability of board members

S/N	ITEM	AGREE %	UNDECIDE D %	DISAGREE %
13	Board members have the ability to understand and analyse basic financial accounting	90.00	10.00	0.00
14	Board is familiar with legal rules and regulations	75.00	25.00	0.00
15	board members have commitment to attend 75% of board meetings	95.00	5.00	0.00
16	board members have the potential to contribute with different specialization, viewpoints and creativity.	55.00	45.00	0.00
17	my institution has a committee that is responsible for selecting board members	35.00	45.00	20.00
18	there is a formal process for applying to be a board member	35.00	35.00	30.00
19	Bo Board members undergo relevant training on regular basis.	50.00	40.00	10.00
20	My institution has a mechanism that ensures that board members are not stale, thus preventing institution from achieving its objectives.	35.00	45.00	20.00
21	regular training and education of board members on issues pertaining to their oversight functions are institutionalized and budgeted for annually.	80.00	10.00	10.00

Table 2 shows that Board members have very high commitment (95%) to attend meetings. Board members also have very high ability to understand and analyse basic financial accounting (90%). There is also a high positive response that board members undergo training pertaining to oversight functions (80%). Generally from Appendix 2, 75% of respondents believe that board members have met the requirement to qualify them to sit at board meetings.

RESEARCH QUESTION 3: *What is the extent of separation of duties between the Board and Management?*

In answering this research question, data from Table III was used.

Table 3: Management staff response to extent of separation of duties between board members and Management.

S/N	ITEM	AGREE %	UNDECIDED %	DISAGREE %
22	My institution’s board set short and long term goals	75.00	20.00	5.00
23	Board monitors the strategic and financial performance of your institution and ensures corrective measures.	65.00	35.00	0.00
24	Board recruits the Chief Executive Officer (CEO), monitors his performance according to pre-established criteria and determines his remuneration.	75.00	15.00	10.00
25	Board ensures the administrative and financial auditing of the company.	75.00	15.00	10.00
26	The Chairman of the board conveys the Board’s evaluation on CEOs performance and remuneration decision made at the end of the year.	85.00	5.00	10.00
27	The CEO is accountable to the BODs and submits reports on institution’s activities to the board.	65.00	35.00	0.00
28	Board and owners objectives are properly aligned.	65.00	25.00	10.00

Taking a glean at Table 3, there is a high response agreeing that there is a high level of separation of duties between board members and management. The highest response was on the Chairman of board conveying the Board’s evaluation on CEOs performance and remuneration (85%). Appendix 3 shows us that 70% of respondents agree that there is separation of duties between Board members and Management. 10% of respondents disagree while 20% are undecided.

RESEARCH QUESTION 4: *What is the Ratio of Internal Board members to External Board members?*

In answering this research question, we make reference to Appendix 4. Frequency Table QB refers to number of members on the Board of Directors. We have a range of 4 members to 10 members. 6 and 7 members have the highest percentage of 25% each and this implies that most MFBs have a total of either 6 or 7 members. Frequency Table QC in Appendix 4 shows us the number of External Board members in MFBs in Lagos State. 45% of respondents have no External Board member, 30% have 2 while 10% have 5. This implies that members of most Boards of MFIs in Lagos are all internal members/directors. So, the ratio of Internal to External Board members is 6:0. Also, question 30 shows that respondents are uncertain about Independent/External directors acting as better monitors than Executive/Internal, implying that management are not even aware of the roles of External directors.

Discussion Of Findings

From our findings, Multi-type board which is the recommended board structure for a good MFB as suggested by USAID (2005), is not in practice in Lagos state. Instead we have more of Hands on Board, Rubber-stamp and Representational board being practiced in Lagos. This could be as a result of the fact that Microfinancing is still relatively new in Nigeria and the required expertise is not readily available except that of those who came from the Community banks and failed commercial banks. Also,

Microfinance related courses are not taught in our higher institutions. This could have served as a means of producing individuals who have sound knowledge of the concept of micro financing.

Our analysis also shows that based on the requirements for board members, most respondents (75%) believe that members have the requisite qualifications, are suitable and could therefore seat at board meetings. This may be so because of the training, seminars, workshops, etc on financial reporting and probably microfinancing these members are exposed to while on the board. Another reason could be that these members have a stake in the institutions and are so very committed to attend meetings and make useful contributions.

We also noticed from our findings that there is a clear separation of duties between the board and Management. Our analysis shows us that the board is responsible for setting short and long term goals; recruiting CEO and; ensuring administrative and financial auditing of the company. These are the responsibilities of boards which should not be left in the hands of management or else there will be conflict of interest. Analysis also shows us that most MFBs in Lagos state do not have independent directors (external members). The reason may be that these MFBs are newly established and cannot afford external members yet. Another reason could be that these MFBs do not want to expose their dealings to external persons who would provide oversight functions. This is worrisome because some of these MFBs should not be in existence in the first instance if there are unable to meet these minimum requirements.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Philips (2007) suggests that the commonly accepted principles of corporate governance should include among others: board should have skills in business dealings and ability to challenge management's decisions; organisations should be able to provide shareholders (in this case depositors/owners) with a level of accountability by spelling out the roles and responsibilities of board and management. These principles have been empirically tested and we have come up with the result that most MFBs in Nigeria are able to practice this. This work sought to find out the type of board structure in existence in MFBs in Lagos state and it was discovered that hands on type was most common. The following recommendations are made for the practice of corporate governance in Lagos state MFBs and perhaps Nigeria:

Regulatory bodies of MFBs should ensure compliance with Corporate governance codes. This could be by having a corporate governance indicator or having a corporate governance acid test that will measure whether or not an MFB should start up or continue in the future.

The public should be aware of the MFBs that have met the requirements by CBN and other regulatory bodies and have been duly registered. The performances of these MFBs should be made public from time to time just as the Nigerian Stock Exchange publicise the activities of the stock market on air and in papers. This will safeguard depositors and investors and make these MFBs more competitive.

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STEMMING THE HIV AND AIDS SCOURGE IN RURAL NIGERIA WITH THE FOLK MEDIA

OLUSEGUN W. OJOMO

**Department of Mass Communication,
Babcock University, Ilesan-Remo,
Ogun State, Nigeria.
ojomo1@yahoo.co.uk**

Abstract

HIV and AIDS are probably the greatest problems that engaged global attention in the last two decades. Several policy and communication initiatives have been advanced for combating them. This paper is an attempt at providing a viable communication option to stakeholders in the fight against the dreaded conditions. While acknowledging the power of modern mass media of communication, the paper argues for a more intensive use of the folk media in the rural areas of Nigeria, taking into cognisance the peculiarities of these areas. The paper highlights the deleterious effects of HIV and AIDS in rural Nigeria and the multiplier effect of this on national development. Drawing on the successes of the folk media in some behavioural change campaigns and studies elsewhere, the author suggests some HIV and AIDS message contents for the folk media. He concludes by noting that the greatest antidote to the scourge is information and this has been around even before the advent of the virus, just waiting to be creatively applied.

Keywords: HIV and AIDS, scourge, rural Nigeria, folk media, information.

Introduction

Going by historical records of the genesis of HIV, man has lived with the pandemic for about three decades, yet no cure has been found for it. Data from the Joint United Nations Programme on HIV and AIDS (UNAIDS) has it that by 2008, 33.4 million adults were living with the virus globally. During the same year, it killed 2.0 million persons, while it infected another 2.7 million. Cumulative global infection as at 2008 is 60 million, while cumulative death is 25 million.

Further statistics by UNAIDS says that “Sub-Saharan Africa remains the region most heavily affected by HIV worldwide, accounting for over two thirds (67%) of all people living with HIV and for nearly three quarters (72%) of AIDS-related deaths in 2008.”

“An estimated 1.9 million people were newly infected with HIV in Sub Sahara Africa in 2008, bringing to 22.4 million the number of people living with HIV. In 2008, more than 14 million children in Sub Sahara Africa had lost one or both parents to AIDS.”

“Adult prevalence rate of HIV and AIDS in Nigeria in 2009 was 3.10 percent . A 2007 estimate reported in 2009, has it that there are 2,600,000 people living with AIDS in Nigeria. During same period, 170,000 died of AIDS.” The statistics are mind numbing.

When HIV and AIDS were first noticed in Nigeria in 1986, most Nigerians took it for a fluke. Indeed, some dubbed it “American Invention to Discourage Sex”. During this period of making a plaything of the syndrome, several people were infected and these people have passed on the virus to several others.

At different forums on HIV and AIDS, experts have identified ignorance as the major fertile ground on which the spread of the virus and the syndrome thrives. This goes to explain the reason for the high

figures in Africa; and Nigeria in particular. The only antidote to ignorance is information, which comes through well-planned communication. Until a certain cure is found for HIV and AIDS, information remains the major means of stemming the tide. This does not take away from the much taunted catch phrase on "mutual fidelity" and "abstinence" since man must be told to abstain or to be faithful to his partner in order to avoid infection with the virus. Moreover, sex is just one of the several ways of contracting the syndrome.

Background and purpose

Adequate and equitable access to appropriate information via communication media is crucial to enabling rural dwellers develop a healthy and progressive attitude towards HIV and AIDS. A well-planned information drive is a vital step to prevention rather than cure. In this case, a cure does not even exist yet, it is therefore not a present option.

In a 2009 statistics by UNAIDS, 1.42 million Africans were reported to have died of AIDS in 2008. Another statistics has it that Nigeria has one-fifth of African population. This implies that about 284,000 Nigerians died of this disease during this period. These grizzly figures underscore the magnitude of the pandemic in Nigeria. Going by the often taunted statistics that 70% of Nigerians live in the rural areas, this suggests that 198,800 of this figure live in the rural areas. Three different surveys in 17 states found an average of 8-10 cases of infection per week.

According to the United Nations Food and Agricultural Organisation report quoted in Deji and Enuenwenba (2005, pp.181-184),

Formerly believed to be mainly an urban phenomenon, HIV/AIDS now threatens the lives and livelihood of millions of rural dwellers throughout the developing world. In absolute numbers, more people living with HIV reside in rural areas, especially those along the trade routes, cutting food production down drastically, thereby posing a serious threat to the food security in the nation.

The extent to which the rural populace is informed about HIV and AIDS is still subject to polemics. In an October 2003 report of Plusnews, a Johannesburg- based Netnews site, The National Action Committee on AIDS (NACA) was berated by the former vice president of Nigeria, Atiku Abubakar for its neglect of rural areas in the country's effort at tackling HIV and AIDS. Abubakar said NACA's HIV and AIDS awareness programmes directed mainly at urban areas were implemented at the expense of the rural communities. The Pan African News Agency (PANA) quoted Abubakar thus, "Go to my village, nobody knows about HIV/AIDS- we are yet to feel the impact of NACA in my village."

Nigeria's huge population depends on food produced in the rural areas for survival. Presently, this rural populace has become an endangered group. A report by the UN Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) projects that death caused by HIV and AIDS in the ten most affected African countries will reduce the labour force by as much as 26% by 2020, which will have a devastating effect on rural production and food security. According to the FAO report, the loss of able-bodied adults affects the entire society's ability to maintain and reproduce itself. Agricultural skills may be lost since children are unable to observe their parents working.

Added to the above is the fact that affected rural families often transfer to non-farm jobs. Some of such families migrate in search of employment or look for quick money, which may lead to such high-risk behaviours as drug abuse and prostitution. About 72% of Nigeria's population are now classified as poor and more than 35% of the population are living below the US\$1 per day poverty level. Poverty is particularly widespread in rural areas where 40% of the rural populace live below the poverty line.

Much research has concentrated on mass communication strategies for prevention of HIV and AIDS in rural and urban areas. There is however a paucity of studies on using folk media for combating the spread of the syndrome in rural areas. This portends some danger as the evil we are chasing from our cities could be lurking in our villages. Again, message dissemination to the rural populace through modern mass media

could be waste exposure if the target audiences are attending to different media. The task of reaching the rural areas of the Nigerian populace with thoroughly planned and disseminated messages on HIV and AIDS can be approached with high level optimism considering the success which some countries have achieved in similar projects over time. These successes have been largely responsible for appreciable reduction in the impact of the HIV and AIDS pandemic in these nations.

The planning and execution of a project of this nature is not expected to be an easy task in view of the peculiar characteristics of rural dwellers in terms of their socio-economic and cultural orientations. For instance, in areas where farming is the major occupation, availability at home during day hours might be a challenge. Reorienting them on the benefits of an awareness project involving testing for HIV and AIDS could be another challenge. Some of these areas of challenge can however be advantageously used to achieve some of the goals of the project. For example, the socio-cultural lifestyles of the people could be employed by using such avenues as clan meetings, thrift and cooperative society meetings, etc, for disseminating information about HIV and AIDS. This would however be easier to achieve through such communication methods with which the people are already familiar.

Power and limitations of modern mass media

The power of modern mass media of communication is enormous. The degree of success achieved by developed countries in the fight against AIDS has been largely due to the power of information through the mass media. The mass media can be used to inform, educate, entertain, and transmit socio-cultural values Wright, (1986, pp. 13-23). Effectively combined, all of these functions of the mass media could be directed at stemming the tide of the AIDS scourge. Few people can contest the immense power of modern mass media – radio, television, newspapers magazine, the Internet, etc. Several studies have proved these media are effective tools for disseminating development messages. Lowery and De Fleur (1988) highlighted some of these studies in what they called “the thirteen milestone studies of media effects.” The extent to which these media can be used is however limited by peculiar socio-economic variables. For instance, literacy is prevalent in rural areas, which implies that few people can read newspapers and magazines. Radio is the most common mass medium. It is however limited by non availability or limited supply of electricity. This affects television as well. Although radio can be powered by batteries, but not many rural dwellers possess the economic power to procure batteries for a long time. This leaves us with the choice of using those media which give utmost impact at minimal cost.

As indicated elsewhere in this paper, about 70% of Nigerians live in the rural areas yet they are less informed than the urban dwellers. This study therefore aims at a shift from the mass media to the folk media commonly found in the rural areas where the HIV and AIDS virus is insidiously causing much havoc, riding on the crest of the people's ignorance in a similar way in which sickle cell anaemia did much harm among the rural people who called sickle cell patients "Ogbanje" (Spirit child). It is believed among some ethnic groups in Nigeria that when a pregnant woman loses a child just before the birth of another one, the first child must have died to be reborn by its mother, thus it is called a spirit child. Generally however, Ogbanje refers to “children who come and go”.

Review of literature

Much literature abound on various aspects of mass media and AIDS awareness. Moeller (2002), observed that

In 1998, death from all wars in Africa killed 200,000 people. AIDS killed 10 times that number. The statistics are numbing: Six Africans each minute are stricken with the HIV virus; in 10 years the number of AIDS orphans in Africa will reach 29 million, and AIDS is expected to kill between one-third to one-half of today's 15-year-olds.

Moeller had noted that in spite of this sorry situation, the media before now had done very little. In her words, "Just as the diplomats and politicians avoided dealing with AIDS in Africa, so too did most in the media". She concludes, "In short, most media are now doing what they normally do." Moeller's conclusion is that the media have a vital role to play, which if well played could bring about the change needed in HIV and AIDS education.

Effiong (2000) opined that the role of the media in preventing the prevalence of HIV/ AIDS is directly at tune with those roles usually ascribed to them namely: agenda setting, surveillance, mobilization, information, interpretation and socialization.

Writing on the sub theme “Communication Strategies and Rural Women Development” , Steeves (1999, p.31) observed that “ Uses of print Media are often limited by availability or recipients’ literacy or both. Uses of broadcast media, satellite and computer technologies are also likely to be limited by availability; ... it has become popular recently to make greater use of indigenous forms of communication and folk media.”

A report on a workshop on “Folk and Traditional Media for Rural Development” held in Lilongwe, Malawi in August and September, 1999 has it that agricultural extension services in most parts of the world have been frustrated by a lack of appreciation of indigenous communication systems. At times, extension efforts undertaken without first considering indigenous customs appear “ludicrous and nonsensical”. The workshop aimed among others to explain how folk media can be used in facilitating the process of development and to produce a guide on how to use folk media in development. The participants (farmers) at the workshop identified the following traditional ways of sending messages: beating a special drum, songs (dance, work songs), village crier, using bells, announcement using boarding house for boys (Mphala), announcement using boarding house for girls (kuka), folk tales, proverbs, riddles, ceremonial occasions like initiations, funerals, weddings, etc. Each of these methods is often meant to warn, entertain or simply to inform.

Folk media are dependable channels for development in communication in rural Nigeria. Indeed, they form a concrete foundation for political mobilization of the rural folk. Moemeka (1989, p.208) in reference to a Tanzanian example of the use of the folk media observed “it is the duty of party cadres and government officials to expose the rural population to constant ideological messages transmitted through face-to-face communication, village meetings, rural training centres and political meetings.”

Moemeka further asserts “in rural Africa, no communication strategy is likely to succeed unless it takes into account the five basic principles that underlie the traditional system of communication - supremacy of the community, respect for old age, utility of the individual, sanctity of authority and religion as a way of life.”

Onuora Nwuneli (n.d., p. 17) in an independent study on “The Town Crier and Two Messages in Two African Villages” argue that

Many African countries are yet to access their information needs to be able to plan a comprehensive national communication policy. What most African countries have today are a few and expensive modern mass media that pretend to reach the masses and the traditional media caters to the rural masses. The content of the traditional do not get into the modern mass media and thus get little or no attention. Similarly, the content of the modern mass media only trickles down to the masses, since they do not get into the traditional media.

In his justification for the selection of the two villages chosen for his study, Nwuneli alluded to a study conducted on mass media uses in rural Nigeria by Axinns in 1969. The study was done within six miles radius of Nsukka in Anambra state, south-east Nigeria. Stating the findings of the axinns study, and its relevance to his Town Crier and Message study, Nwuneli observed,

...the findings in the axinns study that we consider to be very important and still applicable in many rural communities in Nigeria are that the average Nsukka Igbo devotes more time to listening to one another than to attending any other channel of communication bringing news from outside their villages. Most of the

communication amongst these people was through talking to one another. The axinns found that the average Nsukka person spent about 20 per cent of his time talking, while only 0.34 per cent of his time is devoted to radio and reading newspaper.

Impact of HIV and AIDS

Here, discussion on positive impacts may not be apropos since HIV and AIDS has no positive impacts except for the economic gains that go to makers of antiretroviral drugs, research institutions and non-governmental organisations involved in HIV and AIDS. Even at that, none of these “gains” can equate the debilitating and deleterious implications of the syndrome on global and national scales.

The impact of HIV and AIDS was captured in strong terms by Peter Piot, head of the United Nations Aids Agency when he said “I think in Africa, it is only comparable in demographic terms to the slave trade regarding the impact it has had on the population.”

The impact of HIV and AIDS on children, young persons, women and the family is enormous. In a 2000 report of the UNAIDS, it was reported that “HIV is now deadlier than war itself: in 1998, 200,000 Africans died in war but more than 2 million died of AIDS”. Beyond the death of the victims, AIDS leaves lots of woes in its trail.

First, it could affect the demographic structure of a community. With the death of men and women of production age, the demographic structure is altered leaving more children and old people who are not capable of producing what the community needs for survival. The implication of this is a tilt in the remaining population structure as the few adults that are left are now made to cater for the disproportionately larger number of children and old people.

Second, HIV and AIDS impacts on children by taking their breadwinners from them thereby plunging them further into the depth of poverty. When the economically active adults die of AIDS, children are left to fend for themselves as soon as they are able to. This turns children into street beggars and in the case of girl children, prostitution which invariably exposes them to more dangers of HIV and AIDS.

The impact of HIV and AIDS also shows on the family and the community. Often, when a member of the family falls ill, the protracted illness, coupled with the thoughts of hopelessness in finding a cure for their infected relation often takes the women and children through deep emotional and psychological trauma. Economically, family members of a Person Living with Aids (PLWA) often spend lots of money before knowing that their beloved is actually living with HIV and AIDS. By this time, they have depleted their financial resources which they could have used for procuring appropriate medication and food needed for sustenance.

HIV and AIDS equally impacts on the economy of the nation. This occurs when production falls due to illness and death in the population of the working age. This results in fall in the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita when compared to what would have been achieved without the HIV threat. The larger number of rural population are farmers. This implies that the loss of a number of this population would lead to a fall in food production not only for the rural dwellers, but significantly for the urban dwellers who depend on food supply from the rural areas.

The folk media

Societies have created or inherited media forms developed over time. Folk media are traditional media that are based on sound, image and sign language. They exist in the form of drama, music, dance, puppetry, folk tales and other modes of expression specific to the community, race or region that use them. Theuri (2004, p.1) defined folk media as “the creative dissemination of information through cultural and performing arts.”

The relevance and resilience of the traditional media are evidenced in the fact that in spite of the prevalence of modern media of communication, folk media remain a useful communication mode especially to the rural folk. In a study on the place of traditional media in the dissemination of development messages in Bangladesh, Philippe Van der Sticheles observed that “the development of

electronic media transformed the globe into a village but could not overshadow the folk media of different ethnic groups.”

One of the greatest merits of the folk media is source credibility. Uche (1999, p.17) asserts that

the hallmark of effective communication with any living creature in any setting is the credibility of the source, the message and the channel through which the message passes and the environment of both the communicator and the consumer of the message. Associated with credibility is the validity of the message. In a nutshell, when a communication content lacks credibility, the entire communication sequence is automatically devoid of validity.

Source credibility is a major concern in most modern media of mass communication. This is evidenced in the series of denials of reports by credited sources in news stories as well as litigations between credited sources and the media. The geographical size of most African communities ensures clear identification of a community resident by virtually every other resident. The stake of credibility is higher when the message emanates from the traditional ruler or head of the community.

Importance of the folk media

Commenting on the importance of the folk media in African communities, Ugboaja (1989, p. 235) said

“Traditional media are consistently used to promote the sense of nationhood in Africa, despite the low priority given to them in official circles, one observes that the formal media become little used immediately after communication or information reaches the traditional authority or village level usually represented by a king or a chief or a council of elders in other respects. Communication from that point takes a diffusion approach and is dominated by the informal media or oral media represented by a diffusion network of lower chiefs, age groups, the market place, market women organisations, traditional priests, stall heads, village teachers and the indomitable town crier or gongman.”

The significance of the traditional media is evidenced in the fact that in spite of the pervading nature of the modern mass media, the traditional media remain undying as a way of conducting social-political affairs and communicating vital messages. Every society has over time held on tenaciously to the traditional media as a most credible information source. Credibility is perhaps the greatest strength of traditional media. Here, the people know themselves and are aware of the source and carrier of any message. This is a sharp contrast with modern mass media with their multiple information layers and sometimes faceless information disseminators.

Folk media are capable of reaching intimate social groups, thus making use of already established communication networks in the audience. Unlike the mass media which are produced for large and heterogeneous audiences, the folk media can be produced for small ethno-linguistic audiences, thus making the message easily understood. The audience equally has opportunity to clear their doubts. The relevance of the folk media is rooted in its deep nexus with the people’s culture. Any culture-based communication is imbibed and accepted with greater passion. Commenting on this connection, Ugboaja (ibid, p.233) argued that “folk media cannot be separated from folk cultures in whose context they are significant. One can look at folk media as group media but it is better to regard them as interpersonal media speaking to common man in his language, in his idiom and through a familiar channel, and dealing with problems of direct relevance.”

Rationale for use of folk media

In the face of the preponderance and effectiveness of modern media of communication, one is tempted to dismiss the logic in the use of folk media. The successful adoption of folk media in achieving behavioural change however puts them in good stead as veritable communication tools for combating the HIV and AIDS threat. Theuri (2004, p.1) gave the following reasons for the adoption of folk media in achieving change in a rural setting. According to him, folk media are appropriate in achieving change in rural areas because they:

- Overcome the barriers of illiteracy as they do not depend on the printed word.
- Do not use expensive or complicated technology and can be easily understood by the people.
- Offer entertainment. They are crowd pullers and attention holders. They also stimulate and sustain interest.
- Offer opportunities for repeat performance and presentation of numerous messages within a short time.
- Use popular and familiar cultural techniques acceptable and appealing to the community.
- Provide equal educational opportunity to all regardless of their age, social and cultural differences.
- Are suitable for motivation, creating awareness and spreading mass information without creating boredom and personal suspicion.
- Make learning more interesting, increase perception and understanding.
- Encourage community participation in organising activities using community channels and respected folk artistes in their own communities as communicators.
- Give target audiences a chance to approach, view and understand the issues in their own perspective and assent, thus encouraging faster innovation and change.
- Provide immediate feedback, impact assessment can be visualised from audience responses and audience interview.

Functions of the folk media

To be sure, the folk media perform similar functions as the modern media of mass communication, but their unique features set them apart to perform penetrating functions that other media would not usually perform. This is especially so because the folk media are rooted in the people's culture, way of life, communication systems and belief systems. These provide the grounds for enhancing the functionality of the folk media.

Wilson (1987, pp.87-104) outlined the following functions of the folk media:

1. To mobilise people at the grassroots for community development and national consciousness.
2. As a source of cultural, political, health and other educational and enlightenment programmes for the masses leading them towards self actualisation and national development.
3. As a source of entertainment.
4. Used for informational purposes to provide news, announcement, and to issue directives and reports on the activities of the society.
5. Intracultural, intercultural and other communication purposes leading to group and national unity.

Modes of folk media

Although they possess many similarities in nomenclature and functions, folk media are culture-specific. They have evolved from various cultures as accepted ways of information dissemination and social interaction. They are often rooted in indigenous cultures, which are largely based on oral histories and traditions much of which remain unwritten.

Ugboaja (1989, *ibid*, 238-239) reports that in a seminar on "Motivation, Information and Communication for Development in African and Asian Countries", the following folk media structures were listed as those that have potential for development purposes in Afro-Asian countries: gongman, town crier, state talking drum, hornman, visual symbols, and colours, minstrels, poets and reciters, story tellers, drama, traditional leaders, and social structures. Other variants of folk media exist in various cultures and subcultures; they however share common features with the above.

Discussion on STD and HIV and AIDS related issues is still a very sensitive matter in most parts of rural Nigeria. In some areas, it is a taboo to openly discuss sex-related issues and since discussions on HIV can hardly be done without some form of reference to sex, the risk of infection has increased greatly. The Traditional media however possess greater advantage over modern media at couching messages in mild languages that could be better appreciated and understood by rural people. With traditional media, the dangers and preventive methods of HIV could be euphemistically presented without doing harm to the sensibilities of the audience or infringing on their cultural consciousness.

HIV and AIDS message contents of the folk media

Simplicity is at the heart of any important message: Keep It Specifically Simple- KISS. The folk media do not need to be loaded with the several theories and findings on HIV and AIDS or the technicalities of

academic rigor. The goal is prevention of contract with the virus as well as achievement of behavioural change. Folk media messages should aim at achieving the following objectives:

1. Dispelling rumours and misinformation about HIV and AIDS.
2. Giving accurate information on how to prevent infection with the virus and how to live normal life with the virus for persons who are already living with it.
3. Avoiding stigmatisation of persons living with the conditions.
4. Highlighting the signs and symptom of HIV and AIDS.
5. Warning on the grave implications of negligence.
6. Encouraging people to go for counselling to determine their status.

The overall goal is the achievement of change in behaviour; however behavioural change is usually not achievable in a short period. Thus the messages may require casting in different formats in various folk media over a time period.

Conclusion and Recommendations

While it remains a fact that no cure is yet to be found for AIDS, this author wishes to assert that the most potent cure had existed long before the arrival of the syndrome. Well packaged information remains the only presently available options for achieving change in behaviour among rural and urban dwellers in the fight against HIV and AIDS. Such information must be handled on the merit of their sources, channels, and destinations in order to achieve effective communication.

It is an obvious fact that governments and other stakeholders have invested enormous resources in the fight against the HIV and AIDS scourge, they however seem only to be scratching the problem on the surface. To achieve the nature of results comparable to those in the developed world, research should be made on the forms, potentials, strength and weaknesses of various modes of folk media with the view to optimising their appropriateness in different social ecology.

This study does not undermine the great potentials of modern media of mass communication; rather it questions their effectiveness when used alone in fighting HIV and AIDS, taking into cognisance extant socio-economic variables in rural Nigeria. Research should further look at how the strength and potentials of modern mass media could be harmonised with those of the folk media for challenging the scourge. The creation of a unit on folk media in the Federal Ministry of Information would be appropriate. This unit would harness the multifarious potentials of the folk media in the dissemination of developmental messages.

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**PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN THE NIGERIAN LOCAL GOVERNMENT SYSTEM:
OBSCURE PACKAGE FOR FUTURE GENERATIONS**

PIUS O. ABANG

**Department of Local Government & Development Studies,
Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria,
Kaduna State, Nigeria.
otuabng@yahoo.com
+2348036001532**

ABSTRACT

When "Administration" is qualified by the word "Public", it simply means the practice of administration in the public sector. However, the public sector represents the organs of government and such agencies saddled with the responsibility of carrying out governmental activities. The local government system in Nigeria is designed to represent the central government at the grassroots with respect to service delivery. Unfortunately, the true meaning of public administration at the third tier level of government is characterized by lethargy and inefficiency, misrule and misapplication of general principles. In this study, we have examined the operations of the Nigerian Local government system against the backdrop of misapplication of general principles. We have made use of Development Administration Approach as our theoretical framework. Data was collected from secondary sources only and we have recommended that another Local Government Reforms is eminent.

KEY WORDS: Public Administration, Service delivery, General principles, Reforms and Development.

INTRODUCTION

The political necessity to extend the powers of government in order to be felt throughout the political system is one primary justification for the establishment of local government in a political system (wraith 1971). In Nigeria, this gesture was legitimized via the Nigerian constitution when it stated thus:

The system of local government by democratically elected local government councils is under this constitution guaranteed, and accordingly, the government of every state shall ensure their existence under the law which provides for the establishment, structure, composition, finance and functions of such councils (constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1999).

The provisions of this constitution institutionalized a full fledge level of government whose operations are almost or completely similar to that of a regional or national government. The implication therefore is that the local government is an organ of government mandated to carry out governmental activities at the local level. By this requirement the general principles of public administration are applicable for the purpose of efficiency, accountability, impartially and protection of minority rights. In this study, we shall underscore the practice of public administration in the Nigeria local government system vis a vis the performance of its statutory role.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Before the 1976 Local Government Reforms, it could be recalled that all the regions of the country operated different types of local administrations and this was considered dysfunctional and an aberration to the rules of development. It was against this background that the 1976 reforms became monumental as having formed the bedrock of modern local government system in Nigeria. The research question therefore is; in spite all the reforms including the most popular 1976 reforms, why have the attitudes of stakeholders in the local government not being reformed in the way and manner in which they go about the management of local government? Why has bureaucracy in the local government become an abuse of administration instead of the best way of achieving efficiency in public administration? Why are some

states of the federation practicing presidential system at the local government level while others practice parliamentary system? Why are local governments chairmen inadvertently absorbing the roles of local government secretaries and making them look as if they do not have any constitutional role to play in the administration of local government? These are questions that this study is out to examine and proffer solutions.

OBJECTIVES OF STUDY

At the end of this study, we shall be able to:-

1. Identify and discuss the factors that have contributed to the abuse of bureaucracy at the local government system.
2. Identify and discuss the factors that are responsible for the inactivity of the local government secretaries.
3. Identify and discuss the causes of corruption, tribalism and nepotism in the local government system.

METHODOLOGY

Data for this study was collected from secondary sources only because the entire study is based on historical antecedence. The paper was largely motivated by discussions with a few elected councilors from Zaria Local Government Council. A lot of revelations that point to the fact that Zaria Local Government is neither practicing parliamentary nor presidential system. The same goes with many Local Government Councils in the country.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

1.5.1 "DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION THEORY" BY EDWARD WEIDNER (1962)

The growing interest in the study of developing nations like Nigeria was the main inspiring force behind the evolution of the concept of development Administration. According to Weidner (1962:98), this theory refers to the process of guiding an organization towards the achievements of progressive political, economic and social objectives that are authoritatively determined in one manner or the other (Ekhaton 2003:54). Development administration is related to the goal-oriented and change-oriented administrative practices. In this regards, administration is considered an independent variable which can bring about political, social and economic change; unlike the systems model where administration is considered as a dependent variable which is affected by the environment.

The use of this theoretical framework is not unconnected with the crucial role of the local government system. Local government, like Uphoff and Esman aptly argued that local organizations are necessary, if not a sufficient condition for accelerated development which emphasizes improvement in the productivity and welfare of the minority of the rural people (Bello-Iman 2007:9). Local government areas are designated to create an enabling environment for the aggregation of minority interests. Without a doubt, the traditional role of local government the world over, according to Ganduje (2006:19), is to perform two inter-related roles namely, political and socio-economic. These twin roles can be achieved through a goal-oriented and change-oriented administrative practices which can be found in Administrative Development.

INUNDATED PRACTICE OF BUREAUCRACY

The concept of "Bureaucracy" as put forward by Max Weber, an eminent German scholar, was intended to offer to the world an "ideal form of organization." According to Weber (1864) in every organization, there are certain fundamental objectives as well as adequate means to achieve them (Ekhaton 2003:42). He further stated that to maximize efficiency every administrative system develops a system of highly specialized jobs and a set of systematic rules and procedures. According to him, efficiency can be secured by re-arranging jobs and altering rules and procedures. Bureaucracy has certain characteristic features, namely; adherence to rules, hierarchy, and separation of office from incumbent, selection of employees by merit, etc. it is simply the best way of attaining higher degree of efficiency and the most rational means of carrying out imperative control over human beings.

The practice of an "ideal organization" in the Nigerian local government system is a mirage. Bureaucracy that is an embodiment of success is designated in Nigeria as the devil incarnate responsible for ineffectiveness and backwardness in the practice of public administration in our subsystems (local government). Instead, it is the other way round. It is the inundated practice and neglect of bureaucracy that is turning us back to the dark ages. Take a walk to the nearest local government council, and request for a Birth Certificate, Declaration of Age Certificate or an Indigene Certificate; you will understand that the structures housing the council are standing there like monuments because all

what you requested can be gotten from the homes of council staff and already signed in advance by the local government chairman because he or she is not often seen around.

Examine the staff you find around the council, apart from the career civil servants of the council, most of the people you find around are relations of the newly elected chairman. Any serious information about the council or the chairman can be gotten through the Personal Assistant to the chairman or other relations. Bureaucracy lays emphasis on positions in organization rather than human beings. Go to any local government council today the vice chairman has virtually no official role. Once the chairman of council is not around nothing works in the council until he returns. The chairman in most cases comes to the council only when monthly allocation is received. There is no order of doing anything. This is what has killed public administration in the local government system in Nigeria and it is not a good Legacy for posterity.

RELATIVE OBSCURITY IN ROLE PERFORMANCE:

The role of the secretary to the council is completely obscured. Because of blatant disregard for the role of the secretary to the Local Government Council, I was tempted to say at a workshop in Ilorin-Kwara State of Nigeria that the secretary to Council has no role in the council. Let me state here and clear that the secretary to Council, according to Local Government Edict, is the Chief Executive Officer of the Local Government. As the Chief Executive Officer, he is expected to;

- a. Supervise and control all employees of the Local Government;
- b. coordinate all activities of the departments of the Local Government;
- c. convene all meetings of the Council and its committees and prepare minutes and reports of such meetings;
- d. advise the council and its committees on all matters upon which he considers his advice as necessary;
- e. be entitled to attend all meetings of the Council and of its Committees;
- f. advise the president and the chairman of the Council on all matters appertaining to their respective offices; and
- g. perform all such functions as may from time to time be assigned to him by the State Governor (Akpan 1984:68-69).

The post of the Secretary to the Local Government is so important that where public Administration is practiced to the later, it should be respected. In our Local Government Councils to day, the office is dormant but represented by somebody. He does nothing in the council in terms of responsibility. Instead, if he is close to the Chairman, they could discuss issues about award of contracts or arrangement for the reception of the Governor or his wife to the council. How many council secretaries even know their constitutional responsibilities? Unless proper bureaucracy in terms of administration is practiced at the Local government level, the situation might be worse in the near future. Public Administration is all about getting things done through people. These people must necessarily man offices and perform functions that will complement the functions of the Chief Executive (Chairman) to attain the ultimate goal of rendering Services to the people. Council Chairmen in Nigeria today operate like Sole Administrators during military regimes. They are not accountable to the people except the Governor. Why then do we waste resources conducting elections here and there? Council Chairmen are never impeached, but can only be removed by the Governor for reasons of misdemeanor. Any Council Chairman who tries to look at the Governor's face to question the rationality behind "Allocation cut" of his council faces reprimand and may loose his seat. It is against this backdrop, that there is relative obscurity in terms of role performance between the chairman, the secretary, etc. there is no Council personnel whether politician or bureaucrat, that can be said to be performing well enough according to his constitutional role except otherwise directed by the Council chairman whose practices can be classified by any court of competent jurisdiction as "ultra vires"

1976 REFORMS AND THE UNIFIED LOCAL GOVERNMENT SYSTEM

Literature in the area of Local Government has it that prior to 1976 there was no uniform system of Local administration in Nigeria. Although the Northern Emirate system which was established by Uthman Danfodio had a more Stable Local Government system, the situation in the south needed remedy because it was in a confused state. These details would not be necessary now because that is not the focus of this study. However, it was the 1976 Reforms that recognized Nigeria Local Government as the THIRD TIER of Government (FGN Reforms Guidelines 1976).

This was entrenched in the 1979 Federal Constitution. What is significant about the 1976 Reform is that it introduced the Unified Local Government Service. Before now, efficient Local Government officer deserving promotion could not be promoted because there was no higher post in their respective Local authorities to which they could be promoted. Besides, if a staff was not a relation of a councilor or the chief, one could remain in his rank for years without promotion. It was because of this problem that the Local Government Reform of 1976 provided for the establishment of the Local Government Service Board. This will become a neutral body that would henceforth handle issues of inter Local government transfer of senior officers, their promotion as well as their recruitment based on merit.

Typical of the 1976 Reforms was that it was a departure from the local administrative system that was in place before and after independence. But more than four decades after the 1976 Reforms, the Nigeria Local Government is yearning for another remarkable reform. What we saw as a technical committee on local government reform by president Obasanjo, which was headed by the Late Etsu Nupe Alhaji Sanda Ndayako, was not remarkable.

When people say that some Local Government councils in Nigeria are practicing the presidential system whereas some are practicing the parliamentary system, it lays claim to the fact that something is wrong with our third tier level of government. We have the federal and the state governments. The order of running the state in the entire federation is the same why do we have differences in the order of running the Local Governments system. By the way, why do some States Operate Development Areas side-by-side with the constitutionally recognized Local Governments. Lagos State of Nigeria has about 37 Development areas, a number that is higher than the constitutionally recognized Local Government Councils in Lagos State. A part from Lagos State, several other states have created Development Areas and how these Development Areas are managed is only known to those states. Our concern is that Nigeria needs another local government reform whereby there shall be public hearing and consultation from one geo-political zone to another just like we had the Electoral Reform in 2009. Let us stop making reference to the 1976 Reform as having brought uniformity in the running of the Local Government system. The 1976 Reform was significant for the circumstances that were prevalent at the time. The challenges confronting the operations of the Nigeria Local Government System today have gone beyond promotion, transfer and recruitment of senior staff of the Local Government. And if this reform is considered necessary, the time to do it is now because the decay in the system is worrisome.

THE ROLE OF TRADITIONAL RULERS IN THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT

One of the functions with which the traditional rulers have been associated with from time immemorial locally or centrally is the administration of justice (Aborisade 1985:55). By this requirement the Chiefs made sure there were no occurrences of land disputes and such similar cases that may generate unrest around their communities. The Chiefs rewards excellence in their sons and daughters who by one way or the other have brought honour to the community. These attributes were factors that encouraged peace and harmony within and outside the local government areas.

The position has changed drastically because no much significance is attached to the traditional rulers especially where they never existed before the coming of the colonialists. In most cases, the role of the Chiefs has been jettisoned by politics and money bags. The Chiefs in our Local Government Systems today, do certain things because of fear of loosing their stole because their stoles are no longer sacred. They are tied to the whims and caprices of the state Governor. This of course, is unacceptable. Traditional stoles should enjoy the type of independence enjoyed by the judiciary. This will strengthen Local administration because the traditional rulers will serve as checks on the council chairmen who are politically representing their people. This was the position of **OMO N'OPA N'EDO, UKU AKPOLOKPOLO EREDIAUWA, CFR, OBA OF BENIN IN 1985 (Ibid. xix).**

CONCLUSION

Nigeria Local Government system is in very bad shape. We can not have a Local Government that is not bureaucratized yet we expert efficiency. We can not practice two systems in the Local Government when of course we are advocating national unity. We must go back to the drawing board. A reform of the system will lay a good foundation for posterity.

RECOMMENDATIONS:

It is recommended that;

1. Nigeria needs another Local Government Reform and immediately too.
2. Public Administration should be entrenched in the operations of the Local Government.
3. Local Government personnel, both politicians and career civil servants should be made to perform their roles and that of many others. The business of managing the Local Government is a collective thing and requiring skill, experience and in fact professionalism.

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**AN OVERVIEW OF THE EXECUTIVE, LEGISLATURE RELATIONS
AND THE CONSOLIDATION OF DEMOCRACY IN NIGERIA**

EZE, RAPHAEL C. (Ph.D)

**Department of History & International Relations
Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka,
Anambra State, Nigeria.**

Abstract

This paper examines the executive-legislature relations in the Nigeria's fourth republic especial at the national and state levels of government where the spate of impeachment, budgetary acrimony and other agenda has strained governance in recent times, cases of impeachment threat on president Obasanjo in 1999 were capture and discussed along with other cases of impeachment in some states of the federation such as Bayelsa and Ekiti. This paper examined under the broad base of the concept of separation of powers, rule of law and checks and balances between these organs. The data used were derived majorly from the secondary sources data extracted from textbooks, magazines, newspapers and journal which provides rich insight to examining the subject. The paper found out that the executive legislative relation in Nigeria is under siege, this is partly because of the prolonged military rule which do not promote separation of powers between the two organs thereby leading to the underdevelopment of the legislative arm of government. The paper recommendations however, the establishment of centre for legislative, judiciary and executive study in other to imbibe the culture and ethic of each arm of government.

Keywords: legislature, executive, democracy, fourth republic, military rule.

Introduction

Based on the nature of the Legislative and Executive arms of government, their duties and responsibilities, but rather they share the function of governance in such a manner as to be dependent on each other. The system of "checks and balances" thus relies not upon independence but inter-dependence among the two branches. The battle line has so far developed in multiple arena and cuts across vital constitutional issues that threaten to suffocate the process of democratic consolidation. One of the morbid symptoms of this deep and unsettle condition in our democratic order is the gladiatorial contest between the executive and the legislative arm of government both at the National and State levels.

The adoption of presidential system of government as a principle of government by the architects of 1978, 1979 and 1999 constitutions was a conscious decision to address the specificity of our plural social system. In a society with deep primordial segmentation along ethnic and religious line, the fusion of the executive and the legislature in the Westminster model (parliamentary system) poses serious problems for constitutional practice.

On the other hand, Nwabueze (1982) put it that since the cabinet in the parliamentary system also commands the majority in the legislature, the system as in Nigeria's first Republic, create a constitutional despotism "since an executive in control of the legislature and the legislative process is in the position of a near-absolute ruler." Both systematic tendencies in the parliamentary system makes it less attractive to plural social systems such as Nigeria. Its enforcement in other African countries has resulted in either a de factor one-party state through the process of political *channelization*, the process, that is, "controlling and ordering demand of a politicized mass public though organized and concerted action" or in a hegemonic party (one party dominant) state where a party "assume such a pre-eminence with the political system that it is in a powerful position to determine the performance of other parties with the system." These were the dangers that the architects of the 1979 constitution sought to avoid by adopting the presidential principle of separation of powers. Under the presidential system, both the legislature and the executive are independent of each other.

Statement of Problem

A study on the executive-legislature relations is largely a study of the long standing struggle for “policy influence” or constitutional policy” between the legislature and the executive branch – a struggle of dominance over which branch is “predominant” or is in supreme. It is therefore an examination of the relative contributions of the two branches of government to policy output. Such relations are usually influenced largely by governmental composition, constitutional arrangement and legislative power. Legislatures are expected to work hand-in-hand with the executive in a symbiotic relationship for the actualization of the good governance.

The face-off between the over-developed executive and under-developed legislature cannot be over emphasized, the executive continues to arrogate more powers to itself while the legislature have lost largely their traditional policy initiating role . Many reasons are responsible for such and they include:

- (i) The growing volume and complexity of problem requiring public policy intervention. The legislative bodies cannot cope with the increasing governmental functions, because of the size, limited time and process of decision-making.
- (ii) The legislatures are elected to represent each district and constituency while the executive is elected by every eligible citizen of the country.
- (iii) The lack of technical experts b most legislatures. Since most bills are technical in nature, most members of the legislature do not understand them and are therefore unfit to participate effectively in the legislative processes.
- (iv) The lack of adequate time to devote to discussion of legislative bills and the growth of discipline political parties.

Objectives of the paper

The major aim of this paper is to examine , among other things.

- (i) Examine the politics behind the phenomenon of executive-legislature relations in Nigeria.
- (ii) Analyze the relationship between executive-legislature relations and democratic consolidation in Nigeria.
- (iii) Ascertain the political-economic dimension of executive-legislature relations in Nigeria.

The Role of Legislature in a Democracy

Legislatures in modern states, as we have seen, do not all perform identical functions. Everywhere they pass laws, determine the ways of raising and ending public revenue, and discuss matters of public importance. Almost everywhere they have some part in the process of amending the constitution ,the Executive in states where, as in Britain and Canada, the Parliamentary one the question may be raised as to what is the proper function of body. We may discuss this under these heads: Legislative finance and the ventilation of grievances, judicial etc.

Legislation, according to Mill J.S (1955) made it known that the first important function of a legislature is, of course, to enact laws. that a legislative body (which is normally very large in size) should have, must however be correctly grasped. That great authority, Mill, has said; a numerous representative assembly is not fitted for direct business of legislation, which is skilled work demanding and experience.

Financial, in every modern democratic system, the legislature holds basic official financial power. It determines the nature and amount taxes and public money may be spent only as a result of legislative appropriations in a democratic society legislatures perform judicial functions. The constitution of the US, for example, provides that the use of Representative, may impeach any civil officer of the Government such as the President, the vice-presidents, cabinet members and judges, and that any person so be tries by the ; a two-thirds majority vote of the later is necessary for conviction. In 1974, President Nixon resigned when it became clear the House was going to impeach him. In Nigeria, during the second Republic, 1979-1983, Governor Balarabe Musa was impeached and convicted by Kaduna State legislature. These are more role that legislature plays in a democratic society according to the lay down rules and the constitution of the land.

Executive-Legislature Relations

studies have led to the construction of executive-legislature, for instance King (1976) perceived executive-legislature interaction as revolving around three basic factors:

- (i) Consideration of governmental composition or make (conditional or majority);
- (ii) The constitutional arrangement defining the power, function limitations and relationship between the “Executive” “Legislature,” and
- (iii) The Legislative power and operating patterns of the executive-legislature relations itself.

The studies of legislative influence on public policies or budget range from legislature having “quite influential role in shaping policy,” “including delay, rejection or modification of presidential initiatives or measures; through executive-legislature relations whose members ‘can and do effect on the major decision’s regarding the allocation of resources’ or where legislature are “vulnerable,” “reactive,” “marginal”, or minimal. These was cited in Weston A. (1971) and Michael L. (1985) respectively.

Similarly, once the party that brought ion the president is still the party that controls the legislative arm there is bound for a cordial relationship to exist between them because of the party platform and discipline. Conclusively, no matter the level of friction and acrimony between the two arms of the government; there exists some certain level of relationship between them.

Theoretical Framework

According to Charles Worth (1967:6), the structural-functional approach to analysis of government and politics is a new name for an old activity. The structure refers to any human organization which can do thing and affects human being and other human organizations, viz; a family, a public corporation, a court, a bureau or a legislative body. The function relates to the activity of the agency and its external effects. The most ambitious attempt to introduce functional approach into contemporary politics came from scholars who have applied in political analysis, the structural functional framework developed by persons and levy. Here, they stated that functionalism assume a theoretical significance. The promise of a structural-functionalism is nothing less than provides a consistent and integrated theory from which can be derived explanatory hypothesis relevant to all aspects of political system. Having examined the theoretical framework in which this study centres on, that is the structural-functional approach of Executive-legislature relations and democratic consolidation, it is appropriate to focus on Nigeria. This will help us to in throwing more light on the specific understanding of executive-legislature relations and democratic consolidation. For Nigeria, executive-legislature relations crisis did not manifest itself until the second Republic (1979-1983) when Governor Abdukadir Musa Balarabe of Kaduna state was unceremonial removed from office. This singular act market a water shed in the political history of Nigeria Executive-legislature relations crisis however, assumed more dangerous and worrying dimension with the birth of the Fourth Republic on may 29, 1999, when democracy was enthroned with the swearing in of democratically elected representatives.

Between 1999 and 2003, there are series of gridlock and friction in between Executive and legislature in Nigeria most especially on budgets and Appropriation bills which led to some many impeachment threats in both the two arms of government. Thus, the year 2003 was, perhaps, the worst case in executive-legislative interaction (or confrontation) over budgetary matters because, more than 8 months into law by the President. In fact, as the Guardian Sunday Magazine (2004) review which referred to the Obasanjo regimes as a “story of a Democracy without Budge” once put it, the Guardian Newspaper in one of its article written that, in 1999, it was “argument unending” ‘2000: controversy unlimited,’ “2001: Appropriation palaver,” “2002: fiscal acrimony,” “2003 figured disputed,” “2004: “tales of fiscal disharmony” between the president and the National Assembly are underscored by the fact that of the four Senate Presidents (Evans Enwerem, Chuba okadigbo, Anyim Pius Anyim and Adophus Wabara) and three speakers of the House of Representatives (Salisu Buhari Ghali Umar Na’ Abba, and Aminu Masari) that have been in office during Obasanjo’s 8 years tenure. Apart from Enwerem and Buhari who were removed by their respective chambers Chuba Okadigbo, Pius Anyim and Ghali Na’Abba had a face off crisis with the president over annual budgets when figures sent by the President were arbitrarily increased by the National Assembly. In fact, because of the alteration or running “face off” between the Executive and the legislature, principally over successive annual budgets, more than 75% National Assembly members between 1999 and 2003 never returned to legislature.

Meanwhile, some of the impeachment that was carried out against the principal officers of the National Assembly were sponsored by the Federal Executive or selfish political gains is a sure sign of the executive-legislature derailing the path of good governance and democratic consolidation. Hence, causing a total dysfunctioning of the entire political system.

Given the above discuss of the current trend, spate and gale of impeachment across the National Assembly and the threats to impeach the President, one can comfortably fit in the structural-functional approach in analyzing the phenomena. This is because the Nigeria political system depends on the activities and functions of the three aims and structure of legislature, executive and judiciary to succeed especially when these function are carried out according to their constitutional roles.

EXECUTIVE-LEGISLATURE RELATIONS IN NIGERIA'S FOURTH REPUBLIC

Impeachment moves against President Olusegun Obasanjo in 2002.

Prior to the impeachment move against President Obasanjo in 2002, there are series of disagreement between him and the National Assembly over come issues like NEEDS policy which President Obasanjo by pass the National Assembly and impeachment the policy. Aside that when National Assembly wanted to elect their principal in 1999 the National Assembly member wanted Okadigbo but Obasanjo Wanted Evans Enwerem against the will of the Senate President, but not quite long president Obasanjo mobilized against Okadagbo was impeached. So also in the house of representative, President Obasanjo mobilized support for Salisu Buhari against Na' Abba just because he wanted a puppet legislature that will is ready to support all his policies and programme without proper scrutiny at the floor of the House, this and lots more.

2000 Senator Arthur Nzeribe moved an impeachment motion against President Obasanjo on the floor of the House but they want to protect the nascent democracy while some observers said such moves in good for our democratization process in Nigeria, though people like Whole Soyinka. Ganiyu Fawehinmi and some other human right activist were not in support of the impeachment saga.

Another issue is the issue of budget, since President Obasanjo assumed the leadership of Nigeria in 1999 virtually no budget has passed without demarcation between the executive and the legislature. Passing Appropriation when the years have run out has a notorious practice under Obasanjo democracy dispensation. Annually, from 1999-2003 (and beyond) whenever he president send his Appropriation bill to the National Assembly, the bill was forwarded to the appreciation committee of this bill chamber, the House of the representative appreciation committee deliberate exhaustively on the bills before the making the recommendations to each of the two chambers. Where difference existed between the two chambers the National Assembly joint Governance committee comprising and equal member from each chamber was constituted pursuant to section 62 (3) of the 1999 constitution with a view to solving the difference between them.

During the 2002 budget exercise, the Executive had sent to the National Assembly a Budget proposal of N1.06 trillion, with a provision of N297 billion for capital expenditure while the recurrent expenditure stood at 587,096,146,413. While deliberating on the budget proposals the National Assembly increased the capital allocation from N297 billion to 458,705, 107,107 while slashing the recurrent component by 20%. The then Chairman of the House committee on Appropriation, Barau Jibril, explained that the capital allocation was increased in order for it to capture "the widespread thirst for democracy dividend" in terms of infrastructural development, and that the Recurrent expenditure was slashed because "most ministries and parastatals were found to have inflated their figures in the are of recurrent expenditure (see the Guardian 2003:8). But the president in strong worded letter to the National Assembly let it be known that the Federal government had no revenue to finance the kind allocation the National Assembly provided for. Altercation between the Executive and the stature over the 2002 Appropriation Bill came to a head when the National Assembly had to upturn the president's veto by applying the legislative veto-override pursuant to section 59 (4)n of the 1999 constitution the Federal Republic of Nigeria.

The minister of finance, Adamu Chiroma revealed that whereas the executive project N75 billion as proceeds from privatization, the National Assembly increased it to N200 billion, and whereas the Executive projected recovered illegal acquired funds at N40 billion, the legislature projected 8.6 billion,

although the Senate Public Account Committee also pronounced that only N29 billion of the N40.7 billion recovered had been committed to the consolidated Revenue Fund, with 11.7 billion discovered (see the Guardian 2002: 19)

Separated by the jumbo-size of the 2002 budget, the President set up a 12-budget Review committee under the chairmanship of Atiku Abubakar, invited the National Assembly to send representations to the committee harmonize the divergent views on the budgets implementation – a request which the legislature rejected in favour of the president sending another bill for the National Assembly so that proper legal backing could be given what emerge as the Revised 2002 Budget. Later, the then minister of peace, Adamu Chiroma, published a Revised Budget estimate for June-December 2002, putting the estimated revenue at N377.09 billion and expenditure at N287.29 billion-estimated which the National Assembly itself the president proceeded, nevertheless, to implement the 2002 Budget, in the breach than in strict adherence to the version passed by the National Assembly.

Consequence, the National Assembly embarked upon impeachment procedure against President Obasanjo over alleged mismanagement of excessive budget since 1999. The House of Representative grouse was indicated on over 60 grounds which bordered on what the national Assembly described as “monumental inadequacies, ineptitude, persistent respect for rule of law and obvious corruption being perpetrated in the Presidency.”

Though President Obasanjo dismissed the charges contained in the motion, characterizing them as “Vexatious, malicious, mischievous, uncalled for, constitutional frivolous and unsubstantiated,” it look the swift interaction of the ruling party, the PDP, and of two former Heads of States –Yakubu Gowon and Shehu Shagari – to thwart the impeachment bid. It was intriguing that a House of Representatives that is overwhelming pulled by the PDP that produced the speaker, Deputy Speaker and most Key functionaries of the House of could seek to impeach a PDP president or apply a legislative veto against a president-initiated budget or bills.

Ayo Fayose Impeachment

In all indications, Fayose, the Ekiti State Governor was close to Aso rock to spend a lot on media propaganda. His billboard dotted the Lagos-express way up to the rural and rustic Ekiti State. When his problem began however, the presidency was unable to help even though he was of the anti-constitution third term agenda that sought to extend Obasanjo’s tenure. His style of governance, though on the surface was most wasteful. His background was alleged to the fact that he was a motor park tout and this registers well in his lack of decorum and decency. His problems could be said to be three dimensions: (i) he routinely shows disregard to traditional rulers the respected Ewi of Ado Ekiti institution inclusive. He once embarrassed a traditional ruler by withdrawing the Oba’s official car in public (ii) the leading elites of Ekiti were disregarded by him he sought to rubbish the highly respected Afe Babalola, Femi Falana and Bode Olowoporoku among others; (iii) Fayose behaved like he was above the law and this explains why he was regarded as a tout. He once boasted that three months to the 2007 elections, there would be no governorship aspirant left in Ekiti State.

Ordinarily, Fayose’s impeachment could not have succeeded, if left in the hands of the legislators alone. A vote of confidence had been passed on him two or times before and Fayose had spoilt them with all sorts of payments including the questionable constituency allowances. The economic and financial crime commission (EFCC) had no choice but to strike a deal with the legislators to get Fayose out of office. When even the lawmakers requested that the acting chief judge appoint a panel to investigate the allegations against Fayose, cronies of Governor were nominated. It is worrying that a so-called popularly elected Governor could be removal without a high decree of resistance from the people the elected him.

Alamieyeseigha Impeachment

The politics behind the removal of Governor Alamieyeseigha of Bayelsa could be traced to hi loyalty to Atiku Abubakar and his inability to support the third term agenda. After the third term agenda have failed on the floors the National Assembly that was when president Obasanjo has raised up his hammer to cut those who are behind the failure of the agenda.

The genesis of Alamieyeseigha’s impeachment started with his arrest in London’s Heathrow airport on September 15,2005 by the London metropolitan police on the charges of money laundering upon his arrest,

he has arraigned at a London court charge of being in possession and laundering of some money amounting to \$1.8 million and \$420,000 in September 2001; \$475,000 in March 2002, and \$920,000 in September, 2005. These offences under the provisions of section 327 (1) of the proceeds of crimes Act, 2000 and section 9.3 (1) of the criminal justice Act of 1988. the Governor plead not guilty but was denied bail as a result of the precedent by Governor Joshua Dariye of Plateau State who was granted bail under similar circumstances but jumped bail and fled to Nigeria.

As Alamiyeseigha was fighting against criminal charges in London, back home on the political front, other battle awaited him. There were demand for his impeachment by Gani Fawehinmi (SAN) and Sergeant Werini pre Gigif-chairman of the Supreme Egbesu Assembly (SEA). Gigif argued that it was wrong for a person standing trial in far London to remain as a Governor of a state in Nigeria, concurring that he had already brought shame and disrepute to the name of Bayelsa State. As the debate was still going on the possible impeachment of Alamiyeseigha, he jumped bail in London and arrived in Nigeria and was welcomed on arrival by the Ijaw nation at home and abroad.

The Bayelsa State House of Assembly (BSHA) decided to adjourn "sine die" when the Governor trails began in London. The lawmakers who were largely loyal to him adjourned sittings to avoid the pressure from the presidency to commence impeachment proceedings against the Governor. But according to Jephthat Foingha, Deputy Speaker of the House of Assembly, the House adjourned to enable the members engaged in constituency tours and that they could resumes any day wanted (News watch 2005). Alemiyesiegha never denied that he stole money from his state. Shortly after the House speaker of Bayelsa State House of Assembly was impeached along with the deputy both loyal to him, Alemiyesiegha said that he was not afraid and could not be intimidated. He argued that "if I am corrupt. Did I steal Federal government's money? Or is my state complaining that I stole its money? The Federal government does not have the right ... if I stole money from my state, House of Assembly is the right organ to prosecute" (Tell Magazine 2005).

A wealth of evidence provided by the EFCC of properties owned by him in Nigeria and abroad amounts to 1.7 billion Naira found in private bank accounts in the United Kingdom forced the House members who were loyal to him before to start the impeachment process, and the arrest of the lawmakers by the operatives of the EFCC and their indictment before the courts for embezzling N100 million each meant for constituency development, forced them to initiate and complete the removal proceedings against the State Governor. The impeachment plan against Alemiyesiegha commenced amidst threats by the Ijaw youths group who vowed to halt it even with their own blood, because of the threat by youths, the lawmaker relocated to a secrete place in Lagos where the commenced impeachment proceedings against the Governor contrary to the constitution that specified that such a sitting should take place in the House of Assembly.

Against this background, 20 out of the 24 members of the state House of Assembly signed the impeachment notice against the Governor. Peremobowe Ebbibi, the new Speaker of the Bayelsa State House of Assembly who read the impeach notice said that the action was based on the fact that the man who could disguise as a woman to run away from London to Nigeria should not be a Governor. He also accused the Governor of money laundering, operating foreign accounts, corrupt enrichment of his wife and children, and failure to intimate the House of his arrest in London. In its report, the panel said "by jumping bail Diepreye Alemiyesiegha is in breach of his oath in respect of international law. He has by this act committed an act that amount to gross misconduct." However, by disguising himself to the extent of jumping bail, he had held himself to be a man without integrity, moral and no sense of decency. This indeed constitutes a gross misconduct, which renders him unfit to govern the state.

On the second allegation, the panelists found Alemiyesiegha guilty for failure to formally notify the government of Bayelsa State, particularly the Bayelsa State House of Assembly of his arrest, detection arrangement and trial in London court for the offences of money laundering. But instead, he deceptively wrote a letter to the House and back dated it to 1 September 2005, requesting to be away for 120 days to enable him recuperate from a surgery he underwent in Germany. This was held to be contravention of section 190 of the 1999 constitution.

The impeachment of Alemieyesiegha was fast tract when the speaker Ebibi called for a voice to remove and one objected in the house. The speaker then appealed as the chief judge to swear in the acting Governor, Dr. Goodluck Jonathan as the substantive Governor. Chief Depreye Alemieyesiegha thereby ceased to be the Governor of Bayelsa State from the moment of his removal by the law makers. While the condition of his removal by the lawmaker were not in doubt, the procedures through which that end was realized remained highly controversial. For example, beside the intimidation of the lawmakers by the EFCC, it was alleged that in the building to the impeachment of his predecessor, the deputy Governor, now the incumbent Governor Goodluck Jonathan, had to move to Abuja while the impeachment process against the former Governor lasted. Jonathan returned to the state capital Yenegoa, only to be sworn in as the substantive Governor.

Recommendation

Given the above contest, urgent steps must be taken to checkmate the ugly trend of executive-legislature acrimony and impeachment if the nascent democracy must be nurtured to maturity. In the light of the findings of the study, the following are recommended.

1. Cordial executive-legislature relations should be maintained. Specifically, the executive and the legislative arms of government must be to appreciate the fact that the totalizing vision of water tight separation of power is inherently contradictory and destructive. **Implementation strategy:** what is then required is to establish a balance such that both organs operate in a manner that is coordinate and harmonious with necessary jeopardizing the autonomy of each organ because the effectiveness of each organ cannot only be measured by the degree to which it discharges its statutory function but also by the level of interrelationship with each other to ensure a smooth system of checks and balance.
2. There is the need to begin to encourage and promote research on legislature studies, having being the organ that suffered most neglect under successive military regimes.

Implementation Strategy: This can be completed by the establishment of a Centre for Executive-Legislature Relations (CELR) at both the Federal, State and local government levels, whose responsibility would be the promotion and organization of lectures: Symposia, seminar for both organs. It should also be saddled with the proper management of information between the two organs. The centre when established should draw membership from the academic, civil society organizations and the media just as the way it is in institute of policy and strategy study kuru and center for Democratic studies Abuja.

The other recommendations of this study includes

- (i) The president henceforth should not be seems as the chief executive of the political party that voted in as the president.
- (ii) The power of EFCC must be subject to the constitution for example, the EFCC has the power to investigate and arrest but must not detain any person for more than 24 hours before charging to court.
- (iii) The principle of separation of power must be the states and Federal government must be maintained. The Federal Government Agencies like the EFCC, the Bureau must not be used by the Federal Government to harass state government to the point of eroding the separation of power principle.
- (iv) The society two must be demilitarized by opening up the democratic space for more qualitative participation, popular empowerment and capacity expansion for individuals and groups through good governance.
- (v) Finally, the principal actors in the ongoing democratization process in Nigeria must cultivate the spirit of tolerance in their relationship with one another, this requires the development of democratic political culture, mid-set and citizen. This will help to appreciate whatever differences that may exist and by so doing develop abiding patriotism in the system. It may in turn enable them to place collective interest above and over sectional and selfish interest. If these are sustained overtime, they may become the basic for nurturing and consolidating executive-legislature relations and by extension the democratization process in Nigeria.

Conclusion

In this study, we have sought to fine out whether the executive-legislature relations have promoted good governance, good leadership and economic development in the process of democratic consolidation in Nigeria's forth Republic.

There is no doubt that the success of the democratic process in our country will depend to a greater extent on the degree at which the principle of separation of power on the basis of checks and balances is well spell out in our constitution and at which the two arms of the government can tolerate and harmoniously live together to formulate and implement good policy and programmes for Nigeria populaces, so far, the executive-legislature relations in Nigeria is in shamble due to the fact that there is always an acrimony between the executive arm headed by president Olusegun Obasanja and the National Assembly over some issue like budgetary allocation, NEEDS Policy and so on, this conflict tense to the point that the National move to impeach president Obasanjo in August 13, 2002, however, all these disagreement cannot enhance good governance and economic development to some extent because the resources that are suppose to be used for the benefit of he masses are diverted to resolve conflict also during the impeachment saga, the budget debate was abandon, series of melodrama was witness in the National Assembly to the extent that both the Senate and House of representatives members are throwing chair in the legislative floor. Beside, most of the impeachment threats against some Governors at the state level are carried out for the legislative selfish interest or mastermind by the Federal executive which cannot encourage a good governance but pose a threat to democratic consolidation in Nigeria.

Upon this, the over developed executive still have their way through the instrument of manipulation, financial influence over the underdeveloped legislature, thanks to the dictatorship of the party which has reduced National Assembly men to virtual “yes men,” but the level of relationship between the executive and legislature in president yar’Adua regime is smooth and robust because up till now, we have not hear any form of controversy between the two arms.

To that extent Nigeria’s National Assembly is yet to achieve the high level of institutionalization recorded by some world legislatures, including the US congress, at least as far as legislative function as concerned. My submission is that in the interest of democratic consolidation, there is need for smooth relationship between the executive and the legislature and all stakeholders must come together and form alliance to strengthening our political system, the principle of separation of power on the basis of check and balances should be encouraged, public interest should be place above selfish interest, the power of the executive should not be made to over shadow that of the legislature and unwarranted impeachment should be discourage in order to enhance good governance and economic development so that democratic process or consolidation in Nigeria can be sustained. The new democratic dispensation must be given adequate room for effective performance, as we should cherish our newly found freedom.

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MEASURES PUT IN PLACE TO CURB INDISCIPLINE IN THE NIGERIAN PUBLIC SERVICE

ASAJU, KAYODE (Ph.D)
Department of Public Administration
Faculty of Administration,
Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria,
Kaduna State, Nigeria.
asajuk@gmail.com
+2348035992503

&

ADAGBA, ONAH SUNDAY (Ph.D)
Department of Local Government & Development Studies
Faculty of Administration
Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria,
Kaduna State, Nigeria.
adagbasunny@yahoo.com
+2348064882970

ABSTRACT

Discipline in the public service has for some time now been a subject of concern among observers both within and outside the country. The Public Service is seen by many as being undisciplined and corrupt. Government activities are carried out with the lowest ebb as if there are no rules and regulations guiding the conduct of public servants. Also, government business is being transacted with little or no concern for transparency and accountability. This was the situation when Obasanjo assumed the mantle of leadership of Nigeria in 1999 and publicly described the situation as abnormal and promised to put in place measures to correct the anomalies. Using secondary data, the paper reviewed the nature of indiscipline and disciplinary procedures in the public service. It as well examined some of those measures put in place during the fourth republic to curb indiscipline in the service. Findings revealed that some of these measures have achieved very little success. Findings also showed that despite the sound and pragmatic nature of these reforms, they are still bedevilled by implementation problems. The paper thus urged the government to be more committed to ensuring effective implementation of the reforms. This will, apart from ensuring a disciplined work force, enhance effective service delivery. The Public Service rules and financial regulations should be made more accessible to all public servants as well as the clients. The paper also recommends that the Public Service Rule (PSR) and financial regulations should be interpreted into some of the major languages in Nigeria and states could follow suit. The paper also advocates for policy continuity and consistency in the implementation of the reforms.

KEYWORDS: discipline, indiscipline, reforms, public service, policy implementation.

INTRODUCTION

There is a popular adage that “Good order is the foundation of all good things”. Thus, the productivity and survival of any organization depends mainly on the quality of its human resources and how well they are able to align or identify themselves with the policies of the organization. These goals and policies are mostly broken down into organizational rules and regulations, whether in terms of production, marketing, business and administration. The disposition of employees towards these rules measures their level of discipline and in a wider sense, the extent to which the organization is able to pursue its objectives without hindrances.

Discipline is an important aspect of organizational dynamics and depends largely on employees’ discipline. Also, effective personnel management requires maintenance of employees’ discipline.

Employee discipline deals with the level at which the employees of an organisation are able to conform and submit themselves to the rules and regulations governing their conducts in the work place.

Max Weber in his model of bureaucracy gave discipline a central role. He sees bureaucracy as a form of rational organization, which must be based on rules and procedures. These rules and procedures are aimed at providing orderliness within which bureaucracy can be conducted to achieve its objectives. One of the characteristics of Weber's rules is that bureaucrats should be subjected to unified control and disciplinary procedure. Other characteristics of bureaucracy identified by Weber includes the hierarchical arrangement of office, specification of duties, chain of command, impersonality of office, recruitment and promotion based on merit among others. These and other characteristics identified by Weber are to ensure a high degree of discipline and control, effectiveness and efficiency in public bureaucracy, which he described as legal and rational (Abdulsalami, 2005: 4).

The Nigerian public service is based on Weberian bureaucracy, as it is based on legal rational authority. It is legal because authority is exercised by means of an outline of rules and procedures. These rules are designed to regulate the conducts of individual employees. In terms of procedures, rules and regulations are designed to guide and direct their activities so as to attain an optimum rationality and as well ensure and enhance effectiveness and efficiency in productivity or service delivery.

The Nigerian public service as it is today is characterised by attributes at variance with the Weberian ideal construct. According to Abdulsalami (2005: 5), most of these bureaucratic attributes are present today in form of (i.e. outward or visible appearance only), but rarely of effect. To him, several primordial considerations and forces of local traditions have penetrated the public service to neutralise the attributes of the ideal bureaucratic type.

Before the advent of democratic government of the Fourth Republic, all sorts of vices of indiscipline perverted the public service. These include, late coming to work, lack of dedication to duty, transacting business during working hours, loitering or roaming around during working hours, lack of respect for superiors, dishonesty among others. Also corruption was the order of the day as public service business was carried out with total disregard for transparency and accountability. (OSSAP, 2005). The costs of government contracts were inflated and public servants hardly perform their duties without collecting bribes or kickbacks. Tribal, religious and other primordial sentiments became the order of the day in consideration for appointment into the service and promotion while merit was thrown away.

The former democratically elected President, OlusegunObasanjo, in the preface to the 2000 reviewed edition of the Public Service Rules (PSR) decried the systematic destruction of the public service institutions and the promotion of a total disregard for time tested procedures in the conduct of government business. He succinctly puts it this way:

A substantial number of public officers behave as if there are no rules and regulation that govern their conduct....our laws have always been very clear, public affairs must be conducted according to stipulated rules and procedures. (Federal Government of Nigeria).

At the global level, survey carried out by Transparency International (T.I) in 2002, indicated that, in countries all over the world, the Nigerian Public Service is one of the most corrupt and indiscipline. (PUNCH 2000: 4). No wonder, many critics had argued that the Nigerian public service has become the proverbial 'cog in the wheel' of national progress. It is obvious even to cursory observers that there is crisis in the established and recognised framework for discipline in the Nigerian Public Service. In view of this, the government apart from promising to ensure compliance to public service rules and procedures, put in place various measures and reforms to curb indiscipline in the service.

But the question is, how effective are these reforms in addressing the problem of indiscipline in the service? This question forms the basis of this paper. The paper draws its data from secondary sources. The paper is divided into five sections. The first part is the introduction, the second part is the conceptual issues, the third part is the theoretical framework, the fourth part is the main body which is the discussions of the measures put in place to curb indiscipline and the fifth part is the conclusions and recommendations.

CONCEPTUAL ISSUES

(A) Discipline

When asked about the term discipline, even learned persons will at first associate it with the act of punishment. This is no coincidence for the word discipline. In its narrowest sense, it refers to the act of imposing penalties for 'wrong' behaviours. But the meaning of discipline is beyond this simplistic negative assertion, as there is also the positive element in it. As the term implies, 'discipline' is derived from the word 'disciple' meaning 'a follower'. The implication is that good discipline presupposes good leadership.

The Oxford Learners' Dictionary (1982) identified six different meanings of discipline. They include (1) treatment which corrects or punishes (2) the training which develops self-control, character, orderliness and efficiency (3) the results of such training, (4) a branch of knowledge or learning, (5) the acceptance of, or submission to authority and control, and (6) a system of rules and methods. It is apparent from these definitions that the term discipline is a very complex one. Therefore, it is not feasible to study the subject without clearly qualifying the meaning of the term into an operational definition. Discipline in a broad sense is defined as "orderliness the opposite of confusion". In the narrow sense, discipline refers to employee discipline, which is an important function of personnel management (Abdulsalami, 2004). Be that as it may, the idea of discipline not only suggests punishment as a measure of deterring undesired behaviours, but training aimed at producing a specific character or pattern of behaviour and a systematic method of obtaining obedience.

In line with the above assertion, Megginson (1977: 305) sees discipline as 'instruction or training'. To him, even when discipline is punishment, it is punishment intended to correct wrong behaviour and to train the individual to perform correctly. Similarly, Membrane (1985: 78) defines discipline as "the application of discipline to secure good conduct and the willing compliance with the lawful orders and command of the authority. Also, Prestore and Zimmerer (1978: 320) opined that discipline is "behaviour which is in compliance with the agreed upon rules and regulations".

Haimann and Hilgert (1977: 240) gave an elaborative definition of discipline and they defined it thus:

A state of affairs – a condition in enterprise in which there is orderliness, in which the members of the enterprises behave sensibly and conduct themselves according to standards of acceptable behaviour as related to the goals of the organisation.

The basic elements in the above definitions are good conduct, obedience to laid down rules and regulations willing and less sanctions to achieve organisational objectives.

Jerome (1962: 32) however believed discipline is all about sanctions aimed at punishment and sanctioning offenders. He sees disciplinary action as a painful measure that is inflicted on an offender with a view to coercing him to conform to rules and regulations of the organisation. He noted that the extent or type of punishment that is meted out to an offender is in a way related to the offences committed which is aggravated or mitigated by reference to the personality of offenders and their motives.

Norman et al (1962: 26) in a contrary view posits that the offenders are not truly intimidated by the possibility of punishment or any form of sanction. But that the severity, of disciplinary measure has very little or no deterrent effect on potential offenders.

Similarly, Ngu (1990) had also argued that many people in authority have that believe that discipline can only be attained or instilled on the subordinate through punishments of various kinds. Thus they rely so much on external discipline at the expense of internal one. The latter is superior to the former in the sense that it lasts with the workers, whereas the former is short lived and is usually exhibited in the presence of the supervisor or only when punishment becomes eminent. In fact, the superiority of internal discipline cannot be contested because it enhances higher level of productivity than the external one. As such, the most effective type of discipline is the one that is internalised.

The above argument therefore raises the question of what then constitutes a good discipline. Pigors and Meyers (1982: 98) agreed that good discipline is very essential for the orderly conduct of any organisation where any considerable numbers of people are working together. But that the only questions that could be

raised are, what good discipline is and how it can be assured? In addressing these questions, he noted that one must be clear as to what end result is sought. To them, good discipline implies a general and willing adherence to a certain minimum of reasonable rules and regulations which are necessary to assure promptness and regularity in attendance, honesty in the use and disposition of company property and time, freedom from gross insubordination to the requests of leaders, elimination of fighting, drunkenness and gross immorality among employees while on the premises, avoidance of conducts which involves hazard of life and property of fellow employees.

On the purpose of discipline, Adesina (1990: 74) opines that the purpose of discipline is to create a committee of people who could freely and willingly learn the norms, principles and ways of life of that community. In that process, they may have to subdue or repress some of their natural inclinations not because they are afraid of punishments or because they desire specific rewards, but because of their sense of commitments at fellowship and the ideals of the community.

The major concern of this paper is employee or staff discipline. Staff discipline deals with the level at which employees of an organisation are able to conform and submit themselves to the rules and regulations governing their work place. This also includes conduct outside the immediate work place, which has implications that borders on the status of the employee as a member of the organisation. These rules may cover general terms of employment, hours of work, communication channels, performance standards, organisational expectations and general employees' conduct. These rules and regulations are made by the organization as an extension of its broad policies and goals. Staff discipline therefore measures how much these employees are willing, without coercion, to submit themselves to these rules and allow their actions and conducts as employees to be guided by them. (Onah, 2003: 305).

Onah's expectation on discipline serves as a working definition for this paper.

Therefore, discipline is a managerial tool that sustains an organisation. It as well ensures and enhances the achievement of the organisational goal in an efficient and effective manner.

Nature of Discipline and Disciplinary Procedure in the Public Service

The effectiveness and performance of the public service depends on the existence of a systematic and well established law and order. In the Nigerian Public Service, apart from the constitution and other laws of various states, the Public Service Rules (PSR), Financial Regulations and other official documents regulate the conducts of the public servants. Chapter four of the Public Service Rule (PSR) was devoted to the nature of discipline (Rule 04201, 04301) and disciplinary procedures and actions in the service. The PSR stipulates that disciplinary procedures or action can be initiated on the basis of general inefficiency or misconduct as contained in Rules 04302 to 04306. However, Ngu (1990:167) criticised the above basis for initiating disciplinary procedures, when he asserted that what constitutes misconduct or general inefficiency in most cases is so vague that the affected officer is left at the mercy of the superior officer or the authority responsible for disciplinary action.

(B) The Nigerian Public Service

Public service includes service in a civil capacity as distinct from private business sector.

The public service refers to all organisations that exist as part of government machinery for implementing policy decisions and delivering services that are of value to the citizens. It is a mandatory institution of the state under the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. The public service includes the Civil Service, often referred to as core service, consisting of line ministries and extra-ministerial agencies; the public bureaucracy or the enlarged public service, made up of services of the state and national assemblies; the judiciary; the armed forces; the police and other security agencies; paramilitary services (i.e. customs, immigrations, prisons, civil defence, etc); parastatals and agencies, (i.e. regulatory agencies, educational institutions, research institutions, social services, commercially oriented agencies etc.). It is used to refer to public servants who are direct employees of these ministries, extra-ministerial agencies, parastatals, corporations and institutions.

The Nigerian Public Service has its origin in the administrative machinery created by the British colonial government. In structure, function and orientation, the service had the same characteristics of the British mode of public service. The Nigerian public service as it is today is still patterned along the British mode. In the same vain, Adebayo (1987:14) opines that “the public service handed over to most British colonies were not only patterned after the public service of their erstwhile masters, but they were basically oriented

towards ensuring public order, the administration of justice and the collection of taxes. These public services, however adequate they might have been for the needs they were meant to serve, became grossly inadequate after independence, as their governments assumed developmental functions in addition to the traditional functions. (Okigbo and Nsiegbunan, 2000: 342).

According to Anyebe (2004: 1), three political influences; colonial, civilian and military had affected the Nigerian Public Service and they have certain and common marks, though in varying degrees. Although successive administrations in Nigeria have instituted various administrative reviews and reforms (Reform connotes deliberate and planned change), to re- invigorate the public service, they have failed to produce any fundamental result. At the advent of the Fourth Republic in 1999, the service had been practically destabilised, as the rate of indiscipline was at Christendom; corruption was practically institutionalised as the foundation of running government business.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Employee discipline as earlier explained is about employees' compliance to organisation rules and regulations that guide his conducts as it affects his work. Therefore, the essential elements in discipline are the willingness of the employees to abide by the rules as defined by the organisation and the ability of the organisation to extract compliance to these rules from their employees. Either way, both employees and organisations are to ensure compliance to lay down rules from their employees. Both ways still, both the employees and organisation are involved.

The Reinforcement theory as quoted by Onah (2003: 305) deals with the action of the organisation in response to the action of the employees (stimulus) with the intension to either encourage or discourage such employees' action. The Reinforcement theory grew out of the experiment analysis of two distinguished psychologists, Ivan Paulov and Edward Tehordike, who formulated the principles of classical conditioning. Under these principles, if a behavioural response to a particular stimulus is rewarded, that response is more likely to be repeated. But if it is not rewarded or punished, that response is less likely to be repeated. Skinner quoted by Reltz (1977: 42) also advocates that behaviour is a function of its consequences. Consequently, behaviours that result in desirable consequences are more likely to be repeated while behaviours that result in undesirable consequences are less likely to be repeated. In other words, peoples' behavioural choices are guided by what they anticipate its outcome to be. Be that as it may, this reward has to be timely. In other words, time is an important factor in the Reinforcement theory.

Relating this theory to the subject of this paper, it is assumed that the willingness and desire of the Nigerian Public servant to conform or not to conform to the rules and regulation (i.e. Public Service Rules, Financial Regulations among others) set by the government are largely dependent on the reaction of the government to both the public servants who comply to such rules and regulations and those who do not comply with them. As such, if the government encourages those who conform by some form of reward desirable by such employees, they are likely to continue with their compliance. If the government imposes negative and undesirable sanctions on those who rebel against the rules, they are likely to refrain from such behaviours. If the government is indifferent to either those who complied or those who rebel against the rules, the choice of behaviour by the employees will be dependent on other personal considerations.

Therefore, this paper shall be guided by the Reinforcement theory in assessing the actions (Reforms) of the Public Service (Organisation) in response to the public servants' (employee) stimulus (indiscipline) with the intension to either encourage or discourage the public servants' actions (acts of indiscipline). Viewed from the perspective of the Reinforcement theory, discipline in the Nigerian Public Service is dependent on the response of the government (through Reforms) to the action of the public servants. As earlier stated, there is a crisis in the established and recognised framework for discipline in the public service in Nigeria. That was why in the Fourth Republic (1999 to 2007), the government introduced various reforms aimed at checking these anomalies. This paper therefore examines the measures put in place by the government to ensure discipline in the Public Service.

Causes of Indiscipline in the Nigerian Public Service

In order to properly assess the reforms put in place to curb indiscipline in the Nigerian Public service, it is important to examine the factors responsible for staff indiscipline in the public service. Onah (2003: 306-

309) views the causes or factors responsible for staff indiscipline in three different perspectives. They include the operating environment, individual and organisational factors.

Operating Environment: The operating environment includes the immediate environment of the employee which is the organisation where he works. This rests on the climate in which the employee's sense of position identifies with the commitment to the goals of the organisation. In other words, employee's identification with the goals of the organisation depends largely on their perceived positive correlation between their support for the rules and the satisfaction of their needs.

The other aspect of the operating environment consists of the larger community which the employees live and work. Since employees work and live as participant members of the society, their interaction with the environment exert some influence on their concept and practice of discipline. These influences may result from the political climate or social climate in the environment.

Political Environment: Most government institutions are managed or headed by political appointees, thus they are bound to heavily staff these institutions with their cronies and party patronage by virtue of their political role rather than merit. Therefore, employees who gain their positions into these institutions through these ways, look up more to their godfathers in terms of respect for and allegiance than to organisational structure and objectives. Organisational rules become only relevant to the extents that they are agreeable to the intentions of their godfathers and sponsors. Even those charged with maintaining discipline in such establishment will be constrained by the ever intervention of the godfathers when any of their cronies are involved. This goes a long way in affecting the practice of human resources management and staff discipline in these institutions.

Economic Environment: A climate of pervasive poverty in the operating environment and the relatively low and highly irregular pay in enterprise creates an environment that suggests other sources of livelihood to the employees so as to survive. The pressure to survive manifests in different dimensions whose end-results are indiscipline. Some employees resort to doing business outside their regular employment using their official time. Others pilfer enterprises property and funds. In the other hand, others demand for gratification to render their normal services and may become reluctant to serve if such gratification is not forth coming. All these hinge on indiscipline resulting from poverty. Furthermore, because of the failure of the enterprise pay structure to meet a substantial part of the employee's basic needs, they feel reluctant to give their best to the organisation in the area of service they may come to.

Social Environment: The nature of social relationship in an environment also influences personnel conduct in the organisation. Discipline strives better in environments with impersonal relationships than in one with close social ties. When there is a social tie relationship, personnel attitude to rules and regulations are influenced as their personal attachment infringes on the freedom of impersonal rules to take its normal course. Consequently, because employees are aware that they may not be sanctioned for breaking the rules because of other relationships, their dedication and submission to the bureaucratic set-up may be impaired.

Individual Employee Factor: The environment is not the sole stimulating factor of employee action even though it plays a vital role. Reitz (1977: 48-50) in discussing causes of behaviour argued that human behaviour is a function of both the individual who is behaving and the environment in which he or she is behaving. This implies that the behaviour or attitude of a person is a function of the person exhibiting it and the environment he finds himself. These also determine his behaviour directly or indirectly and their effects on each other. Thus, the exhibition of discipline or indiscipline here becomes a function of individual traits due to individual differences. This could be as a result of their background, peer group influence, personal weaknesses, individual limitations and personality traits peculiar to them as distinct individuals.

Organisational Factor: Apart from the contributions of environmental and individual employee factors to the problem of indiscipline, certain organisational factors that borders on the style of Human Resources Management also constitute prominent contributors to employee discipline. This includes the recruitment style, staff performance appraisal, reward system and ineffectiveness of disciplinary process.

MEASURES PUT IN PLACE TO CURB INDISCIPLINE IN THE SERVICE

The government has put in place various reforms and measures to ensure a disciplined public service. The Fourth Republic President in his inaugural speech in 1999 had earlier threatened that “business would not be as usual, and those who are not ready to conform will be shown the way out”. The government promised to carry out a decisive reform to ensure discipline in the public service. The goal of the reform is to transform the ailing public service into a knowledge-based, professional and accountable public service, rendering timely, diligent and effective service to the Nigerian people. The overall objective of the public service reform is to build a first class service whose performance is substantially enhanced, with added capacity for enforcing ethical standards and instilling a sense of core values and principles for promoting good governance and sustainable development (FMIC: 2006). Thus, as reiterated in the theory, these reforms and measures are government’s response to encourage those public servants that are honest and discipline and it is also aimed at discouraging indiscipline in the public service by punishing offenders.

The reforms include the following:

1- The Review of the Public Service Rules (PSR) and Financial Regulations: It is clear that the public service cannot be reformed without a surgical operation of the Public Service Rules and the Financial Regulations in order to brace up with the challenges of the 21st century. In recognition of the importance of PSR, the then President in the preface of the 2000 Revised Edition of PSR lamented the systematic destruction of the public institutions and the promotion of a total disregard for time tested procedures in the conduct of government businesses. As such, he emphasised that the PSR would apply to all public servants including him. He succinctly put it thus:

A substantial number of public officers behave as if there are no rules and regulations that govern their conduct. This attitude has of recent been compounded by the seemingly deliberate and sustained acts by the Heads of military governments’ regimes to destroy all systems of proper conduct. Our laws have always been very clear; public affairs must be conducted according to stipulation.

In realisation of this and in furtherance to the various circulars on the public service reform, a 13 man Presidential Committee on the Review and Revision of the Public Service Rules (PSR), Procedure and Regulations was inaugurated on 25th January, 2005. The report of the Committee brought about various review of the PRS and Financial Regulations.

The Public Service Rules (PRS), which was formally known and referred to as the General Orders (GO), had gone through levels of reforms. The GO, as it was called then, was originally drafted by colonial masters to suit their purpose and intent. Long after independence, the GO remained the norm and ethics guiding the operation of the public service. This was so until the 1974 Civil Service Reform popularly referred to as Odoji Reform was carried out. The Reform reviewed the General Order (GO) to suit the current functions of the Civil Service which had gone beyond the mere maintenance of law and order to economic, political and social realms. It was thereafter re-christened Civil Service Rules. This has become the standing operational law of the service for close to two decades.

However, with the advent of the democratic government of the Fourth Republic in 1999, the Civil Service Rules was revised in the Year 2000, to assume a broader spectrum covering the entire public service. That revision gave birth to the current Public Service Rules. The re-defined PRS recognised and accommodated other reforms like the Monetization of Fringe Benefits, establishment of Anti- Corruption Agencies, due diligence in procurement, Joint Contributory Pension Scheme, Health Insurance Scheme, Out- Sourcing of service jobs, Freedom of Information Bill, Labour Movement Reform, Economic and Financial Crime Laws among others.

ii. Another measure put in place was the reform to tackle corruption and improve transparency in government business. The regime recognised and singled out corruption as the bane of inefficiency in the Public Service. In the words of the President, ‘the rules and regulations for doing official business were deliberately ignored, set aside or by- passed to facilitate corrupt practices’. Under this administration therefore, all rules and regulations will be designed to help honesty. Corruption, the greatest single bane of our society today will be tackled headlong at all levels of government. Corruption is incipient in all human societies and in most human activities, but it must not be condoned ... One of the greatest tragedies of military rule in recent times is that corruption was allowed to grow unchallenged and unchecked, even

when it was glaring 'for everybody to see'. He vowed to tackle corruption headlong and that transparency in dealing with government will be restored and enforced.

Corruption has no doubt done an incalculable damage to every facet of the country, (i.e political, economic, social, and cultural, religious). Corruption in Nigeria undermines democratic institutions, retards economic development and contributes to government instability. Corruption attacks the foundation of democratic institutions by distorting electoral processes, perverting rule of law, and creating bureaucratic quagmires whose only reason for existing is the soliciting of bribe. Economic development is stunted because outside direct investment is discouraged and small businesses within the country finds it impossible to overcome the start- up cost required because of corruption.

The Public Service was rated as the most corrupt institution in Nigeria. The 2007 Nigerian Corruption Index Survey by the Independent Advocacy Project, an anti- corruption group indicated that the Nigerian Police Force, Power Holding Company (PHCN), the Nigerian Custom Service and Ministry of Education, (particularly tertiary institutions and educational bodies), are there most corrupt institutions in Nigeria.

In consonance with these promises, the government established the Independent Corruption Practices and Other Related Crimes Commission (ICPC) and the Economic and Financial Crime Commission (EFCC). The leadership of these Commissions, especially EFCC had demonstrated strong commitment to tackling financial crime, money laundering, and other economic misconduct.

These Commissions have apprehended many public servants and even political office holders. So far the EFCC has taken 400 cases to court and secured 150 convictions. Also, the Commission had prosecuted some former governors for alleged corruption and money laundering, and it goes on the trail of others for similar reason. Six governors already prosecuted include; Saminu Turaki of Jigawa state, for money laundering to the tune of N36 billion, Orji Uzor Kalu of Abia state for stealing about N3 billion, Jolly Nyame of Taraba state for embezzling N1.6 billion, Joshua Dariye of Plateau state for allegedly laundering of over N1.4 billion, Alesmesia of Bayelsa state for money laundering of over N6.billion and Chimaroke Nnamani for misappropriating N5.3 billion and \$2.3 million.

Although the EFCC has been accused of selective judgment, it has been able to put the fear of corruption into public office holders and public servant, that it is not business as usual. The Public Compliant Commission (popularly referred to as Ombudsman) has been popularly seen as a toothless bulldog as its activities are constrained by legal problems.

Apart from these Institutions, the government also set-up massive anti-corruption campaigns involving all public officials including the President. This is the first time Nigeria would have a rooted anti-corruption campaign. For now, corruption has been built into people's heart as wrong and should not be condoned in any human endeavours.

iii) Another mechanism put in place to instil discipline in the public service is the open and competitive tender arrangements for government contracts. This brought about the establishment of a due process mechanism to vet and eliminate sharp practices from government contracts.

Historically, the award of contracts in Nigeria has been perceived as lacking transparency. Inflated contract costs and processes that were closed, discretionary, and well-designed conduits for abuse of public power were systematic.

The Administration recognized that a piece – meal approach to remedying the process of competition for government contracts would be too incremental and not sufficiently far-reaching. It therefore, set up the Budget Monitoring and Price Intelligence Unit which began a process of contract award review, oversight and certification, commonly referred to as "due process". This simple mechanism certifies for public funding only projects that have passed the test of proper project implementation packaging. Through certification, value for money is returning as the fundamental premise of public expenditure. This has also gone a long way in reducing over-valuation of projects as well as over-invoicing.

Since its implementation five-years ago, it has introduced competition into the process of bidding for Federal Government contracts. By reviewing contracts, the Budget Monitoring and Price Intelligence Unit had saved the government huge sums, estimated at hundreds of millions of dollars. Also, several contracts

awarded by spending Units that failed to comply with open transactions, competitive bid parameters were revoked. Only recently, the sale of some refineries which was perceived as not being open and in compliance with Due-Process was revoked.

However, the Due- Process mechanism has been criticized for being too bureaucratic and as such lot of time is being wasted in the process. Also, the Due- Process is been politicised, as there is wide accusation that only the contractors who are favoured by the management of the funding Units or who are supporters or party members of the ruling party, often succeed in the bids. In other words, there is nothing like 'Due-Process', what we have is the 'Normal Process' in public procurement and award of government contracts. 'Normal Process' means business as usual.

iv) Another reform put in place by government was the rotation of public officers and increasing supervision on their activities. This has been effective as it reduces the tendency of an officer to want to lobby so as to remain in one particular department or ministry for long.

v) Redefining and redesigning processes to reduce delays was another reform put in place. Government activities are known to involve a lot of processes and procedures. The abuses of these processes and procedures by public servants have been a major constraint to effective service delivery. Government service delivery has been identified with all kinds of delays and re-tapism. One of the measures put in place was the establishment of SERVICOM CHARTER in the Office of the Secretary of the Government of the Federation (OSGF), Federal Government Ministries and Parastatals and other government agencies. SERVICOM is aimed at ensuring effective service delivery by the public service. The charter is the operational day to day document stating the overall service provisions, citizenship service entitlements and obligations. It is expected to promote enduring values, by which staff will play their parts as expected, so as to meet the social obligations of clients.

SERVICOM gives the client the opportunity to seek redress where or whenever service fails to meet expectation. The client is expected to lodge details or grievances with the Permanent Secretary or Heads of concerned office. Anonymous clients should make use of suggestion box. Also, a petition should be address to OSGF on the matter providing all necessary information that the office may require to facilitate timely processing of request/complaints.

SERVICOM work ethics, includes: no lateness to work, no closing before the closing time, no loitering in the corridors, staff must be on seat always, offices be kept clean, staff should be guided by the concept of prompt and efficient service delivery, dealing with colleagues and customers with respect, response to request from clients must be processed within five (5) working days, files must be treated within 48 hours and all matters pertaining to ad-hoc and other special assignments should be handled within the specified period. These ethics are expected to be followed by every public servant in discharging their day to day schedules or duties.

The SERVICOM Unit is expected to keep staff and customers informed through regular newsletter, posters, stickers and handbills. Also, a directory containing the telephone numbers, fax and e-mail addresses was compiled to assist staff and customers in establishing contact directly with relevant schedule officers to enhance efficiency and improve service delivery. This has not been done in many public agencies and parastatals, especially those outside FCT, Abuja. Also, the structure for the implementation of the charter is weak. Added to this, is the low level of awareness of what SERVICOM is all about among both clients and staff.

vi) Reducing the size of bureaucracy was another aspect of the reform. In view of this, some ministries, departments and agencies were restricted, i.e. Federal Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Federal Capital Territory, and National Planning Commission among others. The restructuring exercise involved mission and vision articulation, mandate review, personnel and payroll audit, process review, structure re-alignment, information systems applications, re-tooling and re-skimming.

vii) Apart from the restructuring of some ministries, departments and agencies, the public service work force was also right sized. This, it was hoped will free up resources, which will be directed towards reducing incentives for corruption by giving public servants higher wages, bonuses and more favourable working conditions.

As the public service staff strength has risen to absorb rapid growth in the labour force, the operations and management portion of budgets has grown much more slowly, not even keeping up with inflation. This situation invariably resulted in idle staff with no funds to carry out their functions and often in the siphoning of donor funds from the development budget to cover operations and management expenditures, hence the need to down size the public service.

Also, according to Adegroye, (OSGE Bulletin, 2006:29), Nigerian public service workforce is ageing, as such without right – sizing and bringing or injecting fresh blood into the system, the federal public service may collapse. To him, the problems of ageing workforce, succession crisis and poor graduate optimal age band, which a study of 20 ministries showed as common in the public service, are critical factors that could ruin what was left in the service.

According to the study, the ratio of graduates on (Grade level 08- 17) was less than 50 percent in 11 ministries out of the 20 ministries analysed and over 50 percent in nine ministries. The analysis further shows that while the total number of graduates is lower than 50 percent of the total number of officers across the grade level, a majority of the graduates are not in the age band that makes them agile for the assignments of their grade levels. The question is: how effective does one expect a 56 year old on GL 10 doing the work of Protocol Officer? Or what is the relative spine-off effect on the system, of the training given GL. 12 or 17 who is already 59 years old compared to that of Officers of optimal age bands on these grade levels. The report warned of dire consequences if the trend was not checked. The results may have serious implications for the quality of output and the productivity of public servants as well as the sustenance of the service itself.

On rightsizing, each ministry and other government parastatals and agencies were required to determine their staff needs and to state categorically, the number of staff required in the three categories, GL 01 – 06, 07 – 13 and 14 – 17 respectively and the number of staff in these categories to be redeployed. On downsizing, each Permanent Secretary or Heads of agencies or parastatals is expected to indicate staff recommended for disengagement from the service. Categorization into three classes is also to be followed strictly.

On the severance package, each ministry or parastatals was to work out the pension benefits of each staff that is to be disengaged, then add them together for each of the categories. Thus, no worker will be disengaged, unless the severance packages are ready.

The argument for public service downsizing was to reduce fiscal deficits and thus free up domestic resources for private sector and to reduce the effect of superfluous staff on management time and overhead costs. Although the former can be said to have been achieved, as staff duties like cleaner, messenger and security are no more the responsibility of government in any of its agencies or parastatals. These duties are now contracted out to the private sector. The latter however is yet to be achieved, as there is still high budget deficit and the recurrent expenditure in the country's annual budget is still very high despite the 70% achievement in the rationalization of staff in all the government ministries, parastatals and agencies.

Also, on the severances packages, many disengaged staff were not paid their entitlements immediately as specified in the reform. A recent case is that of Federal College of Education, Zaria where staff were laid-off without payment of their severance packages for three months. There is also problem of underestimation of the severance packages of the disengaged staff. This has caused untold hardship on these staff, especially the staff at the lower cadres like cleaners, messengers and security who were entirely laid-off. This is contrary to the spirit of the reform.

Another aspect of the reform was the establishment in the Presidency Office, a Policy and Programme Monitoring Unit to build a comprehensive policy database to follow up on all decision of the president and monitor programmes in all ministries and other governmental agencies. The activities of the Unit have not been very significant, due to dearth or lack of easy access to information on government programmes or activities in the various ministries and parastatals.

Monetisation of Fringe Benefits of Public Servants: Over the years, the cost of government has continued to rise, partly because of the in-kind benefits the government provides public servant as condition of service. These benefits which are largely a carry-over from the colonial era, these include highly subsidized accommodation, transport facilities, Chauffeur – driven cars (for the senior echelon of the service), free medical services, highly subsidized electricity, water, and telephone services, residential furniture, utility services among others. The cost of providing these amenities became so large that little was left for funding capital projects. The problem was compounded by the fact that these benefits were open to various abuses and misuse. As commented by the former President in his inaugural speech:

The cost of running government at all the various levels, currently gulp a disproportionate amount of our revenue. It is clear that the structure of government will have to be thoroughly re-examined in order to get a reasonable balance between overheads and recurrent expenditures and capital spending. (OSGF Bulletin 2006:4)

Therefore, the main consideration underlying the implementation of monetisation policy is the desire to reduce the pressure on public resources arising from government's involvement in physical provision of fringe benefits.

Although, much money has been saved by government in the implementation of monetization of fringe benefits, the implementation has been in piece-meal. This is contrary to the principles of the reform. The way and manner the money is being paid might not be of any meaningful benefit to the public servant as it could be spent like the usual monthly salary.

Another major problem of monetisation is that, some public servants (especially those at the top echelon) are still enjoying some of those benefits already monetised. Many top public officers still enjoys chauffeur – driven cars; some of them still use government money to maintain their official residence, etc. These have resulted to another extra-costs or burden on the government.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

For the government to play this role effectively a significant paradigm shift is needed in the public service, from the old orientation of control and checkmating, risk avoidance, personalising of government patronage and so forth, to the new orientation of efficient and timely delivery of services. This however, requires a disciplined, accountable and transparent public service.

As revealed in the paper, the public service before the advent of the Forth Republic (Obasanjo Regime) was characterized by indiscipline and corruption as laws and procedures guiding the day-today conduct of every public service were either set aside or ignored. Also, as revealed in the study, there was a systematic destruction of the public institutions and a total disregard for time tested procedure in the conduct of government business by the public service. Added, to this is corruption, which was the bane of inefficiency in the public service.

In view of this, the government came up with various reforms to curb indiscipline and to ensure a corrupt free public service. These reforms which are administrative and institutional in nature include extensive review of the Civil Service Rule which was renamed Public Service Rule (PSR) and Financial Regulations, to accommodate other reforms or initiatives of government in ensuring an effective and efficient workforce and service delivery. The other reforms are the creation of various anti-corruption laws and institutions, i.e. EFCC and ICPC, Due- Process, SERVICOM to avoid delay and ensure effective service delivery by public officials, reducing the size of bureaucracy through streamlining ministries and other government agencies and departments, downsizing the right sizing of public service, establishment of Policy and Programme Monitory Unit to monitor programmes in all ministries and government agencies and Monetization of Fringe Benefits of public servants to avoid cost and waste of resources.

These reforms in principle are sound in policy thrust and objectives. But as we can see, the effective implementation has been a mirage. Despite, its shortcoming, the reforms have succeeded in instilling the fear of repercussion of not abiding by the Rules and Procedures guiding the day-to-day operations of government and their conduct. At least, the average public servant is aware that, there are watch dogs monitoring their activities in and outside their workplaces. As such, behaving or doing anything funny or contrary might be very disastrous.

However, despite all these, there are still shortcomings concerning the implementation of these reforms. Therefore, decisive actions need to be taken to check these anomalies so that the objectives of these reforms can be achieved.

In view of this, the paper recommends the following

- A productive partnership should be forged between the public and private sectors with the public sector facilitating and the private sector committed to playing by the rules and delivering good quality and competitively priced goods and services.
- A mechanism should be put in place to ensure effective coordination and implementation of these reforms. There should also be a mechanism for effective monitoring and evaluation. If possible, the government should provide a time frame for assessing the effectiveness and successes or failures of these reforms.
- Added to this, there is the need for continuity and consistency in implementing these reforms.
- The Public Service Rule should be made accessible to every public servant and its thorough knowledge should also be major criteria for promotion in the public service. The Public Service Rule should also be made available for public consumption so that the public or clients can use it to judge the effectiveness of public servants.
- As part of greater awareness, the Public Service Rule (PSR) and Financial Regulation should be interpreted into the three major languages (Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba). Other states in the Federation should follow suit.
- The public service should be made less bureaucratic, less paperwork and fewer hurdles. Also, the government should create and enhance more conducive environment for public servants to be more committed and dedicated to duty.
- E-government should be vigorously pursued. This will reduce the normal daily contacts with clients. It will also reduce delays and tendencies to give or receive gratification. This is to ensure that public service meet up with the wave of globalization.
- Finally, in consonance with the principle of the Reinforcement theory which states that if behavioural response to a particular stimulus is rewarded, that response is more likely to be repeated, but if it is not rewarded or is punished, that response is less likely to be repeated. In view of this, the various reforms and measures put in place to ensure discipline in the public service should be vigorously pursued and implemented to the latter. Any deviation by government could be detrimental to the spirit of these reforms. Efforts should be intensified so that both states and local government imbibe these reforms.

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PARADOX OF 'WARNING STRIKE' IN STATE- SECTOR INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS IN NIGERIA

NDUKAEZE NWABUEZE (Ph.D)
Assoc. Professor, Dept of Sociology,
University of Lagos, Lagos,
Lagos State, Nigeria.
+234-803-350-7562;
nwabueze1955@yahoo.com

Abstract

Realities sometimes run counter to expectation. This is the case with warning strikes in Nigeria's state-sector industrial relations. Ideally, a warning strike is embarked upon by employees as a means of bringing the employer to favourable response and stave off prolonged, disruptive and economically costly strikes. In this paper, a comparative review of cases of warning strike in Nigeria's private and public sectors as well as in selected OECD countries in literature was undertaken. The finding is that in the OECD countries employers and employees take advantage of warning strike to prevent the 'mother strike'. Strikes are scarcely allowed to occur in the private sector in Nigeria and in the few cases that occur; parties take advantage of warning strike and strike ultimatum to engage in negotiation and conflict resolution. Contrary to the experience of the private sector, in Nigeria's state sector, warning strike constitutes 'opportunity lost'; workers frequently embark on warning strike but end up with the main strike because the potential for nipping disputes in the bud inherent in warning strike is neglected. Explanation for the behaviour differential lies in two factors. One is the contradictory status of the state as employer, party, regulator and adjudicator. Two is superiority complex suffered by state officials which hinders their readiness to engage in collective bargaining. While state officials must cure their status and attitude barriers, state officials and unions must cultivate attitude of mutual respect.

Keywords: warning strike, state-sector, mother strike, opportunity lost, superiority complex, contradictory status.

Introduction

All over the world, industrial strike still remains a universal response to perceived exploitation and injustice among employees in the work place. Despite that acclaimed universal utility, the concern for the cost of strike particularly among employers is unceasing. Efforts aimed at eliminating strikes altogether or at least reduce their economic and social cost remain a top priority in management and development studies. With respect to warning strikes, this paper has two aims. The first is to contribute to the continued search for workable antidotes against the disadvantages of industrial strike generally. The issues of concern in strikes relate to frequency of occurrence, length of time of work stoppage, loss in production and revenue and other costs involved. Second is to draw attention to the functional consequences of warning strikes as a tool of conflict containment which appears not to be generally unrecognized or carelessly ignored and to orient parties to trade disputes to tap into the opportunities inherent in warning strike to stem the tide of protracted strikes in the economy.

Industrial Strikes have had a long history of association with collective resistance to anti-labour and anti-people policies and actions of managements and governments all over the world. As far back as 14 November, 1152 BC, Wikipedia recorded a strike by artisans of the Royal Necropolis at Deir el – Medina in ancient Egypt under Pharaoh Ramses III. This is reputed to be the first known workers' uprising in recorded history. As was the case in this example, strike is seen as a mechanism to usher in social change and liberate from oppression those that are perceived to be suffering neglect, exploitation or discrimination. Quite expectedly, strikes have characteristically produced mixed reactions. It tends to stimulate enthusiasm, voluntarism and expectation of positive outcome on the part of those that embark on it. On the other hand, it tends to inspire resentment, opposition and resistance on the part of management and government, those against whom it is directed. This is however not the sense in which we have described it here as paradoxical. Those reactions can rightly be described as normal expectations because

those who will benefit from strike will be glad about it, while for management or government against whom the outcome might most likely be rising cost and dwindling profits, it will be unacceptable.

Experts have categorised strikes into several types. Each type is applied to a specific purpose and to achieve intended outcomes. The types include wild cat or unofficial strikes; picketing or refusing to work and preventing others from working by rallying outside the work-place; sit-down strike or attending work but refusing to work; work-in strike or attend work, work and refuse to be paid; work-to-rule, 'partial strike' or 'slow down' where workers works strictly according to the rules and instructions and no more even this strict adherent impedes productivity; sympathy strike or strike in support of or in solidarity with another set of striking workers; jurisdictional strike undertaken by a union to assert the right of its members to particular job assignment; and warning strike, the strike before an anticipated main strike. The last type is the subject of focus in this paper. Generically, any strike action including a warning strike may involve a combination of one or a few of these genres of strike depending on the outcome that is intended by the action or the surrounding circumstances.

Definition of Warning Strike

A warning strike is work stoppage by a union of workers that may last hours, days or weeks aimed at serving notice to the employer of a waiting main or longer strike action in the nearest future. A warning strike does not necessarily mean that the main strike is imminent or inevitable. Rather, it is conditional or subject to the failure to address the demands put forward by the workers that are issuing the threat. As can be seen in the definition of warning strike, there are distinguishing features that separate it from other types of strike. Those distinctive features go to the root of its peculiar nature and they are supposed to be reasons for which it should be seen and treated differently by all parties. For example, a warning strike is work stoppage alright, but it is futuristic and anticipatory in its focus and intent. It operates more as a shield rather than as a sword; it is a conflict management mechanism or an alternative dispute resolution devise of a sort. Best (2006) listed four features of ADR mechanism as non-violent, mutual satisfaction of parties, least expensive and post-settlement preservation of relations. A warning strike, if adequately harnessed, possesses these characteristics inherently. Those who call a warning strike do not intend an escalation of hostilities but desire amicable settlement, which is why they did not embark on the full-scale strike with its full complements in the first instance. Although a warning strike might be disruptive or costly, the emphasis is not on the immediate action or in the losses incurred at the immediate circumstances. Rather, emphasis is on the looming disruption, larger in proportion and longer lasting that the action is intended to avert or prevent. It is usually preceded by a due notice of action which is an intentional measure aimed at accentuating the warning strike's functional character in dispute resolution and restoration of industrial harmony. If the notice is harnessed even the warning strike itself may be avoidable.

Warning Strike as Opportunity Lost

The twin issues of paradox and the object which this paper addresses arises from the apparent consistent failure on the part of the employer (particularly government) to harness the qualities and potentials of warning strike in contemporary Nigerian labour scene. And so while intrinsically it might be intended by workers to operate as a tool of conflict containment, in reality it has helped very little to prevent possible out-break of industrial discontentment or its metamorphosis into open conflict or strike. It has done little to arrest the breakdown of industrial relations between government and the unions representing government employees. In a majority of cases, issues over which warning strikes are called have deteriorated to full-scale hostility. The paradox alluded to is linked with this disappointed expectation and its repeated failure to bring parties to terms of an amicable settlement without proceeding to the main strike action as threatened. The warning strike that is intended to be contained by the warning strike often occurs or, at any rate, eventually so. The object of this paper is to interrogate the situation in which such a potent mechanism as warning strike with its inherent high probability for conflict containment/management has instead consistently failed to stave off strike or restore industrial harmony between government and its employees. This is in spite of the huge confidence which the public workforce appears to repose on it. A two-pronged comparison of public-private sector and North-South economic divide analysis is attempted. This is to show the environmental and situational forces that account for the differing levels of successful application of warning strikes across those divides in arresting the deterioration of labour relations.

In many parts of the world, the law on trade disputes requires a union embarking on strike to give a definite and specified period of notice to the employer prior to the commencement of the strike. In many countries in Europe, at least 24-hour notice is required. Strike notice is however not the same thing as

strike ultimatum or warning strike. The notice requirement applies also to warning strike. Sometimes a union may issue an ultimatum of term of days or weeks requiring management to meet some demands failing which a strike action will commence. That action could be a warning strike. In this case, the ultimatum may serve as notice of warning strike action.

Government and Misappropriation of Warning Strike- Successes and Failures

Warning strikes became a strategy of frequent resort among trade unions in the Nigerian public sector from the turn of the new millennium in 2000. Before that date unions were used to issuing ultimatum to their employers. Ultimatum is still issued nowadays but it is an embellishment to warning strike because that concept is gradually falling out of fashion. The word 'ultimatum' as an approach to industrial grievance processing and its connotative emphasis on force, compulsion, and mandatory order has military connection having been devised largely under military rule. From about 1999 when the country returned to civil rule terminologies such as that might have been adjudged to be contextually inappropriate. Many other concepts popularly used under military rule but now discarded include 'immediate effect', 'task force', 'sole administrator', 'decree', 'ouster clause' etc. A few still survive though (including occasional reference to ultimatum) as relics of culture of militocracy. In the place of ultimatum, the concept and practice of warning strike has become generally more acceptable because of its relative civility and persuasive connotation as well as the undertone of readiness to negotiate. It blends more with the mood in an atmosphere that extols collective bargaining. Where it is used currently reference is to a time within which responses namely consultation, mediation, collective bargaining etc, are expected rather than a date from which drastic reaction is to follow. In a number of cases nowadays, after the expiration of the deadline, no serious reactions follow immediately because emphasis is on official readiness to bargain. In addition to the change in political context another factor that contributed to the preference of the concept and practice of warning strike is the apparent growing ineffectiveness of the orthodox methods of drawing the attention of the employer in the event of a declaration of industrial dispute. In that era lobbying, appealing, mediation, persuasive meetings, newspaper advertorials and feature articles to inform and educate the public etc, were used along with the issuance of ultimatum. (The first of the two Figures 'A' below illustrates the futile attempts by ASUU using those methods to persuade government to sign the 2000 Agreement while the second 'B' shows the failed efforts by the same Union to secure the reinstatement of the 49 University of Ilorin lecturers sacked by their employer for involvement in a national strike within a local strike). Such was the state of ineffectiveness of those approaches that an alternative approach was found in warning strikes. The figures are now indicating the failure of warning strikes.

FIGURE A

EFFORTS MADE BY ASUU TO PERSUADE GOVERNMENT TO SIGN THE AGREEMENT OF DECEMBER 18, 2000.

Between December 18, 2000 and today, ASUU has made strenuous efforts to persuade the FGN to sign the agreement as a matter of course. ASUU has been unsuccessful solely as a result of what has now become clear, on the part of government as dishonesty, total lack of integrity and unwillingness to appreciate the role of education in national development.

Let me mention some of the efforts made to persuade Government to see the need to sign that Agreement. Between December 18, 2000 and the end of January 2001, the union was in constant touch with the Chairman. Prof Ayo Banjo and some members of the Government Negotiation Team, urging them to persuade the Federal Government to conclude the negotiation process by signing the agreement.

JANUARY 27:

Letter to Prof. Ayo Banjo on the need to persuade Government to sign the agreement.

January 30:

Reply from Prof Banjo pleading for patience and promising that. Government was about to sign the agreement. During the same period a visit was paid to Alhaji Sule Katagum (a prominent member of government team) also to underline the need to sign the agreement at once. Alhaji Sule Katagum promised to get in touch with NUC Executive Secretary and Prof. Ayo Banjo and appealed for patience.

Further letters were written to Prof. Ayo Banjo and Alhaji Sule Katagum informing them of NEC'S decision to withhold action in deference to them.

A national press conference was organized to educate Nigerians on the potentially volatile problem. Our branches and zones addressed press conference and issued press statements on the dangers inherent in Government's failure and refusal to sign the agreement.

February 8:

ASUU-NEC issued a strong statement on the matter. Government was not moved.

February 12:

A letter was written to the new Minister of education detailing ASUU's perception to the problems of the university system including the need to sign that Agreement.

February 19:

A letter "Avoiding a Brewing Crisis....." was written to several individuals in the country urging them to intervene to persuade FGN to sign the agreement and save the system.

February 20:

Meeting with:

- Minister of Education, Speaker, House of Representatives
- Special Assistant to Head of Service
- Special Assistant to the Special Adviser to the President on Education.
- Informal meeting with Executive Secretary, NUC, a phone discussion with Special Adviser to the President on Education.

February 21:

Meeting with: Minister of Education

- Special Adviser to President on Education
- Repeat visit to Speaker of the House of representatives.

February 27:

Meeting with:

- ASSUU National Trustee, Alhaji Hassan Sunmonu
- Chairman, House Committee on Education
- Alhaji Sule Katagum.

February 28:

Meeting with

- Prof. Ayo Banjo
- Repeat Visit to Chairman, House Committee on Education

March 01:

Meeting with

- NLC President

March 02:

Contacts with Special Adviser to the President on Education.

Source: ASUU National Secretariat (2000) 'The case for separate salary scale for academics in Nigerian Universities', October, 2000.

FIGURE B

THE UNION'S EFFORTS TO PERSUADE GOVERNMENT TO REINSTATE THE 49 SACKED UNILORIN LECTURERS

Our Union has borne Government provocation and bad faith with equanimity and maturity. We have taken the following measures to ensure that the numerous violations of the Agreement are reversed.

On our sacked members at Unilorin:

* A court injunction was obtained by our branch at Unilorin to prevent the sack. This was ignored by Unilorin authorities.

* A communiqué was issued at the end of negotiations in June 2001 signed by both the Federal Government and ASUU calling for the reinstatement of our sacked members.

* A letter conveying a directive for the reinstatement of our members was sent to Unilorin by the NUC in June 2001.

Formal protest letters on the refusal of Unilorin authorities to reinstate our member at Unilorin were General Obasanjo. These were ignored.

* The FGN/ASUU implementation Committee has issued two reports both directing/recommending the reinstatement of our members. These have been ignored up to date.

* A Reconciliation Committee under the auspices of the NUC intervened and recommended the recall of our members. This was also ignored.

* The leadership of our Union had met with the Council of Unilorin to negotiate an amicable settlement. The Council and Administration of Unilorin frustrated this effort.

The Union has formally reported the matter to the Committee of Vice-Chancellors.

* We have appealed to numerous prominent individuals in the nation both in and out of Government who have in turn interceded with Government and Unilorin Authorities. No positive result was achieved. We have placed the matter continuously at the bar of public opinion; Public opinion which decidedly favours the recall of our members has been ignored.

* The central labour organ (NLC) and the national body of students (NANS) have made positive representations on the recall of our members. This has been rebuffed.

* We have presented the matter before the National Assembly-the House of Representatives and Senate.

* We have met, for the first time in the history of our Union, a sitting President of the nation on the matter of our sacked members and other aspects of violations of the Agreement. Instead of solving the problem all we got was presidential abuse.

* We have presented this matter to many relevant international organizations e.g. ILO, Human Rights Commission of the United Nations. Some of them have to our knowledge made representation to Government on the matter.

Source: ASUU National Secretariat, Statement issued by ASUU President, Dipo Fashina on 'The disruptive implications of the Federal Government's refusal to sign the FGN-ASUU Agreement of December 18, 2000', 15 October, 2002.

Essential Significance and Success of Warning Strike

Although warning strikes have recorded a few successes the tilt of the score card is on the negative side owing to the fact that more of failures than successes have been recorded against this approach in averting future crisis.

In terms of successes, experience shows that three sectors, namely oil, media and health have fared relatively better than others. For instance, early in July 2008, the Radio, Television and Theatre Arts and Allied Workers' Union of Nigeria (RATTAAWU) and the Nigerian Union of Journalists (NUJ) jointly issued a 21-day ultimatum to government to pay arrears of balance of monetization allowances to its members or face a full scale strike. In a few days within the period of the ultimatum the then Minister of Information and Tourism in whose portfolio the unions fell summoned a meeting of the executive of the aggrieved unions assuring them that there was no need for the proposed strike because the allowances were an obligation of government which it must pay. The main strike was thereby averted. The significance of the industry involved to government is however noteworthy in this uncharacteristically prompt and positive response. Only a few civilian governments in a multi-party political system can afford a show down with their radio and television workers without playing into the waiting hands of their opponents. Moreover, these media also function as the public propaganda machines of government as well as the means by which it engages the electorate and garners the legitimacy of civil society.

About the same time in 2008 precisely on June 21st the National Union of Petroleum, Natural Gas Junior Staff Workers issued a 21-day ultimatum to the government indicating that on Friday 11th July a full scale strike would ensue if the demands of the tanker drivers were not met. Government did not wait for the ultimatum to expire on the 11th of July but began preliminary consultations with the executive of the Union. Meanwhile petrol cues began to build up at filling stations apparently because tanker drivers had threatened to stop lifting products on the expiration date. Government intervened and the Union called off the strike on Sunday, 13th of July. Four days later on Tuesday 15th July, government began negotiation with the Union and the mother strike was shelved. Nationally, any threat by tanker drivers is viewed with seriousness because they remain the only lifters and distributors of petrol, diesel and kerosene all over the country. A single day disruption of the flow exposes the people to untold hardship and possible shut down of the economy. In fact pressure over their ultimatum is applied more from the court of public opinion than by the unions themselves. And so any threat of strike by any of the unions in the oil industry is treated with measured urgency by the government owing to the prime position that oil occupies among the sources of government revenue and the immediate massive socio-economic and political upheaval that will ensue from a nation-wide strike. And so the way government reacts to threat of strike by oil, media or medical workers is different from its response to other unions. Generally, therefore, it might seem that positive

responses such as this are few because in the government's reckoning there are just a few sectors of the economy that possess such essential significance.

Illustrations of Failure of Warning Strike

For instance, in 2007 two unions of professionals employed in the government sector embarked on separate strike actions by their respective unions. These were ASUU and the Nigeria Medical Association (NMA) under the government of President Yar' Adua. There was a marked difference in government reaction to these two unions although its usual delayed response was relived in both instances. The respective strike actions were preceded by 7-day warning strike. In both cases government kept quiet until the expiration of the warning strike and the main strikes commenced. In other words, the warning did not help to stave off the main strike in any of the cases. But the similarities ended there. By comparison, while the strike by lecturers lasted 13 weeks (March 26 – July 1st) the strike by medical doctors was allowed for only 2 weeks (Feb. 26 – March 10). Thus although the salutary role of the warning strike was lost in both cases, doctors secured more prompt response owing to the essential nature of the services which they render to the public, a status that education or teaching does not enjoy. The immediate cost of doctors' strike is counted in terms of number of deaths and no responsible government will play politics with a matter of life and death. Thus in the case of doctors' strike warning strike failed to deliver the motive intended by the union but the essential nature of its services came to their aid. While the case of NMA may be assessed as relative success the case of ASUU was an abysmal failure of warning strike.

The experience of ASUU in 2009 was a similar to 2007 a negative one. This was a strike embarked upon by the union to pressurize government to sign the collective agreement reached with government negotiators during two years (2006 – 2008) of re-negotiation of the 2001 agreement. Government refused to sign the agreement. However, before the strike began on June 22nd 2009, it was preceded by a two-week warning strike. The warning expired without any response from government and the main strike inevitably ensued. However, the 2009 agreement was signed on Wednesday 21st October and the strike was called off on Friday 23rd having lasted for 18 weeks which is about the normal span of a semester (Author's file).

Towards the end of the year in 2011, another case of failure of warning strike was recorded when ASUU again engaged the government over non-implementation of the 2009 agreement. Before that period, the executive of ASUU constantly reminded the government at every opportunity that the level of implementation of the agreement was not satisfactory. As usual there was no response from government. The Union resorted to a 7-day warning strike from 23-30 September, 2011. Still there was no answer. Consequently, the National Executive Committee of the Union rose from a meeting at the University of Port Harcourt and declared an immediate, total, comprehensive and indefinite strike beginning from midnight of December 4th 2011. The strike was not called off until 2nd February, 2012 clinching 8 weeks from the 2011/2012 school year in all government-owned universities.

Having cited those examples from ASUU some might observe that that behaviour is specific to ASUU-Government relations. However, two recent experiences of the Nigeria Labour Congress (NLC) and the Trade Union Congress (TUC) while adding to the mounting cases of disappointment with warning strike demonstrate that it is, instead, a common experience in the public sector. Both cases are related to the demand for increase in minimum wage for the Nigerian worker. Driven by the high cost of living, the NLC/TUC in 2008 made a demand for Fifty-two Thousand Two Hundred Naira (#52,200) national minimum wage from government. The federal government agreed and set up a negotiating team comprising of federal and state governments, labour and the organized private sector. The negotiating team was chaired by former Chief Justice of the Federation, Alfa Belgore. The team completed its assignment in April 2010 and recommended #18,000. The NLC/TUC patriotically accepted though pointing out that that amount was far too inadequate to ensure basic sustenance for the average worker and his family. The team also drafted a Minimum Wage Bill which was to be sent by government to the National Assembly so that implementation could begin. But many months passed and government refused to send the Bill to the Assembly. Meanwhile, the National Assembly had indicated to Labour that it will give the Bill accelerated passage once the Executive presents it. In order to press home its demand, the NLC and TUC stated that:

Since Government does not want Nigerian workers to have better minimum wage and higher salaries, the NLC has directed that a nation-wide warning strike should hold from Wednesday 10th to Friday 12th November, 2010 (NLC/TUC, 2010).

This strike threat came and went without government doing anything over the Minimum Wage Bill. However, the Bill was belatedly sent to the Assembly which passed it rather promptly. The Bill received the accent of the President and it became law in late March, 2011 almost a year later (Author's file).

As if the trouble with the Minimum Wage was not yet enough, from the date of signing the Bill into an Act the trouble of its implementation began. Even though the State Governments were represented in the negotiation they refused to implement alleging insufficiency of fund. They demanded removal of petrol subsidy as a pre-condition being a source from where they could generate additional funds. Even the Federal government failed to implement the new law among its employees. Futile meetings, issuance of impossible conditions, bureaucratic acrobatics and summersaults and negotiations without headway took the better part of the next four months. Meanwhile the workers became restive and impatient. On 30th June 2011, the NLC and the TUC gave a two-week ultimatum to states and Federal Government to start immediate implementation of the new national minimum wage or face a total nationwide strike at the end of the ultimatum. The two-week ultimatum expired on 13th July. The NLC/TUC then approved a 3-day national warning strike beginning on Wednesday 20th July 2011 to press for the full implementation of the minimum wage by the Federal and State Governments. ASUU joined to observe this order but all to no avail. The Minister of Labour at the time put up an argument that the new minimum wage was not a general salary increase and so rather than being a comprehensive upward review of the wage structure of the public service, the new table provided only marginal increases in the salaries of Grade Levels 1-6. This interpretation caused major misunderstanding between labour and government which stalled further processing of the wage increase up until the New Year, 2012.

The case of the Nigerian Union of Teachers (NUT) was not remarkably different. On the 28th of May 2008 NUT gave a 20-day ultimatum to government to commence implementation of the Teachers' Salary Scale or face a main strike. To assist the process, on 11th June the Union backed the ultimatum up with a 3-day warning strike. Both the ultimatum and the warning strike came to an end without any response by the government. The main strike began on the 30th of June. The main strike was called off by the union without any definite achievement on 29th July. Therefore it lasted for 5 fruitless weeks (Author's file). Again the warning strike and the ultimatum could not avert the ultimate happening of the mother strike. Several more examples of failed warning strikes can be cited in the country's public labour relations scene but the point has been made and citing more examples is considered unnecessary. An explanation of this pattern of behaviour is attempted at the end of this paper.

Sectoral Distribution of Warning Strikes

Experiences documented in literature indicate a disproportional prevalence of warning strikes in Nigeria's public sector in the last decade. In this period, warning strike crept into prominent status as a grievance processing device, although a preponderance of occurrences has been in the government rather than private sector of the economy. Unions of government employees it would appear have been more active in collective bargaining and strike action than their private sector counterparts. The education sector has been very vibrant in this regard particularly the tertiary levels where university academic and other unions have become synonymous with regular boycott of services. The Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) as recent as September 23 – 26, 2011 embarked on a warning strike in protest against non-implementation of the 2009 Agreement with the government. The three other University unions namely: Senior Staff Association of Nigerian Universities (SSANU), Non-Academic Staff Union (NASU) representing the junior staff and National Association of Academic Technologists (NAAT) in 13 South-South Universities embarked on a one-week warning strike for similar purpose, that is, to call government to implement the 2009 agreement as it concerns them from October 25, 2010. Having not achieved their aim, the national bodies of these three unions re-enacted another one-week warning strike starting on Monday, 3rd October 2011, demanded in addition, implementation of the extension of the retiring age from 60 to 65 years. The threat of impending warning strike by the executives of these unions was widely reported in November of the same year. The Nigerian Union of Teachers (NUT) began a 3-day warning strike on June 11, 2008 over Teacher's Salary Scale. The public sector chapters of Radio, Television, Theatre Arts and Allied Workers Union (RATTAAWU) and the Nigerian Union of Journalists (NUJ) early in July 2008 issued a 21-day ultimatum to government within which time it should pay arrears of balance of monetization allowance to its members or face a full-scale strike (Author's file). Still in the public sector, Ogun State Chapter of the Nigeria Labour Congress NLC embarked on a 7-day warning strike from October 13, 2011 to press home civil servants' demand for reversal of the 300% income tax hike. It was also intended to make the

government of the State to make a pronouncement on when it would pay the N8.5 billion it owed members in unremitted pension deductions. In a comparable situation, laboratory scientists of the Association of Medical Laboratory Scientists of Nigeria, Anambra State Branch observed a 5-day work-to-rule from November 17, 2011 over government refusal to implement an agreed scheme of service. Similarly, oil workers represented by their unions, the National Union of Petroleum and Natural Gas Senior Staff Association of Nigeria (PENGASSAN) and National Union of Petroleum and Gas Workers (NUPENG), began a 3-day warning strike over perceived insecurity (killings and kidnap) of their members in Delta State operational facilities on October 10, 2011. The Unions resolved that if the ill complained about persisted after the warning strike, they will be left with no other option than an indefinite strike action. Although these unions cover private as well as public sector workers in the industry, strike by tanker drivers or oil workers generally as in the extant case are a lot of the time targeted on government rather than the private sector operators. The list of public sector warning strikes is much longer than we have been able to present here. And the assumption is that there are features in the character of state employment which renders the sector more strike prone. It is also analytically useful to mention that in recent decades one of the de-industrialization effects on the economy is to shrink the volume of private sector workers thus tilting the private labour market into the buyer's rather than the seller's market. (More will be said on this later in this paper). The general observation is that because of the apparent glut in the labour market, the bargaining power of unions in the private sector arm of the economy has been severely whittled down. By comparison, information in literature from the West presents a more balanced strength of public and private sector trade unions. The experience may not be two different in the other de-industrializing economies in Africa. For instance, the entry for Kenya is about Kenyan university lecturers who under the auspices of Universities Academic Staff Union (UASU) embarked on a warning strike on Friday, 11th November 2011 over a new pay structure and allowances for members¹⁴ The experience from the industrialized economies presents a different structure. Unions representing employees in the public as well as those in private employment are calling out their members on warning strike. For instance, the union representing grocery workers in San Diego Area, California called workers in three stores – Alberstons, Vons and Ralphs on a warning strike at the expiration of a 72-hour ultimatum. The same unions were part of an earlier 141-day strike in 2003-4 which reportedly cost the stores US\$1.5billion¹⁵ An Austrian private sector experience is worthy of mention here too. The International Federation of Chemical, Energy, Mines and General Workers Union; an Austrian Affiliate, PRO-GE and GPA djp representing salaried employees in Print, Journalism and Paper Union, on October 12, 2011 called out its members on a 1 – 3 hour warning strike. The grouse was what they described as the 2011 wage package. Some 300 Austrian employers had a taste of the reaction of the Metal workers.¹⁶ Something similar to this happened among German steelworkers. Here, the International Metalworkers Federation, IG Metall carried out a 2-hour warning strike in North-Rhine, Westphalia, Lower Saxony and Bremen about the middle of November 2011. Steelworkers all over the county took turns to observe the directive within the days stipulated. Their demand among others included a pay raise of 7% for the 75,000 steelworkers in the German states.¹⁷ The case of German workers in the US bases in Germany is a mixed bag of private citizens working in a foreign state agency in their own country. The warning strike was called from the start of the working day to noon to support their demand for a 5% increase in salary. The offer of a one-time 300 euro payment per person in the 2011 and 2012 fiscal years was said to be unacceptable.¹⁸ In another German private sector case, a 3-hour warning strike by members of Union NGG against Kraft Foods Management in Berlin on April 27, 2011 helped to secure a wage agreement for the workers.¹⁹ The warning strike was also found attractive in another private works in Munich, Germany. In this case,

¹ Wikipedia, the Free Encyclopaedia, 'Strike Action' accessed December 11, 2012

¹⁴ 'Kenyan Universities Lecturers embark on Warning Strike as talks collapse' www.verdantchronicles.com accessed 19/11/2011

¹⁵ 'Grocery workers give Stores the 72-hour warning' www.cbs8.com accessed 19/11/2011

¹⁶ 'Wage shame drives Austrian Metal Workers into Warning Strike' www.icem.org/en/5-Mining-DGOJP/4719 accessed 18/11/2011

¹⁷ 'Warning strikes in German Steelworks' www.imfmetal.org/index.cfm?c=28143 accessed on 18/11/2011

¹⁸ 'Warning strike brings improved wages at Kraft Foods' cms.iuf.org/?q=node1957 accessed 14/06/2011

¹⁹ 'German union conducting warning strikes at US bases' www.stripes.com/news/europe/germany accessed 8/6/2011

employees of Infineon, the German semi-conductors giant staged a warning strike on Thursday September 30, 2005. Their grievance was a plan by management to close the group's factory in Munich-Perlach which would result in lay-off of some of its members. They might not have achieved their aim but they had the courage to pressurize government.²⁰

Still in Berlin, Germany, a Saturday morning wildcat warning strike in May 17, 2011 by EasyJet flight crew (110 pilots and 240 cabin staff) under the union, ver.di was intended to pressurize EasyJet to reach an agreement on pay rise. It was reported that the same union had staged another warning strike earlier in April of the same year.²¹ In other words, in the West, warning strike appears to have remained a well sought after tool of organized private sector in spite of the global strain and stress in the economy arising from the global depression also known as financial meltdown

Also, within Western economies the public sector has had a fair experience of warning strike giving rise to a better balance than the case in the developing economies. The first example is the warning strike embarked upon by GA United at Southern Illinois University Carbondale, USA. The interest in this illustration goes beyond its being a public sector example. In some parts of the world including Nigeria, graduate assistants are provisional staff and not tenured staff and cannot therefore join or form a trade union. In the extant case, GAs are combining to advance their unique position and interests just the same way that confirmed staff are doing in other societies.²² In Israel, medical doctors in state-run general public hospitals, geriatric and psychiatric medical centres called a 2-day work-to-rule warning strike from 4 – 6 April, 2011. The Doctors had a full bag of grievances particularly what they described as public sector pay disparity with comparable position to the doctors' which the Israeli Medical Association was poised to redress through the strike action.²³ On October 11, 2011, the DFS Air Traffic Services Agency suffered a warning strike by GDF Union. The DFS had about 6,000 employees, coordinating about 10,000 flights a day making Germany's skies the busiest in Europe. It was over pay and working conditions and the threat of warning strike was aimed at sending unequivocal message to DFS over the workers determination to go extra mile to achieve their demands.²⁴

The British example is worth recalling. In October 2011, millions of public sector employees balloted over whether or not their union will take part in a 'day of action' which was to begin on November 30, 2011 in protest over pension reform. Nurses, Midwives, teachers, civil servants, university teachers, immigration and customs officers etc were all mobilized to join the 24-hour protest strike.²⁵ While the UK example concerns the civil and public servants generally, the Hungarian case involved pilots and flight attendants of the Hungarian airline company, Melev the staff of which staged a 2-hour warning strike on 19 March, 2011 to put pressure on the management over an agreement for more favourable rest hours; 14 instead of the 12 after-hours-of-work European Union minimum rules.²⁶ The German public services experienced a one-day warning strike on January 29, by rail workers under the auspices of Transnet and GDBA which together represent 130,000 rail workers across several German cities.

The examples indicate that in the strong economies of Europe and America, warning strikes are as much a potent tool of grievance settlement in the private as well as in the public sector. The experience by distinction is that in Africa and Nigeria in particular a preponderance of cases of warning strike occurs in state-sector institutions. In the West, the private sector has expanded, deepened and consolidated its

²⁰ 'Infineon employees stage warning strike' www.prime-tass.com/news accessed 17/05/2011

²¹ 'EasyJet flight crew warning strike disrupts Berlin service' atmonline.com/operations/maintenance/news accessed 17/05/2011

²² 'Graduate Assistants United at Southern Illinois University, Carbondale' www.gaunited.org/2011/10/21/strike-warning-10/ accessed 18/11/2011

²³ Even, Dan (2011) 'Israeli doctors declare warning strike for first time in a decade' www.haaretz.com/print-edition/news accessed 17/11/2011

²⁴ 'Air traffic strike chaos warning' news.uk.msn.com/world/air-traffic-strike-chaos-warning accessed 17/11/2011.

²⁵ Santry, Charlotte (2011) 'UNISON launching legal action against NMC over strike warning' www.bbc.co.uk/news/uk-13953678 accessed 16/11/2011

²⁶ 'Hungary – warning strike at Malev', www.reuters.com/article/2009/01/29/germany-strike-idUSLT13779720090129 accessed 18/11/2011.

dominance in the productive and service sectors of the economy. Whereas in the developing world the state apart from being the single largest employer of labour is also the relatively more stable, dominant and more active segment of the economy than the private sector. In the specific case of Nigeria, hostile investment environment made up of corrupt public officials, epileptic socio-economic infrastructure, high cost of energy and unstable electric power, frequent change of sector-related policies are among factors that have led to the contraction of the private sector. This is an effect aptly described as de-industrialization. The process has severely affected the strength of the trade unions and the bargaining power of organized labour in the private sector.

The Objects of Warning Strike

The purposes fought by means of warning strike by workers all over are diverse but constitute mainly of matters connected to the terms and conditions of employment of workers. In Africa, Europe or America examples show that strikes are presaged by mass disaffection and discontentment among union members and the actions of the executives of the unions are often a derivative of the pressure mounted by members on the elected executive to find a solution to the issues of concern and in dispute.

For instance, ASUU's warning strike of September 25, 2011 was aimed at bringing the Federal and State Governments of Nigeria, their employers, to implement the neglected segments of their 2009 collective agreement. The observation was that while government quickly met the wage raise component of the agreement, ostensibly to pacify the lecturers, a substantial part of the agreement on terms and conditions was left unattended two years after as at the date of that strike. The Union, in February 2011, in a paid advertorial as part of the build up to the strike, sought public understanding and sympathy listing the neglected parts of the collective agreement. The Union reminded the public that the re-negotiated agreement of 2009 was delayed for four years as the 2001 agreement was expected to have been reviewed in 2006. There was also complaint about the serious horse-trading by government between the time of reaching consensus and eventual signing of the document into collective agreement in 2009. Government refused to sign adopting such delay tactics as arguing that it could not sign to bind state governments and substantial part of the four-year loss was on that account. Chief among the unimplemented agreement which led to the warning strike are: amendment of the Universities (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act and the Pensions Reform Act to raise retirement of the professor from 65 to 70 years; increase in budgetary allocation to Education with an eye on the UNESCO bench mark of 26% of total annual budget (Education share of annual 2011 Federal budget is as low as 5%); major funding provisions, review of some laws e.g Joint Admissions and Matriculations Board Act, National Universities Commission Act etc; and the Earned Allowance component of the agreement etc.

About the NUT, the quest for a separate Teacher's salary Scale was the bone of contention. For SSANU, NASU and NAAT, their object was similar to the ASUU cause, namely to bring the government to implement the contents of their 2009 agreement with the Unions. As was observed in the case of ASUU only partial and selective implementation was done by the government and the members felt that it would be circumlocutory to commence another negotiation on the implementation of collectively negotiated and signed agreements. It was surmised that what needed to be done was to 'force' government to honour its part of the contract particularly as President Jonathan following his boss, President Yar'Adua under whom he served earlier as Vice-president, undertook to protect the rule of law during his tenure. For Ogun State Chapter of the Nigeria Labour Congress, their 7-day warning strike was directed as lifting the burden of 300% income tax hike by the new government of Governor Ibikunle Amosun. They did not forget to include in their baggage of demands a call for the Governor to indicate when he will pay the N8.5billion owed workers in deducted but unremitted pension contributions. The oil unions, NUPENG and PENGASSAN were poised to guarantee the security of their members against killing and kidnapping that was said to be rampant among oil workers in Delta State at the time. The strike by NLC (National) was to press home the union's quest for the implementation of the 18,000 naira national minimum wage which was the subject of an earlier collective agreement with government. The Laboratory scientists struck in protest over the refusal of the authorities to implement what they called 'the scheme of service and the law' as they affect medical laboratory science practice in the country (Author's file).

Examples from other African countries, Europe and America show substantial convergence in all continents on the objects of warning strikes. For instance the strike by UASU, representing Kenyan University lecturers in November 2011 had several 'bread and butter' issues in its contemplation. They wanted the government of Kenya to implement a new salary scale that was expected to double the basic

pay of lecturers and improve their allowances. By this increase, their intention was to eliminate discrimination that made university teaching non-attractive. They wanted pay parity with their counterparts in the public service. Key among other demands were medical insurance, leave and book allowance. Broad-based dissatisfaction with the terms and conditions of university teaching can be gleaned from these demands. There isn't any difference between this and the European experience. The Austrian Metalworkers struck in furtherance of their demand for increased wages. German steelworkers envisaged a 7% pay-rise for the 75,000 strong union members. In addition, they were asking that trainees be given permanent status as workers rather than as temporary staff while older employees were allowed to work part-time. It is cost effective for the employer to exploit new employees as untenured staff while working the fewer old and experienced hands beyond their health limits because they were more productive and require less supervision and generate less wastage at work. But the Unions were, on the other-hand considering the welfare of members which needed to be balanced with profit of the management. Members of the Israeli Medical Association had a full bag of issues behind their two-day strike in April 2011. The Chairman of the Association, Dr. Leonard Eidelman informed that the strike was intended to make the Ministry of Finance more flexible and less rigid in negotiations. They wanted pay rise, pension fund, and financial incentive for those working in rural areas or in understaffed fields such as neo-natology and paediatric oncology and increase in average time to see a patient from the current 10 minutes to 12 – 15 minutes etc. There was also demand for increased average consultation time per patient. It was argued that this would improve diagnostic accuracy and prognostic effectiveness which was in the interest of the patient and the Israeli medical service generally. The Ministry of Finance was however concerned with the cost implication of these innovations to the government. The core ideological issue was that of balancing the competing demands on government and the scale of priority of health issues to the government. The German air traffic workers' strike in October 2011 was over pay and working conditions. Union and management accepted a 5.2% pay rise by arbitration but the union wanted more members to be promoted faster and this led to break down of negotiation and the strike. Both higher wages and promotion are key aspects of workers' welfare and the air traffic workers were here behaving true to type. The Union of German workers in US bases in Bamberg laid down their tools for 6 hours in support of their demand for a 5% pay increase in June, 2011. This union's action introduced another dimension to the objects of strike. They rejected a unilateral one-time 300 euro payment per person in the next two fiscal years opting instead for negotiated agreement rather than unilateral award. That is to underscore the point that the process by which agreement is reached is as important as the agreement itself and workers are adept at protecting their cherished rights to negotiate, dissent, compromise and agreement. The 24-hour UK public and civil servants planned for November 30, 2011 was a protest over pension reform. Government planned to scrap final salary pension, to raise the retirement age and increase employee contributions. While the negotiations were on-going, the one-day action was intended to send a clear, unified message to the authorities that workers reject the proposals. In Berlin, the Jacobs Coffee Factory warning strike led to wage raise in June 2011 while the March 19, 2011 episode involving the Hungarian Malev Airline Company was not for wages but to put pressure on the management to increase the rest hours between end of one flight operation and the commencement of another beyond the existing 12-hour rule. The EasyJet flight crew strike of May, 2011 was over pay rise. Infineon employees in Munich in September 2005 struck to prevent management from closing down some facilities that would lead to lay-off of some members. In a similar vein CGIL Federation, the Italian left wing trade union struck in protest over the failure of President Berlusconi's government to indicate how it intended to cut its budget deficit as demanded by the European Central Bank. This was a pre-emptive move aimed at sending a clear message to the government that the working population was waiting for the policy and it was good notice for government to roll into the package a clear cushion against unmitigated hardship for workers.

The two examples from America and one from Australia display similar objects as above. GA United in Southern Illinois University aimed to secure the contract and working conditions of graduate assistants. The union of grocery store workers for Albertsons, Vons and Ralphs in San Diego County struck to reverse the situation, in which some 62,000 union members had been without contract renewal since March, 2011. The strike was meant to put pressure on the management to get these technically laid-off members back to work. The example from Oceania's Australia involving Qantas' 3,800 baggage handlers, catering, freight and ground staff in September 2011 was for, among other demands, better pay and working conditions of service.

To sum up for this segment, pay, promotion, pension, allowances, leave, security of tenure, the right to bargain, working incentives, retirement protection, cost of living, etc are the common grounds across all the continents upon which workers threaten and carry out warning strikes.

Strike Interest and Disproportional Concern for Cost

Warning strikes involve costs and benefits. The interest of public or private employers is often drawn to the losses incurred during the period of a strike. Hardly do people spare any thought on the gains of strike. In Nigeria the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) routinely estimates the monetary value of economic activity 'lost' during any national strike. For example, of the 8-day national strike and protests that occurred from Monday, 9 January 2012 till Monday 16 January 2012, the NBS estimated the cost at N207.4billion. This was a strike called to register the discontentment of the citizens over the withdrawal of official subsidy by the Federal government on the price of petrol imported into the country. Another source, US TODAY, January 18, 2012 estimated the loss at US\$1.3b. Three sectors of the national economy were most severely affected. These include the Whole Sale and Retail Trade, Crude Petroleum and Natural Gas and Crop Production sectors. These sectors lost N86.9 billion, N28.7 billion and N15.2 billion representing 42%, 14% and 7% of the total losses respectively.

It would have been illuminating to estimate the loss from the transport sector which might also have incurred substantial losses given the restriction of movement during the entire period. Sometimes, in addition to economic losses other costs may be involved. Where the protests assumed a violent dimension human lives and loss of property may also accompany the economic losses. If medical doctors are involved in the withdrawal of services, death toll would most probably rise in the hospitals and generally among those in the population that might be unfortunate to be ill at that time. The concern for the cost of strikes is often aimed at fuelling the propaganda against strike action. It is rare to have people discuss the gains or benefits of strike. It is taken for granted that strikes are generally wasteful and hardly ever beneficial. For instance in the strike case cited above no mention was made of the eventual return of the pump price of petrol to N97.00 down from N140.00. Similarly, while estimating the period of purposeful academic activities - lectures, research, and ancillary academic activities lost during the ASUU strike which was on before the subsidy strike and which continued during and after that strike, analysts are quick to forget the realisation of the 70 year retirement age which the Senate quickly passed in its bid to find a way out of that strike. It will be advisable to factor into the cost-benefit analysis of that strike the other positive gains such as the concessions wrested from government in meeting the demands of the Union. Such a balanced approach will help to correct the traditional habit of seeing only the down side of strikes.

Employer Reluctance and Inevitability of Warning Strike

In all the examples investigated three factors are the recurrent correlates of warning strikes across the continents. These are:

- (i) Refusal to commence or continue negotiation or re-enter negotiation;
- (ii) Refusal to sign agreements reached; and
- (iii) Reluctance to implement the terms and contents of collective agreements by employers.

In most cases, it is the reaction of management or government that precipitates rebelliousness across the ranks of organized labour. Starting from home university-based unions, that is, ASUU, SSANU, NAAT and NASU hinge their call for warning strike on what they call undue delay and lack of interest of the authorities in implementing the agreement they freely entered into. The reaction of the Vice chancellor of the University of Abuja, Prof. James Adelabu depicts the typical provocative reaction of the authorities. He described ASUU strike as 'unwarranted' and gave three reasons for his view, one, the strike will cause 'unnecessary' distortion of the academic programmes of universities. Two, it will disturb the relative industrial peace in the institutions and (iii) the Federal government and most universities have responded positively to ASUU demands. The mark of positive response in his university is that salaries are paid promptly. This is an example of One-sided perception of the strike. His concern was for government but spared no time to consider any specific unimplemented agreement as listed earlier in this paper. Such comments provoke violent reaction and in such cases silence could have been wiser if speech was not going to balance conflicting interests. There were several instances in the past when ASUU blamed the decision to go on strike, among other reasons, on the apparent official lethargy to accede to its demands. On Sunday, December 4, 2011, ASUU embarked on a 'total, comprehensive and indefinite strike' following the failure of the earlier 7-day warning strike to elicit positive response from government. Lethargy among employers is a constant and recurrent predisposing factor in warning strikes in both public

and private sector enterprises. For example, on the San Diego grocery stores strike, United Foods and Commercial Workers observed that they went into negotiation to keep the profits of their employers and also protect members' jobs but that they got more of what they described as 'same stonewall from management'. The workers further blamed management for unwillingness to compromise as it was more concerned about 'hoarding their billions in profits than reaching a fair deal for their employees'. The case of Kenyan University lecturers was a higher stone wall of government response. Government was definite in its response absolving itself from blame among other reasons for lack of funds, involvement in war with Al-Shabaab extremists in neighbouring Somalia and surreptitiously accused UASU of lack of patriotism. Workers of Ogun State public service resolved to go on strike, as they rationalized that they have had several dialogue with government without any positive result. Oil workers in Delta State embarked on the 3-day warning strike from October 10, 2011 because 'it was becoming worrisome', they petitioned, 'that our recurring calls on the government at various levels and agencies to discuss and resolve the myriad of killings and kidnappings facing the state had proved abortive'. Frustration and disappointment are therefore enabling ground factors in warning strike. The 3-day NLC/TUC warning strike of July 20, 2011 followed hopelessness and despair among workers following several months of fruitless negotiations, failure to continue with negotiations and blatant refusal by some states to implement the Minimum Wage Act, 2011 even though it was a Federal legislation. The Israeli Medical Association resorted to warning strike after over 8 months of fruitless negotiation with government for better working condition for members. The Association reasoned that such an action might make the Ministry of Finance more flexible or less rigid. German workers in US bases in Germany called warning strike as following-up to collective deadlock and breakdown of negotiation. Some warning strikes are intended to stave off imminent hardship. In this regard, Infineon employees in Munich, Germany staged a warning strike to prevent management from closing the group's factory in the town, which would lead to loss of jobs for some members. Austrian metalworkers went on strike 'after second round bargaining on 12 October 2011 failed to close pay differences'. Warning strikes or perhaps strikes generally tend to be invariably employer-instigated and employee executed.

When all these factors are superficially analysed, the *prima facie* conclusion is that while workers and their unions sue for industrial peace, employers through negligence or outright greed and insensitivity condone labour conflicts and strikes. Strikes indeed manifest the diametrically opposing divides of interests in the work place between the employer and the worker. Karl Marx and the disciples of Marxism have shed sufficient light on the subject via the doctrines of dialectical materialism, class antagonism, alienation and revolutionary change under the capitalist mode of production and socio-economic relations. In the workplace, the conflict between capital and labour has been rather crudely explained by the theory that what capital loses is labour's gain and vice versa. In other words, the more capital pays out to labour's demands, the higher will be the cost and the lower the profit margin. If this fundamental divergence of interest was to stop there the implication for inter-class conflict would be minimal. But when this dichotomy is read together with Marx's notion of separation of labour from labour's product, one of the four dimensions of alienation, the implication assumes a fractional and caustic dimension for labour-capital relations. The introduction of this dimension suggests that labour-capital contest is not limited to the preservation or reduction of profit. The idea that:

The more the workers spends on himself, the more powerful the alien object would become, which he creates over-against himself, the poorer he himself – his inner world, becomes the less belongs to him as his own (The Economic and Philosophic Manuscript p.72)

On the implication of this for alienation of labour, Marx continues.....

.... the more the worker produces, the less he has to consume, the more value he creates, the more valueless, the more unworthy he becomes; the better formed his product, the more deformed becomes the worker; the more civilized his object, the more barbarous becomes the worker (The Economic and Philosophic Manuscript p.73)

Although there is a lot in contemporary existence to justify the idea that hard work pays and greater effort begets better reward, an apparent contradiction to Marx, there appears to be a sublime universal concern among workers all over the world that unless and until management is pushed, forced and shaken it might not, out of its own volition and to the satisfaction of workers agree to reduce its profits and increase benefits accruing to labour. This is like an affirmation of the Marxist doctrine of harder work begetting less benefit to the worker. The other side of the story though is that management has more than labour's

demands to contend with. It must in addition contend with raw materials, clients, sales, the regulatory authorities, the laws guiding production, shareholders, community responsibilities where it is located, security, costs, creditors and debtors, physical assets, administration, survival, orderly change and profits. In other words, labour and the applicable terms and conditions are very significant responsibility of management but it is not the total picture of the gamut of its concerns which add up to a higher total cost. Management, like government, has a huge responsibility of balancing out the competing demands and interests of the innumerable constituencies. The idea is that what labour perceives as neglect, lethargy or greed may sometimes be a fall-out of the error of balancing out and resolving conflicting interests in the workplace and in society. It might indeed be a decision making disequilibrium rather than contempt for the work force. By extension, refusal to negotiate, to sign or implement collective agreements might in some cases not be owing to greed or insensitivity but to the considered outcome of the implications of the exercise for organization survival, competitiveness and goal attainment.

Why Warning Strikes fail in Nigeria's Public Sector

Why the state authorities in Nigeria do not take advantage of the window of opportunity provided by aggrieved workers through warning strike to stave off impending protracted strikes is not easy to understand. Two factors are adduced.

The first is the role conflict facing the state as employer, party, regulator and adjudicator of industrial relations matters. It also has the duty to manage the economic and political affairs of the country in addition to labour relations. Sometimes the state is perceived as giving out conflicting cues by unions with which they are involved in dispute or negotiation. Beyond meeting the demands of the workers, the state has a lot of other contending obligations, sometimes even more compelling, which may make it unable to behave as expected in its status as a party to an industrial dispute. For example, in its perennial dispute with ASUU, government continues to blame its inability to meet its obligations in the collective agreement on shortage of funds as there are a number of other contending needs. Government often canvases that even the entire annual budget of the whole country will not be enough to transform the Nigerian university to a state that will be satisfactory to the Union. Being party, regulator and adjudicator sometimes results in mistrust over the genuineness of the intention of government action. For instance, Nwabueze (2006) construed the Trade Union Amendment Act, 2005 as the climax of bourgeois scheming for power. Trade unions saw the legislation as a ploy to weaken rather than empower organized labour. There is wide suspicion over transparency of state action and this also accounts for the recurrence of trade disputes in the state sector. Thus, government officials shun warning strike because they erroneously imagine that government is a sovereign authority and so become undemocratic, high handed, biased and domineering in their reaction to strike action. Strike is thereby interpreted as a challenge to the basic authority of the state and must be crushed, and discouraged rather than be encouraged or institutionalised.

Secondly, there is hardly any doubt that the Nigerian state is traumatized and harassed and its sovereignty openly challenged by internal religious and ethnic strife at present. With the Amnesty Programme for Niger Delta militants it was as if it had found the antidote to that source of armed attacks. But by the new surge of violence in Bayelsa state in January 2012, it seems that the sector was only smouldering. Boko Haram, the violent Saafiyah Islamic sect has unleashed successful murderous attacks of unimaginable proportions on the State particularly in the Northern part of the country. The state response is feeble and uncoordinated and this has cast a doubt on the ability of the state to guarantee the security of life and property of its citizens. The national strike by labour and protests by labour and civil rights organizations that shut the country down for one week in January 2012 are tissues of destabilizing events that may distract or distraught a state. Most of these examples though are recent events while state recalcitrance on warning strike is an old habit. There is no doubt that the state is going through difficult times at the moment and this might have added to its current distraught behaviour. It is preposterous to imagine that the state sees protracted work stoppages as socio-politically functional. Is there any imaginable way by which the state can benefit from self-allowed labour anarchy, industrial chaos and social disorganization? I say so because when they ultimately open up they condemn strike as disruptive, unpatriotic and confrontational; meaning that they do not perhaps see it as socially congenial. Or is it a case of manifestation of the endemic Third World culture of impunity common in its governments? Is it a case of delusion of class safety, security, or of invincibility? Can it be class naivety, or self-conceitedness, or a state of intra-class

confusion as to what is in the best interest of the ruling elite? Or why are they unwilling to arrest industrial strike and nip it in the bud? If one suggests state arrogance or insensitivity to the yearnings and desires of the working people one will drag the discussion into the traditional capitalist-labour adversarial trench dug by Marx, Engels and Lenin. Enough of 18th and 19th Century explanations of a 21st Century experience. The underlying idea though is similar to the Marxist tradition but the configuration of social forces and relationships in contemporary society is sufficiently different to warrant the search for new explicator variables.

As an entry point, governments in Nigeria as in most parts of the global South in the contemporary world suffer from a superiority syndrome or complex in relating to the people in civil society. They suffer from a delusion of grandeur and superiority over the electorate or the subaltern classes over whom they exercise the enormous powers of the state which is under their control. This complex is displayed in the sit-tight presidents in the Arab world, in the autocratic regimes that dot the map all over Africa, in the culture of impunity that is so common in government and public affairs from Syria, to Zimbabwe, to Sudan and Cote d' Ivoire. This complex is the product of an institutionalized system into which persons subsequently appointed or elected into state offices step imbibing this abnormal mentality. As an institutionalized attitude it manifests in its cognitive, affective and behavioural components. Neophyte state officials get inducted, learn and acquire the knowledge through experience, develop a perspective that the feeling is good and go ahead to unleash it without remorse or any sense of guilt, rather carelessly against the people. In the course of time, this attitude with mutually reinforcing class cues becomes a way of behaving that is typical and acceptable within the ruling class. People in government feel that meanwhile they own the stage, power is in their hands and they could do as they wish. This is the Board room mentality. Government is perceived as an incorporated company; a private limited liability company at that in which senior politicians and bureaucrats constitute the owners and members of the board of directors. One tragedy is that the company is not seen as a public limited liability company in which board members are answerable to the shareholders, in this instance, the citizens. The other tragedy is that unlike the normal private limited liability company management is not directly involved in income-yielding production activities. Instead, they are contented with receiving statements of current balance from the Central Bank and the Petroleum Ministry and their concentration is on distribution of resources. The interest is not how the cake is baked because as long as the oil companies are at work revenue is guaranteed. They can spend any proportion of the annual budget fight security threat in the oil fields but not on improving the living conditions of the inhabitants of the Niger Delta. Concern is about how revenue is shared, that is who gets what. This is one-sided balance sheet government which accounts for a number of anomalies in the public service. One, even an idiot who knows nothing about revenue management can and have been in charge. Two, this makes politics and public office lucrative and the quest for it as a do or die affair. Three, corruption is endemic and normative. The policies are neither production/revenue nor people-centred but expenditure centred.

The converse of the superiority complex is a strong belief and feeling that individuals, groups and institutions outside government or in civil society are inferior relative to the operators of the state. This feeling if strong enough, by itself, reinforces state officials' delusion of grandeur and superiority. So it is a quality required to be a complete member of the ruling elite. The elements of civil society are perceived to be inferior in terms of lack of knowledge about state matters, on the state of the country, lack of capacity to understand the intricacies of the workings of government and foreclosure from opportunity for prebendal²⁷

²⁷ Joseph, Richard (2006) 'Misgovernance and the African Predicament: Can the Code be Broken?' Faculty Distinguished Lecture Series No. 1, Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Ibadan.

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self-enrichment out of the resources of the state. They are generally, relatively poorer. Some among them may have superior education as compared to state officials but by entry into office the officials have gained ascendancy over those others their superior education notwithstanding.

It is pertinent to point out that the attitude of delusion of superiority is a defence mechanism to cover up for apparent inadequacies. In the refusal to negotiate with aggrieved unions it is one of several possibilities. Government is either economical with the truth, or lacks astute negotiating skills and is afraid to be openly outclassed, or afraid to confront unfulfilled promises of yesteryears, or is afraid to enter into fresh commitments the terms of which it might not be able to meet in future. It is these and not other considerations that lead to unwillingness to negotiate. In each case of negotiation with ASUU, for example, the Union assembles an intimidating array of veterans who have been in the business sometimes for over three decades. Government on its part hurriedly assembles ad-hoc negotiating teams lacking in experience and pedigree. They are consequently David before Goliath. Government resorts to arm-twisting, flexing of raw power, and executive bravado trying to recover grounds lost at the negotiation table in the Industrial Court or by issuing unilateral executive awards and declarations. It returns to delusion of grandeur and superiority as a defence.

The resort to unilateral awards to labour by government rather than agreement through mutual negotiation and consensus is one apparent index of the superiority syndrome and the culture of impunity. When the removal of oil subsidy imbroglio unleashed by the Nigerian government on January 1st 2012 emerged,

government fixed the pump price of petrol at 141 Naira per litre. Organized labour comprising the Nigeria Labour Congress (NLC) and the Trade Union Congress (TUC) called a general strike supported by street protests. They went into negotiation. Talks broke down several times apparently because government and labour had fixed their minds on the limits of compromise. Labour insisted on the return of price per litre to its original 65 Naira. The final price of 97 Naira per litre was not a product of collective agreement between the Unions and government but rather a unilateral award by government. This again is a return to impunity, to delusion of grandeur and superiority rather than the democratically valued norms of collective bargaining.

The superiority complex is reinforced by a set of fallacious assumptions which reveal its empirical/operational inadequacies and policy ineffectiveness. These include that:

*Politicians, top government officials and senior line bureaucrats are superior beings imbued with superior knowledge, wisdom, and intellectual skills so much so that only they know what to do, say or avoid in the best interest of the state and society.

*Those that criticize government even if constructively or take exception to any of its policies are unpatriotic, diversionary and enemies of progress.

*The sovereignty of the state which inheres in the people as symbolized by the constitution is confused as sovereignty of the government. Consequently, government is perceived as above its own laws, and as an institution that does no wrong. It is always right.

*Those in government are not the problem of society; they constitute the solution while the rest of the people are the problem. That saddles government with the role of checking the excesses of elements of civil society.

*The best government is the tough, uncompromising and ruthless government that displays courage and unwavering decisiveness when dealing with the ordinary citizens.

Owing to these reasons any declaration of trade dispute in the public sector is tantamount to declaration of war against the person of the President, line Minister and government and is interpreted as a calculated to destroy, disrupt and challenge the authority of the government.

And this leads us to the explanation of the lethargic attitude of government in its handling of warning strikes which is that because:

The presidency is lofty, deified, and its entry into negotiation with its employees and collections of civil society interest amounts to drawing down the reputation of government and subjecting it to ridicule and disrespect, government shows that it is not weak, meek and pliable by resisting invitations to negotiate. This is the clearest statement of the superiority complex. Unilateral award by government in circumstances of trade dispute is more compatible with the mindset depicted by the foregoing assumptions behind the superiority syndrome.

Conclusion

The central argument of this paper is that contrary to the ordinary expectation that the threat of warning strike would encourage or pressurise the employer to come to negotiation with organized labour, the situation in Nigerian public sector is the direct opposite. Warning strike was shown to have failed in a number of cases to avert the occurrence of the main, usually protracted strike. For the purpose comparison examples were drawn from literature to show that warning strikes succeed more in this regard in private and public sector industrial disputes in the advanced economies. This might not be unrelated to the higher level of development of the norms of industrial democracy including mutual respect between the employer and employees, and a stronger commitment to the culture of settling trade disputes through collective bargaining. In the Nigerian context the psycho-social superiority versus inferiority complex, a theory which conditions top government functionaries to feel that as agents and proxies of government they are superior to the ordinary citizens in lower echelons of government, those outside government in non-governmental organizations, groups and individuals are in several ways inferior. Against that background negotiating with workers or succumbing to the threat of warning strike would portray the government as weak and fallible, a characteristic that is intolerable among the ruling elite. Such behaviour correlates with the widespread brazen impunity, corruption, and lawlessness among top politicians and bureaucrats who act on behalf of the state. It is also observed that this behaviour is allowed in the context in which the props of democracy such as the media, the judiciary, public opinion, mass movements, trade unions, the

academia and the law, together do not provide effective deterrence for the norm of playing god when occupying public office. Government officials need to define warning strike and strike generally as a constructive, civilized and lawful tool of dispute settlement rather than as confrontational, destructive and calculated to undermine the authority of the government. The superiority syndrome must be addressed by government institutions and non-governmental institutions charged with training and influencing the orientation of politicians and public officials. Key among the training institutions that can effect the change are the National Orientation Agency, the Administrative Staff College of Nigeria, National Institute for Policy and Strategic Studies, National Defence College, National Institute for Labour Studies, Centre for Management Development among others. The universities and tertiary educational institutions, the press including television, radio and newspaper and political parties also have a role to play. The reorientation is desirable because successful collective bargaining and peaceful industrial relations assumes the equality of the associating parties and mutual respect for one another. Strike against government cannot be an exception to that golden rule.

PRESS COVERAGE OF 2011 POST PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION VIOLENCE IN NIGERIA: AN ANALYSIS OF SELECTED NIGERIAN NEWSPAPERS

EZEGWU DANIEL T.
Awka, Anambra State
+2348034630757; +2348133909123

&

NWOKOCHA IFEANYI M.
Department of Mass Communication,
Heritage Polytechnic, Eket,
Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria.
+2348038592101; +2348187181723

ABSTRACT

This study analyzes press coverage of 2011 post presidential election violence in Nigeria. To determine how the press did this, four newspapers were selected; Daily Sun, Vanguard, New Nigerian and Daily Trust newspapers. The four newspapers assessed the post presidential election violence in four perspectives, which include the nature of stories; direction of stories, frequency stories placement stories and if there is a significant relationship between the geographical affiliation of the newspapers in terms of ownership and coverage of 2011 post presidential election violence in Nigeria. The method adopted for this study was content analysis. A sample of 96 newspapers was selected for the study. The study covered a period of 2 months (8 weeks). From the findings, the Nigerian press covered 2011 post presidential election violence in Nigeria. The findings revealed that there were more straight news in all the selected newspapers than other news variable, the findings were unfavourable in terms of direction of stories in 2011 post presidential election violence in Nigeria and there is no significant relationship between geographical affiliation of the newspapers in terms of ownership and coverage of 2011 post presidential election violence in Nigeria, but a short coming of the coverage was most of the items carried by selected newspapers were tucked inside their pages. The study recommends among other things that the Nigerian press should use editorials to enlighten and educate Nigerians on dangers of engaging in electoral/political violence and the press should always place news items especially that of violence in the front and back pages, this will highlight the impact and consequences of such issue.

Keywords: Press, Newspapers, Election, Violence, News.

INTRODUCTION

Elections are generally conceived as a means of peaceful change of leadership in societies. In democratic societies, elections empower ordinary citizens to choose among contestants for offices and as well encourage participation in governance. The 2011 April 16th presidential election which was conducted by independent National Election Commission (INEC), has come and gone. The election which was adjudged to be free, fair and credible, by both local and foreign observers, ushered in happy winners and badly bruised losers. The losers anticipating losing the presidential election of April 16th 2011, unleashed their anger on hapless and innocent Nigerians in what is generally referred to as post election violence, which left in its trail huge loss of lives and properties worth billions of naira.

This dastardly act shook the foundation of our co-existence as a nation and raised fundamental questions on our corporate existence as a nation. The 2011 presidential election was held across 36 states of the federation and the federal capital territory. The election was contested by 21 political parties, but the major contenders were the incumbent president Dr. Goodluck Ebele Jonathan of People's Democratic Party (PDP), General Muhammadu Buhari (Rtd) of the Congress for Progressive Change (CPC), Mallam Ibrahim Shekaru of All Nigerians Peoples Party (ANNP) and Mallam Nuhu Ribadu of the Action Congress of Nigerian (ACN) etc.

However, twenty four hours after the said election and as the results were being collated and released on a state by state basis; news filtered in that some supporters of the Congress for Progressive Change (CPC) had in the late hours of Sunday 17th April 2011, started burning tyres in protest of the results being announced by Independent National Election Commission (INEC). According to Ogunwale (2011,p.9) by the early hours of Monday 18th April, 2011, reports of killings and burning of properties of persons suspected to be Peoples Democratic Party (PDP) supporters was already underway in Kaduna, Zaira, Kafanchan and other towns simultaneously. Later, the protests degenerated into violent riots or sectarian killing in other 12 northern States of Adamawa, Bauchi, Borno, Gombe, Jigawa, Kaduna, Kano, Kastina, Niger, Sokoto, Yobe and Zamfara. "Relief officials estimated that more than 65,000 people were displaced" (www.hrw.org/news/2011/05/26/nigeria). Dufka (2011) states that "deadly election related and communal violence in northern Nigeria following the April 2011 presidential voting left more than 800 peoples dead, the victims were killed in three days of rioting in 12 northern states". He maintained that, "the April elections were heralded as among the fairest in Nigeria's history, but they also were among the bloodiest" said Corinne Dufka, senior West Africa researcher at Human Rights watch.

Similarly, Bakori (2011) opines that "the presidential election divided the country along ethnic and religious lines". As election results trickled in on April 17th 2011, and it became clear that Buhari had lost, his supporters took to the streets of northern towns and cities to protest what they alleged to be the rigging of the results. According to the Christian Association of Nigeria, more than 350 churches were burned or destroyed by the Muslim rioters across 10 northern states. In the predominately Christian towns and villages of Southern Kaduna State, including (www.hrw.org/news/2011/05/16/Nigeria) Zonkwa, Matsirga and Kafanchan sectarian clashes left more than 500 dead, according to Muslim and Christians leaders interviewed by Human Rights watch).

However, in Bauchi State, rioters targeted members of the National Youths Service Corps (NYSC) who served as ad-hoc election staff. Media reports (www.enownow.com/news/index) and journalists interviewed by Human Rights watch, on the afternoon of Sunday April 17th 2011 in Gaide, a rural town in northern Bauchi, rioters attacked the Youths Corps Members in the town. The Youth Corps Members, who were from Southern Nigeria, ran to the local police station to seek refuge, but the rioters stormed the police station. The mob killed the police officer on duty and burned down the police station; they raped two of the female Youths Corps Members then hacked them to death with machetes along with five male Youths Corps Members. According to vanguard (June7, p.18), in total, rioters killed ten Youth Corps members in Bauchi state. In spite of the violence that followed the post presidential election in Nigeria, international and local observers said the election was free and fair. According to the leader of an observer mission in 2011 presidential election in Nigeria, Robin Carnahan of the U.S-based National Democratic Institute (NDI), and the secretary of state of U.S state of Missouri

"The vote was largely free and fair. It was a significant improvement over 2007 general elections; the presidential and National Assembly elections represent a step forward from seriously flawed elections of the past. Our observation team went to a couple of hundred (polling stations) and there were other domestic and international observers (there). And all of us, in the main, thought the process ran relatively smoothly. Obviously, there were imperfections in it, but it seems to have run smoothly" said Carnahan in a statement (www.voanews.com/english/news/africa).

While Akukwe(2011) noted that, "international and domestic observers are hailing the presidential election as credible. The African Union, the ECOWAS, the European union, the European parliament, the U.S National Democratic institute and Commonwealth secretarial observer team acknowledge a credible, though far from perfect, election".

However, despite the affirmation of the presidential election by both domestic and international observers, as being free, fair and credible, the election still witnessed huge post election violence in northern parts of the country. But one wonders what might have caused this post presidential election violence, thus it is the role of the media to report and analyses the potential causes of the post polls violence. The press by agenda-setting role, structure our perception of the society. The media determines what dominates public discussion and as well determines how the set agenda or topic of discussion should be viewed. The press played a vital role in following up issues concerning the 2011 post presidential election violence. The press is expected to manage crisis in the interest of the society (Mboho, 2004, p.68).

Hence, the study seeks to find out the press coverage of 2011 post presidential election violence in Nigeria. It will ascertain the nature of the coverage as well as the prominence given to the 2011 post presidential election violence in Nigeria. This is because the press in Nigeria has in the past contributed to the eruption and escalation of political violence. Anifowose (1982, p.221) reminds us of the conflicting media reports of the 1965 parliamentary elections in western Nigeria (the elections were characterized by violence). Also, Vande vens (1998) posit that “conflict becomes a problem because the media dramatize it focusing on irreconcilable differences, extreme positions, inflammatory statements, violence; win-or-lose out comes”.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

It is on record that the press played a vital role in stimulating constitutional development and nationalistic series of agitation in Nigeria. The media in carrying out its functions as the fourth estate of the realm brings out governments policy to the knowledge of the public by their agenda setting role. The press in many instances aids and abet political violence in Nigeria. This dysfunctional role of the press in aiding and abetting political violence is not surprising. Gurevitch and Blumler (1977, p.270) observes that the mass media, as political institutions, are omnipotent and capable of being employed for manipulative purposes.

Similarly, Ojo (2000) states that the press through the use of alarming headlines and gory pictures, have contributed to conflict escalation and retaliatory attacks on some occasions in the country. Thus, it is the press role to gather process and disseminate information to the public on matters of public interest such as 2011 post presidential election violence in Nigeria. This study aims to examine the nature of stories on the 2011 post presidential election violence in Nigeria as well as the frequency and direction given to the coverage.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

- 1 To find out the nature of the stories on 2011 post presidential election violence in Nigeria.
- 2 To determine the direction/framing given to stories on 2011 post presidential election violence in Nigeria by the selected newspapers.
- 3 To ascertain the frequency of coverage of the issue in the selected newspapers.
- 4 To ascertain the prominence given to stories on 2011 post presidential election violence.
- 5 To determine if there is a significant relationship between the geographical affiliation of the newspapers in terms of ownership and coverage of 2011 post presidential election violence in Nigeria.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- 1 what is the nature of stories on 2011 post presidential election violence in Nigeria?
- 2 what is the direction or framing given to the coverage by the selected newspapers?
- 3 How frequency did the selected newspapers report 2011 post presidential election violence?
- 4 what is the placement of stories on 2011 post presidential election violence?
- 5 Is there a significant relationship between the geographical affiliation of the newspapers in terms of ownership and coverage of 2011 post presidential election violence in Nigeria?

THEORETICAL FOUNDATION

This study is hinged on two theories, *agenda setting* and *Social responsibility theories*. *Agenda setting theory* posits that the mass media predetermine what issues are regarded as important and worthy of public attention at a given time in a given society. To paraphrase Bernard Cohen in his book “The press and foreign policy”, the media may not always be successful in telling people what to think but they are usually successful in telling people what to think about (Cited by Dominick, 1990, p.325).

Based on their study of the media’s role in the 1968 presidential election, Maxwell McCombs and Donald Shaw (1974, pp32-41) wrote that:

In choosing and displaying news, editors, newsroom staff and broadcasters play an important part in shaping political reality. Readers learn not only about a given issue from the amount of information in a news story and its position, the mass media may well determine the important issues.

Agenda setting posits that audiences learn salient issues from the news media, thus incorporating similar sets of weights and importance into their own personal agenda. Agenda setting is viewed as the power of the media to structure issues. Hence, the press is expected to set agenda on the issue of 2011 post presidential election violence in Nigeria. The theory will help to determine the agenda set by the press during the violence.

The *Social Responsibility* theory is also a relevant to this work because the theory demands that the media should act responsibly by realizing that they have certain obligations to the public. The theory also asserts that media must remain free of government control, but in exchange media must serve the public and be socially responsible for all her actions to the public. In his contribution to this theory, Mc Quail (1987, p.716) states that, "the media have obligation to society and media ownership is a private trust. News media should be truthful, accurate, fair, objective and relevant." The media should follow agreed codes of ethics be free, but self regulated. Based on the study, the press is expected to give accurate, truthful and unbiased report on 2011 post presidential election violence in Nigeria as well as been objective and responsible.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

AN OVERVIEW OF ELECTION VIOLENCE IN NIGERIA

Violence has been a feature of the country's electoral process since the colonial era. But during the colonial rule they were easily curtailed due to the nature and scope of participation, characteristics of the politicians, electorates and the nature of colonial domination. Kur (2003, p.234) observed that "the genesis of political violence in Nigeria could be traced to 1914 when the northern and southern protectorates were amalgamated. This unity was later to be seen by the leaders as a forced one". In 1950's the north rejected in strong terms the whole ethos of unity. The worlds of Alhaji sir Ahmadu Bello as captured by Kur (2003, p.234) give credence to this:

The mistakes of 1914 has come to light..., we have pretended for too long that there are no differences between the peoples of this country. The hard fact of which we must honestly accept of paramount importance in the Nigerian experiment, especially for the future, is that we are different people brought together by recent accidents of history. To pretend otherwise will be folly.

Indeed, each of the three major regions had at one time or another, publicly or privately, done more than dream of secession. The federal election of December 1959 which was meant to usher in the political independence of Nigeria was marred by violence. The Northern People's Congress (NPC), did threaten that if the Southern parties allied to capture power at the federal level, the north would secede (Ademoyega, 1981, p.6). The NPC in that election won the majority of the seats and formed the government in alliance with the National Council of Nigeria and Cameroon (NCNC), the Eastern party. The Action Group (AG), the western party was in opposition.

Similarly, Alemika (2011) pointed out that "elections have been a source of violent, political, ethnic, religious and communal conflicts in Nigeria since the late 1940's when limited elections were introduced. This problem deteriorated in the elections conducted immediately after independence in the 1960. In the Western Region, violent political conflicts, popularly referred to as "operation wetie" ("meaning soak him up, is a practice in which a political opponent and his house or property were sprayed with petrol and set ablaze") were recorded from 1964 to 1965 following both federal and regional elections as well as rift between Awolowo and Akintola .

Contributing to this issue, Uzuegbunam (1997, p.45) says that "the Second Republic was bedeviled by series of political violence, especially during the 1983 elections. The Shagari's administration in the Second Republic was characterized by high scale of gross mismanagement, corruption, bribery, impropriety, ethnicism, nepotism, embezzlement, misappropriation of public funds, election malpractices as well as alarming rate of inefficiency and redundancy in the public"

Nonetheless, the national election conducted in 1983 witnessed massive post election violence following the declared landslide victory of the National party of Nigeria (NPN) in Oyo and Ondo states considered to be strong hold of the Unity Party of Nigeria (UPN). Several persons lost their lives and large scale destruction of property was recorded. The Babangida's inconclusive Third Republic was marked by high

scale violence, primarily resulting from the annulment of June 12th, 1993 presidential election. Elections since 1999 have been particularly characterized by instrumental use of violence. According to the Transitional Monitoring Group (TMG), a coalition of 170 NGOs in Nigeria, issued her final report on the 2003 elections under the title *Do vote count?* .The report indicated that the votes of citizens in that election did not count as the elections were characterized by violence, corruption and fraud , including falsification of results.

In addition, the same Transition Monitory Group entitled its final report on 2007 polls as elections programmed to fail due to the monumental violence, corruption, fraud and manipulation that were observed by voters as well as foreign and national election monitors. Alemika (2011) adds that, “the elections conducted in 1999, 2003, and especially 2007 were characterized by wide spread malpractices such as violence, corruption and falsification of results. After the 2007 election, there was widespread disenchantment with the electoral process”. In a report released in 2004, the human rights watch observed that:

Both Nigeria’s federal and state elections in 2003 and local government elections 2004 were marred by serious incidents of violence, which left scores dead and many others injured. In April and May 2003, at least one hundred people were killed and many more injured, majority of serious abuses were perpetrated by members or supporters of the ruling party, the People’s Democratic Party (PDP).

CAUSES OF ELECTION VIOLENCE IN NIGERIA

Electoral violence in Nigeria can be attributed to the actions and in actions of several actors who are determined to secure/retain political power without adhering to the rules of democratic competitive elections. Alemika (2011) states that the main actors and actions that precipitate electoral violence are:

1. Law-makers who unwilling to make laws that will promote credible elections because they are beneficiaries of legal loopholes and the weakness of the legal system and undemocratic control and command of the security and law enforcement agencies elected politicians in the executive organs of government who manipulate the electoral laws, election management bodies and security agencies to politicians and executives of the state who induce and coerce the legislators to prevent them from making laws for credible elections.
2. Politicians who deploy corrupt practices, fan ethnic, religious and regional sentiments, organize and arm political thugs, politicians and incumbent executives who propagates the idea of politics and electoral victory as do or die affair.
3. Security agencies and personnel which see themselves as properties of the ruling political parties and incumbent president and governors.

However, many reasons also account for these elections in Nigeria. One cannot rule out perceived marginalization by some groups, sections, tribes or political parties in the government affairs. Other reasons may be provocative utterances by party stalwarts, rigging, do or die pattern of politicking. While Dudely (1965, pp 24-25) believes that “once the politicians recognize or know the profitability of having power, the party (and the individual members) naturally uses the same governmental machinery to stay in power. The leadership becomes a self-recruiting oligarchy and no self-recruiting oligarchy has been known to tolerate opposition to itself”. In the circumstance, violence becomes instrument for seeking, gaining and retaining political power.

In addition, the nature of the Nigerian state and regime contribute to endemic violence in the electoral process. Alemika (2011) was apt when he asserts that, “in the circumstance where the state is privatized, those in power will use violence and state repressive apparatuses to retain power. The people excluded from governance (especially in a society where politics is a license to oppress other citizens and to rob the public treasury with impunity) will resort to violence in their quest for office”.

More so, a committee constituted to look into the April 19th 2011, electoral violence in some states of the federation, named the provocative utterances by politicians including Muhammadu Buhari of the Congress for Progressive Change (CPC), as one of the major causes of the wide spread electoral violence in some parts of the country. This was the summation as contained in the report which was submitted by the Dr Ahmed Lemu led committee on post election violence and civil disturbance to president Goodluck

Jonathan on Monday 10th October, 2011. According to Emba(2011), Lemu noted that “provocative utterances by many individuals and the widespread charge by prominent politicians including the CPC presidential candidate (Gen.Muhammadu Buhari) to the electorate to guard their votes appeared to have been misconstrued by many voters to include recourse to violence which they did”. Lemu said another cause of the violence was the failure on the part of the previous successive regimes since the military handover of power in 1999 to implement the recommendations of various committees, commissions and panels that had taken place in our nation. According Lemu “the existing widespread desire for change as a result of frustration and disappointment of many members of the general public regarding the inability of the successive regimes to solve the problems of electricity, power failure nationwide, deplorable state of federal government roads through the nation, bribery and corruption which have virtually been legitimized in all affairs of nation is another cause of the violence”.

However, the Congress for Progressive Change (CPC) said the violence was product of the determination by an incumbent (President Goodluck Jonathan) to win elections by any means. (See the nation newspaper May 10, 2011 p.3) while the Peoples Democratic Party (PDP) said that the violence was engineered and mastermind by no other party but CPC (see Daily trust newspaper May 16, 2011). The Congress for Progressive Change (CPC) had since disassociated itself and its supporters from the violence.

METHODOLOGY

This study made use of content analysis to determine the press coverage of 2011 post presidential election violence in Nigeria.

POPULATION OF STUDY

The population of this study includes all the national daily newspapers published and circulated in Nigeria. According to the Corporate Affairs Commission of Nigeria (CAC), as at 2011 gives the total numbers of national newspaper to be 35.

SAMPLE SIZE

Out of the 35 newspapers which comprised the population of study, four newspapers were purposively selected. They are: Daily sun, vanguard, New Nigerian and Daily Trust newspapers. The four newspapers were selected because the researcher cannot possibly study the whole national newspapers published and circulated in Nigeria within the study period. The sample size for this study is 96 issues (editions) from the four newspapers. The study days were Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays. To arrive at this sample size, three issues were selected per week from each of the newspapers. This amount to 12 issues in a month for each newspaper, then 12 multiplied by 8 weeks (2months) of study will give 96 issues.

SAMPLING TECHNIQUE

The sampling technique used in selecting the four newspapers is purposive sampling. The technique entails the researcher selecting what constitutes his sample based on some predetermined purposes which his study hopes to achieve. The four newspapers were purposively chosen because they have wide and national readership, large Circulation, consistency of publication, availability and accessibility.

MEASURING INSTRUMENT

Code sheets were used to gather data for the study according to established unit of analysis, which in this study were straight news, editorials and features on 2011 post presidential election violence in Nigeria. The materials were categorized according as favourable, neutral, unfavourable or front page, back and inside page and numbers assigned in that order. An inter-coder reliability test of the measuring instrument was conducted before the actual coding of content. This gave a coefficient of .75 which shows internal consistency of the instrument.

DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

The four newspapers carried 87 items on 2011 post presidential election violence in Nigeria. From the total amount, Daily sun, carried 27 items, Vanguard 23 items, New Nigeria 20 items and Daily Trust 17 items.

Research Question 1: What is the nature of stories on 2011 post presidential election violence in Nigeria?

Table 1: Nature of stories

Variable	Daily Sun N (%)	Vanguard N (%)	New Nigerian N (%)	Daily Trust N (%)	Total N (%)
News	15 (56)	13 (57)	12 (60)	11 (65)	51 (59)
Editorial	2 (7)	1 (4)	1 (5)	0	4 (4)
Opinion/letters	6 (22)	4 (17)	3 (15)	2 (11)	15 (17)
Features	4 (15)	5 (12)	4 (20)	4 (24)	17 (20)
Total	27 (100)	23 (100)	20 (100)	17 (100)	87 (100)

Analysis of data in table 1 shows that Daily Trust carried the highest number of news stories with 65%, but no editorials, it also carried 11% of opinion/letters and 24% of the features articles. It then followed by New Nigerian newspaper with 60% of the news stories, editorials 5%, opinion/letters 15% and features 20%. Whereas Daily Sun carried 56% of the news stories, editorials 7%, opinion/letters 22% and features 15%. While Vanguard carried 57% of the news items, 4% of the editorials, 17% opinion/letters and 22% feature articles.

Research Question 2: What is the direction or framing given to the coverage by the selected newspapers?

Table 2: Direction of the coverage

Variable	Daily Sun N (%)	Vanguard N (%)	New Nigerian N (%)	Daily Trust N (%)	Total N (%)
Favourable	4 (15)	2 (9)	5 (25)	4 (24)	15 (17.2)
Unfavourable	15 (56)	12 (52)	11 (55)	16 (59)	48 (55.1)
Neutral	8 (29)	9 (39)	4 (20)	3 (18)	24 (27.5)
Total	27 (100)	23 (100)	20 (100)	17 (100)	87 (100)

Data in table 2 indicates that the coverage of the 2011 post presidential election violence was overwhelmingly unfavourable as 55.1% of the items carried by the newspapers fell under the category. Daily Trust carried the highest number of unfavourable stories. Daily Sun carried 15% of favourable stories, while 29% of the Daily Sun stories were neutral. Vanguard carried 9% of issues as favourable and 39% neutral. Whereas New Nigerian newspaper carried 25% favourable and 20% neutral stories. Daily Trust carried 24% favourable stories and 18% neutral stories.

Research Question 3: How frequently did the selected newspapers report 2011 post presidential election violence?

Table 3: Assessment on frequency of publication

Variable	Daily Sun N (%)	Vanguard N (%)	New Nigerian N (%)	Daily Trust N (%)	Total N (%)
1-2 times	17 (63)	16 (70)	12 (60)	11 (65)	56 (64)
3-4 times	7 (22)	7 (30)	6 (30)	5 (29)	24 (28)
5 & above	4 (15)	0 (0)	2 (10)	1 (6)	7 (81)
Total	27 (100)	23 (100)	20 (100)	17 (100)	87 (100)

The analysis reveals that 64% of the stories appeared 1-2 times in all the newspapers, 28% appeared 3-4 times while 8% of the items appeared 5 and above in Daily Sun, New Nigerian and Daily Trust.

Research Question 4: What is the placement of stories on 2011 post presidential election violence?

Table 4: placement of stories

Variable	Daily Sun N (%)	Vanguard N (%)	New Nigerian N (%)	Daily Trust N (%)	Total N (%)
Front page	9 (33.3)	7 (30)	5 (25)	5 (29)	26 (30)
Inside page	14 (51.9)	13 (57)	12 (60)	10 (59)	49 (56)
Back page	4 (14.8)	3 (13)	3 (15)	2 (12)	12 (14)
Total	27 (100)	23 (100)	20 (100)	17 (100)	87 (100)

Data in table 4 reveals that all the newspapers tucked majority of the items on inside pages, with 56% of published items. Daily Sun carried only 33.3% of the items on its front page, Vanguard 30%, New Nigerian carried 25% and Daily Trust 29%. Whereas the Daily Sun carried 14.8% of items on the back page, Vanguard carried only 13%, New Nigerian carried 15% and Daily Trust carried 12%. Data in table 3 revealed that the newspapers placed most of the stories in the inside page.

Research Question 5: is there a significant relationship between the geographical affiliation and media coverage of 2011 post presidential election violence in Nigeria.

Table 5: showing coverage inclination of the newspapers.

Variable N (%)	Daily Sun N (%)	Vanguard N (%)	New Nigerian N (%)	Daily Trust N (%)	Total N (%)
National interest	7 (26)	8 (35)	6 (30)	4 (24)	25 (29)
Regional interest	10 (37)	6 (26)	7 (35)	5 (29)	28 (32)
Religious interest	4 (15)	5 (22)	4 (20)	5 (29)	18 (21)
Political interest	6 (22)	4 (17)	3 (15)	3 (18)	16 (18)
Total	27 (100)	23 (100)	20 (100)	17 (100)	87 (100)

Table 5 shows the coverage inclination of the newspapers for all the stories published. The data shows that Daily Sun has 7(26%) stories for National interest, 10(37%) for Regional interest, 4 (15%) for Religious

interest and 6(22%) for Political interest. Vanguard has 8(35%) stories for National interest, 6(26%) for Regional, 5 (22%) for Religious interest and 4 (17%) for Political interest.

While the New Nigerian has 6 (30%) stories on National interest, 7 (35%) for Regional interest, 4 (20%) stories for Religious interest and 3 (15%) for Political interest. Daily Trust has 4 (24%) stories for National interest, 5(29%) for Regional interest, 5 (29%) for Religious interest and 3 (18%) for Political interest.

Discussion of Findings

The findings revealed that 51(59%) stories were straight news in all the selected newspapers, 4(4%) were editorials, 15(17%) were opinion articles/letters and 17(20%) stories were features articles. These findings tallies with earlier study by Kur and Orehewere (2003) in which they asserted that “majority of stories in Nigerian newspapers coverage of the 2001 Tiv-Jukun ethnic conflict were straight news items”.

On the direction of coverage in the selected newspapers, 15(17.2%) stories were favourable to 2011 post presidential election violence in Nigeria, 48(55.1%) stories were unfavourable to the issue and 24(27.5%) were neutral. This findings is in harmony with Soola and Alawode (2007, p.11) findings, in a “content analysis of newspaper coverage of Agribusiness in a Democratic”. Soola and Alawode opines that majority of stories reported by the newspapers were favourable to newspaper coverage of Agribusiness in a Democratic Nigeria.

Similarly, out of 87 stories covered by the four selected newspapers, 56(64%) stories appeared 1-2times, 24(28%) appeared 3-4 times and 7(8%) issues appeared 5 and above. From the findings, the newspapers gave voluminous coverage to 2011 post presidential election violence in Nigeria and this placed the issues on public agenda.

However, data obtained from the four selected newspaper revealed that 26(30%) stories appeared on the front page, 49(56%) stories appeared on the inside page while 12(14%) stories appeared on the back page. This finding is not surprising because the mass media in Nigeria sometimes fail to give prominence to very vital issues in society. The findings by Anim (2007) are a clear example. Anim studied Nigerian newspapers coverage of political issues between February 1st and June 30, 2007. He found that most political stories carried by the newspapers studied were placed on front and back pages.

Also, in terms of geopolitical affiliation, the four newspapers carried 25(29%) stories out of 87 as national interest, 28(32%) as regional interest, 18(21%) accounted for religious interest and 16 (18%) issues for political interest.

CONCLUSION

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

Most of the stories on 2011 post presidential election in Nigeria appeared mainly in straight news items and features. The four selected newspaper overwhelmingly condemned the 2011 post polls violence in Nigeria. This was seen in unfavourable nature of coverage on the issue.

Also, majority of the stories appeared frequently On 1-2 times in the selected newspapers. The findings revealed that the selected newspapers gave voluminous coverage to 2011 post presidential election violence in Nigeria and this placed the issues on public agenda, but most of the stories were tucked on the inside pages of the studied newspapers. There is no significant relationship between geographical affiliation of the newspapers in terms of ownership and coverage of 2011 post presidential election violence in Nigeria.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The media give salience to issue in society. They do this through setting the agenda that dominate public discourse. They also achieve this purpose through framing and priming of events covered. Thus, there is a need for press to educate and enlighten Nigerian especially true the use of editorials on the dangers of engaging in political/electoral violence. This will help to abate such violence. AS suggested by Kur & Orehewere (2003), the media could directly contribute to the mechanism of conflict management by using special reports and programmes to educate people on the potential devastating consequences of violence.

In addition, there is a need to conduct more empirical research on the various aspects of conflict coverage by the Nigerian press. The press should always place news items especially that of violence in the front and back pages, this will highlight the impact and consequences of such issues.

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CODING GUIDE FOR ANALYSIS OF 2011 POST PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION VIOLENCE IN NIGERIA

Study purpose	Units of analysis	Content categories	Code numbers
	1 Newspaper	Daily Sun Daily Trust Vanguard New Nigerian	1 2 3 4
	2 Year	2011	5
	3 month	April May	6 7
	4 Days	Monday Wednesday Friday	8 9 10
	5 Nature of stories	Straight news Editorial Opinion/letters Features	11 12 13 14
	6 Direction	Favourable Unfavourable Neutral	15 16 17
	7 Frequency	1-2 times 3-4 times 5 and above	18 19 20
	8 Placement of story	Front page Inside page Back page	21 22 23