

KIU Journal of Humanities

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Editorial

This issue of *KIU Journal of Humanities* touches on development administration, political education, communication and media studies, business and entrepreneurship studies, gender studies as well as legal studies.

The first part of the Journal addresses issues in Development Administration such as Alternative Revenue Generation, Women Participation in Community Development, Rural Development, and the Role of the Universal Basic Education Programme in Sustainable Development in Nigeria. It is argued in one of the papers that top bottom approach, political deprivation, lack of enlightenment and awareness campaign and lack of proper educational empowerment constitute the major challenges of community participation in rural development. It is therefore recommended that, the local government should improve in the enlightenment and awareness campaign which can serve as a way of motivating communities to participate in rural development.

In part two, the importance of political education in democratic governance of a country is emphasized. Findings of some of the studies show that people watch television programmes occasionally and the programmes influence their voting opinion. Thus, it is suggested that television stations in most African countries should produce more political programmes to increase political awareness and also broadcast these programme on the internet for wider outreach. This corroborates the fact that in today's world, media becomes as essential as our daily needs. Media of today is playing an outstanding role in creating and shaping of public opinion and strengthening of society. Media is the sword arm of democracy. It is against this backdrop that the papers in Part three emphasize the role of Mass Communication in the society. Based on its findings and others not mentioned here, one of the papers in the section argues that, since positive attitude toward sanitation practices depended on regular radio enlightenment campaigns, frequent campaigns by the media are highly needed.

It must also be mentioned that in the search for an economic development agenda/program that empowers people, entrepreneurial education is very important in order to achieve a sustainable development. Against this backdrop, the papers in part four amplify that central tenet. Theoretical, methodological and practical implications are discussed in the papers. In particular, the results recommended that entrepreneurship skills acquired through the mandatory entrepreneurship education programme for undergraduate students of tertiary institutions in Nigeria are an important consideration in helping self-employed graduates to enhance their career performance.

In the Section on Gender Studies, it is recommended that civil society, NGOs and CBOs should advocate for the need to create income generating activities for women in the sub-country. This is because the involvement of civil society, public consultation, and polling can have different outcomes on income generating activities which can help to promote socio-economic status of the women.

It has been observed that the administration of justice, in all countries and at all times is a subject broad and difficult, both in its operation and its influence. It is perhaps more indicative, a truer test, of the real temper and spirit, both of the government and the people of the state or country, than any other thing. This is why the papers in the last part of this edition focus on Legal Education.

On the whole, this edition of *KIU Journal of Humanities* features many thought provoking articles. Some of these articles are empirical in nature while others have theoretical base. Each of them focuses on one specific social and management problem or the other; trying to proffer solutions to them. Readers are therefore advised to make proper use of the ideas presented by the various authors.

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Part One

Development Administration

Alternative Revenue Generation Methods for Sustainable Development of Nigerian Universities: Problems and Prospects.

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Abstract. This paper examined the alternative revenues generation methods for a sustainable development of Nigerian universities, the associated problems and their ways forwards. However, the study however identified the, needs for the Nigerian universities to sources for alternative revenue, the usages, the associated problems and ways forwards. It was however suggested that since the government alone cannot soldier all the financial needs of the university education; therefore the university management should endeavor to sources for reverence both internally and externally so that sustainable development of Nigerian universities will be adequately enhanced.

Keywords: Alternative revenue generation, Sustainable development, Problems and prospects and Nigerian Universities.

1. Introduction

It is an undisputable fact that no organization can achieve her predetermined goals without adequate financial resources at her disposal. It should also be agreed that despite all the governmental effort in making the life bearable to the citizens through adequate financial commitment to the capital and recurrent yet the financial allocation are still not adequate. In the recent time, budgetary allocation to education takes a lion share because the federal government regarded education as the social responsibility and birth right that every citizen should enjoy as a member of any country.

The university role and the goals had been expanded towards producing quality and good minded citizens to serve as the needed man power needed of sustainable National development Federal Republic of Nigeria (2013) identified the objectives of tertiary institution in contributing to national development through high level relevant manpower brang to inculcate and develop proper value for the survival of individual and society to develop individual, to forge and cement national unity to promote and encourage scholarship and country services and to acquire physical and intellectual skills. However, to achieve the objectives the universities have the following responsibilities of teaching, research publication, community services, extra-curricular activities and record keeping. It should be noted these responsibilities can never be achieved without financial resources at their disposal. Also for the fact that the state and federal government could not soldier all the responsibilities of financing education alone, that everyone should contrite their quota towards development of education.

Nigerian universities need both the capital projects like buildings lawns library and laboratory equipment, hostels, instructional facilities and all resources that will cater for the large population of the students admitted. To satisfy the physical facilities and to provide human resources for the management of the students and facilities there is need for adequate financial resources. The provision of money will encourage adequate facilities provision and maintenance. It should be noted that the

Nigerian universities are still crying of inadequate funding that the financial allocation could not cater for the provision of both needed physical and human resources needed for effective teaching- learning process. The inadequacy of financial allocation however called for alternative revenue generation so as to complement the governmental efforts in the budgetary allocation.

This paper therefore examined the concepts of revenue generation methods as an alternative method for encouraging administrative effective new of Nigerian universities. Those alternative methods where funds can be generated, the problems militating against the revenue generations for Nigerian universities and methods of curbing the problems also investigated.

Ogundele and Oparinde (2014) defined revenue generation as the process of raising funds for enhancing administrative effectiveness in Nigerian schools. It is the process of sourcing for the needed funds or resources without necessarily depending on the governmental capital and recurrent grants. The funds are sourced internally within and outside school environment. However, it should be noted that investment in education is a key factor in the economic growth of any country. It is also very important to note that any country that toy with educational provision for her citizens, such country can never be ranked high among other developed nations at the global level. The Federal Republic of Nigeria recognizes education as a huge investment which everyone should contribute their quota.

In order to sources for revenue for the running of the various institutions in Nigeria, the universities have their own source of internally generated revenue outside the governmental grants. Such methods of generating, revenue are regarded as non-NUC programme like running of part time and distance education, consultancy services, research publication of different journals, Educational Trust Funds intervention, university-friends forums, lunching loan, stakeholders involvement, entrepreneurship skills practical efforts, agricultural exhibitions, Postgraduate Associations, public-private

partnership and social responsibilities' cooperation. It should be noted that huge amount of revenue are beings generated through the mentioned method which complement government financial efforts. This paper therefore makes an explanatory approach to the basic sources of alternative revenue generation method in Nigerian universities, the prospects of those methods the utilization, the need for alternative revenue generation method in Nigerian universities administration, the associated problems and the ways forward.

2. Needs for Alternative Revenue Generation for Nigerian Universities

The following reasons called for the need for alternative revenue generation in Nigerian universities, flimsy excuse of the federal republic of Nigeria that stated that the government alone cannot soldier the responsibilities of education in Nigeria. However, though they soldier large percentage of commitment to education. The need however called for the citizens that have good will to education to contribute their quotas towards development of education.

The first reason is the expansion role of Nigerian universities leading to the rapid expansion in the university programme and curriculum. However, the expansion however called for the adequate demand and supply of human and instructional resources to be supplied. The revenue generated will ease the demand and supply of the needed resources in Nigerian universities (Adesina, 2005).

Secondly, rapid education demand and supply increase the population of the students' admission into Nigerian universities. The need to make the university life bearable to the admitted students called for alternative revenue generation into Nigerian universities. It is also important to note that there is the need to cater for the overcrowded classrooms and reduce the students populations stresses however demand for the alternative revenue generation for Nigerian universities administrations no wander that Mariuki (2011) stated that the earing students population need qualified teachers,

quality infrastructural facilities school plants like building equipment, library lecture theatre, good feeder road, etc. all these resources demand large amount of funds. Durosaro (2013).

Thirdly, the funds allocation is not adequate to enhance effective development in Nigerian administration. The author also advocated for the internally generated funds to cater for the cost of education the author also described the cost of education as the only tool that pinches the shoes of education. What the cost of education is catered for through, alternative revenue generation, effective universities administration will be adequately enhanced.

Fourthly, the outbreak of high rate of social menace and indisciplinary rate among the students called for the adequate revenue to provide adequate security in the school system. Odetundun (2005) also observed that many school environments are so porous with so many entrances which make the security to be weak. However, the alternative revenue generation for Nigerian universities administration will encourage the university administration to provide enabling environment for their institution.

Demand for quality in Nigerian universities education demand for huge amount of money which government alone cannot solder all the responsibilities. However, the contribution of other sources of revenue is therefore demanded from everyone in the society.

Finally, the need for the institutional support services also called for the alternative revenue generation.

3. Alternative Sources of Revenue for Sustainable Development of Nigerian Universities

Since it is general acceptable fact that educational provision is the only instrument for a sustainable national developments and transformation, for any meaning development to be enhanced and for quality universities products to be graduated for a sustainable national develop of any country, adequate financial resources should be at the universities

management disposal. However, high demand for university education had also called for quality product and without adequate financial resources to be made available and utilized; such quality needed may not be achieved.

Many educationists and well-meaning Nigerians that have good will for quality Nigerian education had identified many alternative sources of revenue generation to be used for sustainable national development of Nigerian universities as follows.

Establishment of non-NUC academic programmes every university are requested to establish their series of Non-Nuc academic programme like full time diplomas, certificate, part-time and online courses on Bachelors, Masters and Ph.Ds programmes. It is therefore advisable that the institute of education, technology and entrepreneurship education should be charged with the responsibilities of conducting these programme for the universities to issue out the necessary certificates for the graduates. However, huge amount of revenue can be generated from there non-Nuc programme that can be used to complement the governmental capital and recurrent grants and can also assisted in enhancing sustainable development of Nigerian universities.

Establishment of centre or research conduct and development: Due to the fact the research publication is one of the basic requirement necessary academic growth of every staff in universities. However, it should be noted that each of the journal demand vetting fees publication and sales of the extra hard copies of the printed journals and textbooks. Therefore, the profit made from the journal and txt books constitute huge amount of revenue to be used for the universities library development. Adeogun (2005) also noted that every faculty and department can organizes workshop conferences, seminars at the local, national and international level. The return of money paid by the conference participants constitutes part or revenue needed for the professional development of the universities staff.

Educational Trust Funds (ETF) Interventions: Important source of revenue for the university administration is the revenue from the governmental agencies which is devoted for the development of university education in Nigeria. The ETF established by the federal republic of Nigeria in 1999. The purpose is to make effective use of the certain percentage of excess revenue from the petroleum and other taxes for developing Nigerian university resources and human resources. However, Oluwalola (2013) identified the area of intervention of the educational trust funds as binding construction, roads networking classroom bindings utility like pipe born water, electricity, scholarships research publications staff capacity bindings etc. the intervention of the ETF however complement the capital and recurrent budgetary allocation to education in Nigeria.

Constitution of stakeholders forums into Nigerian universities administration: The alternative revenue generation for effective university administration is stakeholders' involvement I n the administration of the university. Recently, Afe Babalola University recently introduced University- Friends Forum whereby many meaningful members of the society are invited as friends of the university to extend that whenever the university run into problem whenever the university rune into problem, they can be called upon to make contribution of at least ₦10,000 yearly. Babalola (2010) however noted that if there are 200 friends of the university and each is able to pay ₦10, 000 yearly then every year, the university will be generating 20 million naira form that method Oparinde (2013) also advocated for the positive involvement of the Alumini, association parents forums, industrial trust funds, and intervention. The financial involvement of the group will definitely of the group will definitely aid effective generating of revenue for effective administration of Nigeria universities.

University environmental resources utilization for revenue generation: Abdul (2011) observed that the universities in Nigeria are endowed with vast land and environment. That the available land can be effectively utilized and diversified for agriculture, leasing construction of shopping

complex, binding of small scale industries, establishing business centres hostels, hotels, quest houses, there should be revenue yielding ventures like printing press, book shops, model primary and secondary schools and all the venture that will yield revenue for the university administrations. Oparinde however, suggested that all the ventures in the universities environment should be placed under the control and direction of the consultancy services of the universities.

Public-private partnership (PPP) should be adequately involved in the Nigerian universities. The public private partnership should be involved in the alternative revenue generation for the construction of the necessary infrastructure through certain public-private partnership models like build-operate-transfer, build-operate-lease. The system of PPP can be used in the construction of the hostels, transportation parks, field stadium, guest houses, staff quarters, roads etc. all which are very essential for the smooth running of the schools. (Bello, 2013).

The use of cost saving devices through a prudent management of the school administration: Eresimadu, Adigun (2004) suggested direct labour operation by the directorate of works, of the universities, school fees, educational levies, development levies, taxes and so on can be used in this regard.

School commercial activities: Durosara (2009) asserted that students should be partially self-supporting so as to develop sense of financial responsibility, dignity of labour, Ogundele (2001) cited example of Taiye Solarin schools that make up total return of revenue from such activities life sales of agricultural products arts and crafts, entrepreneurship skills acquisition an products. The various institutions can also build shops around the institution for rent. Alternative source of generation revenue are non-monetary measure and cost saving devices. This is to say that the universities could receive support from the internal and external sources has UNECSO, UNICEF, USAID, IMF supply of expatriate lecturers an instructional facilities providing scholarship for study in other universities

cooperation with the government and the private individuals Bello (2013) identified private public partnership as the way of financing education such BOT, BOOT, BLOT, BOO, BDO, DCMF, BBD, LDD.

4. Factors militating against revenue generating methods for a sustainable development of Nigerian universities.

A number of factors had been identified as the problems militating against alternative revenue generating methods in Nigerian universities. The factors however include:

High poverty level in the society: poverty level among Nigerian citizens had constitute problems for the revenue generation among Nigerians. As Ogundele Oparinde and Oke (2015) had rightly said that many Nigerian families could not afford to provide three square meals for their children. It is therefore difficult for such individuals to be called upon to come and donate for the development of universities such call many not be fruitful. However, poverty level had negative impacts on the revenue generating methods for sustainable development of Nigerian universities violation of the institutional site is another factor that constitute problem revenue generation for Nigerian universities. The policy of the federal character commission is equitable distribute of the universities in each geopolitical zone in Nigeria, employment, admission and siting of universities. However, all these had been politicized to extend that every aspect is controlled by god fatherism.

It should however be noted that no one will be called upon to come and donate to the development of Nigerian universities when their citizens hand not benefited from the distribution of the universities opportunities earmarked by the federal character commission.

Inflationary trends made the revenue generation to be inadequate and insufficiently utilized. In the recent time high rate of inflationary fraud had negative impacts on the revenue generation. However, the escalating exchange rate of dollar in the foreign exchange markets like in fuel

prices. The problem of the high exchange rate and like in price of fuel affect the all aspects of universities education there is generally like in the price of all the resources devoted for university education. The problem however made the alternative revenue generated for a sustainable development of Nigerian universities inadequate and difficult. As Durosaro (2012) noted that inflationary trend made the purchase corrupt practice, embezzlement educational technology difficult and misappropriation of the alternative revenue generated.

Abdulkareem (1997) was of the opinion that most of the revenue generated had been misused, misappropriated and embezzled by the university management. Some universities management used the revenue generated to award unexecuted projects with kick back which Jimba and Ogundele (2014) regarded as unethical issues in teaching profession.

Social crises in the society: at the global level, the social crises and violence had greatly hampered effective generation of revenue for a sustainable development of Nigerian universities. Many universities are closed down for many years due to the outbreak of religious, civil, social and financial crises in the society. The crises according to Sofolawe, Ogundele and Oduwaye (2015) have adverse effects on the quality, access and revenue generation for the smooth running of educational system in Nigeria.

Uncontrolled wastages in educational system have negative effects on the alternative revenue generation in Nigerian universities. High wastage rate occurred in Nigeria in term of money materials and other facilities. However, the resources that are wasted become difficult to replace due to the difficulty in raising funds. However, the available resources wasted do not provide opportunities to expand or top provide other resources needed for teaching learning process instead the school managers explore or constantly looking for the refurbishing or maintain the damaged resources or wasted ones (Asibiaka, 2008). The wasted resources emanated from the existing poor maintenance culture in Nigerian universities and poor managerial orientation to various alternative

revenue generating methods for sustainable development of Nigerian educational system. Ogundele (2001) observed that many school managers were not exposed to the various methods on how the funds could be generated using the available resources instead majority depend solely on the governmental grants which many managers behaved that they are grossly inadequate undue monitoring of the governmental agencies on the revenue granted internally by the school managers. Many of the governmental agencies merely monitor the level of the revenue generated internally not because of their good will, but purposely to collect their own share of the revenue generated. Ajia (2013) stated that failure of the school managers to give the undue kickbacks resulted to negative languages such as extortions, embezzlements and misappropriations.

5. Conclusion

For sustainable development of the universities in Nigeria to be enhanced to and for the universities to achieve their predetermined goals there is the need for sufficient funds to be at their disposal. However, the government alone cannot shoulder all the responsibility of making provision for sustainable development of Nigerian universities. However, there are series alternative methods, for generating revenue for the university, yet the alternative revenue generated are confronted with many challenges. However, the university management need to explore the various ways of solving the problems in order to encouraged sustainable development of Nigeria universities.

6. Suggestions

The following suggestions were make for effective management of the alternative revenue generated for a sustainable development of Nigerian universities. Find below the recommendations.

Inflationary trends reduction by the government: The three arms of government should assist the citizens to adequately improve their living and welfare conditions. If this is done, members of the society will be happy to donate meaningfully

towards sustainable development of Nigerian universities.

All revenue yielding ventures should be put in place and adequately used to generate funds for a sustainable development of Nigerian universities. Revenue yielding ventures like vets customization, entrepreneurship skills, agricurnuriship skill, direct labour, and all services that bring about reduction of revenue expenses to the universities administration should be adequately put in place.

Financially management training skills should be organized for the universities management. Training, retraining and capacity building should be regularly organized for those in the financial units in Nigerian universities.

Public-Private Partnership (PPP) models and other non-governmental agencies should be encouraged to partner with Nigerian university authorities. Such non-governmental agencies like TETFunds ITF stakeholders like Alumni, parent forum and university-friends forum and national science and technology funds should be adequately utilized by the universities management.

Introduction of financial electronic data processes, for this will create adequate accessibility to the areas where funds can be generated for effective administration of Nigerian universities.

Prudency, honesty, accountability and transparency should be encouraged among the universities managers. Those that are concerned with the financial management in Nigerian universities should be encouraged to be prudent, transparent and honest in their financial management for sustainable development of Nigerian universities.

Also, peace and conflict resolution courses should be introduced into the school curriculum. Every university should prioritize the peace and conflict in the school curriculum through seminars, workshops, conferences and public lectures on the issues that will inculcate peaceful

coexistence to the mind of the staff and students and eliminate social crises.

External financial collaboration initiative should be encouraged in Nigeria universities. In Nigerian universities, international research collaborations should be initiated through exchange programme, research publication expert rate exchange. All this will provide financial gain to the universities.

A very reliable and competent unit should be established in every university to monitor the generation and utilization of the alternative revenue for continuity construction and maintenance of infrastructural facilities that will accommodate the increasing rate of student enrolment in the interest of revenue generation in Nigerian universities.

The universities management should explore ways of reducing wastages in their institutions and utilize effectively both the available human and material resources devoted for the teaching and learning processes in the schools. Finally adequate war should be waged against threats of corruption such as mismanagement, inflation of prices and misappropriation of funds which are not helping the society.

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Theatre for Development as a Veritable Tool for Women Participation in Community Development; A Study of 2015 Kuyambana Field Experience in Kaduna State, Nigeria.

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Abstract. In Nigeria, there have been increasing trends over the issue of women segregation in development process and governance. This has sprung up concerns among scholars and development agencies as it is seen as gender mis-representation in driving development. Achieving gender equity is one of the United Nation's highest priorities and is considered as a necessary precondition for fully achieving development (UNDP 2012). Women have been subjugated and marginalized in development related issues due to socio-cultural beliefs which can serve as an inhibiting factor in creating gender balance towards achieving sustainable development especially in the northern part of Nigeria. However, in canvassing for gender equity in development, several participatory models have been conceptualized to serve as guide for community driven development. Thus, Theatre for development has become a strong medium for engendering women participation as it gives them a voice in the decision making process. In proving this fact, the crux of this study is to analyze and discuss evidence from the 2015 *Kuyambana* Development Communication field experience. This paper conclusively attests that Theatre for Development is a means to promoting gender participation in achieving the desired goals to bring about societal change in the society.

Keywords: Community, Women, Participation, Gender, Equity, Sustainable, Development.

1. Introduction

Theatre for Development has been an age-long concept and a veritable tool for sustainable development both at the rural and urban level. It has been deployed over time by development agents and facilitators in bringing about social change and development in the society. According to Breed (2002): *Theatre for Development is used as an egalitarian method to access and distill information, working with communities to create a self-sustaining tool for dialogue to affect policy. It creates an infrastructure for communities to define themselves by developing systems of communication that identify key issues, implement solutions, and establish partnerships between resource groups.*

Theatre for Developmental issues and programmes are relevant and quiet essential. Theatre can break through language and cultural barriers and is an extremely useful communication tool. Theatre has been used in community development in various ways. Manukonda (2013) posits that Theatre for Development (TFD) is more than simply making and performing plays. It gives target group representatives-who typically develop and perform the plays- the opportunity to tell their own stories, involvement and addressing matters that are relevant to them. This is one of the most effective ways of participatory approach where people can participate and talk about the taboos of the society which reflects the society openly. However a theatre for development intervention cannot take effect without a community as development is mostly geared towards human

needs and transformation of a people living in a particular settlement be it urban or rural dwellers. This is clearly one of the motives of the 2015 Kuyanbana project which was human based development. The crux of this paper is to project how Theatre for Development intervention can serve as a veritable platform for women's inclusion and participation in achieving sustainable development.

2. Community Development

Community and development are two multifaceted concepts that cannot do without each other because one influences the other. A community could simply be referred to as a geographical territory or a particular cultural or political entity. This may be defined as such to include a population under a particular religious, cultural or political administration, and constituting only a part of the nation. Community is also seen in terms of shared interests, tastes, values, and even in demographic or psychographic terms. In coining the concept of community, one can simply say it is a group of people who identify themselves with particular social, economic, cultural or political ideological interests, views and orientation might constitute a community. Development is all about man, and man is both the subject and recipient of development. It is conceived as a multi-dimensional process involving major changes in social structures, popular altitude and national institutions as well as the acceleration of economic growth, the reduction of inequality and the eradication of poverty. Community development is about the active involvement of community members in issues and problems that affect their lives. Indeed it is a dynamic process involving all segments of the community in their own development process. It combines the idea of "community" with "development". Thus, community development relies on interaction between people and joint action, rather than individual activity. For community development to occur, people in a community must believe working together can make a difference and organize to address their shared needs collectively. Community development operates on the values of equality, participation, education and empowerment of community

members. The 2015 project took place in various communities in Kauru local government area of Kaduna state, the communities visited includes Zululu, Kuyanbana, Garmadi, Galadimawa, Tudun Wada, Madam, Fulani. These communities were chosen with the sole aim of engendering development as the facilitators were divided to the various communities with the aim of development.

3. Gender Equity and Women Participation in Development.

Gender is defined as distinct from sex in that it refers to the social and cultural constructs which, while based on the biological sex of a person, defines his or her role in the society. WHO (2001) defines gender equity as "fairness and justice in the distribution of benefits and responsibilities between men and women. Women constitute about half of the total population of the country. Apart from the household activities, they are contributing substantially to the national economy. Given that women are usually in a disadvantaged position in the decision making and governance in the society compared to men, promotion of gender equity implies explicit attention to women's needs and perspectives. At the same time, there are also significant negative effects of unequal power relations and expectations on men and boys due to stereotyping about what it means to be a male. Instead, both women and men, and boys and girls, should be free to develop their abilities and make choices without limitations set by rigid gender roles and prejudices based on personal interests and capacities. Achieving gender equity is critical to sustainable development. In all societies women's and men's roles are socially constructed, but all too frequently gender-based disparities exist that disadvantage women; this impedes their development and hence that of humankind. Despite decades of effort, overall progress in improving women's lives has been inconsistent. Moreover, environmental benefits and burdens affecting human capabilities are inequitably distributed. Women are still underrepresented in all levels of government and other decision-making arenas, whether at work or, for many, at home. Such lack of power is linked to higher

levels of female poverty, especially in rural areas of developing countries like Nigeria where women are responsible for 60–80 per cent of food production as well as fuel and water provision yet have little access or control over natural assets such as land, water and ecological conditions that create opportunities for a better life.

Participation is a development approach, which recognizes the need to involve disadvantaged segments of the population in the design and implementation of policies concerning their wellbeing. The strengthening of women's participation in all spheres of life has become a major issue in the development discourse. Socio-economic development cannot be fully achieved without the active participation of women at the decision making level in society. Various scholars define 'Participation' in various ways. Norman Uphoff (cited in Khan1993:111) identified four main kinds of participation, which are distinct but interrelated. They are as follows: a. Participation in decision making in identifying problems, formulating alternative planning activities, allocating resources etc; b. Participation in implementation in carrying out activities, managing and operating programs; c. Participation in economic, social, political or other benefits individually or collectively; and d. Participation in evaluation of the activity and its outcomes for feedback purposes. According to Mishra (1984:88), "participation means collective and continuous efforts by the people themselves in setting goals, pooling resources together and taking actions which aim at improving their living conditions". Rahman (1991:3) state that all forms of actions through which citizens take part in the operation of administration may be termed as 'participation'. Here, 'taking part' refers to any level from macro to micro region or it may be of any type e.g. advisory or in decision-making or in implementation etc. According to Human Development Report, (1993:1): "*participation means that people are closely involved in the economic, social, cultural and political processes that affect their lives*". Participation has both a narrow and wider connotation. In a narrow sense participation means some specific action by which the citizen participates for a

limited purpose. And in a wider sense participation refers to the role of members of the general public as distinguished from that of appointed officials, including civil servants, in influencing the activities of government or in providing directly for community needs (Rahman, 1991:14-15) Women's participation in the development process has been recognized not only as an issue of human rights and social justice, but also as a crucial contribution to solving the pressing needs of important and often-excluded segments of society. Solutions to women's basic and strategic needs are part of the development process and effective, sustainable solutions require participation by the women likely to be affected by those solutions.(Mokate 2004).

Furthermore, evidence shows that women's participation in social development initiatives in policy making and in development decisions generates benefits that affect not only women and their communities, but also society as a whole. Today, more than ever, women are becoming active participants and full protagonists of the development process. However, many obstacles and barriers continue to complicate women's participation. In many parts of the world, large numbers of women remain isolated, unorganized, poor and constrained by socio-cultural and legal structures that restrict their access to, and involvement in, the development process. The obstacles and barriers that limit women's opportunity to participate in different aspects of community life and social development are notably diverse. Public policy initiatives to overcome barriers to women participating equally in economic, social and political activity vary greatly among countries and over time. Of course, the role of women in development must be analyzed and understood within the historical, cultural, social and political contexts of each nation and region. History, tradition, technology, demography and urbanization, among other factors, have influenced the role of women and their opportunities and experiences in the development. According to (FWCW,1995:1): *Women's equal participation in political life plays a pivotal role in the general process of the advancement of women. It is not only a demand*

for simple justice or democracy but can also be seen as a necessary condition for women's interests to be taken into account. Without the active participation of women and the incorporation of women's perspective at all levels of decision-making, the goals of equality, development and peace cannot be achieved.

However, to ensure sustainable development in the nation there is a great need to create a gender balance otherwise known as equity in order to ensure full participation in the development process as women not only will they be acknowledged the vital role they can play but also, building a sustainable future and unveiling those potentials they represent in the society.

4. Sustainable Development

The term development is generally used to denote growth or progress. However the term, particularly in last two centuries, has become synonym to economic growth in terms of gross domestic product or the per capita income of the nation. Sustainable development is a core concept within global environmental policy. The concept of sustainable development is one that arguably is multi-disciplinary, complex, and systematic, yet defining the concept is without a doubt a great task. Sustainable development was a term first coined in 1980, when the intent of the concept was merely basic. It was in the World Conservation Strategy (1980), a union between three prominent environmental non-governmental organizations IUCN, WWF, and UNEP, where sustainable development took on the meaning of 'conserving the earth's natural resources. It provides a mechanism through which society can interact with the environment while not risking damaging the resource for the future. There is a wide range of definitions on the concept of sustainable development is the sheer amount of definitions that are available. Unfortunately, a clear definition of sustainable development has still not been devised. When looking at the definition in a document titled *Our Common Future* (1987) "sustainable development is development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs".

Servaes and Patchanee (2004) assert that different perspectives have influenced over the years the holistic and integrated vision of Sustainable Development. Nevertheless, one of the central ideas is that there is no universal development model which leads to sustainability at all levels of society and the world. Development is an integral, multidimensional, and dialectic process that can differ from society to society, community to community, context to context⁵. In other words, each society and community must attempt to delineate its own strategy to sustainable development starting with the resources and "capitals" available (not only physical, financial and environmental but also human, social, institutional etc.), and considering needs and views of the people concerned. Sustainable Development implies a participatory, multi-stakeholder approach to policy making and implementation, mobilizing public and private resources for development and making use of the knowledge, skills and energy of all social groups concerned with the future of the planet and its people. Within this framework, communication plays a strategic and fundamental role contributing to the interplay of the different development factors, improving the sharing of knowledge and information as well as the active participation of all concerned.

Sustainable development is a popular and important concept, but one that is open to a variety of interpretations. Haris (2000) defined sustainable development as the development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. In the extensive discussion and use of the concept since then, there has generally been recognition of three aspects of sustainable development as further purported by Haris (2000). These include:

- Economic: An economically sustainable system must be able to produce goods and services on a continuing basis, to maintain manageable levels of government and external debt, and to avoid extreme sectoral imbalances which damage agricultural or industrial production.
- Environmental: An environmentally sustainable system must maintain a

stable resource base, avoiding over-exploitation of renewable resource systems or environmental sink functions, and depleting non-renewable resources only to the extent that investment is made in adequate substitutes. This includes maintenance of biodiversity, atmospheric stability, and other ecosystem functions not ordinarily classed as economic resources.

- Social: A socially sustainable system must achieve distributional equity, adequate provision of social services including health and education, gender equity, and political accountability and participation.

The concept of sustainable development is rooted in human thinking. It helps us understand ourselves and our world. The problems we face are complex and serious and we can't address them in the same way we created them. But we can address them.

5. Kuyanbana Community at a glance

Kuyanbana is a small clustered and remote community in Rumaya town, Kauru Local Government Area of Kaduna state, Nigeria. Tummana is the language spoken among the Kuyanbana people. As a predominantly Christian community with a population of about 300 people, the people in the community are mainly farmers and being a rural settlement, they use local farming implements and plough to cultivate their farms. Also the use of Indigenous knowledge in curing illness is visible via their knowledge of medicinal herbs. The Gwari people are said to be the first settlers in the area, but they left and went further into the mountains because they don't want their culture to be infiltrated through interacting with other cultures. Some traditional ceremonies are annually celebrated in the community such as Ribiko and Kumusu. Their major occupation and source of income is farming.

6. The Kuyanbana field Experience

The Kuyanbana TFD experience was embarked upon by the Post graduate students of

Development Communication and Theatre and Performing Arts, Faculty of Arts, Ahmadu Bello University Zaria. It was a five day intervention that started on the 21st – 25th of January 2015. Although the facilitators constitute students from different backgrounds, Such as, students with first degree from Theatre and Performing Arts, Mass Communication, English and Literary studies, Medicine, Agricultural sciences among others. The composition of students is broad based and cuts across all the above mentioned fields of study. This composition becomes an advantage to the research work frequently carried out by the Centre of Excellence on Development Communication, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Kaduna state, because it will avail students to bring their knowledge from these areas of study into Development Communication studies. Every TFD intervention is embedded in integral steps and processes ranging from community research, project planning and implementation. Also, in doing TFD, a number of tools are usually adopted and deployed in the field, such as, Participatory Learning and Action (PLA) to gather information about community issues. The kuyanbana experience witnessed the deployment of tools like Transect walk, Community Map, Problem Tree, Stakeholders Analysis as well as the Pairwise Ranking to generate information on the community towards building the community. Also, some methodologies were deployed in the community which include; Behavioural Change Communication (BCC), Participatory Video (PV), Key Informant Interview (KII), Focus Group Discussion (FGD), and Participatory Viewing (PV).

7. Encounter with Women of Kuyanbana Community

On arrival at the community, the facilitators paid homage to the community head and briefed him about the purpose of the intervention. He assisted in summoning the community women with the permission granted them by their husbands as it is part of their cultural beliefs to confine women to remain indoors and avoid interaction with strangers especially the opposite sex. The facilitators had to interact in the community's local dialect (Hausa) because all

the women were non-literate who could barely understand English language. As a key starter in trying to get the women's attention to participate, the facilitators had to come up with songs in Hausa language and also requested that the women come up with their own traditional songs. The singing of the songs was an attempt to break the ice as majority of the women were shy to open up to the facilitators, however they were able to come up with various songs in their dialect which were accompanied by local dance steps leading to a brief performance that invoked the spirit of participation. Before this dramatic experience, some of the women were noticed to be cautious and within their comfort zones but however they became more open, interesting and entertaining after the singing and dancing session. When people are allowed to express themselves in their own language which they understand, the best output is achieved.

8. Situation Analysis

Although, conventional approach to Theatre for Development follows a prescribed methodology, overtime experience on the fields has shown that reality on ground does not stick to presumed processes. Dialogue with Kuyanbana women took a separate shape from normal process of TFD and began with general discussion where it was noticed that participation was not 100% inclusive which necessitated the interjection of singing some folklores. The resulting readiness of the women to air their views after this interlude implies the need to think out of the box and use of best judgments as the situation dictates come to forefront.

The participatory interaction with the community women yielded much result as it was an open forum for them to vividly and freely express themselves raising issues that confronts them as a community.

8.1 Findings after Situation Analysis

The interactive session was attended by population of 40 women out of which 33 were married while 7 were widowed. They were all non-literates who complained that they were unable to attend school because of lack of motivation and educational infrastructure in the

community. Among the women, were farmers and traders who mainly deal on farm produce as a source of livelihood. During the course of the discussion, the women opened up on the challenges they encounter in the community. Some of them lamented bitterly on how they struggle to survive amidst these problems, while some blame it on the government and male folks, a few also talked about how they were being oppressed, marginalized and not given a voice in the community. The problems identified include:

- Lack of Health facilities to promote personal hygiene
- Bad roads
- Lack of educational infrastructure
- Teenage pregnancy.
- Deforestation
- Identifying themes and scenario building

In achieving this, the women were asked if they can draw out scenarios centered on themes woven from the challenges they have identified from the discussion using drama skits. At first they were quite intimidated as many claimed not to be acquainted with scenario building and dramatic performance but the facilitators had to assist the women by explaining vividly on scenario formulation. Thereafter, they were happy and agreed to build the scenarios themselves. They were given enough time to brainstorm and prepare themselves. They were advised to avoid lengthy scenes so as to avoid boredom and be able to create awareness that will be able to convince their audience and to stimulate questions on the message they are trying to pass across.

9. Rehearsal

The rehearsals actually kicked off a day after the scenario building on the 24th of January, 2015. The women undertook the whole process from story formulation, casting which was done through trial. The process was time consuming as majority of the cast members took their time to be attuned to their various roles, while further suggestions and decisions came up on how to go about achieving the performance. Majority of the cast pleaded that they needed more time to

be prepared as it was their first time to be involve in role playing and dramatic performance. To spice up the process, traditional songs and dances were also rehearsed and included.

10. Performance

The play performance took place the next day at the community market; it was performed by the community women in Hausa language. Although non-elaborate costumes and makeup were used as their costumes and props were their daily wears and items brought from their homes. As the performance unfolds, some of the women were made part of the audience with the view to observe vividly. The performance was done in the Augusto Boal's style of presentation "Forum Theatre" where the actors were interrupted on the spot by spectators who can in turn take up roles during the performance; this was evident as one of the spectators took over a role from another actor on the basis of poor representation of a character on stage. In order to avoid misunderstanding the facilitators assured them that it was a learning process where mistakes are permitted as it also forms an essential part of the process. The performance ended in jubilation as the women were seen congratulating themselves and thanking the facilitators for assisting them to achieve the whole process by themselves. A post-mortem session was organized by the facilitators with the women to enable them discuss issues raised during the performance and ways in which they can be resolved. After an extensive interactive session the women offer suggestions, some of which include the following:

- Contributing token amount to enable them build toilets and classroom blocks
- Encouraging child education
- Educating the teenagers on sexual relations to prevent teenage pregnancies
- Tree planting to tackle deforestation
- Follow up

The field experience witnessed an evaluation exercise and process as the facilitators were made to go back to the community three weeks after the TFD project to observe the impact of the project on the community. To a great extent,

the evaluation process was successful as positive impact were highly recorded as most of the communities were able to implement their action plans while a few are still on course in tackling the development issues raised during the previous visits. The achievement was high as observed during the evaluation process between the facilitators and the community members. In the community, development issues such as, deforestation, Lack of proper toilet facilities, Girl child education, teenage pregnancy, Lack of adequate maintenance of the bridges and roads linking the communities and lack of personal hygiene. During the evaluation process it was observed that, the Villagers have since planted and always take turns in watering and caring for the plants distributed to them by the facilitators in order to breed forestation because it was observed earlier that the community are very fond of indiscriminate tree falling. The plants were planted and nursed in a fenced garden to protect them from being destroyed by animals. Another achievement in the community was the fact that, some toilets were under construction in some households within the communities, these toilets both constitutes the local (pit toilet) and the modern (water system) toilet. It was also realized that other community members are on the verge of beginning construction of toilets in their homes.

In the community, it was also observed that the issue of teenage pregnancy was addressed as the Hakimin (Village Head) had addressed all the youths in the community to beware of the harmful effects and consequences of illicit sexual relations and teenage pregnancy; he also urged the youths to embrace western education and entrepreneurship in order for them to be self empowered. Parents were also mandated to enroll their children in schools, this was clearly observed as most of the children were not seen roaming about the community during morning hours as they were found in the school environment.

11. Conclusion

From the discourse above, it is imperative to conclude that theatre for development is a veritable medium for engendering women's

participation and empowerment in achieving sustainable development. It bridges the gap of gender imbalance and misrepresentation in decision making process as well as governance in tackling issues that poses as challenges to the society. It also reveals how women can be an agent of societal change by contributing immensely to the growth and development of the society if given a voice to partake in the development process in order to bring about sustainable development both at the rural and urban level.

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Towards a Political Ecology of Food Security and Sustainability in Nigeria

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Abstract. The concern of food security and sustainability constitutes an integral part of Nigeria's contemporary national security problematic. This paper explores the food security and sustainability discourse in Nigeria within the paradigm of political ecology with a view to situating the notions and nuances that are associated therewith. By means of a discursive analysis, predicated on secondary data, the paper x-rays the socio-structural issues underlying food security as well as food vulnerability in Nigeria, positing that Nigeria's quest for food security/sustainability has been vitiated by a myriad of complex social, political, ecological and developmental factors negating food availability, access, safety and sustainability. The paper submits that these factors must be organically understood and addressed in order to overcome the threat of food insecurity/crisis in Nigeria.

Keywords: Agricultural productivity, food (in)security, food vulnerability, food sustainability, political ecology.

1. Introduction

Food is a prime sustainer of human life. It consists of the essential organic and inorganic substances consumed by man to ensure a functional life. The importance of food to mankind cannot be overemphasized. Food constitutes the basis of human energy and vitality, without which effective human living is threatened. Apart from sustaining life, food

provides the essential nutrients and nourishment that account for human health, stability and functionality. In effect, life without food is hardly sustainable.

Food security refers to the availability, access, and safety of useable food for the population while food vulnerability refers to the susceptibility of a population to food insecurity (Idachaba, 2006). Food security is determined by the quantity and quality of the food stock available and assessable to a population over a period of time. It is influenced by demographical and macro-economic factors such as population growth and dynamics, per capita and household income, purchasing power, agricultural productivity and output, etc. Fundamentally, these factors are contingent on the prevailing societal dynamics as well as the character of the policy-cum-governance regime.

Globally, sustainable food security has been hampered principally by climate change and violent conflicts. Weather extremities and volatilities associated with climate change have been found to be driving drought, desertification, erosion, and flooding (Okol, 2014). These occurrences bring about critical outcomes that negate agricultural productivity and output. Allied to the climate-induced threats is the issue of violent conflicts, often occasioned by stiff political and ecological contestations (Okoli & Atelhe, 2014). The impact of the foregoing on agricultural output and food supply has been devastating. For instance, both climate-

related and conflict-related agricultural emergencies have often led to mass displacement of farmers, loss of farmlands, loss of agricultural capital, forced volatile agrarian migration and vandalism of agricultural resources. The implications of the above for food security are obviously ominous.

Nigeria's aspiration to food security is indispensably a national security imperative. This aspiration, however, has been, over the years, impeded by a variety of factors relating to the socio-ecological and structural dynamics of society. This paper engages the subject of food security cum vulnerability in Nigeria from the theoretical standpoint of political ecology. The remainder of the paper is structured around the following themes: theoretical framework; conceptualizing food security/vulnerability; indexing Nigeria's food security/vulnerability status; political ecology of food security in Nigeria; and conclusion.

2. Theoretical Framework

This paper appropriates political ecology theory as its analytical anchorage. Political ecology has its epistemological foundation in cultural ecology but assumed an independent paradigmatic status in the mid-1980s (Buseth, 2009). The theory combines the concerns of ecology and a broadly defined political economy (Blakie & Brookfield, 1987). It probes the intricate and often interwoven political, social, and historical underpinnings of ecological issues in an attempt to proffer a holistic understanding (Buseth, 2009).

Political ecology is predicated on a number of basic assumptions to wit:

- (i) There is an organic relationship between ecological sphere and wider society.
- (ii) Ecological issues are influenced and often defined by socio-political forces and dynamics of the society
- (iii) Ecological phenomena have deep-seated political and economic underpinnings and dimensions

- (iv) Ecological issues are better interpreted and understood in the context of the historical, socio-economic and political dynamics that determine them
- (v) Ecology and politics, but also nature and society, are structurally and organically related (Blakie and Brookfield, 1987; Buseth, 2009; Stock, 2012; Okoli & Atelhe, 2014).

In effect, political ecology posits that environmental or ecological outcomes are largely determined by the socio-political and economic processes. Thus, the structural dynamics that affect household, community and state relations vis-à-vis the environment is salient to understanding the ecological discourses in those contexts. Also of the essence is the character of public policy and governance regimens in relation to environmental issues.

Applied to the context of the food security discourse, political ecology proffers useful insights into the socio-structural imperatives of food production, access and consumption. Food production is an agrarian activity that is affected by the ecological processes and dynamics. More importantly, food access and consumption are socio-economic concerns that are mediated by socio-structural factors, which are politically relevant and nuanced. A meaningful discourse on food security and vulnerability must, therefore, seek to situate the organic and complex relations between the socio-ecological and socio-structural forces and how they bring about certain outcomes that hold critical implications thereof. This is the theoretical predisposition of this paper.

3. Conceptualizing Food Security, Insecurity and Vulnerability

Food security simply means availability of safe food and accessibility to it (Otaha, 2013). More elaborately, it refers to physical, social, and economic access to sufficient safe and nutritious food to meet the dietary needs required for an active and healthy life (Idachaba, 2006). For a population to be food-secure, it must be able to enjoy predictable availability of, and

accessibility to, sufficient, affordable and safe quality and quality of food stocks for its households.

The Global Food Security Index (2015) identifies the three critical constituents of food security as; (i) affordability (ii) availability (iii)

quality and safety. The notion of affordability refers to the ability of a household or a country to pay for its food needs and preferences. Availability presupposes access to sufficient food while quality and safety have to do with the nutritional and health integrity of food supplies available for a population.

Table 1: Constituents and Determinants of Food Security

Constituent	Critical Determinants
Affordability	Food consumption as a share of household expenditure Proportion of population under global poverty line Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita Agricultural import tariffs Presence of food safety net programmes Access to financing for farmers
Availability	Sufficiency of food supply Public expenditure on agricultural research and development (R&D) Agricultural infrastructure Volatility or stability of agricultural production Urban absorption capacity of food Food loss
Quality and Safety	Diet diversifications Nutritional standards Micronutrient availability Protein quality Food safety

Source: Global Food Security Index (2015).

Clearly understood, food security does not consist in the quantity of available food stocks, not is it a question of food production volumes or agricultural output. It is rather an issue of access and safety in relation to the available food supplies (Global Food Security Index, 2015). Food security is, therefore, understood in the context of this paper as a condition that exists when a population has access to adequate, qualitative and safe food to maintain a wholesome and productive life.

Food vulnerability connotes susceptibility of society to food insecurity. Food insecurity exists when a population is undernourished as a consequence of physical unavailability of food, or lack of social and physical access to sufficient and qualitative food (Otaha, 2013: 30). Globally, food vulnerability is a function of interplay of factors, including disruptions in the global food system (Emerging Risk Report, 2015), food shortages, and diminishing food stocks (UNCTD, 2008), and the escalating food demands and prices in the era of food crisis (Otaha, 2013). Complications and implications of food vulnerability include hunger and starvation, livelihood insecurity and allied

humanitarian consequences that affect human health and security (Global Hunger Index, 2015: 18).

4. Indexing Nigeria's Food Security/Vulnerability Status

Nigeria is a populous country with a vibrant and growing human population estimated at over 170 million people (NBS, 2012). The contemporary trajectory of the national demography of Nigeria indicates that the country is experiencing rapid population growth with a concomitant burgeoning burden on food resources. However, accelerated growth in human population in the country without commensurate increases in food output has resulted in a sapping pressure on the available food resources. This trend has been driving the country progressively to the threshold of food crisis.

The scale of the contemporary food crisis in Nigeria has been vividly demonstrated by the incidence of hunger and food insecurity in the country. The 2015 Global Hunger Index (GHI) ranks Nigeria as the world's 91st hungry-nation

(Global Hunger Index, 2015: 18). Of the total of 104 countries covered in the report, Nigeria has an aggregate score of 32.68 percent to book a position among the league of world's twenty (20) worst-fed nations. Table 2 reproduces the list of least performing countries in terms of global hunger index based on the 2015

assessment. The table shows Nigeria's position in bold print for the sake of emphasis. It is instructive to note that Nigeria is ranked below some notable fragile and ostensibly less-endowed states in Africa such as Liberia, Burkina Faso, Namibia, Zimbabwe and Mozambique.

Table 2: *Nigeria's Global Hunger Ranking, 1990-2015

Rank	Country	1990	1995	2000	2005	2015
85	Liberia	54.4	55.2	46.8	41.5	30.8
85	Zimbabwe	33.3	38.1	40.8	39.2	30.8
87	Burkina Faso	53.0	46.1	48.4	49.6	31.8
87	Namibia	35.8	37.0	32.5	28.8	31.8
89	Mozambique	64.5	63.2	49.2	42.4	32.5
90	Angola	67.3	66.8	58.3	45.3	32.6
*91	Nigeria	47.7	47.1	41.10	35.2	32.8
92	Djibouti	56.1	56.1	48.5	45.1	33.2
93	Ethiopia	71.7	67.3	58.6	48.5	33.9
93	Pakistan	43.6	40.9	37.9	38.3	33.9
95	Yemen, Rep.	44.4	44.4	42.9	42.1	34.2
96	Niger	64.7	62.7	53.0	42.8	34.5
97	Afghanistan	47.4	55.9	52.5	44.9	35.4
98	Madagascar	47.4	55.9	52.5	44.9	35.4
99	Haiti	52.1	52.1	42.8	45.4	37.3
100	Sierra Leone	58.8	56.0	53.5	52.4	38.9
101	Timor -Leste	--	--	--	42.7	40.7
102	Zambia	47.0	49.0	50.9	46.7	41.1
103	Chad	65.0	60.6	52.2	53.1	46.4
104	Central African Republic	51.9	51.0	51.4	51.0	46.9

Source: Global Hunger Index (2015:18) ('--' indicates 'not available').

Similarly, the Global Food Security Index (2015) also ranks Nigeria as one of the World's most food-insecure nations. The report indicates that Nigeria has an aggregate percentage score of 37.1, which places her on the 91st position on the GFSI chart. Table 3 shows Nigeria (in bold type) listed among twenty (20) worst countries in terms of food security based on the 2015 Global Food Security Index. Again, Nigeria books a place among some of the world's most troubled political economies such as Sudan, Yemen, Rwanda, Cambodia, etc. This is curious considering the continental stature of Nigeria as the giant of Africa as well as the country's manifest comparative advantage in agrarian endowment (Idachaba, 2006).

Table 3: *Nigeria's Global Food Security Ranking, 2015

Rank	Country	Score/100
90	Yemen	37.3
*91	Nigeria	37.1
92	Sudan	36.5
93	Malawi	35.3
94	Angola	35.1
94	Rwanda	35.1

96	Cambodia	34.6
97	Guinea	33.9
98	Tanzania	33.7
99	Burkina Faso	33.6
99	Niger	33.6
101	Togo	33.4
102	Zambia	32.9
103	Mozambique	32.6
104	Haiti	31.1
105	Congo (Dem. Rep)	30.1
106	Sierra Leone	29.0
107	Madagascar	28.8
108	Chad	27.9
109	Burundi	25.1

Source: Global Food Security Index (2015).

5. Towards a Political Ecology of Food Security cum Vulnerability in Nigeria

Political ecology has been understood in this writing as an attempt to combine the concerns of ecology to those of political economy. Political ecology of food security, thus probes the nature and implications of food security in relations to its socio-ecological dialectics. Core to our understanding of food security are the notions of availability, accessibility and quality-cum-

safety. Political ecology of food security is concerned with situating how the aforementioned are affected by the complex and dynamic societal processes. The structural dialectics and dynamics of societal processes can, and often do, engender socio-political and

economic outcomes that affect food production, distribution and consumption. Some of these processes and outcomes are interrogated in the following subs-sections in an effort to advance a discursive political ecology overview of food security/vulnerability in Nigeria.

Table 4: Factoring the Political Ecology of Food Security cum Vulnerability in Nigeria

Prime Factor	Empirical Indicators	Structural Determinants	Sundry threats and inhibitions
Availability of food	Quantity of food stocks/supplies Agricultural Productivity/ output Food processing and preservation	Agricultural productivity and output Sufficiency of food supply Agricultural infrastructure Agricultural R&D Stability of Agricultural production Agroindustrialization Food absorption and loss Enabling policy/governance environment	Unfavourable land-holding and land-use systems and practices Poor agricultural policies Lack of modern equipment for mechanized agriculture Conflict Environmental disaster (e.g. flooding, drought, etc). Rural insecurity Urbanization and rural-urban drift
Accessibility of food	Affordability Personal or cultural tastes and Preferences Food distribution	Livelihood security Purchasing power Household and personal income Food distribution Personal and cultural tastes/preferences	Poverty Lack of basic infrastructure Lack of enabling technology iv. Conflict v. Natural barriers arising from inaccessible terrain
Quality/Safety of food	Nutritional standard Health assurance	Quality control assurance Food regulation and control Food safety and health education Ethical standards	Ignorance Lack of technical know-how Corruption Governance failure (lack of effective regulation). Poor soil quality Inappropriate preservation or processing Unhealthy consumption habits Climatic conditions
Sustainability of food	Advancement Transformation Resilience Stability	Political stability Economic development Disaster risk reduction Agromechanization Agroindustrialization Enabling policy/governance regime	Poor land use systems and practices Government neglect Policy neglect iv. Climate change v. Environmental hazards vi Ecological abuse Wasteful consumption Abusive agricultural practices

Authors' original compilation, 2017.

5.1 Food availability: Food availability is a vexed issue in the Nigerian food security narrative. Although agriculture accounts for about 33% of the GDP and 60% of the national employment quotient (USDA, 2011), Nigeria has nonetheless remained barely capable of optimally feeding herself. Available records suggest that Nigeria is a net importer of food and agricultural products. The current Minister of Agriculture, Chief Audu Ogbeh (2016) alarmed that Nigeria's food import bill amounted to USD32 billion annually.

There is no gainsaying the fact that Nigeria is food dependent. What is perhaps curious is that

she is getting rather too consumerist in that regard. According to USDA:

Nigeria is a net importer of agricultural products with imports approximately USD 3.7 billion and exports of about USD 600 million in 2010. Imports are dominated by bulk/ intermediate commodities such as wheat, rice and sugar. The United States is a substantial exporter of agricultural products to Nigeria, with exports estimated at approximately USD 800 million in 2010. Although US exports are primarily wheat, export of US value-added and consumer-ready products have also risen in recent years. Major competitors for the Nigerian market are Europe, Asia, and South Africa. Nigeria's traditional links with Europe remain strong, and EU

agricultural exports to Nigeria account for about 50 percent of the total (2011, para.1).

Factors that account for the apparent food deficits in Nigeria are legion and sundry. Prominent among these factors is the phenomenon of environmental disaster, exemplified in flooding, drought landslides and desertification. These occurrences often result in huge collateral damages to land and agricultural resources. Besides, they dislodge farmers from their localities of optimal productivity. Some of the displaced farmers are plunged into desperate ecological sojourn in search of safer farming or grazing fields. In the process, they are plunged into various degrees of confrontation with settled communities. This often results in volatile outcomes that impede agricultural productivity and output (Okoli & Atelhe, 2014).

There is also the issue of armed conflicts and rural insecurity. For instance, the Boko Haram insurgency has brought about marked decline in agricultural production in the North East of Nigeria (Okoli & Iortyer, 2014). The ripples of Boko Haram violence has led to the mass exodus of farmers and farming communities from the far North East to the North-Central part of Nigeria. This trend has incidentally reduced the North-Central region to a volatile axis in terms of the incidence of land-based resource conflicts and contestations. The escalating waves of herder-farmer violence and Fulani-militancy in the region are cases in point (Okoli, 2014). Allied to this scenario is the issue of rural banditry instantiated by cattle rustling and market raids in many parts of northern Nigeria (Okoli & Okpaleke, 2014).

The above situation is not helped by the prevailing land-holding and land-use systems and practices in Nigeria. The extant Land Use Act (1978) marginalises the rural peasant farmers/herders who contribute the bulk of the country's agricultural output (Chikaire, Anyaoha, Ani & Atoma, 2014). Yet these farmers are still largely rudimentary and subsistence-based. More importantly, they operate within the public policy ambience that is characteristically indifferent and hostile to their optimal productivity. The foregoing complex

scenario constitutes a critical dimension of the organic context that systematically negates assured availability of food in Nigeria.

5.2 Food accessibility: Food access is a critical determinant of food security and vulnerability. In effect, the crucial question is not about the quantity of food available but the amount of the national food stock that is accessible to the population. The question of food access is mediated by both ecological and structural dynamics of the society. Suffice it to note that the factors already highlighted in the preceding sub-section as affecting food production and agricultural output in Nigeria also affect food access in varying significant ways. But beyond these factors, food access in Nigeria has been fundamentally influenced by the structural factors such as poverty, infrastructural deficit and technological lack (cf. table 1).

In the recent years, more than sixty (60) percent of the Nigerian population has been living below the World Bank's one dollar per day threshold (NBS, 2012). The implication of this is that most of the Nigerian population possess grossly weak purchasing power (PP). This means that they can hardly afford their basic household and personal needs, including food. This is more-so, given the soaring prices of food commodities in the current era of global food crisis. Little wonder then that Nigeria find itself on the threshold of food crisis, apparently to the tune of famine.

Infrastructural deficit has also posed a challenge to food access in Nigeria. For instance, lack of access roads in most parts of rural Nigeria has impeded the movement of food products from the hinterlands to places of critical consumption needs. So, in addition to the shortfalls in the national food stocks and supplies, a significant chunk of the available food products does not get to areas where they are mostly needed (Ojo & Adebayo, 2012).

There is also the issue of needless waste of food resources owing to lack of technology for food preservation and processing. In effect, most of the food surpluses obtainable in the rural areas during harvest seasons are often wasted away due to this technological challenge. In the end, most Nigerian households are starved of food either as a result of physical access occasioned

by lack of infrastructural cum technological facilities, or due to structural impediments arising from poverty or material lack. This explains the level of hunger, mass starvation and food insecurity in Nigeria as tables 2 and 3 tend to suggest.

5.3 Food Quality and Safety: Food quality and safety is related to nutritional standard and health assurance in food production, processing, preservation and consumption. At the level of production, food quality may be affected by soil quality or the ecological chemistry of farmland. At the level of preservation and/or processing, the quality and safety of food can be compromised or improved by human and systemic factors. Also at the level of consumption, the integrity of food can be violated by way of wrong preparation or abusive consumption. Ignorance or lack of technical knowhow can form the pretext for such violations. Corruption, functional abuse and failure of regulation as it relates to food administration and control can complicate the situation. Nigeria's National Agency for Food and Drug Administration and Control (NAFDAC) as well as Standard Organization of Nigeria (SON) has been at the fore-front of the enforcement of food quality and safety standards. Food quality and safety is crucial to food security; after all poor or unsafe food is as bad as lack of it.

5.4 Food sustainability: Food sustainability consists in the achievement of advancement, stability, transformation and resilience in relation to a country's food economy. Advancement implies technologically innovative and adaptive means of promoting crop and livestock yields; stability has to do with attainment of functional equilibrium in respect of food supply, distribution and pricing; transformation refers to the transubstantiation of food products through advanced industrial modifications; resilience entails the ability of the national food system to withstand systemic shocks, disruptions and encumbrances arising from fatal socio-ecological or structural occurrences. Each of these indicators encompasses veritable ingredients required for

the trans-generational sustenance of the national food patrimony.

Nigeria's aspiration to food sustainability is veritably challenged by the untoward impacts of climate change and environmental disasters. Unmitigated impacts and complications of climate change, such as drought, erosion, flooding, desertification and windstorm can drive a country to the fault-lines of famine and of food crisis (Global Hunger Index, 2015). As has been observed earlier, these have correlations with other critical threats to food security, such as rural conflict and instability. Food sustainability in Nigeria has also been threatened by structural factors such as poor policy environment, government neglect, unfavourable land-use systems and practices, and the like. Other factors such as wasteful consumption, ecological abuse and abusive agricultural practices are equally highly culpable. Although it is difficult to attain, food sustainability is indispensable to human security.

6. Conclusion

Political ecology seeks to synthesize the concerns of ecology and those of political economy in an attempt to evolve a holistic mode of social analysis. It assumes that ecological phenomena have deep seated socio-political cum socio-economic underpinnings and implications. In respect of food security and vulnerability, political ecology takes the discourse beyond the realm of uncritical ecology by underscoring the role of historical and contemporary societal dynamics. In the case of Nigeria, such discourse would reveal that the prospect of food security and, of course remediation of food vulnerability, in the country is contingent on a myriad of socio-political, socio-ecological and structural determinants (cf.5.1-5.4 above). Addressing these factors through a pragmatic policy that organically comprehends the concerns of ecology, politics, economy, governance, development, and security is a desideratum for a food secure and food resilient Nigeria.

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Exploring Alternative Sources of Funding Universal Basic Education for Sustainable Development in Nigeria

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Abstract. It is a statement of fact that people all over the world are day by day becoming aware of and sensitive to the benefits of formal education. The educational needs for primary and secondary education in Nigeria have increased due to the introduction of Free Basic Education in 1999 and the increased transition rate. This will require that the government commits more resources towards basic education. This study was conducted to identify the alternative sources of financing basic education in Plateau North and their influence on management of those schools. It also sought to identify challenges facing schools in financing Basic education and the impact of alternative sources of income on the school budget. The study employed a descriptive survey design. The study sample consisted of thirty school principals and their bursars; five from each of the six local governments in Plateau North, six ES's, and six DQAs. A semi-structured questionnaire was administered to the school principals, while interview schedules were used for bursars, ES's, and director of quality assurance. This research was guided by the Capital Theory of School Effectiveness and Improvement developed by Hargreaves (2001). Descriptive statistics was used to analyze the data collected. Findings of the study revealed that the dominant sources of financing Basic education include households and the

government with the mean scores of 3.34 and 3.66 respectively. Other sources of funding are private sector, religious organizations, communities, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs). Further findings revealed that earnings from these sources enhanced management in secondary schools through salary remuneration for BOG/ PTA teachers, support staff and student motivation, to purchase more teaching and learning materials and improvement of physical facilities. The Ministry of Education should therefore formulate policies on how schools can implement alternative sources of financing secondary education to reduce overdependence on government.

Key Words: Alternative Sources, Financial Challenges, Junior Secondary Education, Universal Basic Education (UBE) and sustainable development.

1. Introduction

Education, in every human community, is an indispensable instrument for human progress, empowerment and for effecting national development. Hence, the Nigerian federal government has adopted education as an instrument per excellence for effecting national development (FRN, 2009). This suggests that a nation that lacks a sound educational culture and

philosophy stands the risk of decay whereas a nation that sees to the development of its education is bound to achieve great success.

It is a statement of fact that people all over the world are day by day becoming aware of and sensitive to the benefits of formal education. Even though the process of formal education is usually long, it is not without immediate and long-term profits (Akangbou, 1987; Akpa 2002; Blaug, 2008; and Eze, 2013). This awareness can be seen as one of the reasons for the annual increase in students' enrolment at all levels of education in many countries of the world. Consequently, most nations of the world strive to devote a sizeable proportion of their Gross Domestic Product (GDP) to develop the education sector. However, it should be noted that Nigerian education sector has consistently received less allocation than advocated for by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO).

According to the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation, (UNESCO 2002), every nation of the world should allocate at least 26% of its annual budget to education sector but Nigeria has not met this recommendation. Between 2010- 2015 only 8.2% and 8.7% of our annual budget was allocated to education (FGN, Annual Budget, (2010-2015).

World Bank, (2003) stated that the federal government expenditure on education seem to be below 10% of its overall expenditure. This issue of under-funding of basic education is so endemic that, it has encompassed series of other problems of shortages of human and material resources, (Iwuanyanwu and Anene, 2001). This current pattern of investment within the education sector is such that the tertiary level gets the lion share while the primary level gets the least, (Alabi, 2010).

The Federal Republic of Nigeria in the National Policy on Education (2013: 14) describes primary education as the education given in an educational institution for children aged between 6-11 years plus. The policy states that since the rest of the educational system is built upon it,

primary education is the key or failure of the whole educational system. Despite the preeminence accorded this level of education in Nigeria, the sector is poorly funded.

Funding is the amount of money needed to fund an on-going project or programme for future development. According to Ogbonnaya, (2012), funding refers to a sum of money saved or made available for a particular purpose. Investment in basic education has become internationally recognized as instrument per excellence for national development. Gidado, (2000) asserts that primary education has suffered tremendously in Nigeria from poor finances, inappropriate allocation of funds and a host of other problems.

Nigerian's education is financed from various sources, depending on the types of the educational Institutions. The Government-maintained institutions are financed by the Government out of funds voted by Parliament each year. Basic schools prepare their annual budgets or estimates, which are forwarded to the Ministry of Education headquarters through their respective Directors of Education. The estimates, indicating also the amount of fees to be collected from the parents, are then considered by the grants section of the Ministry which then gives out grants, less the amount of fees. The fees are retained by the schools as appropriations-in aid.

The inadequate funding of basic education has led to deterioration in infrastructural facilities at this level of education. Most of the infrastructures currently existing at this level of education in many parts of the country are in a dilapidated state. The school administrators have consistently claimed that their inability to put these infrastructures in proper shape is due to the limited financial resources available to them.

In tandem with international conventions and protocols that encourage governments to provide universal education to its citizens, the Government of Nigeria under the then Head of State, (Rtd) General Olusegun Obasanjo launched Universal Primary Education (UPE) scheme in September 1976. The objective of these policy initiatives was to increase access

and to cushion poor households by abolishing school fees, (Oni, 2005). This program reflects the government's commitment to the attainment of education for all (EFA) and the Millennium Development Goals (MDG's).

The programme started with an enrolment of 8.2 million primary school pupils for the whole country. The number of primary school teachers trained for the scheme was 48, 780. This was 11, 220 teachers less than the projected figure of 66,000. (Nwagwu,1989). As a result, the government employed retired but healthy teachers on contract, withdraws teachers in their third year of five year programme for one year before returning to their training institutions and employed auxiliary teachers, (Ogbonnaya, 2010).

The scheme did not last the test of time as a number of factors were responsible for the failure of the scheme and one of such factors was the issue of inadequate funds. As a matter of fact, education is an expensive project and the government alone cannot successfully handle it in the country. This is evidenced in the previous Universal Primary Education (UPE) scheme which collapsed because of poor funding (Nwagwu, 1989).

In an attempt to achieve the ill-fated Universal Primary Education (UPE) scheme, the federal government under former president Olusegun Obasanjo launched the Universal Basic Education (UBE) scheme in 1999 to provide free compulsory basic education, free adult literacy programme amongst others to its citizens as a means of eradicating illiteracy in the country education, Maduasi, (2005) but with the look of things, the scheme is having some financial challenges in terms of funding because since its launching in 1999,

Funding is one of the major factors of the management of education in any country. No educational institution or programme can be managed effectively without adequate funding. Researches on the funding of UBE revealed that the scheme was not effective because of lack of funds as enough funds were not available to pay teachers' salaries and allowances, procurement of textbooks, provision of instructional

materials, construction of classroom blocks, provision of school equipment, insufficient funds for effective supervision among others , (Adesina 2005; Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2005). As a result of this, teachers that are employed in the schools could not cope with the increasing number of pupils and this affects the standard of basic education in Plateau State. Therefore, this paper sets out to achieve these four objectives: i) To examine the current challenges in funding Universal Basic education in the country, ii) to examine the current sources of funding Universal Basic education in the country, iii) to examine the influence of alternative sources of funding Universal Primary and Junior secondary levels of education in the country, and iv) to explore the alternative funding strategies for public primary and junior secondary education in plateau state.

To achieve these objectives, the following questions were raised, 1) what are the current challenges in funding Universal Basic education in plateau north? 2) What are the sources of funding UBE Programme in plateau north? 3) What are the influences of alternative sources of funding on UBE sustainable development? 4) What are the alternative sources for improving in funding UBE in plateau north? It is based on this that, the researcher is poised to carrying out the study on alternative sources of funding universal basic education for sustainable development in Plateau State.

2. Literature Review

Based on the lessons learnt during the implementation of UPE, it would be expected that implementation of free basic education was to be faced with a myriad problems. Research on UPE indicated that there were many challenges facing its implementation (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2005; UNESCO, 2005). For example, UNESCO (2005) carried out an assessment of the Universal Primary Education programme in Nigeria in 2005. The assessment found out that some of the major challenges facing Universal primary education initiative were increased student numbers; shortage of teachers; lack of clear guidelines on admission; lack of consultation with teachers and parents; delay in

disbursement of funds by the government; and expanded roles for head teachers. The recent assessment of basic education in Nigeria by UNESCO (2012) and Oke (2014) similarly documented that despite milestones achieved towards attaining UBE by 2020, Nigeria still faces a number of finance related challenges that are negatively impacting on quality and equity of educational provision in the country. The foregoing notwithstanding, the strategies to generously finance education system in Nigeria is hinged on the philosophy, vision/mission and target goals pursued through clearly stated objectives (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2013). Furthermore, the Ministry of Education in Nigeria is guided by the National Philosophy, which places education at the centre-stage of the country's human and economic development strategies (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2013). Thus, the education system focuses on the acquisition of knowledge and skills as well as provision of lifelong learning (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2013; United Nations, 2013). In line with the current United Nations (2013) and other educationally relevant international conventions and protocols which Nigeria is a signatory to, the education in the country emphasizes provision of a holistic, quality education and training that promotes the cognitive, psychomotor and affective domains of learners, instilling values such as patriotism, equality of all human beings, peace, security, honesty, humility, mutual respect, tolerance, co-operation and democracy, through education (Omorie, 2006; Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2013; United Nations, 2013). Ultimately the overall vision of education service provision in the country is to have a globally competitive quality education, training and research for Nigerian's sustainable development. To achieve this, the Ministry of education has endorsed Vision 2020 and shall focus education and training towards achieving the goals of the Vision (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2013).

3. Research Methodology

This study employed a case study using descriptive research method. Descriptive research design was appropriate for this study,

as it allowed the researcher to use secondary schools to explain the effect of alternative sources of income in public secondary schools in plateau north senatorial zone. The target population consisted of one hundred and fifty secondary schools while study population comprised of 30 head teachers of public primary and Junior secondary schools in plateau north.

Purposive sampling was used to select the public secondary schools within the zone; five from each local government. The schools selected were all receiving the free basic education funding from the government; they were also to have been in existence for at least nine years: this would guarantee enough data on student enrolment, retention and dropout since the schools would have enrolled students in basic one and taken them through the basic nine year.

The major instruments for data collection for this study was the questionnaire, titled: Alternative Sources of Funding Universal Basic Education Questionnaire (ASFUBEQ) It comprised 15 items built in four clusters- A, B, C and D on a four point rating scale of Strongly Agree (S A) 4 points, Agree (A) 3 points, Disagree (D) 2 points and Strongly Disagree (S D) 1 point.

The reliability of the instrument was determined by a trial-testing exercise carried out in five primary schools using Primary School Head-teachers. A coefficient reliability of 0.89 was obtained. The face to face method was applied in the administration of the questionnaire on the respondents. The data was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics on various alternative financial funding models in public primary and junior secondary schools in Plateau North.

Any item with a criterion of 2.50 and above score was accepted, while any mean of 2.49 and below were rejected.

4. Results and Discussion

The Sources of Funding UBE Programme in Plateau North: The first objective was to find out the sources of funds for basic education in

plateau north. Finding indicated that the main sources of funding basic education in plateau north include households and the government with the mean scores of 3.34 and 3.66 respectively. Other sources of funding are private sector, religious organizations, communities, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), and development partners largely the donor community. This was revealed with the mean scores range between 2.74- 3.99. The cost of basic education borne by the government and households consists of salaries for teaching and non-teaching staff, bursary allocations, capital investments, school fees, tuition and transport, amongst others (Oke, 2014). Assie-Lumumba (2005) identifies five sources of financing education: the state, local communities, families, businesses and external sources. In general, for children from rural communities to access education at lower costs, there is a tendency for the most broad-based contribution of rural communities to the costs of education to be situated in the framework of investment costs. The construction of school buildings is a significant area in which community participation is most visible and widespread.

The current challenges in funding Universal Basic education in plateau north

Finding indicates that the inadequate funding of the education sector is the main challenge, others are; Misappropriation of funds meant for SUBEB, Politicization of the membership of SUBEB, Undue influence by SUBEB officials, inadequate and Poor statistical data for basic education planning, Sole dependence on government in funding education, Unstable education policy / programmes in Nigeria, Poor methods of disbursing funds. All the above mentioned challenges have the mean scores ranging from 3.10- 3.84. This portraits the general level of agreement to the current challenges in funding UBE as indicated by the respondents.

Influence of Income from Alternative Sources on Sustenance of School Projects and Programs

The results indicated that additional income from alternative sources made school management easier. Income from alternative

sources enabled schools to pay workers on time and even hire extra labor whenever it was required. This extra income was also used to hire more teachers, take students for excursion and motivate the students and staff. Other schools utilized this extra income in infrastructure improvement e.g. putting up extra toilets and painting. This income was also used in paying school creditors since fee payment was not prompt. Having rental houses in schools meant that staffs were available full time hence making school management easier especially in boarding schools. The mean and standard deviation were 3.96 and 0.60 respectively, implying about 40% of the schools sampled were challenged in securing funding for basic education in the country. The distribution is uniform.

When school principals were asked how much income from alternative sources was raised and how it impacted on school projects and programs, the results reflected mean income per school at N59, 545. The income generated from alternative sources in schools is skewed.

The extent to which the challenges of funding affect UBE

The findings revealed that challenges of inadequate funding of UBE has degenerated to the following problems; Poor provision of infrastructure, facilities and equipment with the mean score of 3.64, Inadequate facilities and instructional materials 4.11, while inadequate provision of pupils supportive services has the mean score of 3.80, others are Lack of initiative and creativity, Delay in the payment of salaries and allowances, Poor achievement in education. The mean scores ranges between 3.07 and 4.16. This shows the level of agreement of the respondent on the effects of the challenges of funding on school effectiveness.

The Alternative Sources for Improving Funding For UBE in Plateau North

The finding suggests the following alternative sources of funding; Increasing the budgetary allocation to education, Collaborative effort by all the three tiers of government in the funding for sustainable education development, Active participation of the private sector in funding basic education, Generating funds through rates,

Establishing endowment funds, Making judicious use of funds meant for basic education, Planning for basic education with accurate statistical data.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

The research aimed at studying the alternative sources of financing basic education in plateau north. Based on the findings the following conclusions were made: Apart from government funding, the following alternative sources were identified: Income generating projects that were classified into three classes: Agricultural based, Commercial based and Service based. The Agricultural based included livestock farming and crop farming. The commercial based activities are school canteen and bakery. The service based income activities were; Bus hire, Hire of furniture and school fields, school halls and equipment. Other alternative sources of financing secondary education in plateau north other than income generating projects include funding from the following: Individual sponsors and donors, Government bursaries, Fundraising, Non-Governmental organizations (NGOs), Religious organizations e.g. Churches, Constituency Development Fund (CDF), Banks e.g. Equity, Cooperative, Micro-finance.

The following were recommendations of the study:

- The government through the Ministry of education should formulate policies that will require schools to come up with alternative sources of financing basic education in order to break the overdependence on solely government funding that does not seem to be sustainable from the findings of the study.
- Non-Governmental Organization (NGOs) and other private groups should join hands in providing funds for the running of basic education in the country.
- The Ministry of education should develop structures within the schools and the in-service training courses to train the school managers on successful

management of the projects by imparting them with skills. This would ensure that fees charged is subsidized and therefore affordable to most households and hence increasing access, improving retention by preventing drop-out and that facilitating achievement of the Millennium development goal (MDG) and Education for all (EFA)

- In pursuit of increased returns from basic schools, the ministry should put in place mechanisms to ensure that each school is given a condition of raising a minimum threshold of income for financing basic education.
- Government should ensure adequate provision of not only funds but other facilities and equipment to enhance better quality education at the primary level in the country.

From the background and findings of this study, the following areas are suggested for further study:

- That a study be conducted to establish the influence of level of skills in management of income generating activities in secondary schools in Nigeria.
- That a study be conducted to find out the influence of alternative sources of income on the quality of various level of education offered.
- That a study be conducted to establish the effect of the level of training of the management team of basic education on resource mobilization of the schools.

6. Implications on Funding Policy and Quality Education

The findings have major implications on the basic level of education. Basic education is the basic area for the laying of crucial foundation for the educational development and progress of individuals in the society. As a result, it requires adequate funding and provision of infrastructural facilities and equipment as well as adequate staff to ensure the realization of quality and sound basic education for the citizenry. It becomes

imperative that Plateau State Government, the State Ministry of Education, the Head-teachers, the LGEAs as well as SUBEB including parents should join hands to look inwards, with a view to creating conducive and sound foundation for proper funding and running of basic education.

Non-Governmental Organization (NGOs) as well as religious groups can equally help in the provision of funds for primary schools through supply of instructional materials, books for the libraries, desks and other needed facilities and equipment that will enhance efficiency and effectiveness of basic education in the country.

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Managing Universal Basic Education for Breaking Poverty Circle in Nigeria

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Abstract. The study investigated managing universal basic education for breaking poverty circle in South-west geo-political zone, Nigeria. The objectives of this study is to determine the relationship between free school feeding, free uniforms, quality learning environment and breaking poverty circle in South-west geo-political zone public primary schools. To achieve this, three hypotheses were formulated and tested. Quantitative research design was used for the study. A self-constructed questionnaire title “Managing Education for Breaking Poverty Circle Questionnaire” (MEBPCQ) was used to collect information for the study. The data collected were analyzed using Pearson Product Moment Correlation statistic. All hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance. The results revealed that there was a positive and significant relationship between free school feeding, free uniforms, quality learning environment and breaking poverty circle in public primary schools in South-west geo-political zone, Nigeria. It was recommended that there is need for all tiers of government to devote a greater part of resources to education by giving free feeding to pupils in basic education in order to improve nutritional intake of children school age towards learning, government should also continue provide adequate free school uniforms in order to have higher enrolment of children in schools, reduces school absenteeism as well as eliminating gap between pupils of different background. Furthermore, government should also create enabling quality learning environment in school such as well-ventilated classrooms, electricity, water, good road and the likes in order to encourage learning by doing and increase interest in learning, encourage social relationship, gives room for academic achievement and success, building confidence in pupils as well as lower absenteeism and dropout rate which in turn breaking poverty circle in south-west geo-political zone, Nigeria.

Keywords: managing, universal basic education, breaking poverty circle, Nigeria.

1. Introduction

Investing and management of education is one of the effective ways to break the circle of poverty in terms of provision of feeding, school uniform and creation of quality learning environment which can be enough to increase community overall educational retention toward breaking the circle of poverty. The poorest children need more beyond reading, writing and numeracy. There are some physical needs needed most like basic needs of food, clothing, shelter and health care which should be dealt with first. Education is hindered by health issues such as malnutrition, illness, sanitation and the likes. Poor children are often malnourished by not getting enough food and are more prone to different diseases which will in turn hampered their concentration in the classroom.

The objectives of basic education according to National Policy on Education is to equip children and young people with skills and knowledge to help them deal with real life challenges and also become active and useful member of society. The aim of basic education is notably literacy and numeracy and is recognized in most countries as a foundation for further development to reduce poverty circle in the country. Effective management of universal basic education can contribute to skills development and help imparting life skill which are useful in breaking poverty circle in developing countries. In Nigeria, most children often go to school in tattered uniform, without shoes, exercise books and reading books. Most parents struggle to send their children to school with the hope of breaking the vicious circle of poverty.

Poverty refers to the deprivation of basic human needs like food, clothing, shelter, education, health care and the likes. Poverty according to Ukwu (2002) can be categorized into two namely: absolute and relative poverty. Absolute poverty is the condition of people not having enough to eat, poor drinking water, poor nutrition, inadequate health,

poor access to education, unfit housing among others. Relative poverty relates to individual, household or community condition with reference to below average standard of living. The so called poverty undermines child well-being in many ways such that the lack of income often prevents parents from meeting the basic needs that will help the child develop. The stress attached to living in poverty undermines parents' ability to devote time and energy needed for the proper caring to be a good parent. It is an accepted fact that education is perhaps the most effective strategy to tackle poverty in the whole world.

The introduction of a school feeding programme for basic education pupils in Nigeria is a way of reducing or eliminating abject poverty that is wreaking havoc in most families who can hardly afford one meal a day and extremely find it difficult to send their children to school. This has for long been a problem culminating in the high rate of dropout school children. It is quietly understood that hunger keeps children out of school and limit their ability to concentrate in the classroom. The feeding program launched by the government will be an important incentive to attract children to attend school. Education is the only key that creates sustainable change for children, families, communities and the entire countries because feeding a child make it possible for the child to learn which in turn make it possible to feed herself and the family for years to come.

In an effort to strengthen the basic education and boost literacy level in the country, free and compulsory basic education, free feeding for pupils as well as free distribution of school uniforms for all students in public universal basic schools in Kaduna, Osun, Ogun, Ebonyi, Kano, Lagos, Anambra States to mention but few for the purpose of creating an avenue for the advancement of a given society as well as securing its futures.

The democratic regime of President Obasanjo in Nigeria launched many programmes to curtail the level of poverty which includes Poverty Alleviation Programme (PAP), National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) in 2001 and National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) in 2004. But, unfortunately poverty rate in the country seems to be on the increase. The State government of Kano State introduced afternoon meals for primary school pupils in April 2001 in order to combat low enrolment rate, poor attendance and poor academic achievement among the poorest population group in the State.

According to the study carried out by UNESCO, 40 percent children aged 6-11 in Nigeria do not attend any primary school while the northern region recording the lower school attendance rate. Despite the effort of federal government in boosting the enrolment of school children in recent years, it is estimated that about 4.7 million children are still not in school. Also poor learning environment has remained a greatest challenge in educational system in Nigeria ranges from inadequate school facilities, classrooms, poor infrastructures, insufficient teachers to teach the high number of school children, poor payment of teacher salaries and the like, hence make the expected result become less effective.

School feeding programme was first established in Brazil in 1950, targeting the children from poor background. Today, it has become a universal right of children under the law. Globally, many countries like China, India and Kenya have recorded successes in school feeding programmes to give children good nutrition and boost health of children as well as would expand access to education. Children with poor nutrition and health naturally perform below average and are more likely to repeat class and to drop out of the school than children who are not impaired. Hungry children have more difficulty in concentrating and performing complex tasks in the class or school.

School attendance in Nigeria is quietly low due to high rate of dropout in the universal basic education because of inability of some parents to provide parent teacher association levels, books, uniforms, and the likes. It is very crucial to note that even when basic education fees is free, there are other related costs such as those for uniforms, shoes, transportation, school bags, feeding among others which the poor parent cannot afford. Also Nigeria education has been characterized by poor infrastructure, poor learning facilities, ill-equipped vocational and technological training facilities. Free basic education requires that all these needs be met within the provision of education and investment in education is key to poverty reduction. These and many other related issues prompted the researcher as to carry out managing universal basic education for breaking poverty circle in Nigeria.

Aloysius (2010) investigated the effect of educational attainment on poverty reduction in Cameroon. 2001 Cameroonian household survey obtainable from the National Institute of Statistics was used as data for the study. The result revealed that educational attainments reduce the probability of

being poor of the employed individual. The study is related to this study in that it looked at educational attainment for poverty reduction. However, the study left a lots of gap in that it did not specifically examine universal basic education as way of breaking poverty circle, also the study did not carried out in Nigeria. Furthermore, it did not considered the free feeding, free uniforms and quality learning environment in school as criteria to break the poverty circle in the country.

The theoretical framework of this study was based on theory of Abraham Maslow hierarchy of needs (1943) as cited in Okorie (2002) said that individual have networks of need that affect their living, starting with basic physiological needs to complex self-actualization. The hierarchy of need identified by Maslow in ascending order includes physiological needs (food, cloth, shelter, sex, sleep and so on), safety needs, social or love need (belongness), esteem needs (achievement, prestige, status), and self-actualization needs (self fulfilment, peak experience among others). Maslow proposition is that as each need becomes substantially satisfied, the next one becomes dominant. This theory of needs can also be applicable in the school setting and also useful to this study in that provision of free school feeding, uniforms and quality learning environment which is part of physiological needs and also serve as a basic needs of pupils that must be satisfied for the attainment of effective learning if truly government want to break poverty circle. The provision of basic needs to pupils in basic schools by government will go a long way to eradicate poverty through education because provision of these basic needs help to arouse pupils interest in learning, gives emotional stabilities, enrich pupil's skills as well as gives full concentration to classroom learning. Safety need is the second needs of the hierarchy, quality learning environment will gives room for safety of pupils in term of building confidence in them, lower absenteeism and dropout rate as well as gives room for academic achievement and success. After the satisfaction of lower levels of hierarchy needs, pupils need move to higher needs which includes love needs (needs to belong to the society), esteem needs (achievement of the academic success), and lastly, self-actualization needs (self-fulfilment, attainment of result or certificate) that gives room for breaking of poverty circle in the society. Therefore, the application of Maslow hierarchical needs in school setting in term of provision of basic needs such as feeding (food), uniforms (cloth), quality learning environment (shelter) serves as way of breaking poverty circle

through effective management of universal basic education.

2. Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study are:

- To determine the relationship between school feeding programme and breaking poverty circle in public basic education in South-west geo- political zone.
- To find out the relationship between school free uniforms and breaking poverty circle in public basic education in south-west geo-political zone.
- To examine the relationship between quality learning environment and breaking poverty circle in public basic education in south-west geo-political zone.

3. Research Questions

The following research questions were raised in addressing the problem of the study:

- Do provision of school feeding programme breaking improve learning towards breaking poverty circle in public basic education in South-west geo-political zone?
- Does provision of free school uniforms improve learning towards breaking poverty circle in public basic education in South-west geo-political zone?
- Does quality learning environment improve learning towards breaking poverty circle in South-west geo-political zone?

4. Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were formulated and answered:

- There is no significant relationship between school feeding programme and breaking poverty circle in public basic education in South-west geo-political zone.
- There is no significant relationship between free school uniforms and breaking poverty circle in public basic education in South-west geo-political zone.
- There is no significant relationship between quality learning environment and breaking poverty circle in public basic education in South-west geo-political zone.

5. Research Methodology

The research design used in this study was quantitative research design. This design was considered appropriate because it gives room for the opportunity to interpret, and extract valuable information in order to draw inference from available evidence and reach a reasonable conclusion about the population from the findings of the study. This study focused on the public basic primary education in South-west geo-political zone, Nigeria which comprises six States namely Ekiti, Lagos, Ogun, Ondo, Osun and Oyo States. There are 8,681 primary schools and 87,685 teachers in South-west as at the time of study. The target population of this study comprised of 5,255 public primary schools head teachers and 50,557 public primary schools teachers in three States namely Ogun, Osun and Oyo. Sample of 361 public primary schools head teachers and 382 public primary schools teachers making a total of 743 participants were selected using Research Advisor (2006) table for determining sample size of a known population. Purposive sampling technique was used to select three States out of six States in South-west geo-political zone, Nigeria because these three States namely Ogun, Osun and Oyo are the State that is giving provision for free feeding, uniforms and quality learning environment in South-west geo-political zone as at the time of study. While Osun is the only State that provides free uniforms to students out of the three States. Proportional sample technique was used to select 102 head teachers out of 1,492 and 123 teachers out of 16,320 in Ogun State, 96 head teachers out of 1,391 and 88 teachers out of 11,588 was selected in Osun State while 163 head teachers out of 2,371 and 171 teachers out of 22,649 was also selected in Oyo State. Stratified random sampling techniques was used to select 361 public primary schools head teachers and 382 public primary schools teachers. This was to ensure that all categories of head teachers and teachers were given equal chance of being selected.

The data collection instrument was self-designed questionnaire title "Managing Education for Breaking Poverty Circle Questionnaire" (MEBPCQ). The instrument had two sections; section A elicited personal information of head teachers and teachers, while section B elicited information concerning managing education for breaking poverty circle. The 15 items in section B were arranged in three clusters.

The head teaches and teachers responded to the items on a four (4) point Likert type scale as follows: Strongly Agree (4), Agree (3), Disagree (2) and Strongly Disagree (1). The criterion mean is given thus: $4 + 3 + 2 + 1 / 4 = 2.50$. The criterion mean depicts that any item that is above or equal to the criterion mean value of 2.50 is agreed while the item below the criterion mean value is disagreed by the participants. To ensure content validity of the instrument, draft copies of the instrument were given to three experts in educational management and three experts in measurement and evaluation. Relevant corrections and adjustment were made based on their observations and recommendations. Also 30 corrected copies were further administered to head teachers and teachers who are part of the sampled to examine their understanding of the items and to seek their opinion about the appropriateness of the items' statement in terms of the wordings, instructions and understandability of the scales and questions in order to detect if there is any difficulties that may arise in filling the questionnaire. Therefore, some suggestions made were effected effectively before sending out the final copies.

Instrument reliability was ensured by using Cronbach's alpha; the instrument reliability index was .76. The corrected questionnaires were distributed with the help of three research assistants to the participants of sample schools in order to ensure high rate of returned. Effective administration of questionnaires was also aided by the cooperation of colleagues and friends in the sample schools. According to the guide line provided by Stanley and Wise (2010), this study emphasized the ethical issues in assuring anonymity and guaranteeing confidentiality of their responses. The data collected for the study were analyzed using SPSS version 2.0. The data collected were screened before analysis. Missing data was not an issue in this study because researcher with the research assistants administered the questionnaire to the respective participants and make sure the questionnaire is appropriately filled in the process of collecting. The research question were answered using mean and standard deviation while Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used to answer the research hypotheses. The P-value was compared to significant level (0.5) to determine the rejection or acceptance of the hypotheses.

Table 1 presents the mean and standard deviation response of participants who responded to the research questionnaire on free school feeding and breaking poverty circle in South-west geo-political zone, Nigeria.

Table 1
Mean and Standard Deviations of Variables on Free School Feeding

S/N	Feeding	Participants Response		Decision
		Mean	SD	
	Provision of feeding programme help in improving the nutrition intake of children school age.	2.87	0.948	Agreed
	Provision of feeding gives room for social and emotional stability.	2.92	0.936	Agreed
	Provision of feeding improve better concentration of pupils in the classroom.	2.94	0.972	Agreed
	Provision of feeding attract lots of pupils to school.	2.87	1.021	Agreed
	Feeding programme help to end inter-generation circle of hunger.	2.90	0.988	Agreed
	Grand mean	2.90	0.973	

(Mean $\geq$ 2.50 Agree, Mean $<$ 2.50 Disagree)

Table 1 showed that items 1-5 have their various mean and grand mean value above 2.50 and high standard deviation score. Therefore, participant agreed that feeding programme improve learning towards breaking poverty circle in Nigeria. Items which the participants agreed to includes; provision of feeding programme help in improving the nutritional intake of children school age with the mean score of 2.87, provision of feeding gives room for social and emotional stability of pupils with the mean score of 2.92, provision of feeding improve better concentration of pupils in the classroom with the mean score of 2.94, provision of feeding attract lots of pupils to school as well as help to end inter-generation circle of hunger with the mean score of 2.87 and 2.90 respectively.

Table 2
Mean and Standard Deviation of variables on Free Uniforms

S/N	Free Uniforms	Participants Response		Decision
		Mean	SD	
6.	Provision of free uniforms contributing to higher enrolment of children in school.	2.92	0.970	Agreed
7.	Free school uniforms ensure uniformity and sense of belongings among pupils.	2.97	0.936	Agreed
8.	Free school uniforms eliminate wealth gap between pupils.	2.99	0.947	Agreed
9.	Having pupils dress the same gives room for unity, order and good structure.	2.90	1.011	Agreed
10.	Free school uniforms reduces school absenteeism.	2.88	0.984	Agreed
	Grand mean	2.93	0.969	

(Mean $>$ 2.50 Agree, Mean $<$ 2.50 Disagree). Researchers field work

Table 2 showed that items number 6-10 have their various mean and grand mean above 2.50 and high standard deviation scores. Hence, participants agreed with the items that provision of free school uniforms improve learning in school towards breaking poverty circle. Items includes; provision of free uniforms contributing to higher enrolment of children in school with the mean score of 2.92, free school uniforms ensure uniformity and sense of belonging among the pupils with the mean score of 2.97, free school uniforms eliminate wealth gap between pupils, gives room for unity, order and good structure as well as reduces school absenteeism with the mean scores of 2.99, 2.90 and 2.88 respectively.

Table 3

Mean and Standard Deviation of Variables on Quality Learning Environment

S/N	Quality learning environment	Participants Response		Decision
		Mean	SD	
11.	Provision of quality learning environment encourage learning by doing.	2.92	0.957	Agreed
12.	Provision of quality learning environment bring about interest in learning.	2.94	0.939	Agreed
13.	Provision of quality learning environment gives room for academic achievement and success.	2.99	0.945	Agreed
14.	Provision of quality learning environment build confidence in pupils.	2.88	1.002	Agreed
15.	Provision of quality learning environment lower absenteeism and dropout rate.	2.84	0.983	Agreed
	Grand mean	2.91	0.965	

(Mean > 2.50 Agree, Mean < 2.50 Disagree). Researchers field work

Table 3 showed that items number 11-15 have their various mean and grand mean above 2.50 and high standard deviation scores. Therefore, participants agreed that quality learning environment improve learning towards breaking the poverty circle in South-west geo-political zone, Nigeria. The items which participant agreed to includes; provision quality learning environment encourage learning by doing with mean score of 2.92, provision quality learning brings about interest in learning with the mean score of 2.94, provision of quality learning environment gives room for academic achievement and success with the mean score of 2.99, provision of quality learning environment build confidence in pupils as well as lower absenteeism and dropout rate with the mean scores of 2.88 and 2.84 respectively.

Hypotheses Testing

The analysis method applied in the course of the research work was the use of Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficients to test the set hypotheses.

H₀₁: there is no significant relationship between free school feeding and breaking poverty circle in public basic education in South-west geo-political zone.

Table 4

Free School Feeding and Breaking Poverty Circle in Public Basic Education.

Variable	N	$\bar{x}$	SD	Df	Cal-r	p-value	Decision
Feeding	743	11.69	3.749	742	0.91	.000	Rejected
Breaking poverty circle	743	2.80	1.896				

Table 4 indicates that the calculated r-value = .91 and p-value is .000 at the 0.05 level of significance. This shows that there is a positive and significant relationship between free school feeding and breaking poverty circle in public basic education. Therefore, the hypothesis which states that there is no significant relation between free school feeding and breaking poverty circle in public basic education is rejected.

H₀₂: There is no significant relationship between free uniforms and breaking poverty circle in public basic education.

Table 5

Free Uniforms and Breaking Poverty Circle in Public Basic Education

Variable	N	$\bar{x}$	SD	Df	Cal-r	p-value	Decision
Free uniforms	743	12.01	4.135	742	0.92	.000	Rejected
Breaking poverty circle	743	2.66	2.040				

Table 5 indicates that the calculated r -value = .92 and p -value is .000 at 0.05 level of significance. This shows that there is positive and significant relationship between free school uniforms and breaking poverty circle in public basic education. Therefore, the hypothesis which state that there is no significant relationship between free school uniforms and breaking poverty circle is rejected.

H₀₃: There is no significant relationship between quality learning environment and breaking poverty circle in public basic education in South-west geo-political zone.

Table 6

Civic Education and Sustainable National Development in Public Senior Secondary Schools

Variable		N	$\bar{x}$	SD	Df	Cal-r	p -value	Decision
Quality learning environment		743	11.86	4.154				
					742	0.92	.000	Rejected
Breaking poverty circle		743	2.71	2.065				

Table 6 indicates that the calculated r -value = .92 and p -value 0.05 level significance. This shows that there is a positive relationship between quality learning environment and breaking poverty circle in public basic education in South-west geo-political zone. Therefore, the hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between quality learning environment and breaking poverty circle is rejected.

6. Discussion of Findings

The result of question one analysis and findings in table 1 shows that participants agreed with the view that free school feeding improve learning towards breaking poverty circle in public basic education in South-west geo-political zone, in such that free feeding help in improving nutritional intake of children school age, gives room social and emotional stability, improve pupils concentration in the classroom, attract pupils to school as well as helping to end inter-generation circle of hunger. Result from hypothesis one revealed that there is positive and significant relationship between free school feeding and breaking poverty circle in public basic education in South-west geo-political zone. The finding agreed with Garram children's school (2010) that school feeding contribute to education, well-being of children and bringing children out of hunger. This finding also conforms to Aloysius (2010) that educational attainments reduce the probability of being poor.

The finding in table 2 shows that free school uniforms improve learning towards breaking poverty circle in South-west geo-political zone public basic education. These are, free school uniforms

programme contributes to higher enrolment of children in school, ensure uniformity and sense of belonging among students, eliminate wealth gap between students, having students dress the same creates a sense of unity, order and structure as well as reduces school absenteeism. Result from hypothesis two analysis showed that there is a positive and significant relationship between free school uniforms and breaking poverty circle in public basic education in South-west geo-political zone. This finding agreed with Soludo (2003) that poverty situation in Nigeria is galloping despite attempt by government to reduce the scourge.

The findings in table 3 shows that participants agree with the view that quality learning environment improve learning towards breaking poverty circle in South-west geo-political zone, Nigeria. In such that, quality learning environment encourage learning by doing and increase interest in learning, encourage social relationship, gives room for academic achievement and success, building confidence in pupils as well as lower absenteeism and dropout rate. Results from hypothesis three analysis revealed that there is positive relationship between quality learning environment and breaking poverty circle in public basic education in South-west geo-political zone, Nigeria. The findings agreed with Haq (2005) that the provision of education can break the circle of poverty through giving a rise in earning and fulfilling basic needs.

7. Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations were made as follows:

In order to break the circle of poverty, there is need for all tiers of government to devote a greater parts

of resources to education by giving free feeding to pupils in basic education which will in turn improve the nutritional intake of children school age, gives room for social and emotional stability, improve better concentration in the class, makes pupils to be more interested in school work as well as helping to lift households out of poverty to end inter-generation circle of hunger.

Government should also continue provide adequate provision of free school uniforms because free school uniforms contributed to higher enrolment of children in schools, reduces school absenteeism, ensure uniformity and sense of belonging among pupils, create sense of unity, order and good school structure as well as eliminating gap between pupils of different background towards breaking poverty circle in South-west geo-political zone, Nigeria.

Government should also create enabling quality learning environment in the school such as well-ventilated classrooms electricity, water, good road and the likes in order to encourage learning by doing and increase interest in learning, encourage social relationship, gives room for academic achievement and success, building confidence in pupils as well as lower absenteeism and dropout rate which in turn breaking poverty circle in South-west geo-political zone, in Nigeria.

8. Conclusion

The poverty circle can be broken through effective management of basic education in terms of provision of free school feeding, uniforms and quality learning environment. Pupils must be empower to recognize and act on the possibility for change and innovation by giving them necessary basic learning needs towards becoming useful member of the family and society at large. Poverty can also be eradicated if an enabling environment for learning is put in place for pupils and young children. Therefore, in developing countries, government is taking step to break poverty circle in a cheapest way that is why basic education is their focus.

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Impact of Statutory Retirement Age on the Civil Service System in Kwara State, Nigeria

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Abstract. The problems of fraudulent adjustment of official age by civil servants contained in their personnel record in order to elongate their stay on-the-job beyond the statutory retirement age is a prerequisite for corrupt practices in the civil service. The study therefore examined the effect of Statutory Retirement Age (SRA) of thirty-five years in service on the achievement of government programmes in Kwara State. Descriptive research design method was adopted for the conduct of the study with a population of 13,185. The sample size is 246 respondents. Purposive sampling technique was adopted and Regression Analytical tool was used to test the hypotheses formulated for the study. Data was presented with the aid of inferential statistics of simple percentage table. The result shows that the variability changes in the achievement of government programmes are largely explained by the SRA of thirty-five years in service. Therefore, the study rejected the null hypothesis and accepted the alternative hypothesis that stated that SRA of thirty-five years in service has significant effect on the achievement of government programmes. The study concluded that statutory retirement age has significant effect on civil service system in Kwara State, Nigeria. The study recommended that the Kwara State government should set up a monitoring committee similar to the Quality Assurance Unit in the government house. That the committee should comprise of people, of high integrity both in the private and public sectors, who have excelled in their callings and should report directly to the governors.

Keywords: Statutory, corrupt practices, respondents, official age, impact, retirement, Social Security, civil service, Kwara, Nigeria

1. Background to the Study

Statutory retirement age also known as enforced or mandatory retirement age is the set age at which

persons who hold certain jobs or offices are required by industry, custom or law to leave their employment by retirement. Typically, statutory retirement age is justified by the argument that certain occupations are either too dangerous (military) or mentally and physically requiring high skill levels (airline pilots). Most rely on the notion that workers' productivity declines significantly after certain age, particularly 60 in the case of Nigeria, and that statutory retirement age is the employer's way to avoid huge cost of unproductive workers. The statutory retirement age is often somewhat arbitrary and not based upon an actual physical evaluation of an individual employee's productivity. In countries like United States of America and Canada, statutory retirement age is unlawful except in certain industries (International Labour Organisation, 2016).

In developing countries such as Nigeria, increasing statutory retirement age is perceived as a temporary source of income, the stream of which a retiree may not receive, if retired. While this may be true of the civil servants in Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDA), the same cannot be said of the judicial, health and academic institutions. Another issue raised by the statutory retirement age is that, government can create more jobs having known the expected number of civil servants that are due for retirement at a future date. Although, this practice is political, so also it can comfortably be said to mitigate unemployment rate (Kwara State Civil Service Commission, Bulletin 2011). The abolition of the mandatory 35 years in service while retaining only the 60 years statutory retirement age by the Edo state government threw up the challenge of reducing unemployment rate of older people than the youth in the face of a rising unemployment rates in Nigeria (Ibileke, 2014).

The primary aim of the statutory retirement age is to reduce the cost of pension liabilities and the wage bill (recurrent expenditure) on ageing workforce whose productivity has diminished (Asaju, 2014). However, it is noted in Nigeria that most civil servants prefer to remain on-the-job beyond the statutory retirement age, thereby giving rise to such problems as: fraudulent adjustment of official age by civil servants contained in their personnel record in order to elongate their stay on-the-job beyond the statutory retirement age (Agbaegbu, 2011). These fraudulent activities of the civil servants, will ultimately lead to huge waste of financial resources (recurrent expenditure) on unproductive and ageing workforce that did not retire as and when due. It is against this background that this study was carried out to examine the effect of SRA of thirty-five years in service on the achievement of government programmes in Kwara State. It also examined the effect of the SRA of sixty years of age on the practice of administrative corruption in Kwara State.

2. Research Questions

The study answered the questions of:
What effect does SRA of thirty-five years in service have on the achievement of government programmes in Kwara State? And what is the effect of the SRA of sixty years of age on the practice of administrative corruption in Kwara State?

3. Objectives of the Study

The study examined the effect of SRA of thirty-five years in service on the achievement of government programmes in Kwara State. It also examined the effect of the SRA of sixty years of age on the practice of administrative corruption in Kwara State.

4. Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested in the course of the study:

Ho₁: the SRA of thirty-five years does not have any effect on the achievement of government programmes in Kwara State.

Ho₂: the SRA of sixty years of age does not have any effect on the practice of administrative corruption in Kwara State.

5. Literature Review

5.1 Conceptual Review

5.1.1 Statutory Retirement Age

Retirement is defined as the act of retiring or the state of being retired Bukoye (2005). That is to withdraw oneself from business public life or to remove oneself from active service. Thus, the process of retirement involves the transition of people's experience, when they move from a job role performed for pay to the role of retired person. Here, it is referred to a retired person who had previously worked for either a private organisation or public service for pay. However, after a stated period, such person exits the paid job either to permanently not be involved in any work activity or withdraw only from a paid job. Fisher (2011), a Normal retirement age is the age at which a retirement plan allows for full benefits. In private pension plans, the date is frequently calculated as a combination of age and years of employment. But for the nation's largest and most ubiquitous pension plan - Social Security - right to full benefits are determined largely by age. Social Security's normal retirement age varies by date of birth. It can range from people born in 1937 or before who get full benefits at age 65 to those born in 1960 or later who have to wait until they turn 67.

Statutory Retirement Age also known as Mandatory or Enforced Retirement Age has been in practice in both the private and public service worldwide (Osuala, 2005). It is a major stage in adult development and it marks the split from the middle years to the old age (Osuala, 2005). At the age of 65 years, our mental and physical abilities diminishes; however, it becomes rationale to relieve an employee of some strenuous and excruciating duties that may have a telling effect on and consequently threaten his health. This, therefore, results to normal retirement age of 65 years (Osuala, 2005). The statutory retirement age therefore is a set age backed by the law of a country.

In some developed and economically buoyant countries there is no statutory retirement age or even illegal to have a statutory retirement age. Some other countries have their statutory retirement age set at same age for both men and women or different for both sexes. In Nigeria, due to the economic crunch and high rate of unemployment among other factors the Statutory Retirement Age (SRA) was put at 55years or after 25years of service by General Ibrahim Babangida's regime. And until recently when the Federal Government of Nigeria pegged it to 60 years or 35 years of service or whichever is attained first (Osuala, 2005).

Statutory Retirement Age from the point of view of withdrawing oneself from business public life or and to remove from active service. Thus, the process of retirement involves the transition of people's experience, when they move from a job role performed for pay to the role of retired person. The role of a counsellor is not complete until an individual is able to realize himself and the realities of the world around him and also maximize his potentials in order to cope with life demands.

5.1.2 Gratuity.

A gratuity is a sum of money customarily tendered, in addition to the basic price, to certain service sector workers for a service performed or anticipated (Cindy, 2006). An employee is qualified for gratuity once his appointment is confirmed and the amount entitled to is subject to the length of service and grade level. Usually top management staff earns higher gratuities even with lesser years of service than junior workers with longer years of service. Gratuity is also a lump sum and it is paid once in a life time of a retiree or his next of kin at death. The practice of Gratuity payment began as early as year 1600 and had a meaning in 1706 and became a noun in this sense in 1755 (Cindy, 2006).

5.1.3 Pension.

It is a sum of money paid regularly as a retirement benefit or by way of patronage (Lawrence, 2008). A fixed amount other than wages, paid at regular intervals to a person or to the person's surviving next of kin (Lawrence, 2008). A retiree is qualified for pension after attaining 10 years of service.

5.2 Problem of Statutory Retirement Age.

Bukoye (2005) in her study suggested that the Federal Government should establish retirement bureau in each state to address problems of retirees and to assist them from wasting away. Many retirees in the Nigerian society are facing the same Problems in most states of the federation.

Bukoye (2005) stated that the problems of sudden death of retirees is one of the challenges bedevilling the SRA. Retirees that retired after the statutory retirement age may suddenly lose their lives. Inactivity arising from statutory retirement may lead to sudden loss of lives of retirees.

Bukoye (2005) also observed that loss of the usual monthly salary. The thought of losing as usual monthly stream of income popularly known as salary is indeed one of the problems faced by retirees in

Nigeria. The anxiety about a residential home is also a challenge faced by many retirees who could not afford to build a personal residential home while actively in service may develop anxiety over this issue. This is common with retirees who still have bills of children to pay. Some retirees who lived in government quarters may fear ejections which could necessitate anxiety about residential home. Bukoye (2005) stated that most retirees faced the problems of dwindling status which they have variously carried while in active service. Some retirees have wielded influences and enjoyed societal status while in active service but such may ultimately diminished as soon as they retired. The personality they carry may not be enjoyed by them as soon as they retire.

A study carried out by the Bureau of Public Service Reform indicates that succession potential into the Civil Service on the basis of age profile is very low. Using 25 year as the optimum age of basic degree graduate into the Civil Service on GL.08 and a maximum 35 years in service to attain age of compulsory retirement age of 60 years; and the Federal Civil Service Commission prescribed promotion eligibility, grade level stay of 3 years between GL.08 and 15 and 4 years between GL.15-17, the study shows that 91.5% of the officers were found to be over aged for their grade levels and position occupied. Thus the succession potential was less than 20% in all cases. (Adegoroye, 2006).

Prospects

The Federal government of Nigeria created a policy on unemployment benefits program. Early reports indicate that very little has changed for the employment prospects of the long-term unemployed. Reduction of work week to 35 hours. The idea was to force job vacancies and hiring of the unemployed in France. Despite the above, France still has persistent unemployment rate greater than 11%. Subsidy Reinvestment and Empowerment Programme (SURE-P). it came into existence in Nigeria in January, 2012 through a prudent strategic economic intervention (Akaeze, 2011). The Federal government of President Muhammadu Buhari abolished the payment of oil subsidy to oil marketers. The FGN did not provide for subsidy in 2017 budget rather he introduced the NPOWER programme to replace the SURE-P to create job for 100,000 graduates in the first level scheme (Akaeze, 2011).

5.3 Empirical Reviews

The study examined the problems faced by retired civil servants and the pensioners in Kwara State. These problems include delay in the payment of

pension and maladjustment arising from economy, social health and psychological variables. The result of the study showed that the problems of pension and gratuity impact heavily on retirees in the employment of Ekiti State government. The result of the work shows that factors such as the nature of retirement, size of family, level of income and level of education are significant indices that determine the level of adjustment among the retired Civil Servants and the best predictor of adjustment in retirement among Civil Servants in Ekiti State is social factor. The population for the study was not specified and the methodology of the work was not properly structured in line with APA VI reporting format.

ZA (2011), in his work, 'Does Raising the Retirement Age Increase Employment of Older Workers'. The work studies how an increase in the statutory retirement age affects the labour market behaviour of older workers. Between 2000 and 2006 the Austrian government gradually increased the early retirement age from 60 to 62.2 for men and from 55 to 57.2 for women. Using administrative data on the universe of Austrian private-sector employees, the results from the empirical analysis suggest that this policy change reduced retirement by 19 percentage points among affected men and by 25 percentage points among affected women.

The reduction in statutory retirement age was accompanied by a sizeable increase in employment of 7 percentage points among men and 10 percentage points among women. It had also important spill over effects into the unemployment insurance program. Specifically, the unemployment rate increased by 10 percentage points among men and 11 percentage points among women. In contrast, the policy change had only a small impact on the share of individuals claiming disability or partial retirement benefits.

5.4 Theoretical Review of Statutory Retirement Age.

Bloom, Canning, and Moore (2007) titled: A Theory of Life-Cycle of Saving and Retirement. It stated that people may engage in precautionary saving to guard against income shocks, and they may also save to provide bequests (Skinner, 2005). In the interest of simplicity, the researcher assumed that the life cycle has no period of schooling. Schooling will affect the productivity of workers, their health and longevity, and their utility of leisure (Heckman, 2006) complicating a retirement. The results give the optimal retirement and savings behaviour of fully rational agents under complete capital markets. In

practice, imperfect capital markets (particularly annuity markets), lack of foresight about the need to save for retirement, and time inconsistency in preferences will distort private decisions, generating a role for social security systems. Mandatory retirement may prevent individuals from responding optimally to longer life spans through longer working lives. Although few social security systems have mandatory retirement, a substantial body of evidence indicates that retirement in industrial countries clusters around specific ages that depend on retirement incentives inherent in the national social security system. Mandatory retirement, or incentives that amount to the same thing, are not required in social security systems. It is possible to sever the link between social security pensions and stopping work, or to allow a longer working life with an actuarially fair benefit adjustment when retirement does occur.

5.5. Research Gaps

So many works have been carried out on statutory retirement age, corruption in civil service, pension reforms and civil service reforms. Empirical review revealed that studies have not been previously carried out to test the impact of statutory retirement age on the variables of administrative corruption and achievement of government programmes. The study therefore provide a template for further research to test the bi-virates of SRA of thirty-five years in service or sixty years of age and their impact on other characteristics of a civil service system.

6. Methodology

6.1 Research Design

Descriptive research design method is adopted for the conduct of this study, because of the qualitative in nature of the data used.

6.2 Population for the Study

The study population is the addition of staff employed by the Office of Head of Service (GL 1-6) and Kwara State Civil Service Commission (GL 7-17) which is 1,651 and 11,534 respectively. The population is therefore 13,185. (source: Ministry of Finance).

6.3 Sampling Technique and Sample Size.

The sample size of 246 respondent was selected using Krejcie & Morgan (1970). Purposive sampling technique was adopted for the study.

6.4 Method of Data Collection and Analysis

The collection of primary data was done through the administration of questionnaire. 246 copies of questionnaire were administered to the randomly selected respondents. The data obtained from the field was presented using descriptive statistic of simple percentage table. Regression Analytical tool

was used to test the hypotheses formulated for the study.

7. Data Presentation and Analysis

Hypothesis One:

Ho₁: SRA of thirty-five years in service has no effect on the achievement of government programmes.

Table 1 Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.796 ^a	.633	.630	.456

Source: Author's computation from SPSS 22.0 version 2017.

a. Predictors: (Constant), SRA of 35 years in service in Kwara State Civil Service.

Table 1, showed the adjusted R² value of 0.633 (63.3%). This indicates that the variability changes in the achievement of government programmes are largely explained by the SRA of thirty-five years in service. That is, government programmes can be achieved through other means different from the civil servants who are in the employment of Kwara State government for thirty-five years.

Table 2 ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	594.024	1	594.024	4.6943	.010 ^a
	Residual	43.536	244	.127		
	Total	637.561	245			

Source: Author's computation from SPSS 22.0 version 2107.

a. Predictors: (Constant), SRA of thirty-five years in service in Kwara State Civil Service.

b. Dependent Variable: achievement of government programmes.

Table 2, showed that the calculated P-value of 0.010 (1%) which is less than alpha value of 0.05 level of significance. The study rejected the null hypothesis which states that: SRA of thirty-five years has no effect on the achievement of government programmes.

Table 3 Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.049	.044		1.118	.264
	Achievement of government programmes ^a	1.025	.015	.633	68.510	.010

Source: Author's computation from SPSS 22.0 version 2017.

Dependent Variable: achievement of government's programme.

Hypothesis Two.

Ho₂: Statutory retirement age has no effect on administrative corruption in the civil service system.

Table 4 Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.951 ^a	.904	.904	.440

Table 4 Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.951 ^a	.904	.904	.440

Source: Author's computation from SPSS 22.0 version, 2017.

a. Predictors: (Constant), SRA of sixty years of age in Kwara State civil service.

Table 4, showed the adjusted R^2 value of 0.904 (90.4%). This indicates that the variability changes in the practice of administrative corruption is largely explained by SRA of sixty years of age. Although there are other factors responsible for the practice, but are not as germane as the SRA of sixty years of age in Kwara State civil service. However, 9.6% variability in the changes in the practice of corruption is accounted for by other factors different from the SRA of sixty years of age in the Kwara State civil service.

Table 5 ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	628.830	1	628.830	3.2523	.000 ^a
	Residual	66.522	244	.193		
	Total	695.353	245			

Source: Author's computation from SPSS 22.0 version, 2017.

a. Predictors: (Constant), SRA of 60years of age in Kwara State civil service.

b. Dependent Variable: Administrative corruption in the civil service system

Table 5 shows that the calculated P-value of 0.000 (0%), which is less than alpha value of 0.05 significance level. Therefore, the study rejected the null hypothesis which states that SRA of sixty years of age has no effect on the practice of administrative corruption in Kwara State civil service.

Table 6 Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.182	.054		3.363	.001
	Administrative corruption in civil service	1.067	.019	.951	57.025	.000

Source: Author's computation from SPSS 22.0 version, 2017.

a. Dependent Variable: The current civil service system

8. Discussion of Findings

The adjusted R^2 value of 0.633 (63.3%) in table 1, indicates that the variability changes in the achievement of government programmes is largely explained by the SRA of thirty-five years in service. Prior to the country's return to democracy in 1999, all government programmes were done exclusively by the civil servants through various ministries, departments and agencies (MDAs). The privatisation of government business through the policy of Public-Private-Partnership (PPP), opened the alternative window for the execution of government programmes through other proxies different from civil service. Despite the PPP scheme, most government's programmes were executed by the SRA of thirty-five years in the service of Kwara

State government. The PPP window, community effort, philanthropic gestures and foreign support constitute 36.7% variation in the execution of government programmes. The calculated P-value of 0.01 (1%) is significant because it is less than the tabulated value of 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, the study rejected the null hypothesis (H_{01}) which stated that SRA of thirty-five years has no effect on the achievement of government programmes, and accepted the alternative hypothesis that stated that SRA of thirty-five years in service has significant effect on the achievement of government programmes.

The adjusted R^2 value of 0.904 (90.4%) in model 2 of the second hypothesis indicates that the variability changes in the SRA of sixty years of age in civil service is 90.4% responsible for the practice of administrative corruption in Kwara State. The magnitude of corruption in civil service has permeated every facet of the civil service. The cycle of completion of administrative corruption ends in financial corruption which is majorly achieved through budget padding, award of contracts, disbursement of funds, appraisal of project executions and issuance of certificate of completion. The calculated p-value of 0.000 is less than the alpha value of 0.05 (5%) significant value. Therefore the study rejected the null hypothesis which stated that SRA of sixty years of age has no significant effect on administrative corruption. And accepted the alternative hypothesis which stated that the SRA of sixty years of age has significant effect on the practice of administrative corruption in Kwara State. Administrative corruption of term of 'Ten Percent' has graduated into brazen collusion of government officials with politicians, appointees, government aides, government contractors and worst with government auditors, to rip the state of huge billions of naira under the guise of various programme executions. About 9.6% of administrative corrupt practices happened in the agencies and departments of government because of accountability and private business mentality of their staff.

9. Conclusion

The study concluded base on the findings that the SRA of thirty-five years in the service of Kwara State has effect on the achievement of government programmes. Also, the SRA of sixty years of age has effect on the practice of administrative corruption in Kwara State. Therefore, statutory retirement has effect on civil service system in Kwara State, Nigeria.

10. Recommendations

The study recommended that the Kwara State government should set up a monitoring committee similar to the Quality Assurance Unit in the government house. The committee should comprise of people of high integrity both in the private and public sectors, who have excelled in their callings. They should report directly to the governors instead of the Chief of Staff as it is with the Kwara State Quality Assurance Committee whose major task is to conduct snap checks on civil servants activities. The

reason why administrative corruption flourished in civil service is largely due to the absence of deterrents and the bureaucratic process of disciplining corrupt officials culpable of corrupt practice in civil service. The study therefore, recommended the establishment of Economic and financial crimes commission (EFCC) at the state level empowered to investigate and prosecute corrupt civil servants at the Code of Conduct Tribunal.

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Basic Skills Development in Farm Management for the Visually Impaired in Nigeria: Challenges and Expectations

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Abstract. The paper attempts to examine basic skills development in farm management for the visually impaired in Nigeria and the challenges that may be faced. It identifies the basic skills needed in farm management generally and outlines the benefits of developing such skills, for the visually impaired. An impediment of the development of such basic skills, for the visually impaired was identified and the challenges and expectations outlined. The paper offers useful suggestions and recommendations on the procedure for development basic skills in farm management for the visually impaired in Nigeria.

1. Introduction

In many parts of the world, farmers are known to be seeking ways to improve upon their farming systems and to adopt their practices to the exigencies of changing agro-ecological and socio-economic conditions. Skills related to farm management techniques are constantly being reviewed evaluated and improved upon, with the circle repeating itself over the over again. For the visually impaired, there are considerable impediments that militate against their ability to perform certain tasks. As pointed out by Skyes and Ozoji (1992), visual impairment results in visual disability, which further reduces the ability of individuals in tasks such as reading, mobility and daily living skills. These skills are not doubts essential to the success of participation in economic ventures by the visually impaired. But with the loss of vision, the visually impaired are left at the mercy of unscrupulous elements that may want to capitalize on their situation to exploit them to their own advantage. Farm management needs competencies in a number of areas most of which require the use of vision or in the alternative, the use of information that can and should be written down for accounting purposes or for research and evaluation.

It is in view of this that the paper attempts to examine various issues related to basic skills development in farm management in farm for the visually impaired and the challenges that service providers may face.

2. The Concept of Management

Management, according to Parames (1975), includes administrative management and the related technical problems, research as applied to the objectives of an organization, the promotion of trade and market studies, financial and personal administration and methods of action. He argues that management implies direction, planning, programming, regulating, financial, personnel and equipment management, output and time control, the conduct of meetings and upward as well as downward communications. In view of the above positions, one can look at managers as responsible for organization, directing staff, planning the progress of work, setting standard of attainment and measuring results, reviewing positions and quantifying different courses of action. This means that management, as a science requires farm management to demonstrate all round competencies in the process of agricultural production.

3. Basic skills require in Farm Management

Agricultural ventures are in many respects the same as other commercial enterprises. They are geared towards profit, which means that the practice needs scientific knowledge and organization. Ijomah (2002) stated that farm management is a science that attempts to coordinate farm inputs of all types in order to achieve the desired output. According to Ijomah, the aim is to minimize input costs and to achieve the highest level of output at the lowest possible or sensible costs thereby maximizing the

profit and satisfaction of the farmer or farm manager or both.

To successfully achieve this, the farm manager must recognize the fact that he has to deal with inputs of material nature such as land, labour, machines and tools, agro-allied chemicals, irrigation systems, tractors, combine harvesters and so on. The farm manager must also be ready to deal with intangible inputs including the weather, the social, economic and political situation at any given time.

Ijomah (2002) also states that there is not room for failure in farm management and so the farm manager must equip himself so thoroughly that he should be able to achieve profitability in spite of all odds.

The basic skills needed in Farm Management may include:

- Literacy in the agricultural process through training;
- The intrinsic ability to anticipate obstacles and how to cope in situations where conditions are unfavorable;
- Having those branches of knowledge and information which will enable the farm manager to perform very well including good knowledge of economics, mathematics, accounting, agriculture, soil science, crop and animal science as well as fisheries and forestry. In fact knowledge of disciplines in all the areas of human endeavour;
- Having the skills to acquire information on any issue relating to his vocation as a farm manager;
- Having the liability to manage cash which Van Home (1980) defined as managing monies in order to attain maximum cash availability and maximum interest income on any idle funds.
- Having the competence to keep adequate records in terms of management outputs as well as farm accounts. The types of accounts being referred to here included inventory records, production records, expenditure and income records and special or supplementary records;
- Having the ability to record farm activities in farm record books;
- Having the ability to prepare simple income statement and balance sheet;
- Having the competence to identify depreciable assets;
- Demonstrating basic skills in budget preparation;

- Having a basic knowledge of farm planning process, tools and techniques and
- Being able to evaluate and appraise farm projects especially in relation to cost benefit analysis (Sulaiman, 1999, Ijomah 2002).

The basic skills required in farm management are numerous and complicated but very essential. There is no doubt that these skills would pose some problems for the visually impaired farm manager?

4. Developing basic skills in Farm Management for the Visually Impaired

The main characteristic of the visually impaired manifests in the appearance of the eye that looks different from the normal and visual behavior like bumping into objects. Ozoji (2003) stated that behavior associated with this trait can be used to identify a visually impaired person.

The lack of sight or adequate vision is a great impediment to successful mobility, independent and safe movement and therefore the performance of daily living skills as well as full participation in economic activities. Considering the expected functions of a farm manager as earlier enumerated elsewhere in this paper, there is no doubt that the visually impaired need to develop certain basic skills in order to manage a farm successfully.

However, since most of the skills to be developed are centered around the acquisition of necessary competencies, there is no doubt that what must be done in order to succeed in developing these basic skills is to improve upon the reading proficiency of the visually impaired. According to Andzayi and Yakwal (2004), the visually impaired are expected to have a firm foundation structured on wide experiences and opportunities for learning through all available sensory modalities. Skyes and Ozoji (1992) believe that tactile skills, visual efficiency, motor development and concept development are important in all areas. They posit that print reading is desirable for the majority of visually impaired individuals who might have use of optical aids.

...Reading by listening "talking books" tape recordings, and records is very important for all visually handicapped children and, for many, the preferred mode of reading...
(Pg.86)

However, some visually impaired individuals prefer to use Braille or talking books (radio cassettes) to obtain information that may be needed. In order to develop the necessary basic skills required by the

visually impaired in farm management therefore, we may need to consider the provision of needed materials in Braille in cassettes. With the above considerations together with the formal training in the rudiments of farm management, the visually impaired would certainly succeed as farm managers.

5. Benefits of developing Farm Management skills for the Visually Impaired

The benefits of developing basic skills in farm management for the visually impaired are numerous. They include the following:

- Boosting food production for the nation;
- Supporting the countries industrial development through the provision of agricultural raw material for the industries;
- Creation of employment opportunities to the teaming unemployment youths hat are found in all nooks and crannies of the country there by reducing the problem of crime;
- Serving as a veritable source of foreign exchange for the country;
- Providing investment opportunities in agriculture through large scale for industry oriented crops, fruits, livestock, poultry and so on;
- Providing opportunities for the visually impaired to excel thereby contributing there own quota to sustainable national development while being economically independent with its import on their acceptability by society.

6. Impediments to the development of basic Farm Management skills for the Visually Impaired

Attitudes of the society towards the disabled are negative. As a result of the negative attitudes towards the visually impaired, they are denied certain rights and privileges even though they may have demonstrated coping ability, are independent and have social maturity as well as being productive.

Lack of encouragement by government and non-governmental agencies is another impediment to the development of basic farm management skills for the visually impaired. This is because there is no concerted efforts to that have their orientation in practical agricultural.

Other impediments include:

- Lack of adequate financing for the visually impaired to set up commercial farm outfits.
- Non availability of farm inputs in terms of machineries and sophisticated agro-allied technologies.
- Inadequate training in the area of farm management techniques.
- Apathy on the part of the visually impaired themselves some of them who believe they cannot cope with a vocation like that.

7. Suggestion and recommendations

- Concerted efforts should be made by government, non-governmental and philanthropic organization as well as other stakeholders in the effort to improve on the capacity of the blind to change the negative attitudes of the society towards them.
- A comprehensive public education program could be initiated through public relations activities, tools and resources to project the image and capabilities of the visually impaired in Nigeria. This is in view of the adage that says there are handicapped but capable and therefore handicap able.
- The visually impaired should be supported to establish and manage farms through agricultural credit facilities and loans from consortium of banks and other financial institutions.
- They should be allowed to obtain training in reputable institution across the nation.
- Necessary inputs should be made available to them to ensure their success in farm management.

8. Conclusion

In view of what has been discussed in relation to basic skill development in farm management for the visually impaired in Nigeria, suggestions and recommendations were offered as a way forward. The paper concludes that through concerted efforts by all stakeholders and the provision of certain necessary conditions by governmental organizations, the visually impaired can be successfully involved in farm management at whatever level thus allowing them to contribute meaningfully to sustainable national development.

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Petroleum Profits Tax in Nigeria

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1. Introduction

There is an old proverb, which states that there is nothing as certain as death and taxes. Taxation is generally recognized as an important and established source of revenue for the Government. There is hardly any country today that does not rely or make pretensions to rely on taxation measures not only to provide the much needed revenue for social-economic development but also to reduce the inequalities of wealth in the society. The tax system is therefore one of the most powerful levers available to any government to stimulate and guide its economic and social development. Taxation therefore looms largely in our lives. Petroleum tax is considered as one of the most important sources of revenue for the government in Nigeria because of the widespread use of petroleum products.

2. Petroleum Profits Tax in Nigeria

The enabling law on Petroleum Tax in Nigeria is the Petroleum Profits Tax Act, 1958. The objective of the Act is to impose a tax upon profits from the winning of petroleum products. The act applies only to the taxation of incomes of companies engaged in petroleum operations. Petroleum taxation in Nigeria is as complex and complicated as the taxation of any other primary products. Many non-tax considerations – political, ethnic, economic, social and other factors weigh higher than taxation and explain the complications. Through the Petroleum Profits Tax Act remains the current principal

Act, it is not the only taxing law. What standard would apply to an operator would invariably be dictated by the type of agreement the operator signed with the Nigeria National Petroleum Corporation (NNPC) or the Petroleum concessionaire, as the case may be. The Petroleum Profits Tax Act still provides the framework for the computation of the Petroleum Profit Tax Act still provides the framework for the computation of the Petroleum Profit Tax but what goes into the computation is dictated by the terms of these agreements which modify the application of the provisions of the Petroleum Profits Tax Act.

The main distinguishing features between Petroleum Profits Tax and the Orthodox income tax on companies are as follows:

- (a) By Section 19 of the Petroleum Profits Tax Act the assessable tax for any accounting period of an oil company is equal to 85% of its chargeable Profits of that period. Deductible from this assessable tax are such liabilities as royalty payments, rates, imports and fees payable to the Federal or State Governments. The effect of this is that the Government bears these outgoings out of its share of the chargeable profits. Subject to the foregoing all “outgoings and expenses wholly and exclusively incurred, whether within or without Nigeria” are deductible from the oil company’s gross profits under section 10 of the Petroleum Profits Tax.

- (b) The above arrangement of, in effect, splitting the chargeable profits between the company and the revenue effects dividend payments payable by the company out of its slice of profits. These are payable without deduction of tax at source and the tax payer is neither entitled to claim any repayment on their grossed up basis nor is he liable to pay income tax on the amount received under section 12 of the Act. Petroleum
- (c) Profits Tax is payable by twelve equal installments.

Like the companies income tax, Petroleum Profits Tax is administered by the Federal Board of Inland Revenue as a federal tax.

Companies involved in prospecting for or extracting and transportation petroleum are taxable under the Petroleum Profits Tax. There are three types of companies in the petroleum industry. These are the crude oil producing companies, which provide services to oil producing companies. These services include seismic survey, drilling, logging and interpretation of data collected from oil fields. Petroleum Profits Tax is the most important sources of revenue for the government. It accounts for about 95 percent of the Federal Government Foreign exchange earnings. It is because of the importance of the Petroleum Profits Tax as fruitful source of revenue to the Government that the Petroleum Act of 1990 vests the entire ownership and control of all petroleum in, under or upon any land or lands in Nigeria in the Federal Government.

The due administration of the Petroleum under the care and management of the Federal Board of Inland Revenue which may do all such acts as may be deemed necessary and expedient for the assessment and collection of the tax from oil producing companies anywhere in Nigeria. The Board is therefore given general administrative powers similar to those under the general Companies Income Tax Act, 1979 for the purposes of administering the Petroleum Profits Tax.

Assessable Tax is levied on the chargeable profits of petroleum companies at the rate of 85

percent in respect of the accounting period of the company.

Petroleum Profits Tax for any accounting period of twelve months is payable in twelve equal monthly installments together with a final installments. The first monthly payment shall be due and payable not less than the third month of the accounting period which shall be in an amount equal to one-twelfth of the amount of the tax estimated to be chargeable for such accounting periods is less than 12 months the installment payment shall be by the number of the months in the accounting period. Further monthly payments shall be due and payable not later than the last day of each subsequent month of the accounting period. The amount of tax to be chargeable for the accounting period less the sum already paid, divided by the number of monthly payments remaining to be made in respect of the accounting period. A final installment of tax is due and payable within 21 days after the service of the notice of assessment which shall be the amount of the tax assessed less the amounts of the monthly payments already made.

The Petroleum Profits Tax is considered as oppressive and disincentive. The present petroleum tax rate of 85 percent in Nigeria could be seen as a clog to the development of Oil industry in the country. It was in recognition of this problem that the Federal Government introduced many concessions on oil products.

In Nigeria, a lot of tax incentives have been provided for to encourage local and foreign investors. These are in the form of various deductible allowances and several fiscal incentives such as tax offsets, credits etc. For any accounting period of a company the current petroleum profits tax rate on chargeable profits is 85 percent.

It has been suggested that the petroleum profits tax would create a large amount of uncertainty for foreign investors who have a continuing and long-term need for investment in the country. That high tax would have an unduly harsh impact on foreign company with low capital base to purchase petroleum products.

In order to reduce the effect of the Petroleum Profits Tax on foreign investors, the Federal Government in June, 1993 announced a 10-point package of incentives to encourage investment

in the downstream sector of the country's petroleum industry. According to Asiodu, "The incentives included 100 percent equity participation by local and foreign investors and the guarantee of investments already made, if effected by Government regulations and policies.

The package includes a five-year tax holiday from the beginning of operations and guaranteed export earnings, which could be kept in approved escrow accounts in the investors' choice of countries. It also includes various other incentives, including capital allowances at 20 percent rate per annum for the first four years. According to Asiodu the investors would also be allowed to feedstock for processing for both export and local markets, enjoying a guarantee of crude oil supply and receive preferential consideration for a duty reduction of up to 50 percent on imported construction materials where considered necessary.

The Federal Government in 1993 also decided to overhaul the system of taxation in the country, to make it more efficient, simple, broad based and cost effective. This move was taken to minimize government over-dependence on oil revenue. The government's desire to strengthen non-oil taxation was to encourage efficient investment growth in the private sector and have the resources to finance public expenditure adequately. According to Olashore, "...in carrying out the overhaul, the government would ensure that the incidence of the new indirect taxes focused on the non-basic consumption items and maintain a progressive approach by taxing luxury items."

In the same vein, the Federal Government in its efforts to encourage and promote the development of the oil producing areas in the country introduced tax concessions to oil companies who are willing to provide basic essentials of life, including water, roads, schools and other facilities, as well as jobs, that could approve the economic well-being of the people in the oil producing area. It was in recognition of this government gesture that Shell Petroleum Development Company in Delta State between 1992-1993 donated furniture for schools in 104 communities, 74 gets new classroom blocks while 60 were provided with portable water, 51 were provided with science equipment. The

company also awarded 30 university and 1,158 post-primary scholarships to students in 17 local governments. The Petroleum Profits Tax provides that where a company engaged in petroleum operations is also engaged in transportation of chargeable oil by ocean going oil-tanker operated by or on behalf of the company from Nigeria to another territory, then any profit or loss attribute to such transportation business shall be excluded from the adjusted profits for the purpose of the petroleum operations.

One major problem of the Petroleum Profits Tax in Nigeria is inadequate penalty. A penalty of N1,000.00 (One Thousand Naira) is certainly inadequate for a multinational company for rendering insufficient and incorrect information in their accounts.

Secondly, for any accounting period of a company, the current Petroleum Profits Tax on chargeable profits is 85 percent. The effect of the tax rate is low in view of several fiscal incentives provided for in the Act.

The present petroleum tax rate of 85 percent for petroleum products and the concessionary tax rate of 65 percent for five years are considered as overbearing and burdensome. Since the nature of the oil business is fraught with a lot of risk and uncertainty, there is need for tax holiday of a longer duration. Retroactive legislation in the area of taxation should be discouraged. The petroleum profits tax act came into operation in 1958; no serious amendment has been made in the area of penalties. For more realistic approach penalties that will ensure effective compliance with the provisions of the act should be imposed, estimated tax should be doubled and imposed.

Under section 4 of the Petroleum Profits Tax Act losses incurred by the petroleum company during any previous accounting period shall be deducted from its assessable profits for any accounting period. Such deduction shall be made so far as possible from the amount, if any, of the adjusted profit of the first accounting period after that in which the loss was incurred and any balance can then be carried forward to the next succeeding accounting period until it is completely wiped out within five months after the end of any accounting period of a petroleum company or within such further time as the Board may permit in writing in any instance, the

company may elect in writing that a deduction of any loss or any part thereof shall be deferred to and be made in the succeeding accounting period until the full amount is wiped out. In other words a petroleum company can elect to carry forward its losses to the next accounting period even though it has sufficient profits in the current accounting period to relieve such losses. One does not see the justification for this to deprive the Government of the revenue needed for social and economic development of the country.

The aspect of enforceability of the Act is another vital area where the government ought to take extra measures. The agency responsible for the enforcement of oil regulations is the Department of Petroleum Inspectorate. To effectively combat crime, the personnel has to be properly trained and equipped but this is far cry from the reality. They are not properly founded. The caliber of staff again matters, checks in the form of constant air and land surveillance on pipelines are not done especially now that the issue of oil bunkering is a re-occurring phenomenon. These administrative lapses should be promptly corrected.

3. Conclusion

In spite of the effect of the Petroleum Profits Tax on foreign investors, many of them made huge profits. For instance Mobil Oil Nigeria in 1992 made after-tax profits of \$8.18million up from \$6million in 1991. According to Owen-Smith "The firm attained a turnover of \$68million, up from \$54.5million

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Problems and Prospects of Community Participation in Rural Development at the Grassroot Level in Nigeria

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Abstract. This paper examines the nature of community participation in rural development at the grassroots in Nigeria which is essentially the role of rural dwellers in the up-liftment of their living conditions. Local government being the third tier of government is examined within the context of its constitutional roles and resources at its disposal to facilitate the much desired task of grassroots participation in rural development. The study employs the use of Content Analysis as a methodology and Participatory Theory is used as a theoretical framework of the study. The paper reveals that top bottom approach, political deprivation, lack of enlightenment and awareness campaign and lack of proper educational empowerment constitute the major challenges of community participation in rural development. It was concluded that the goals of the participation in rural development are not incompatible with that of government development plans. The paper recommended that, the local government should improve in the enlightenment and awareness campaign which can serve as a way of motivating communities to participate in rural development.

Keywords: Community participation, rural development, local government, empowerment and mobilization.

1. Introduction

Rural Development is one of the Concepts of Development Administration that focuses attention on how to develop rural communities through the participation of private individuals, organisations and public sector. Rural development involves the restructuring of the economy in order to satisfy the material needs and aspirations of the rural masses, and to promote individual and collective incentives to participate in the process of development. Its aim is to improve the living standard of the rural masses with a view to participate in the transformation of the rural area. The major aspect of Nigeria's political development since 1960 has been the creation of new states and local government areas. The statements government often makes when carrying out such exercises is that, it is intended to foster grassroots development and provide a wider spectrum for people's participation in public policy formulation and implementation, Bakare (2002). Perhaps, this forms the basis and motivational factor among Nigerians who over the years have severally yearned and demanded for new local government areas or even a state. This desire is seen as a positive strategy aimed at confronting the crisis of rural development and grassroots participation. Yet with the creation of

several states and local government areas, the incidences of rural alienation and neglects leading to mass poverty, hunger and disease have continued unabated, Anyanwu (1992).

It is to be observed at this juncture that all development efforts in Nigeria since independence have been located and rooted within the context of a capitalist economy. Furthermore, our conception of development like in all other African countries remains at the level of ideology breeding on Western World propaganda which is carried out with the intensity through the various agencies of the United Nation Organisation, Baberga (2006). The west thus propagates the notion of westernisation, industrialisation or capitalist economic growth as the basis for development. It has also been observed that, the nature, character and structure of dependent capitalist ideology of development constitute the basis for instability, social injustice and inequality of the present Nigerian social order. Hence, suggestions have been made for a new social order whose doctrine would include: self-reliance in economic production, political development, social justice and equity in the distribution, exchange and participation.

The need to generate development from the grassroots by involving the rural dwellers is informed by the fact that, it is the spot where the majority of the population live. The most serious attempt was however made by President Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida (IBB) in 1986 when the Directorate of Food, Roads and Infrastructure (DFFRI) was created. The decree charged it to commit itself into identifying, involving and supporting viable local community organisations in the effective mobilisation of the rural populations for sustained rural development activities, bearing in mind the need for promoting greater community participation and economic self-reliance of the rural community.

2. Statement of the Problem

Community participation in rural development was stifled by the Top-Bottom Approach instead of the Bottom-up Approach which for many years had been the ideological basis for

designing rural development programmes in Nigeria and most developing countries.

Despite the fact that rural areas serve as a ground by which almost all the resources used in national development were obtained; rural areas were still backward and static in terms of development with even their participation in decision making.

Rural dwellers are not encouraged to participate in the process of decision making because the level of awareness is very low.

However, since the attainment of Nigerian independence in 1960, various governments both military and civilian have initiated several rural and community based development programmes designed to enhance the living standard of the people who are living at the grassroots level. Consequently, some communities still live without portable drinking water, electricity, good access roads, hospitals and information centres among others.

It is against this backdrop that this paper intends to examine in critical terms the impacts of community participation in rural development at the grassroots with a view to recommending solutions on how to enhance the living standard of the rural populace.

3. Research Questions

- (i) To what extent has the community participation serve as a strategy of rural development in Nigeria?
- (ii) Is the top-bottom approach to development together with lack of enlightenment and awareness campaign impede community participation in Nigeria?
- (iii) What is the impact of community participation in rural development in Nigeria?

4. Objectives of the Study

- (i) To examine the extent to which community participation serves as a strategy of rural development in Nigeria.

- (ii) To identify the structural and technical constraints that serve as impediment to community participation in Nigeria.
- (iii) To proffer solutions necessary to facilitate community participation for community development in Nigeria.

5. Literature Review

5.1 Rural Development

Rural development has been described in different ways by different scholars depending on the discipline or line of thought of the person concerned. This is because rural development is a multi-disciplinary concept and the definition of each author depends on the area where the author focuses attention. The central theme in all the definitions is “improvement of the living conditions of rural people”.

Aslam (1981), defines rural development as “a process aimed at developing the rural poor, their economy and institutions from a state of stagnation or low productivity equilibrium into dynamic process leading to the higher level of living and better quality of life”. Schumacker (1983), conceives rural development as “developing the skills of the masses to make them self-reliant through the instruction which supply appropriate and relevant knowledge on the methods of self-help”. On the other hand, Bakare (2002) defines rural development as the process whereby concerted efforts are made in order to facilitate significant increase in rural resource productivity with the overall objectives of enhancing rural income, increasing employment opportunities and upgrading rural communities.

It can be seen that the above definitions came from the trained specialists who tend to lay emphasis on the development of human resources, while the definition taken from the World Bank publication focuses attention on the development of the environment rather than human being. According to the (1998) World Bank Publication on the Role of Community Participation in Developing Planning and Project Management, rural development is a “strategy designed to improve the economic and social life of a specific group of people-the rural poor. It

involves extending the benefits of development to the poorest among those who seek a livelihood in the rural areas.

Rural development is the restructuring of the economy in order to satisfy the material needs and aspirations of the rural masses and to promote individual and collective incentives to participate in the process of development. Its aim is to improve the living standard of the rural masses with a view to participate in the transformation of rural area.

5.2 Community Participation in Rural Development

The concept of community participation is concerned with the process of ensuring that the intended beneficiaries of development projects and programmes are themselves involved in the planning and execution of those projects and programmes. This is considered important as it empowers the recipients of development projects to influence and manage their own development, thereby removing any culture of dependency, (Castle 1972). An effective participation for grassroots development would only be realised where the grassroots have the freedom to make their own decisions and set their own development priorities, draw their own plans; implement and ensure a fair share of the fruits of their work. Participatory grassroots development is an alternative approach for equitable rural development.

Participation of the grassroots is seen as a process whereby the marginalised groups in a community take the initiatives to shape their own future and better their lives by taking full responsibility for their needs, (Aslam 1981). It is a collective venture through which the grassroots discover their identity in the wider society. The process is marked by the development of new knowledge and skills by their people including their appropriation through adaptation and control of technology and extension services so that it serves them in response to their development priorities and in the context of their life experiences.

5.3 Factors that influence Community Participation in Rural Development in Nigeria

5.3.1 Empowerment

The term empowerment has different meanings in socio-cultural and political contexts, and does not translate easily into all languages. An exploration of local terms associated with empowerment around the world always leads to lively discussion. These terms includes self-strength, control, self -power, self- reliance, own choice, life of dignity in accordance with one's values, capable of fighting for one's rights, independence, own decision making, being free, awakening, and capability to mention only few, (Mabogunje 1980).

Empowerment is the expansion of assets and capabilities of poor people to participate in negotiation with influence, control and hold accountable institutions that affect their lives. In its broad sense, empowerment is the expansion of freedom of choice and action. It means increasing one's authority and control over the resources and decisions that affects one's life. As people exercise real choice, they gain increased control over their lives. Poor people's choices are extremely limited, both by their lack of assets and by their powerlessness to negotiate better terms for themselves with range of institutions, both formal and informal. The concept of empowerment in the context of participation of people in rural development at the grassroots centred around four major elements; access to information, inclusion and participation, accountability and local organizational capacity.

One of the views of the term participation sees it as the empowerment of the "deprived and the excluded (Bakare, 2002)". This suggests that the great mass of the people in the rural areas – small farmers, tenants, sharecroppers, the landless etc. have been widely associated with various forms of oppression under social structures through which dominant social groups are able to dictate conditions of life of the dominated and to appropriate material assets, Bakare (2002).

It must be observed that the process of grassroots participation is rooted in the concept of grassroots representative democracy. The democratic imperative suggest that public matters be attended by elected representatives of (responsive and accountable to) the mass of the people. The democratic imperative equally suggests that people organize themselves into Community Based Organizations (CBOs) which are expected to enhance Bottom-Up Development and the overall national economic development in the following ways:

- (i) The pooling of resources to achieve collective strength and countervailing power at the grassroots level,
- (ii) Enhancement of manual and technical skills, planning and managerial expertise at the community level – (local capacity),
- (iii) Increasing stakeholder's ownership of policies and projects by contributing to their willingness to share costs and maintain assets created,
- (iv) Articulating the development needs of the grassroots to higher authorities.
- (v) Ensure that the principle of sustainable human development awareness is imbibed in the community,
- (vi) Fostering democratic values by promoting the ideals of democracy and participation at the grassroots – thereby serving as training foundation for national leaders,
- (vii) Enhancing the much desired collaboration between the local communities, government at the various levels, and international (aid) agencies like the United Nation Development Programme (UNDP), World Bank and other donor organizations in the promotion of a development that is people oriented and sustainable.

The democratic imperative imbedded in participation in rural development at the

grassroots further connotes the allocation of liberty and freedom to rural dwellers to make authoritative assessments of public policy which directly or indirectly affects their well-being and socio-economic advancement. In this direction it is expected that their assessments (comments, criticisms, petitions etc) are taken into by the government so as to be able to affect the design, content, shape and dimension of public policy in the areas of conception, formulation and execution. The government gets the opinions of the rural dwellers through people, press, extension workers, research workers etc. Suffice it to state at this point that, participation in rural development at the grassroots is enhanced by a balance communication/information system in the society, (Bakare 1997).

5.3.2 Mobilisation

Mobilisation is a process where by a group of people have transcended their differences to meet on equal terms in order to facilitate a participatory decision making process. In other words, it can be viewed as a process which begins a dialogue among members of the community to determine who, what and how issues are decided, and also to provide an avenue for everyone to participate in decisions that affects their lives.

Norman et al (1974) agreed that a “successful performance of extended rural development requires organization, participation at the local level in conjunction with the resources, services and the policies of the central government.

Rural mobilization is a capacity-building process through which community individuals, groups, or organizations plan, carryout and evaluate activities on a participatory and sustained basis to improve on the quality of life of the communities either on their own initiatives or stimulated by others. The media play an important role in grassroots mobilization. This includes; educating the community, giving necessary information, providing the fora for mobilizers and calling out the people of the community for action. For the media to be used effectively in mobilization, it must possess the ability to make the necessary contact for giving

the relevant information. That is why Braimoh (1988) describes communication as an “essential tool for the establishment and maintenance of good social working relationship. Grassroots mobilization depends heavily on communication. Its effectiveness permits members to ask for the opinion of others at any time.

However, participation is equated with mobilization of people. In this case, the grassroots which forms the majority of the total population can become conscious of the resources at their disposal, and are motivated and energized to collectively utilize such resources to improve their respective lot. This view sounds like preparing the rural population to collaborate with government development plans. Hence, it suggests the case in which the higher authorities conceive and design social and economic development projects and mobilize the communities at the level of execution of such projects.

5.4 Self-Help Program

There is no doubt that no government, however richly endowed can supply all the needs of its people. This is even more in developing country like Nigeria where there is almost a revolution of expectations. Most people look upon the government to do one thing or the other for them, despite the fact that the resources available to meet these expectations are continually dwindling. Besides, there are wide gaps between our people’s expectations and actual accomplishments on the part of the government. This has led to a number of adverse effects, such as alienation, frustration, withdrawal of support, legitimacy and lack of interest on activities of the government.

Against this background, there is therefore a need to change our strategy of development. Instead of looking up to the central government or even industrialized nations for technological transfer and experts of the transformation of our rural areas, the Nigerian populace, particularly the millions of people who live in rural areas should be mobilized in order to transform their

areas. One of the ways to achieve this is through the self-help programmes in rural development.

Self-help can also be seen as a strategy that induces progress in rural societies, all of which do not involve action by government. It could be related to an individual who alone has the resources to implement a project or projects to satisfy the basic needs of a community. It could also apply to coordinated efforts within a community to select and execute local, economic and social programmes addressed to the development of a community. This implies the improvement of the people through their own efforts largely for their own benefit.

Castle (1972), conceived self-help as a situation whereby man himself becomes both the object and subject of his own improvement and not merely as an instrument in a process imposed from above or within. In rural development, the element of self-help is adopted to secure the active participation and co-operation of the people in programmes designed to improve their standard of living and promote their development, which means that every organization in the community, namely; clubs, age grades, towns union, women groups, headmasters, religious leaders, traditional rulers and in fact all opinion leaders must be involved in initiating and implementation of self-help programmes and to invite the government and non-governmental agencies when necessary.

6. Methodology

The study employs Content Analysis since we are dealing with existing Literature on Community Participation in Rural Development

7. Theoretical Framework

The Theoretical Framework of Analysis for this study is the Participatory Theory which was developed by Charles Tilly and Doug Mc Adam in 1970. The participatory theory seeks to engage local populations in the decision making process and development projects. Participatory theory has taken a variety of forms since it emerged in the 1970s, when it was introduced as an important part of the 'Basic Need Approach'

to development. Most manifestations of participatory development seek to give the poor a part in initiatives designed for their benefit in the hopes that development projects will be more sustainable and successful if local populations are engaged in the development process. Participatory theory has become an increasingly accepted method of development practice and is employed by a variety of organisation. It is often presented as an alternative to mainstream 'top-down' development.

The definition of participatory Theory is premised along two different dimensions. There is the Social Movement Perspective and the Institutional Perspective

The Social Movement Perspective defines participatory theory as the mobilisation of people to eliminate unjust hierarchies of knowledge, power and economic distribution. The Institutional Perspective defines the theory of participation as the reach and inclusion of inputs by relevant groups in the design and implementation of inputs and opinions of relevant groups and stakeholders in a community, (Norman 1972).

8. Discussion of Findings

The paper establishes that today in Nigeria, developments policies are taken on the basis of Top-Bottom Approach which does not give room for participation to take place from the bottom. The top bottom approach to rural development employed by government functionaries whip up enthusiasm among the people, as there is absence of total community participation. Due to the approach adopted people evoke unwilling response as they are regarded as being incapable of standing on their feet. The community dwellers are of the opinion that qualitative education should be provided at the rural areas because there is no way for a community to develop and even think of development without access to quality education. This means that educational empowerment can enhance their capacity to participate and influence development policies at the local level. Another finding of the study is

that some community members feel that local government should motivate communities to participate in rural development through enlightenment and awareness campaign. They are also of the opinion that there is a wide communication gap between the government developments plans and the real need of the people. Therefore, lack of enlightenment and awareness campaign prevents effective participation thereby reducing development to the privilege few that are close to the government. Finally, political deprivation leads to lack of good leadership which constitute the major factor of hindrance for effective participation in rural development because the local government executive and legislative bodies are not elected by the people but appointed by the government in power. The people views and opinions do not therefore count in the development process.

8.1 The Impediments of Community Participation in Rural Development in Nigeria

Participation in rural development at the grassroots in Nigeria is faced with a number of problems. Some of these include:

Top Bottom Approach: Today in Nigeria, developments policies are taken on the basis of Top-Bottom Approach which does not give room for participation to take place from the bottom. The top bottom approach to rural development employed by government functionaries whip up enthusiasm among the people, as there is absence of total community participation. Due to the approach adopted people evoke unwilling response as they are regarded as being incapable of standing on their feet.

Political Deprivation: For over the years, Nigerians are calling for some changes in the way and manner the election are being conducted at the local level. Election is not always free and fair, therefore the people's votes are not counted and the right people are not chosen either at the Councillorship, Chairmanship or State House of Assembly Levels. As a result of this, some community members are deprived from their political right and this will serve as a serious setback to

participation in rural development which in turn leads to political apathy.

Lack of Enlightenment and Awareness Campaign: government is supposed to use the mass media (radio, television, newspapers, etc) to facilitate the enlightenment of rural dwellers on the benefits of participation in rural development. The willingness or need to change; to influence planners to corroborate with the rural dwellers over matters on rural development and mobilize external resources to complement local resources so as to facilitate the execution of programmes.

Lack of Proper Educational Empowerment: There is a serious wide gap between the educational systems of the urban places with that of the rural areas. People who are living at the local and community level do not have access to qualitative education in majority of the local governments of Nigeria. Nowadays, the issue of free education is only in theory, those that are living in rural areas are suffering from abject poverty to the extent that the three (3) square meal is not affordable let alone paying their children school fees. Therefore, without educational empowerment the community members will not even think of participation in decision making process.

Lack of Cohesive Identity: Failures have occurred in rural development as people regard the social and cultural aspect of development as subordinate to the economic development. Any innovation that does not guarantee the cohesiveness of the group and respect their history and beliefs has little or no hope of survival.

Lack of Proper Economic Empowerment: people tend to treat rural development projects as charity or welfare packages. Only few people are interested in the costing, evaluating and ensuring that targets are met. The poor people in the rural areas do not have a voice in economic activities, therefore participation is not encouraged.

9. Conclusion

In all ramifications, development is for the people and therefore must design to meet their needs. This means that all rural development efforts must be derived from the felt needs and

aspirations of the rural people from within not from outside the communities. Government should show the necessary leadership by matching words with actions through evolving workable rural development approaches, proper coordination, funding and technical assistance.

Community participation in rural development at the grassroots implies a genuine effort to reverse the trends of development by creating the potential for maximum involvement of the marginalized community in the process of development for all. In this process, people at the grassroots are given a prominent role, not as tools for rural development but as subjects of development. Grassroots participation in planning, implementation, evaluation and sharing the benefit of development is the basic for equitable rural development. This process will not be realized without proper leadership formation, independent organizational framework and some institutional support for the grassroots.

However, participation in rural development at the grassroots is basically aimed at reaching the marginalized rural grassroots who are striving to better their living standards. Our intensive leadership and basic skills training programme are intended to create the potential for local self-reliance and thus create less dependence on specialized areas at the grassroots.

10. Recommendations

- (i) **Political Empowerment of the Rural People:** government must make politics to go beyond paternalistic decentralization of power to lower community. The traditional relationship and the stereotypic mutual attitudes of urban and rural dwellers must be restructured. The silent majority who are subject to deceptions and exploitations by the city demagogues should be given opportunity to express their political awareness. They should be rid of their ignorance of political clout and illiteracy which both conspired to rob the rural people of the realization of their power to change

things around their own advantage. The rural people should be encourage forming a discussion groups in order articulate their problems and try to solve them inevitably. Efforts should be made to keep them abreast on government activities through the establishment of radio-listening and television viewing centres.

- (ii) **Bottom-Up Approach:** Community Participation is concerned with the process of ensuring that the intended beneficiaries of development projects and programmes are themselves involved in the planning and execution of those projects and programmes. This is considered important as it empowers the recipients of development projects to influence and manage their own development, thereby removing any culture of dependency. This means that whenever governments wants to carry out any activities the community dwellers should be involved in order to decide when and how the project should be formulated and implemented so that their priority felt-needs are taken into cognisance.

- (iii) **Enlightenment and Awareness Campaign:** government should constantly engage in enlightenment and awareness campaign because it is only when government embark on this that the community dwellers should be able to understand the efficacy of their involvement in government activities. In this process Mass Media and Town Criers plays a pivotal role in educating the people on the need to participate in their development process.

- (iv) **Political Empowerment:** The community dwellers are also expected to be empowered politically, the election process should be credible to their satisfaction and free and fair

- election should be guaranteed. If this is done, their votes are count and the right people will be chosen at various political offices and this will serve as a means of eliminating the political apathy.
- (v) **Educational Empowerment:** Qualitative education should be given to the people who are living at the community level. This is because educational empowerment will enhance the capacity of people to participate and influence development policies at the local level.
 - (vi) The local government should find way of encouraging its people to engage in rural self-help programme so that they can give their own contribution in terms of idea and material support for development.
 - (vii) Community leaders have to regularly call for town hall meetings and training of community leaders on how to go on the enlightenment and awareness campaign.
 - (viii) People should be encouraged to initiate self- help community projects whereby the decisions, planning and implementation and the maintenance should be the responsibility of the community.
 - (ix) The community dwellers should be allowed to identify their felt needs and come up with their programmes and projects of their priority attention and not imposed from above as currently being experienced in various communities. It is only when the community dwellers identify their needs and priorities that such projects sited within such communities would be utilised and protected.

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Part Two

Political Education

Monetization of Politics and Elections in Fourth Republican Nigeria: Implications for Sustainable Democratic Governance.

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Abstract. Politics in democratic political system thrives on popular political participation in free, fair, period and credible intra-party and general elections. These democratic norms have been greatly associated with older democracies where a greater majority of citizens as politicians and electorates have imbibed the participant or civic democratic culture. However, in relatively new or emerging democracies such as Nigeria, citizens imbibed more of parochial or subject political culture. While politicians perceived and play zero-sum politics and use all means, including offering of material inducements, use of force and other unconstitutional means in electoral politics. These explains why the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC), reported the nullification of 117 election results after the 2015 general elections in Nigeria. The recurrence of nullification of results of general election and even intra-party elections by election tribunals and courts are sufficient empirical evidence of low level awareness of the unfolding trends of monetisation of politics or electoral corruption in Nigeria. Therefore, this paper examines the rising trend of monetisation of politics and elections in the fourth Republic. The paper identifies the characteristic traits and incidences of monetisation of politics in Nigeria and its players or political actors. The paper further highlighted the perception of monetised politics, the factors associated with its observable trend in fourth republican Nigeria, its implications for good governance and sustainable democracy in Nigeria. Finally, the paper proffers solutions for curtailing the dysfunctional trends in Nigeria

politics to ensure sustainable democratic governance in the fourth republican Nigeria.

Keywords: Politics, Elections, Monetisation of politics, Zero-sum politics and Sustainable democracy

1. Introduction

Politics is inevitable in human society on account of the gregarious nature of humans and the inevitable conflict among humans in the society. Although, the outbreak of war in human society has been described as the continuation of politics by other means, civilize politics is one that avoids the escalation of conflicts to war or use of weapons of mass destruction. Politicking in accordance with democratic norms or culture of popular participation in free, fair, regular, periodic, transparent, violent free or credible elections have been adjudged the hallmark of democratic governance (Okunloye, 1990).

Nigeria is a relative new entrant into the democratic system of government on account of the relatively longer period of military rule (1966 – 1999) and persistent disruption of democratic regimes of government by military rule (1966 – 1979, 1983 – 1999) until the fourth republic (1999 – 2017). This explains why the latest experience in democratic governance in the fourth republic in Nigeria which started from 29th July 1999 has been described as democratic experiment, democratic learning process or nascent democracy (Okunloye, 2017). Given the transition of democracy from Athenian

democracy in the Greece city states to representative democracy in the modern world, the place of election and electoral politics cannot be overemphasized. Representative democracy is the government of the people by their accredited representative. Representation in democracy is based on election of different levels. At the Intra-party level, it is used to elect representatives that will serve as Electoral College or party representatives that will in turn elect those to contest in the general elections into different elective seats in government on party platforms (Okunloye, 1990). At the general election level, the electorate in different constituencies created for elective positions in government, have the opportunity of voting in accordance with their personal preferences for candidates and parties of their choices. When voting at intra-party and general election levels becomes a game of political zero-sum or winner takes all/win at all cost by all means (including illegitimate or extra-constitutional means) and voters begins to vote in accordance with the ability of politicians to offer the highest bids or material inducements, then politics or electoral politics is said to be monetised (Okunloye, 2017). Monetisation of politics is therefore the process or acts of use of different forms of monetary or material inducement on citizens for securing the patronage, participation or votes during electoral politics as well as other stakeholders to seek undue favor to compromise the electoral process for the purpose of emerging victorious in the intra-party or general elections (Okunloye, 2017). Monetization of politics is not new in Nigeria. There were traits of its trend since general elections in the first 1960 – 1966), second (1979 – 1983) and aborted Republics (1989 – 1992). However, it assumed a gargantuan proportion in the 4th Republic when 2015 election was estimated to cost the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC), political parties and candidates ₦1 Trillion (Vanguard News). At the general election level for instance, one politician and Minister, Mrs. Alison was alleged to have disbursed over ₦23 Billion naira to (INEC officials, other politicians and security officials) in order to compromise the electoral process to favor PDP Presidential Candidate, Dr. Ebele Jonathan in 2015 presidential election.

According to INEC, ₦3,046,829,000 was traced to INEC staff in 16 states. INEC also confirmed that 5 former Resident Electoral Commissioners (RECs) of the national electoral umpire are being investigated in connection with the disbursement \$115 (#23 billion) Election Inducement Bribe Fund (EIBF) (Vanguard News,; Uche, 2015). Although, the litigations around the alleged sum of EIBF are still ongoing, the fact that some INEC officials, security officials and politicians entered into plea bargaining and refunded ₦503 million out of the amount involved are sufficient evidence that 2015 election was significantly monetized, even when the intended results of producing clear winners for the highest bidders for votes and compromised electoral process were not achieved.

It is therefore not surprising when INEC reported the nullification of 117 election results in Nigeria after 2015 general election (INEC Chairman, Information Nigeria). The unfolding trend of monetization of politics and more specifically electoral politics are critical problems that must be addressed to guarantee good governance and sustainable democracy. This paper, therefore, examines the trend of monetization of politics and elections in Nigeria in the fourth Republic and their implications for sustainable democracy. Specifically, the paper examines the concept and trait of monetization of politics, factors associated with monetization of politics and implications for sustainable democratic governance in the fourth Republic in Nigeria.

2. Concept and Traits of Monetisation of Politics and Elections

Monetisation of politics refer to conception, pattern of behaviors and relationship between/among organizational activists, organizational contributors, opinion leaders, voters and non-voters involving the use of different forms of giving and taking of monetary or material inducements for the purposes of securing varieties of political patronage, allegiance, support or favour before, during and after intra-party or general elections in a political system. It may involve rent-a-crowd political

rallies, press conferences, political processions/demonstration of opposition or support, voting, manipulation of voting procedure against or in favor of specific political parties and candidates, provision of security coverage/report to compromise electoral process, etc, based on offered or accepted monetary or material inducements.

The political space in which monetisation of politics thrive is one in which politicians share the zero-sum conception of the game of politics, otherwise known as do or die, win-at-all-cost or winner-takes-all politics. Politicians in these political relationships see politics as an investment or money-spinning and interest-yield venture. Politics is therefore seen as worth

buying voters, votes and using other complementary manipulative instruments on political stakeholders who may add to the profit-yielding capacity of political investment in politics generally or electioneering politics in particular. Although, Nigeria politician across the parties that contest the 2015 general elections (Falodi, 2016) share these attributes, the electoral law, parties constitutions, intra-party election procedures and stipulated fees of Filling Expression of Interest Form (EOIF) and Elective Office Nomination Form (EONF), seem to have compound the monetisation of politics in the Fourth Republic in Nigeria.(Adebawale, 2016; Onyekpere, 2015; Uche, 2015) as shown in table 1.

Table 1: Template of Fees of EOIF and EONF of Three Major Parties in 2015 General Elections

Parties	Office in view	EOIF fees	EONF fees	Total
APC	President	₦2.5m	₦25m	₦27.5m
	Governorship	₦.5m	₦5m	₦5.5m
	Senate	₦.3m	₦3m	₦3.3m
	House of Rep.	₦.2m	₦2m	₦2.2m
PDP	President	₦2m	₦20m	₦22m
	Governorship	₦1m	₦10m	₦ 10.5m
	Senate	₦5m	₦4m	₦4.5m
	House of Rep.	₦.4m	₦2m	₦2.4m
APGA	President	No presidential candidate	NPC	NPC
	Governorship	₦2m	₦10m	₦12m
	Senate	₦.5m	₦3m	₦3.5m
	House of Rep.	₦.5m	₦2m	₦2.5m

Source: Adebawale (2016). *Cost of Politics in Nigeria*. P.8

Based on costs implication of buying the EOIF and EONF in table 1 and the greater proportion of Nigerian voters that are living below the poverty line (62.6% Nigerians according to the United Nations Development Programme, (2016), the stakes are very high for any loser, be it politicians or voters, in Nigerian elections. This is more so when these exorbitant costs of elections do not include cost of campaign and distribution of money, food, fabrics, customized shirts and other material inducements known as ‘stomach infrastructure’. It is quite worrisome that all parties in Nigeria that fielded candidate in 2015 general election use ‘stomach infrastructure’ inducements for winning votes. This tends to raise the bar in the ‘market of political bargaining, as political parties bid for

votes from different voters using political fronts, ‘brokers’ and ‘jobbers’ in the transaction. This explains why there tend to be an intricate connection if not perfect overlap between monetisation of politics or electoral politics and electoral corruption. This is with reference to the offer and acceptance of material or monetary gratifications among politicians, political parties, political godfathers, political fronts, political brokers and jobber and voters during or around general election at local, state or national levels.

This trend is not, however, limited to general elections. The same trend has been observed in intra-party elections when delegates are expected to elect parties candidates for different elective offices. In this case, delegates are

actually ‘bought’ by candidates contesting for elective positions on party platforms. In some cases, the political ‘godfathers’ of ‘anointed candidates’ are sometimes returned ‘unopposed’ after their political godfather must have ‘ordered or ‘persuaded’ competing candidates with their ‘heir apparent’ to step down after settling their bills of intra-party campaigns and/or promise of other commensurate political compensations such as political appointments in the future. Accordingly, the cost of fighting elections and stakes of political power-holding has continued to rise astronomically in Nigeria.

3. Monetization of Politics Associated Factors

Monetisation of politics in the fourth republic in Nigeria is a product of the multiplier effect of a combination of factors. These include: Political class-related, Political culture-related, Electorate expectation-related, electoral law-related, electoral umpire-related and Security official partisanship-related.

3.1 Political Class-related Factor

A significant proportion of politicians across political parties in Nigeria perceive politics as zero-sum or winner-takes-all (Dudley, 1982). Politics played in zero-sum conceptions, makes political power-holding an end in itself or at best, an instrument for primitive capital accumulation and rather than a call to serve to better the lots of greater majority of electorate. In this process politics becomes occupationalized and the pendulum of political coalitions and alliances swing to any political party that in power to distribute the perquisite of office. This explains why there had been continuous political cross-carpeting at national and state levels among members of different political parties that swap positions as opposition or incumbent party in power. For instance, the former opposition party that takes control of government of a state tends to attract political defectors or carpet crosser from the former ruling party now turned opposition. Such defectors have been labeled ‘bread and butter politicians’ or ‘Any Government In Power (AGIP) politicians’. The non-ideological nature or ideological fluidity of Nigerian political

parties and politicians tend to reinforce this trend of shifting political coalitions, alliances and carpet-crossing.

In the same vein, politician have developed a syndrome of pursuing ‘free money in government’ that can be easily accessed by defecting to the party controlling the government at the centre or state levels through political appointments. Few charismatic politicians among the political class have also become domineering political ‘father-figures’ or ‘godfathers’ who determine what, when and how of political power-holding among their followers or political sphere of influence. They are more of ‘defacto’ controllers of government than the ‘dejure’ incumbents that are officially in government, and visible to citizens. For instance, the ‘Adedibu factor’ in Oyo state politics and the ‘Saraki factor’ in Kwara politics (Okunloye, 2017). These elite groups in politics sustain their large followership among the poor masses by regular distribution of money, food, clothes and other related materials otherwise known as ‘stomach infrastructure’. These ‘defacto’ controllers of elected politicians also use their positions and rosinized charisma to impose ‘anointed’ candidates on their respective parties. In the process, they consolidate their hold on political party by distributing money and other materials to their large political followers in and outside their respective parties. This pattern of politicking tends to enhance the monetisation of politics and electoral corruption.

3.2 Political Culture-related Factor

A greater proportion of Nigerian voters who are predominantly illiterates imbibed more of parochial or subject political culture instead of the participant or civic culture which are requisites for sustainable democracy and rational voting behavior (International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (IDEA), 2006). These have been traced to long period of military rule, recurrence of election malpractices and low degree of personal political efficacy of Nigerian voters (Okunloye, 2017).

3.3 Electorate Expectations-related Factor

Although Nigerian voters generally exhibit irrational voting behavior (Falade, 2014), they tend to have more of revolution of rising

expectation from the political class after voting for them and their parties (Amdi, 2014 & Afolabi 2015). Indeed, a significant proportion of voters desired immediate gratification or upfront payment for voting than wait for four long years to progressively enjoy dividends of democracy along with the generality of the citizens or at least a greater majority of voters in delineated constituencies at different levels of government. Therefore, more often than not, young voters and illiterate women voters within politicians' or political 'godfathers' sphere of influence exhibit 'cash-and-carry voting' or monetised voting behaviour. Accordingly, the electorate makes several demands which are predominantly materialistic and personal than collective demand for the implementation of party's manifestoes and accountability. This settlement syndrome is also related to voter's low sense of personal and collective political efficacy. (Mahmud, 2015; Okunloye, 2017).

3.3 Electoral Law-related Factor

The electoral law stipulated high benchmark of election-related expenses which tend to make the rich to venture into politics or at least attach themselves to different political 'godfathers' and political financiers who tend to popularise monetisation of politics. Notwithstanding the benchmark of electoral expenses for different elective positions, Nigerian politicians tend to spend more within and outside the party in order to win elections. The upward review of electoral expenses of parties under the Electoral Act, 2006 and 2010 as shown in Table 2 clearly shows that the stipulated limits of electoral expenses are relatively high against the background of a country with 62.6% of the population living below the poverty line (UNDP, 2016). The limits of election expenses are clearly beyond the reach of lower or middle class politicians. As a result, some of them may be constrained to attach themselves to willing political 'godfathers' or financiers and in process engender the trend of monetisation of politics.

Table 2: Legal limit of Election Expenses in Nigeria (2006 and 2010)

Elective Office	Electoral Act, 2006	Electoral Act, 2010
President	₦5 million	₦1 billion
Governorship	₦100 million	₦200 million
Senate	₦20 million	₦40 million
House of Assembly	₦10 million	₦20 million
State Assembly	₦5 million	₦10 million
Local Government Chairman	₦5 million	₦10 million
Councilors	₦500 000.00	₦1 million

Source: Electoral Acts (2006 & 2010).

These 'Political Financiers' that fund party candidates conceived their input in the partisan politics as political investment that must be recouped during the four-year tenure of elected party candidate(s) and thereby promoting electoral corruption.

3.4 Electoral-Umpire related Factor

INEC as the umpire in the game of politics and more specifically electioneering politics lacks the human, technical and supervisory capacity to monitor political spending and election expenses of political parties and candidates before and during elections. This is because of the coded

way of political or electoral financing by politicians and political financiers in particular. INEC is only left with the monitoring and auditing of the official electoral financial transactions of politicians, political parties and candidates. INEC is also constrained on account of its capacity to audit the account of parties on statutory grants to political parties. Other mobilized funds, donations and expenses of parties that are usually controlled by political 'financiers' or 'godfathers' within or outside the parties are somehow beyond the reach of INEC oversight function. Therefore, monitoring and enforcement of limits of electoral spending as stipulated in the electoral law are very difficult if

not impossible. Accordingly, the loose and enabling environment for monetisation of politics tends to encourage electoral corruption in Nigeria.

3.5 Security Officials Partisanship-related Factor

Security officials are legally assigned complementary roles in the conduct of intra-party and general elections. They are supposed to be non-partisan if not apolitical in the discharge of their functions. However, on account of partisan tendencies and overbearing influence of politicians, they sometimes compromise the required neutrality or non-partisanship in elections. Policemen had actually been indicted in Ekiti and River state in Nigeria in 2015 and 2016 elections for aiding and abetting electoral malpractices on account of inducements they received from some politicians or political parties. The cumulative effects of offering and acceptance of gratifications tend to progressively increase the trend of monetisation of politics and electoral corruption in Nigeria.

4. Implications of Monetisation of Politics

The implications of monetization of politics are very grievous and most damaging to good governance and sustainable democracy in Nigeria on account of its a cumulative effects on political actors, other stakeholders in Nigerian politics and the entire Nigerian political system. These are with reference to the erosion of voters' sovereignty, reversal of political relationship between the elected and the voters, voters' freedom of action, reaping of democratic dividends, promotion of corruption, wastage, socialization of voters and threat to sustainable democracy and polity.

4.1 Erosion of Popular Sovereignty

When politics is monetized, voters tend to loose their collective popular sovereignty because the 'upfront' political gratification received from politicians tend to nullify their right to demand for service from those elected during the four

year tenure of elective office-holding at national, state and local levels.

4.2 Reversal of Relationship with the Electorate Reversing

In the same vein, monetization of politics has the tendency of reversing the relationship between the ruler (elected) and the ruled (voters) to one of master (elected) – servant (electorate) and order-giving-process rather than servant (elected) – master (electorate) pressure-responsive and accountable process. Those politicians who profess to be servant or chief servant are truly stating the democratic norm of the relationship between the electorate (master) and the elected politicians (servants) in government under democratic system of government. However in reality, elected politicians in government tend to exhibit more of master-servant relationship in relating with majority of the electorate in their respective constituencies.

4.3 Restriction of Freedom of the Electorate

Monetization of politics also has the tendency of undermining the freedom of the voters to choose their government and determine how they are governed. This is because the winners of the elections are often no longer the most popular, credible and potentially performing parties and candidates. Rather, they are sometimes the 'highest bidders' and 'payers' of the highest 'stomach infrastructure', money, other material gratifications or manipulators of votes during general elections.

4.4 Mortgaged or Forfeited Dividends of Democracy

When politics or electoral politics is monetized, the fortune or right of voters to access and enjoy good governance and allied dividends of democracy is predominantly mortgaged. Voters only stand the chance of getting another set of 'crumbs' of voting inducements (stomach infrastructure) towards the end of tenure when the political bidders will show up to distribute the immediate material requirements to 'capture' voters and access their votes to win election and

rule for another four years under the Presidential Constitution (1999) of the fourth republic.

4.5 Enhancement of Corruption

Monetization of politics creates and enhances conducive environment for corruption to thrive in all sectors of the society. Give and take political transaction, cash and carry voting behavior, political brokers and jobbers and allied facilitators of corruption in society have the tendency of growing rapidly in society where politics is monetized.

4.6 Economic Waste and Trivialization of Democratic Election

When elections are nullified in democracy on account of compromised process of electoral politics involving different players, re-run elections will have to be conducted to arrive at ultimate winner(s). Nullification and re-run election lead to colossal waste of public fund and undermine credibility and democratic significance of electoral process, gate-keeping and political recruitment procedures in a democracy. The nullification of 117 elections results and re-run election in 2015 general election which collectively cost Nigeria an estimated sum of ₦1 trillion was therefore an act of profligacy in public expenditure.

4.7 Socialization to Political Apathy

Monetization of politics also increases political apathy and promote socialization of voters into parochial and subject political culture. This is because voters become alienated from those they voted for predominantly on account of inducements have a perception of paying their way into political office-holding and as such do not have a sense of serving them in government after ‘paying’ for votes. Parochial and subject political culture in Almond and Verba (1963)’s typology of political culture are inconsistent with democratic culture which thrives on participant political culture which is the closest to the ideal civic culture for sustainable democracy. Voters may accordingly develop withdrawal syndrome from politics which in the Fourth Republic had manifested in non-

collection of Permanent Voter Card (PVC), and low voter turnout in general elections (Okunloye, 2016).

4.8 Threat to Democracy and Continuity of Democratic State

The greatest cost implication of monetization of politics is however beyond monetary cost, waste of fund and fuelling of corruption. Much more, it has more fundamental and damaging socio-political implications of threatening democracy and the continuity of the Nigerian state. When on account of loss of confidence in the electoral process, the aggrieved and alienated voters and other concerned citizens take up arms against some agents of government. This may increasingly move Nigeria towards a failed state or ‘Hobbesian state of Nature’ as ‘the revolution of rising expectation’ from the political class is increasingly matched with ‘the revolution of rising frustration’.

In view of the devastating socio-political implications of monetization of politics, it is imperative that, the trend which reached its peak in 2015 in the annals of general elections in Nigeria be reversed to avert the metamorphosis of its negative implications into near or total collapse of democracy and the Nigerian state.

5. Conclusions and Recommendations

Monetization of politics and specifically electoral politics pose the most devastating threat to good governance, sustainable democracy and the continuity of the Nigerian state. It is therefore imperative for all stakeholders, especially the political class, Federal and State governments, electorate at different levels, INEC, National Orientation Agency (NOA) and other stakeholders to collaborate to reverse the trend.

It is therefore recommended that the following measures be taken to reverse the trend. First, the political class needs re-orientation about their perception of politics and political power-holding from zero-sum to variable-sum game. Secondly, political office-holding must be made less attractive by devolution of powers from the

Federal to the state and local government and reduction of remuneration and perquisite of political office-holding to enable service-oriented and value adding politicians to seek and occupy political positions in government.

Thirdly, a statutory independent political party auditing body should be established to complement INEC in enforcing election expenses limits stipulated in Electoral Act 2010 on parties and candidates before during and after general elections. Fourthly, liberalized independent candidates provision should be introduced into the Nigerian Constitution (1999) and Electoral Act (2010) to enable tested and trustworthy citizen without financial capacity to contest and win elections to serve the people. INEC stipulated EOIF and EONF fees for independent candidates (instead of parties) must also be drastically reduce to a maximum of ₦500,000 for the highest elective office and minimum of ₦50,000 for the lowest.

Fifthly, there is the need to drastically reduce the number of special Advisers, Personal Assistants and other political appointees attached to political office holders at all levels of government to re-orientate 'free money for the boys' mentality of elected political Chief Executives, especially President, Governors, and Local Government Council Chairmen. Sixthly, the trend of occupationalization of politics by majority of Nigerian politicians must be reversed by abrogating legislative duties at all levels of government as a full-time engagement. It should be made part-time governmental duties for which legislators will be entitled to sitting allowances only for a minimum of 180 days stipulated period of legislative session in a year.

Finally, moratorium should be placed on when politicians can cross-carpenter among political parties. This could be a minimum of two years after general election to curtail materialistic-oriented cross-carpentering from opposition parties to parties in power. It is hoped that this measures will go a long way to address the problems of Monetisation of politics in the fourth Republic in Nigeria and promote sustainable democratic governance.

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Influence of Television Political Programmes on Voters' Opinion in the Nigerian 2015 General Election: A Study of "Politics Today".

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Abstract. The mass media, especially the television medium has been found to be a powerful tool in shaping public opinion. The Nigerian political environment is one aspect the media cannot be silent about the study seeks to establish the influence of the television political programme (*Politics Today*) on the voting opinion of ABU undergraduate students in the 2015 general elections. The objectives of this study were to evaluate the frequency level of ABU undergraduate students viewership of Television political programmes, examine the level of ABU undergraduate students viewership exposure of and "Politics Today" television political programme during the Nigerian 2015 general elections and determine the influence "Politics Today" television political programmes on the voting opinion of ABU undergraduate students in the 2015 general election. The survey method was used. Questionnaire was designed and used as the research instrument. A total of 270 copies of questionnaire were distributed to respondents from six selected faculties in the university, out of which 260 copies were returned. Findings of the study show that ABU undergraduate students watch the programme occasionally and the programme influenced the voting opinion of the students in the 2015 general elections. Thus, it was recommended that television stations in Nigeria should produce more political programme to increase political awareness and also broadcast these programme on the internet for wider outreach.

Keywords: Media, Television, Influence, Programmes, Politics, Opinions, Election.

1. Introduction

Throughout history, mass media have been a major source of information, education and public enlightenment. People depend on mass media to tell them what is happening around them, and all over the world. Mass media like television, newspaper, radio and magazine have their own specific advantages over the other. They all basically serve same purposes and their influences are enormously felt in the society. Just like food is a need to man, the media is part and parcel of our lives. Baran (2012:21) emphasizes the important role of mass media in our lives when he states that "no matter how we choose to view the process of mass communication, it's impossible to deny that an enormous portion of our lives is spent in interacting with the mass media".

Out of the numerous mass media, television is said to be outstanding and unique in its own way. This may be due to its ability to transmit words, sound and images simultaneously. Television has become a major tool for social change. Television's ability to communicate using pictures and sound simultaneously made it an effective medium. Pictures are devoted evidence of reality. Pictures tell a story better than words. Nkana (2005) clarifies that pictures can create effect and impact on television viewers. They are important in information dissemination and audience mobilization, and can cause people to act or not act depending on the point of view of the message they carry. One

way television is serving as a tool for social and cultural change is through programmes organized by television stations. These programmes are contents organized to serve various purposes and appeal to diverse interests. While some of the television programmes are live programmes, some are recorded. Television programmes have become a major consumer of audience time. It is true that Sleeping and working account for most of the time in a person's day, but TV watching ranks third (Dominick, 2011). This basically shows to an extent, how exposure to TV programmes has become man's habit. Television stations in order to attract and keep audience attention tend to strive hard in designing programmes that would not only sustain audience interest, but also affects the way they think.

One of the categories of programmes organized by television stations is the political programmes. As part of mass media informative, educative and watchdog functions, political programmes are presented to keep the public abreast of the political issues like elections, voter's registration, government policies that affect them directly. Candidates contesting for electoral office campaign via television, government officials are brought on television to defend government policies, achievement of a particular public office holder are shown on television, controversial political issues in the society are debated on television programmes. It is rational that television organizations follow the trend in the political environment in order to keep the public informed of the entire political process. However, Nkana (2015:230) summarizes that "the success of any television programme is determined by the response behavior of the viewers and the influence of the pictorial accompaniment of the message. However due to some political, environmental and structural variables, messages could be regarded otherwise and their results could be unexpected".

It is interesting to note that television stations in Nigeria have contributed and are still contributing to effective political mobilization and participation. There are numerous political programmes designed by different television

stations with the aim of educating the Nigerian citizens on the political happenings around the country. Not only do the Nigerian broadcast media possess enormous powers, but its role as an instrument of mobilization dates back to as far as 1965. In other words, the media has been a very active instrument in democratic processes in Nigeria over a stretch of time, until the military dictatorship took the shine from it. However, with the re-entry of civilian rule in 1999, the media via the broadcast media have resumed its active role of mobilizing the populace for elections. One of the numerous and popular political programmes is "Politics Today" on Channels Television.

During the 2015 elections, both at state and national level, the Nigeria mass media serve as the link between the people and the overall processes. Reporters were sent to various polling unit to report live to the stations. In the same vein, live discussion programmes were held to analyze and interpret issues as it concerns the process. With high reference to television stations, viewers are brought to the frontline of the electoral activities. This means that the relationship between the mass media and politics does not stop during political campaigns. It is therefore a continuous activity for the mass media to play the role of intermediary between citizens and their political environment at every point in time. It is against this background that the study seeks to examine the influence of the aforementioned political programmes in shaping voter's opinion in Nigeria.

2. Televised Political Programmes

A programme is a broadcast material created to meet certain specific needs or attain some set objectives, and transmitted to some predetermined target audience (Onabanjo, 2001). As one of the ingredient of broadcasting, messages refer to the transmitted symbols of words, sounds, actions, pictures, noise, gesticulations etc., that have been artistically translated into tangible products. These symbols usually begin as ideas, skills, feelings etc. which are encoded by the sender and decoded by the receiver. The products or messages are easily

and generally referred to as programmes in television.

Television stations all over the world create different forms of programmes to pass messages and fulfill certain needs of the target audience. One of such programmes is political programmes. Since the media exist to serve the people, and convey messages to the general public based on the happening in the society, political programmes are designed by television stations to educate and inform the audience about events occurring in the political environment. Television political programmes are mostly in form of discussion where you have two, three or four participants coming together to dwell on matters or a problem that affect the society. In television political programmes, there is a moderator who pilots the programme. Most times, specialist in political issues or a key figure in the national politics is invited to trash issues in the political atmosphere. Some of the political programmes being aired by television stations in Nigeria are 'Good morning Nigeria' on 'NTA', 'Focus Nigeria' and 'Matters' arising on 'AIT', 'Politics today' on Channels TV, and so on. These programmes are designed to meet the above objectives as stated by Onabanjo and studies (Larkin & Were, 2013; Throsby, 2013) have shown that these televised political programmes have influence on electorate in the area of formation of political knowledge and participation.

3. The 2015 General Election

Election is an ambiguous term that is opened to different definition and interpretation. Election is however an integral part of democratization process of a country. For any country who claims to practice democracy, it must give equal opportunity for its entire citizens to be able to occupy public offices and choose their representatives. The process of citizens selecting who represent them either at the local, state, or federal level is called election. Kompetenzzentrum (2004) cited in Adewale (2007:8) sees election as "a means of selecting the officers or representatives of an organization or by the vote of the qualified members and that election are means of making political choice by

voting so that leaders would be elected in the determination of issue". Election is a procedure recognized by the rule of an organization, be it a state, a club, a voluntary organization or whatever, where all, or some, of the members choose a smaller number of persons to hold an office, or offices, of authority within that organization (Dowse & Hughes, 1983).

Due to the importance of election in a democratic setting, countries all over the world set up independent body, fund and nurture to conduct elections and also issue certificate of return to the winners of the election. This is because it is believed that credible elections translate to maturity in the democratic sense of a country. However, according to Ndulo & Lulo (2010:4) "elections are not synonymous with democracy, but are a central component of a functioning democratic system". The issue of election has become very important in political discourse because it constitutes the fulcrum upon which rest the survival of democracy (Olujide, Adeyemi & Gbadeyan, 2011). Elections are central institution of democratic representative governments. The reason is that, in democracy, the authority of the government derives solely from the consent of the governed. The principal mechanism for translating that consent into governmental authority is the holding of free and fair elections (Awopeju, 2011).

The Nigeria 2015 general election was the fifth general elections held in the country since 1999 after the military hand over. Both the presidential and gubernatorial elections had the People's Democratic Party (PDP) and All Progressives Congress (APC) having major participants. However, the country for the first time since 1999 witnessed a major shift in power in the presidential election. It was an historical moment and consolidation of the country's democracy as incumbent president Goodluck Jonathan of the People's Democratic Party (PDP) lost to the candidate of All Progressives Congress (APC), Muhammadu Buhari. Also, at the state level, APC won in 29 states, while PDP won in 10 states of the federation. Furthermore, APC won majority of the seats in the National Assembly elections. Interestingly, Nigeria was

commended by world leaders, organizations and unions for conducting an election that redefined the country's democracy.

4. The Concept of Public (Voter) Opinion

According to Sambe (2008) that public opinion consists of those opinions held by public which government governments find prudent to heed. Public opinion is the sum of all private opinions of which government officials in some measures are aware and which they take into account in determining their official actions. Public opinion is seen as an aggregate result of individual opinions on public matter which affects group of people, a consensus among a varying, significant number of persons which emerges over-time from all the expressed views that cluster around an issue in debate. However, to

Asemah (2011) public opinions are the views, expressions and feelings held by the general members of the society about issues, events, happenings and occurrences in the society. These happenings may be at the local, national or international level. The media in our society are always available to reflect and regulate interests in our society. When they raise such issues, it becomes an issue of national discourse; this is because, it is either people are directly or indirectly influenced by the issues raised by the media. Sambe (2008) therefore cited in Asemah (2011:37) noted that "it is the aggregate of these views on issues that the concept 'public opinion' finds relevance.

To Lippmann (1922:18) public opinion consists of pictures inside men's heads and why the picture "so often misleads men in their dealings with the world outside, the pictures of themselves, of others, of their needs, purposes, and relationship" (Lippmann, 1922:19). In this case, voter opinion can also be described as the sum total of individual views, feelings and utterances which are either inferable or measureable and held by a group of persons over a particular candidate or party. Voting opinion ranges from belief that someone has formed regarding a political party or candidate to the

actual casting of vote to such political party or candidate in an election.

5. Politics Today

Politics today is a one hour weekly political programme aired by Channels TV every Sunday night at 8pm. The programme seeks to provide more in-depth and broader perspective to issues in the Nigerian political realm. It is also aimed at bringing viewers analysis from all angles for a better understanding. Putting into cognizance the complex nature of the political society, politics today is targeted to bring the political players to the forefront of the people. In achieving its objectives, the programme brings top political office holders, decision and policy makers, government officials in a view to get their opinion and decision on matters of public concern. Politics today allows for the direct participation of audience via social media networks like Facebook and twitter. During and after electioneering campaign, politicians are being invited on the programme to talk about their plans for the people, asked crucial questions and also, it has serve as avenue CEDE(AIT). The programme started in 2005 with a broad objective of analyzing and giving in-depth information on trending issues with huge focus on the Nigeria political environment. The programme runs from 10.00am to 11.00am Monday to Friday Since the inception of the programme, it has been able to attract viewers who depend heavily on media to make meaning out of the happenings around them. Focus Nigeria is a programme designed to engage all critical issues affecting Nigeria's polity, from politics to other subject matters that engage and affect the ordinary Nigerian. The discussion programme which currently has about 80,000 followers on both Facebook and twitter has the unique nature of inviting key policy makers to discuss issues affecting the political, economic and social development of the country. In 2009, it was reported that late president Umaru Musa Yar'adua threatened to revoke the operational license of Africa Independence television, AIT over what was described as threat to national security from the stations talk program Focus Nigeria. The presidency then accused the TV station of using the program to misinform and

incite the Nigerian people against the government. Same scenario played out in 2006 when the presenter of the show, Gbenga Aruleba was arrested for criticizing the Obasanjo administration. Till date, the programme is still one of Nigeria popular TV programmes that have been able to capture effectively events that occur in the Nigeria political atmosphere.

6. Statement of the Problem

The mass media has been found to be a powerful tool in shaping public opinion. The Nigerian political environment is one aspect the media cannot be silent about. In performing their functions as an educational institution and watchdog of the society, the media reports on government policies that affects us. Citizens make decisions based on the information they have at hand, and the mass media, especially television are sources from which these citizens get information. Consequently, there is a need for media organizations to always report and analyze issues as they affect the citizen. More so, television is an effective medium to shape public opinion because of its ability to transmit words, picture and sound simultaneously. Since 1999, Nigeria citizens have been observing their fundamental human rights. This is to vote and be voted for. The media have been up to the task in the coverage of these political issues. This was the same in the 2015 elections. Electorates were sensitized and mobilized using the mass media especially television. These political programmes are targeted to not only inform and educate the viewers, but also to help viewers make informed political decisions. It is on this gap in knowledge that this study seeks to examine the influence of Television political programme in Nigeria (*Politics Today*) influence on voter's opinion regarding their turnout, their choice of candidates and their political knowledge on the Nigerian general 2015 elections.

7. Aim and Objectives

The aim of this study is to establish the influence of the television political programme (*Politics Today*) on the voting opinion of ABU undergraduate students in the 2015 general

elections. The objectives of this study are as follows:

- To evaluate the frequency level of ABU undergraduate students viewership of Television political programmes.
- To examine the level of ABU undergraduate students viewership exposure of and "Politics Today" television political programme during the Nigerian 2015 general elections.
- To determine the influence "Politics Today" television political programmes on the voting opinion of ABU undergraduate students in the 2015 general election.

8. Scope of the study

The focus of the study is to investigate the influence of television political programme "Politics Today" programme on Channels TV on voters' opinion using undergraduate students of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Kaduna State, Nigeria as population of study. Hence, the scope of this study is restricted to those who are 18 and above due to the nature of the research. The research environment was also chosen because it houses an important section of the society that is 'youth' who are exposed to these media messages and at same time exercise their right of voting. For this reason, the university was chosen as a suitable research environment

9. Methodology

Research Design

This research employed the use of survey method because the survey method is mostly employed to get an overview of the opinion of respondents.

Population of the Study

The population for this study constitutes the entire 2015/2016 session of undergraduate students of Ahmadu Bello University Zaria, Kaduna State, Nigeria. Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria has a total of 12 faculties. 10 of the faculties are located at the main campus, Samaru : Arts, Education, Science, Social sciences, Medicine, Pharmacy, Engineering, Agriculture, Environmental design and Veterinary medicine while the other two

faculties: Law and Administration are located at the Congo campus. Data obtained from the University's Management Information System (MIS) unit put the entire student's population at thirty-six thousand, two hundred (36,200).

Sampling Techniques

This study deployed the use of both the simple random sampling and the purposive sampling techniques. Employing a simple random sampling, the researcher decided to use 6 faculties out of the 12 faculties. This is because according to Wimmer and Dominick (2014), a researcher does not need to study all elements in a population, the most important of all is to follow a sampling procedure that will avoid bias of any kind and each respondent should have an equal chance of being selected. This is the more reason the researcher used a simple random sampling which is a probability sampling technique to arrive at the number of faculties that were selected to represent the whole undergraduate students. The researchers selected 6 faculties from the draw. The faculties selected were: Arts, Education, Social sciences, Science, Engineering, and Law. The purposive sampling technique was also used. In using this technique, the researcher selected members of the population who are above 18 years of age since it is the required age for voting in the country, those who voted in the 2015 election and those who are exposed to the television programme. These criteria will help to make sure that only people who are knowledgeable about the subject matter answer the questions asked.

Sample Size

The sample size selected was used for generalization to the entire population. The sample size of the study was calculated using the survey monkey online calculator. A confidence

level of 90 percent and error of margin of 0.5 were used to arrive at a sample size of 270. The sum of two hundred and seventy (270) copies of questionnaire was administered to the students. Furthermore, in order to arrive at a proportionate distribution of the instrument of data collection, the sample size was divided by the six (6) faculties selected. That is $270/6$ which is equal to 45. This means that the researcher shared a total of 45 copies questionnaires in each faculty selected.

Instrumentation

The questionnaire adopted for this study is the close and open ended. This is to enable the respondents to select answers from the list of options provided. The Likert type scale of strongly Agree, (SA), Agreed (A), Disagreed (D) and Strongly Disagreed (SD) as well as the Yes and No response was used.

10. Results

In the course of the work, the researcher distributed 270 questionnaires to six faculties of the university and 260 copies of the questionnaires were collected. The sum of 40 copies of questionnaire was retrieved from faculty of Arts, 45 copies from faculty of Education, 41 copies from faculty of Science, 45 copies from faculty of Social Science, 45 copies from faculty of Engineering and 44 copies from faculty of Law. This makes a return rate of 96%. The return rate is presented in the tabular form below. The data gathered from responses of the respondents was coded using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software and interpreted in graphical illustrations in form of frequency tables.

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Variables	Frequency	Average %
Age		
18-22	74	28.4
23-27	144	55.4
28-32	30	11.5
32 and Above	12	4.6
Total	260	100.0
Sex		
Male	189	72.7
Female	71	27.3
Total	260	100.0

The above table indicates that a significant majority of the respondents are male. Perhaps, this is due to the ratio of both genders present as undergraduate in the university. According to the record released by the management information system (MIS) unit of the university in 2016, male undergraduate students are 24,100 while their female counterparts are around 12,100.

The table above shows that majority of the respondents are energetic and vibrant youths within the age bracket of 18-27years. This finding is however not unexpected because majority of university undergraduates students nowadays are within this age bracket. Also, 16.1% of the respondents fall within the age bracket of 28years and above.

Table 2: Respondents frequency level of viewership of Television political programmes

Variables	No. of respondents	Percentage (%)
Always	39	15.0
Often	72	27.7
Occasionally	107	41.2
Rarely	38	14.6
No Response	4	1.5

The above table illustrate that majority of the respondents (41.2%) watch the programme occasionally, 27.7% watch the programme often, 15.0% watch the programme always, 14.6% rarely watch the programme and 1.5% do not watch the programme. This implies that majority of the students watch the programme occasionally.

Table 3: Respondents level of exposure to viewership of the television political programme *Politics Today* during the Nigerian 2105 General elections.

Variables	No. of respondents	Percentage (%)
High	73	28.1
Very High	65	25.0
Low	83	31.9
Very Low	35	13.5
No Response	4	1.5

The result above demonstrates that in the 2015 general elections, 28.1% of the respondents' level of exposure to the television political programme "Politics Today" was high, 25.0% was very high, 31.9% was low, 13.5% was very low and 1.5% gave no response. This implies that the level of students' exposure to viewership of the programme in the 2015 general elections is low. Hence, not majority of the citizens depend on the television to get information and be updated about the happenings in the political environment.

Table 4: Influence of television political programmes "Politics Today" on the voting Opinion of the students in the 2015 general election.

INDICES	SA	A	U	D	SD
The programme encouraged me to vote.	50 (19.2)	97 (37.3)	62 (23.8)	38 (14.6)	13 (5.0)
The programme made me decide my candidate choice.	48 (18.5)	72 (27.7)	66 (25.4)	55 (21.2)	19 (7.3)
The programme aided my understanding of political issues.	94(36.2)	97 (37.3)	52 (20.0)	14 (5.4)	3 (1.2)
The programme influenced my decision to vote wisely.	75 (28.8)	101(38.8)	59 (22.7)	19 (7.3)	6 (2.3)
The programme encouraged me to participate in political issues.	60 (23.1)	84 (32.3)	57 (21.9)	40 (15.4)	19 (7.3)

Note: Figures in parentheses are percentages.

The table reveals that 19.2% of the respondents strongly agreed that the programme encouraged them to vote, 37.3 % agreed, 23.8% were undecided, 14.6% disagreed and 5.0% strongly disagreed. This implies that the programme encouraged majority of the students to vote in the 2015 general elections. The above table indicates that 18.5% of the respondents strongly agreed that the programme made them decide their candidate choice, 27.7 % agreed, 25.4% were undecided, 21.2% disagreed and 7.3% strongly disagreed. This showed that majority of the programme influenced the student's candidate choice. The table above depicts that 36.2% of the respondents strongly agreed that the programme aided their understanding of political issues, 37.3 % agreed, 20.0% were undecided, 5.4% disagreed and 1.2% strongly disagreed. This implies that the programme aided majority of the students understanding of political issues. Data generated from the above table discovered that 28.8% of the respondents strongly agreed that the programme influenced their decision to vote wisely, 38.8 % agreed, 22.7% were undecided, 7.3% disagreed and 2.3% strongly disagreed. Hence, the programme influenced the voting decision of majority of the students. The above table presents that 23.1% of the respondents strongly agreed that the programme encouraged them to participate in politics, 32.3 % agreed, 21.9% were undecided, 15.4% disagreed and 7.3% strongly disagreed. This indicated that the programme encouraged majority of the students to participate in political issues.

11. Discussion

The data derived and interpreted in this study are further discussed here in relation to the study objectives. Table 2 depicts that majority of the students watch the television political programme "Politics Today" occasionally. It was discovered in table 3 that the level of students' exposure to viewership of the programme in the 2015 general elections is low. However, in relation to the above findings, study conducted by Liebowitz & Zentner (2012) has revealed that there is a general decline in the viewership rate of television programmes due to the coming of the internet. Findings from Table

4 revealed that the programme encouraged majority of the students to vote in the 2015 general elections. This gives credence to the assertion of Jebril, Stetka & Loveless (2013:15) that "the media serve as a tool for political mobilization. This is due to the fact that democracy will not work if people do not participate. People are educated via the media on the need for them to come out and vote the need to protect their votes and to the announcement of elections results". Also, findings from Table 4 observed that the programme influenced the student's candidate choice. This finding is reflected in the work of Blood (1999) who studied voting decision in the 1987 Australian election. Blood found that people who do not know a candidate to vote for (undecided voters) exposed themselves to media in order to acquire political knowledge that may later guide their voting decision while the already decided voters use the media because they are interested in politics. Furthermore, findings from Table 4 depict that the programme aided majority of the students understanding of political issues. Corroborating this, Charles, David & Olusola (2013) say that the media is actively involved in the shaping of citizens' perception of political issues through its educative, informative and enlightenment functions. This is to allow citizens make informed decision for the betterment of the society. Findings from Table 4 also revealed that the programme influenced the voting decision of majority of the students. The finding reflects the work of

Hayes (2009) who believes that even with the growing numbers of television in the world, the influence of television on voting are overstated. Lastly, findings from Table 4 discovered that the programme encouraged majority of the students to participate in political issues. This supports the findings of Kwak and Wang (2004) that the mass media especially television and newspaper are influential in the mobilization of youths to participate in politics due to the fact that they are important for young people in building trust and confidence for the political process.

12. Conclusion

Based on the research findings, it can be concluded that the mass media especially

television are indispensable tool in the political process. The media do not only act as a mediator between the public and political environment, it also serves as forum to construct people's opinion and perception on political issues. The media are seen as agents of change or transformation in the political process. Simply, they serve as means for voters to make decisions by disseminating information about government actions. Also, television programmes are tools for political information, mobilization and are responsible for the formation of public opinion. During elections, when electorates have trust and confidence in a candidate or political party, they tend to vote for that candidate/political party. Therefore, it is pertinent to point out that media influences cognitive attitudes and the voters' feelings; and that there is an interaction between media and cognitive domains like religion, ethnicity, family and friends, candidates' image, current events and so on. Hence, findings from this study established that the television political programme "Politics Today" has influenced the voting opinion of ABU undergraduate students in the 2015 general elections.

13. Recommendations

Based on the findings, the researcher forward the following recommendations:

- Television stations in Nigeria should organize more political programmes in order to promote more political awareness among the people, mobilize the people towards the achievement of National goals and promote civic responsibility.
- Television stations, most especially Channels TV should start broadcasting the programme, "Politics Today" and other political programmes on the internet. This will attract more audience to the programmes and increase their viewership rate.
- The content, time and objectives of the programmes should be looked into and adjustment should be done where necessary.

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A Survey of Public Trust in Mass Media as Democratic Building Institution in Nigeria

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Abstract. Institutional trust in the mass media as a source of information about government is one of the key indicators of the quality of democracy. Conceptually, it recognizes and positions the mass media as a major structure that shapes democracy by its operating system and content, therefore requiring an acceptable measure of public confidence. To determine the quality of democracy in a given country, a systematic knowledge of the degree of trust members of the public have in the media institutions that provide them information about their government is essential. The paper reports the outcome of a survey conducted on the situation of public trust in mass media institutions in Nigeria. The study specifically answers a set of questions on the measure of public trust in mass media as a source of information about government activities in Nigeria; the variation in the levels of trust between public and private media and the major reasons for the direction of trust in media institutions in the country. A cross-tabulation analysis was carried out to determine how age demography may relate to trust in the mass media. Results show a significant level of public trust in mass media as information source about government activities in Nigeria. However, private media enjoys higher, though not statistically significant, level of public trust than public media institutions. The major reasons for the direction of trust range between ownership nature and perceived degrees of editorial independence in servicing the public with information about the government. The study also suggests a higher level of trust in the media among lower age members of the public in

inverse progression, thus raising a concluding assumption that traditional mass media institutions hold greater potentials for shaping the future of democratic developments in the country.

Keywords: Public trust, Mass media, Democracy, Nigeria

1. Research Background

Trust is a societal value that is difficult to gain and easy to lose. Rotter (1967) defines trust as ‘expectancy held by an individual that the word of another individual can be relied on’. Institutional trust reflects the security one feels about a situation because of guarantee, safety, structural assurance (the belief that things are normal) and situational normality (McNair, 1998). Research has demonstrated that the concept of trust is the key to our understanding of various human behaviors and that trust intervenes in almost every aspect of social life (Tsftati & Cappella, 2003).

According to Bertrand (1997), “democracy can insure the survival of human civilization. There can be no democracy without well informed citizens and there cannot be such citizens without quality media”. In line with this therefore, Ashley, Anderson, Scheufele, Dominique, Elizabeth & Corley (2012) argues that who the public trust for information is important in contemporary risk society where social change and technological developments occur at an accelerated pace. Members of the public use trust in experts to form attitude about

emerging issues and thus if the need for trust is inevitable then trust in media should also matter for people's interaction and civilization through exposure to news from the media.

One of the observed shifts in public opinion has been the decline in popular confidence in media institutions. It was argued that the media now loses its credibility; and being the watchdog of the society, this is threatening to the societal order and stability. Once upon a time, the media was looked upon as the most credible and reliable source of information. It doesn't just play the role of providing the public with accurate information but a source of verifying it. What is said by the media used to be trusted especially on the happening and running of the government.

According to the Edelman Trust Barometer, "global public confidence in media institutions has dropped more in the past years than in any other since the financial crisis in 2009 as people eschew experts in favor of their peers and also as a result of globalization and rapid changes in technology which were also believed to have fuelled the situation". In the Edelman index, for the first time, three-quarters of the 28 countries surveyed were categorized as "distrustful" of government, business, media and non-governmental organizations and the implications of this accelerating skepticism are "deep and wide-ranging".

Trust in media plunged from 51 per cent to 43 per cent, an all-time low for the index, with the sharpest falls in Ireland, Australia, Canada and Colombia. Nevertheless, it should be noted that the declining trust in media institutions is not strictly an American trend. Since the 1960s, "public trust in government and political institutions has been decreasing in all of the advanced industrial democracies. Although the pattern and the pace of the decrease are dissimilar across countries, the downward trend is ubiquitous (Nicolai, 2017).

Public trust in media institutions is underscored by the centrality of public interest in journalism as duty and profession. Thus, according to McQuail (2003), public interest revolves around

"the idea that expectations from, and claims against the mass media on the grounds of the wider and longer term good of society can be legitimately expressed and may lead to constraints on the structure or activity of the mass media" (p. 301). Mistrust in media therefore applies to the particular context of audience relations with the news media. It is the feeling that the mainstream media are neither credible nor reliable; that the news media get in the way of society rather than helping society, and that journalists do not live by their professional standards (Kohring & Matthes, 2007). Tsifti (2012) added that mistrust in the media also relates to the perception that the journalists are not fair and objective in their reports, and that they do not always tell the whole story, and that they would sacrifice accuracy and precision for personal gains.

The question of public trust in media transcends credibility and reliability to include feelings of alienation toward the way the media function. In addition, like media cynicism, mistrust in media is subjective. The concept implies a trait like stability on the part of the audience and independent of the objective qualities of the source (Berlo, Lemert, & Mertz, 1969). According to Siebert, Patterson and Schramm (1956), "The underlying purpose of the media is to help discover truth, to assist in the process of solving political and social problems by presenting all manner of evidence and opinion as the basis for decision" (p. 65). It should not be a norm that journalism whose basic tenets are accuracy and fairness to aid the spread of lies and deception. Unfortunately, the growing commercial interests of media organizations, and the drive for dominance by institutions and states have contributed to the erosion of the tradition of truth telling and objectivity in the media. In this guise, the concept of democracy is misrepresented if there is a biased, one sided, slanted view of an issue or report in the news (Ekeanyanwu & Obianigwe 2010). Citing the Secretary General of International Federation of Journalists – Aidan White, Torres (2008) noted that when journalism is inaccurate; when it marginalizes important issues or denies access to different voices and when it is manipulated to serve narrow interests, it damages democracy.

2. A Contextual Problem of Trust in Nigeria's Media Institutions

Nigeria is regarded as operating the largest, freest and most pluralistic, and probably the most resilient media in Africa (Akinfeleye, 2005; Adeyemi, 1995). Some say her media is "the most developed and diverse in Sub-Saharan Africa" (NPC & UNICEF, 2001), enjoying "a lively tradition of independence and outspokenness" (Olutokun & Seteolu, 2001). The validity of these claims, considered from the angle of public interest is precarious, in that adherence to professional standards has been unstable and questionable. In the pre-independence era, Nigeria was seen to operate a highly professional media system – though with seeds of regional ethnocentrism. The media enjoyed a high degree of public trust during this period because of the nationalistic spirit which they pursued political independence. With seeds of regional ethnocentrism growing, the media became increasingly centrifugal in ideas and operations during the post-independence era. Public trust in the media institutions shifted along the new lines of regionalism and ethnocentrism, with the Yorubas tending to trust kins-owned media, and the Igbos tending to trust kins-owned media while the Hausa/Fulani tended to also trust kins-owned media.

In Nigeria's predominantly privately owned media landscape of today, regionally operated media system owned by ethnic individuals have given way to a system of political economy in which media operations are largely driven by profit, and to a lesser extent, ethnic and religious affinity. In a plural society, public interest can be serviced neither by a profit-driven media system nor by religious or ethnic journalism. This challenge is noticeable in the Nigeria, where according to Media Rights Monitor, the journalists, on the basis of friendship, ethnic and religious affinity, relationship or in deference to authority, have often aside their professional judgment in the performance of their functions. Apparently this practice defies the code of ethics, which stresses public interest as entailing a high degree of public trust, thus bringing to question the condition of public trust in the Nigerian media institutions.

Generally, there is an impressive amount of literature on public opinion, but few relate to trust in mass media as democratic building institution. While most of existing ones are conceptual in nature, the empirical ones are largely valid in advanced democracies where there is concern with election or change in government, especially United States. In underdeveloped democracies such as Nigeria, where economic pressure on the mass media is high, there are concerns on how the media is informing the public about government, and how that relates to public trust in the media institutions. The country is faced with a problem of public sector media that lacks the editorial independence to hold the government accountable to the public, and a failing private sector media that has continued to mislead the public on the issues of governance. For example, *Sahara Reporters*, Nigeria's largest privately owned online newspaper was recently in March 2017 embarrassed over its failed investigative report on Senator Dino Melaye's University Degree. The said newspaper had enjoyed high level of public trust because of its past records in exposing corrupt practices in the country, including the widely discontenting budget padding in the National Assembly. With the realization of the inaccuracies of Sahara Reporter on Senator Dino, the social media networks were deluged with comments, most of which questions professional standards and quality of journalism in Nigeria. Apparently, public trust in the media institutions was thrown to doubt with accusations of political partisanship, cynicism, manipulation etc. Against this backdrop, this study was inspired to undertake a general survey of the condition of public trust in the Nigerian media as information source on the government.

The study principally sought to answer the following questions:

- What is the level of public trust in mass media as information source about the government in Nigeria?
- How does the level of public trust compare between private and public media as information - sources about the government in Nigeria?

- What are the major reasons for the direction of trust in mass media as information source about government in Nigeria?

3. Extant Studies on Institutional Trust in Media

A few scholars have shown interest in producing empirical literature on public trust in media institutions in various democratic settings. Available literature however show that most research findings on institutional trust for mass media come with global and regional democracy index or reports produced by or for political institutions. For example, findings from a research presented at the World Economic Forum in Davos in 2016, show that public trust in traditional media has fallen low as people increasingly favor their friends and contacts on the internet as sources of news and truth there by shifting their faith towards the internet rather than traditional media as purveyors of truth. In fact online search engines were deemed more reliable than traditional media for information, a reversal from five years ago (Nicolaous, 2017; Cook & Gronke, 2001).

Moehler & Singh (2011) independently studied why citizens in post authoritarian African democracies trust government-owned broadcast media more than the private broadcasters, given the public media's lack of independence and history of state propaganda, using Afro barometer data from sixteen countries. The study indicates that low political sophistication, illiberal attitudes, and support for incumbents are associated with greater relative trust in government media. The study also found that citizens prefer public broadcasters in polities with greater press freedom and lower corruption. These results suggest that private media need more democratic and critical citizens, rather than higher quality reporting and greater press freedom, to compete with the state media for influence and resource.

Based on the premise that online journalism offers readers with some features that may serve as an alternative to traditional journalism, Tsfat (2010) had similarly conducted a study to

explore possible associations between mistrust in mainstream news media and consumption of online news. Results from a telephone survey and an online survey demonstrate that the association between mistrust of mainstream news and exposure to online news in general is negative. Whereas mainstream exposure is related to trust in media, exposure to nonmainstream sites is related to media skepticism.

Earlier, Tsfat (2002) had reported from a survey that audience trust in the institutions of the news media is fading. The study hypothesized that mistrust in the media serves as a moderator for media effects and as a factor influencing media exposure selections. Both propositions were tested on five separate large sample data sets, including the US National Election Study of 1996, General Social Survey, and three additional studies conducted at the Annenberg School for Communication during the 1996 and 2000 election years. The first proposition was tested in relation to news media agenda setting, spiral of silence, cultivation and priming effects. Findings show that media skepticism indeed moderated agenda setting and spiral of silence processes. Hypotheses about the moderating role of media skepticism in cultivation and priming were not supported. Tests of the second proposition regarding the influence of media skepticism on news exposure selections showed skepticism to be negatively related to exposure to mainstream news channels, but positively related to exposure to non-mainstream channels like Political Talk Radio and Internet news sources. In addition, media skepticism interacted with need for cognition in their effects on mainstream media exposure so that the effects of skepticism were stronger when need for cognition was low. As evidenced in the works cited here, empirical literature on public trust in media institutions are few and mostly relate to advanced democracies. Even when Africa is studied in this regard, the researchers have mostly come from external interests and affiliations. This leaves extant literature largely in deficit of empirical evidence on the opinion of the public regarding the quality of the service rendered to them by their media institutions.

4. Research Premise

The significance of public trust in mass media institutions as a measure of the quality of democracy can be situated in the Social Responsibility paradigm, which argues that society and the public have a right to expect high standards of performance from the mass media in the pursuit and sustenance of democracy, and that intervention can be justified to secure this for the public good. The media, according to this paradigm is duty-bound to be responsive and accountable to the society it serves. That the press has a responsibility to preserve democracy by properly informing the public and by responding to society's needs and interests. Other related theses of the social responsibility theory are outlined by McQuail (2000):

- Media should accept and fulfil certain obligations to society;
- These obligations are mainly to be met by setting high or professional standards of informativeness, truth, accuracy, objectivity, and balance;
- In accepting and applying these obligations, media should be self-regulating within the framework of law and established institutions;
- The media should avoid whatever might lead to crime, violence or civil disorder or give offense to minority groups;
- The media as a whole should be pluralistic and reflect the diversity of their society by giving access to various points of view and rights of reply;
- Journalists and media professionals should be accountable to society as well as to employers and the market.

This is to say that theory is still useful for understanding professionalism and the interactions between the public and the media a set standard of accuracy, truth, and information. In Nigeria, like elsewhere in the world, a socially responsible media knows that public trust is essential not only for citizens to make rational decisions but also to spur economic and social development, which is why it is enshrined in the journalistic code of ethics that public interest entails a high degree of public trust. A social responsible media is expected by the

public to provide full, truthful, comprehensive and intelligent information on government activities in contexts that give them meaning so that they are trusted as democratic building institution.

5. Method

This study is essentially a descriptive survey, in which a non-representative sample of 134 participants was conveniently drawn from the Ahmadu Bello University community in Zaria, northern Nigeria. Participants included students and workers within and outside the University campus, who are active news consumers. Questionnaire administration was not selective of religion, gender, ethnic origin of participants because of the need to make blind acquisition of data.

The questionnaire was both structured and unstructured type. The structured questions sought to determine the direction of trust for media while the unstructured questions sought to know the reasons for the direction of the trust. Thus, where given options are considered inexhaustive, participants are open to stating choices that are eventually included in the data analysis. Participants were asked several questions relating to their news consumption habit and trust in various sources for information on government activities, but only the aspects that are relevant for answering the research objectives were extracted for analysis. The research data from structured questions were analyzed using simple quantification and percentages, while data from unstructured questions were subjected to typological qualitative analysis. Where necessary, quantitative data were compared using cross-tabulation and reported with chi-square.

6. Findings

RQ1: Level of Public Trust in Mass Media

To answer the first research question, participants were asked to indicate if generally they trust mass media as information source about government activities in Nigeria. Table 1 reports the outcome.

Table1. Participant Trust of Media

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Trust Media	102	76.1
Don't Trust media	32	23.9
Total	134	100

As the data on Table 1 shows, those who trust mass media (76.1% of the participants) compares significantly higher with those who do not trust them (23.9% of the participants) as information source on government activities in Nigeria $X^2(1, n=134) = 36.567, p < .001$. Invariably, there is a significant measure of public trust in mass as information source on government activities in Nigeria.

RQ2: Comparing Levels of Public Trust between Public and Private Media

To answer the second research question, the participants who indicated that they trust the mass media were further asked to indicate which of public or private media institutions they trust more as information source about government in Nigeria. Table 2 below shows the result.

Table 2: Difference in Participants' Levels of Trust between Public and Private Media

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Private Media	62	60.8
Public Media	40	39.2
Total	102	100

As table 2 reveals, the level of public trust is higher for private than public media institutions as information sources about government activities in Nigeria. Statistically however, there is no significant difference in the levels of public trust for private and public mass media institutions as information sources about government activities in Nigeria $X^2(1, n=102) = 4.745, p=.029$. To account for the participants who indicated that they do not trust mass media, they were asked to indicate the source other than mass media they trust the most for information about government in Nigeria. Table 3 shows the outcome.

Table 3: Participants' Trusted Sources other than Mass Media

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Inter Personal Sources	6	18.7
Social Media	15	46.9
General Internet Sources	11	34.4
Others	-	-
Total	32	100

Apparently, social media is found here to be a potentially trusted source of information on government activities in Nigeria. This is closely followed by general internet sources. Participants did not specify any other source of trusted information about government activities in Nigeria. However, a cross tabulation was done to see how level of trust in mass media and variations in trust between private media and public media, and other trusted sources relate with participants' age categories. The result is shown on tables 4 and 5 below.

Table 4: Participant Trust in Media by age

Participants age	Trust Media	Don't Trust media	Total
18-27	56	16	72
28-37	25	11	35
38 – 47	14	3	17
48 and above	7	2	9
Total	102	32	134

The result on table 4 suggests that trust in the mass media as information source about government in Nigeria is higher among lower aged public, thus leading to an assumption that the higher the age, the lesser the level of trust in mass media as information source about government among the Nigerian public. This might be a subject for further investigations, particularly because the table also reveals a decreasing level of trust in mass media with increasing age.

RQ3: Major Reasons for the Direction of Trust

Participants were asked to indicate in an open-ended format the reasons for the direction of their trust in mass media generally, and the preference for public or private media sources for information about government.

The data were analysed typologically with mutually exclusive categories of reason. The findings revealed that the major reasons for the direction of trust range between ownership nature and perceived degrees of editorial independence in servicing the public with information about the government.

7. Discussion and Conclusion

Indeed several questions regarding public trust in mass media as democratic building institution require investigation. In this study, we considered the most basic ones, commonly found in democracy barometer questionnaire, but rarely coming from independent researches. Thus, based on the objectives of knowing the measure of public trust in the mass media a source of information about the government in Nigeria, we asked two related questions: what is the level of public trust in mass media; and how do the levels of trust compare between private and public media institutions? The data obtained from 134 survey participants were subjected to descriptive analysis and it was found that there is a significant level of public trust in the mass media as a source of information about the government in Nigeria. Comparing the levels of trust, we found that private media institutions enjoy higher trust than public media institutions. Although the survey participants were not required to state the reasons for the direction of their trust, observation could show that such reasons may range between ownership nature and perceived degrees of editorial independence in servicing the public with information about the government.

A striking interest about our findings in this study is the deviation from many previous findings, which reported low levels of public trust in mass media institutions in different democratic environments. In Nigeria, as our study shows, there is still a high level of trust in the mass media despite occasional failures in investigative reporting. By way of conclusion, what this implies is that the mass media remains a potential institution capable of shaping future democratic developments in the country. Although there also seem to be a tendency towards social media for reliable information about government, it and interpersonal sources or general internet sources are yet to prevail over the traditional mass media sources as indicated in our study. Extended analysis however reveals that people of lower age cadre tend to trust the mass media for information about the government than people of higher age cadre.

The reasons for this might well be subject for further investigations.

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Comparative Analysis of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) and Nigerian Constitution (1999): Implications for Democratic Governance and Citizenship Education in Nigeria

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Abstract. The United Nations' Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) (1948) is an internationally recognized frame of reference on human right constitutional provisions, observance, violations and advocacy. Therefore, an attempt is made in this paper, to undertake a comparative analysis of the human rights provisions in the Nigerian Constitution (1999) and the UDHR (1948). The paper reveals some similarities and difference between the two documents. It also observes some significant deficiencies in the Nigerian Constitution (1999) with reference to human rights provision in terms of scope of coverage, types of rights, jurisdiction or framework of application, grounds of just violation, and language of entrenchment. The implications of the observed deficiencies were also highlighted for civil liberty and democracy. The paper recommends that the Nigerian constitution be amended to conform with the internationally recognized benchmark of constitutional democracy by amending the Nigerian constitutional (1999) to entrench additional provisions of human right aside the existing civic-political rights; enhanced citizenship education in the school system and adult education programmes as well as socialization into sustainable democratic culture and governance; and improved human rights education in the basic school system and adult education programmes for citizenship education.

Keywords: Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Nigerian Constitution, democracy and citizenship Education.

1. Introduction

The constitution is the fundamental law according to which a state is to be governed. Therefore, it has become an established tradition for each state to have a constitution. This is more particularly true of democracies that are founded on constitution and constitutional government. The constitution is accordingly regarded as the fundamental frame of reference by the ruler and the ruled on how the state is to be administered (Okunloye, 1990). The constitution accordingly states among other things, the structures, functions, and power of government, their structural relationships, citizenship requirements, right as well as duties (Okunloye, 1990).

The constitutional provisions on human rights are the frame of reference for the government as to what it is obligatory on her to offer the citizens and observed in the relationship between the government and the governed as well as what the governed can claim by right. Provisions on fundamental human rights are, therefore, cardinal elements in the constitution of different states. The citizens may run the risk of unjust violations if they are not expressly or sufficiently stated, and guaranteed in the constitution. If they are expressly or sufficiently stated and guaranteed, the government is under legal obligation to respect and observe the rights of the citizens under normal circumstances.

In 1948, a remarkable milestone was achieved in the entrenchment of human rights provisions in the international system when the United

Nations Organization's General Assembly proclaimed by majority vote the Universal Declaration on Human Right (UDHR) (1948) (United Nations Fact Sheet No 1). Since then, the UDHR has progressively served as the international yardsticks for evaluating the adequacy of constitutionally entrenched provisions on human rights, the level of observation or violation of human rights, and advocacy charter of human rights organizations in different countries of the world.

This paper undertakes a comparative analysis of the human rights provisions in the Nigerian Constitution (1999) and the UDHR (1948). This is with a view of ascertaining the extent to which the Nigerian constitution (1999) conforms with or deviated from the international standards set out in UDHR. The paper further examines the implications of the observed degree of conformity or deviation for civil liberty, democracy and citizenship education in Nigeria.

2. Human Rights in the Nigerian Constitution (1999)

Elements of human rights which Nigerians are expected to enjoy as citizens of a democratically governed state are explicitly stated in chapter four, section 33-46 of the constitution. In addition, some provisions in other sections of the constitution have some relevance to human rights. The human rights provisions under section 33-46 of the Nigeria Constitution (1999) include:

Right to life (section 33);
 Right to dignity of human person (section 34);
 Right to personal liberty (section 35);
 Right to fair hearing (section 36);
 Right to private and family life (section 37);
 Right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion (section 38);
 Right to freedom of expression and the press (section 39);
 Right to peaceful assembly and association (section 40);
 Right to freedom of movement (section 41);
 Right to freedom from discrimination (section 42); and
 Right to acquire and own immovable property anywhere in Nigeria (section 43)...

Provision in sections 44, 45 and 46 are not prima-facie statement of human rights. They actually stated the condition under which some provisions on human right can be violated for justifiable reasons and how rights are to be protected or asserted under the Nigerian legal system.

3. Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) (1948)

The UDHR is made up of a preamble and Articles 1-30. These are rendered in abridged form in this paper for reason of space limit. These include:

All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights (Article 1);
 Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration without distinction of any kind (Article 2);
 Everyone has the right to life, liberty and security of person (Article 3);
 No one shall be held in slavery, or servitude, slavery and slave trade shall be prohibited in all their forms (Article 4);
 Everyone has the right to life. No one shall be subjected to torture or degrading treatment or punishment (Article 5);
 Everyone has the right to recognition everywhere as a person before the law (Article 6);
 All are equal before the law (Article 7);
 Everyone has the right to seek an effective legal redress for acts violating rights granted by constitution or law (Article 8);
 No one shall be subjected to arbitrary arrest, detention, or exile (Article 9);
 Everyone is entitled to fair and public hearing by an independent and impartial tribunal (Article 10);
 Everyone charged with a penal offence has the right to be presumed innocent until proved otherwise according to law in public trial (Article 11);
 No one's privacy, family, home or correspondence, honour and reputation shall be subjected to arbitrary interference (Article 12);
 Everyone has the right to freedom of movement and residence within each state or leave his or

any country, and return to his country (Article 13);

Everyone has the right to seek and to enjoy in other countries asylum from persecution (except for non-political crimes or acts contrary to the United Nations purposes and principles (Article 14);

Everyone has the right to a Nationality (Article 15);

Men and women of full age have the right to marry, entitled to equal rights as to marriage, during marriage and its dissolution (Article 16);

Everyone has the right to own property individually or in association with others (Article 17);

Everyone has the right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion (Article 18);

Everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression (Article 19);

Everyone has the right to freedom of peaceful assembly and association (Article 20);

Everyone has the right to take part in the government of his country, directly or through freely chosen representatives (Article 21 (1);

Everyone has the right to equal access to public service in his country (Article 21 (2);

Everyone as a member of society has the right to social security and is entitled to realization, through national effort and international co-operation (Article 22);

Everyone has the right to work, to just and favourable conditions of work, and to protection against unemployment (Article 23);

Everyone has the right to rest and leisure, including reasonable limitation of working hours and periodic holidays with pay (Article 24);

Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for self and family, including right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his control (Article 25 (1);

Motherhood and childhood are entitled to special care and assistance (Article 25 (2);

Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free and compulsory at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit (Article 26 (1);

Everyone has the right to freely participate in the cultural life of the community, to enjoy the arts and to share in scientific advancement and its benefits (Article 27 (1);

Everyone has the right to the protection of the moral material interests resulting from any scientific, literary or artistic production of which he is the author (Article 27 (2); and

Everyone is entitled to a social and international order in which the rights and freedoms set forth in UDHR can be fully realized (Article 28); and everyone has duties to the community in which alone the free and full development of his personality is possible (Article 29 (1); and

Article 29 (2) of the UDHR further states lawful conditions for limiting these rights, including the purpose of securing due recognition and respect for the rights and freedoms of others and of meeting the just requirements of morality, public order and the general welfare in a democratic society.

Article 30 of the UDHR expressly declared that nothing in the UDHR may be interpreted as implying for any state, group or person any right to engage in any activity or to perform any act aimed at the destruction of any of the rights and freedoms set forth herein. (Garling, 1979; 289).

4. Comparative Analysis of the Nigerian Constitution (1999) and the UDHR (1948)

A comparative analysis of the human rights provisions in the Nigerian Constitution (1999) and the UDHR (1948) is based on six interrelated factors in both documents. These include preambles or introductory statements, the scope of coverage or comprehensiveness, the types or nature of human rights, the jurisdiction or framework of application, the recognized grounds of just violations of human rights and the language of entrenchment of human rights provisions. Each of these is examined in greater details.

Introductory Statements or Preambles of the Nigerian Constitution and UDHR

The Nigerian Constitution (1999) and UDHR are similar by virtue of having introductory

statements or preambles that addressed the origin and fundamental beliefs of the people(s) expected to benefit from the stated human rights provisions in both documents. The members of the United Nations (UN) through the General Assembly affirmed their belief in dignity, equality and inalienable rights of all human beings and accordingly proclaim the UDHR. Similarly, the Nigerian Constitution (1999) expressly declares in its preamble that “we the people of the Federal Republic of Nigeria... do hereby make, enact and give to ourselves the following constitution” (p. 869) (emphasis researchers)

The Nigerian citizens are by these preambles recognized as the maker, beneficiaries and ultimate custodian of the constitution (Okunloye, 2017). This is an equivalent of the UDHR (1948) statement which recognized the United Nation member states as represented in the General Assembly as the maker of the UDHR.

5. Scope of Coverage or Comprehensiveness

The provisions of human rights in the Nigerian constitution (1999) are narrow in scope. This is because they are essentially restricted to civic-political rights of the citizens. The provisions in the UDHR are very broad and all encompassing, extending beyond the civic-political, to economic, social and cultural rights. Hence, there are provisions relating to social security, motherhood, employment, condition of service, pension, royalty or copyrights, gender equality in marriage, and related elements in the UDHR (1948), which are nonexistent in the Nigerian constitution (1999) (Okunloye, 2017).

The difference in scope of coverage or comprehensiveness between the UDHR (1948) and Nigerian Constitution (1999) is also evident in the number of human rights subject matters addressed in both documents. Whereas the latter addressed 11 major human rights subject matters, the former addressed 35 of such subject matters.

This numerical difference in human rights subject matter coverage is partly due to some

omitted provisions in the Nigerian Constitution (1999). Six of such omitted provisions include, provisions on the rights of equality of marriage partners (Article 16 (1) UDHR); social security (Article 22, UDHR); employment protection or work related provisions such as equal pay for work, just favourable and decent pay (Article 23, UDHR); Leisure (Article 24, UDHR); special care and assistance to motherhood and childhood (Article 25, UDHR); free and compulsory education of elementary and fundamental stages as well as equal access to higher education (Article 26, UDHR).

Nature or Types of Human Rights

The Nigerian Constitution (1999) and UDHR (1948) are also broadly similar in terms of provisions on civic-political rights, such as the right to freedom of association, assembly, movement, fair hearing, among others. However, they differ with respect to other human rights that are social, economic and cultural in nature as earlier highlighted to be nonexistent in the Nigerian Constitution (1999). This discrepancy is a serious defect in the Nigerian Constitution because of the nature of humans. Humans are not just, in Aristotelian perspective, political beings, but also socio-cultural and economic beings (Okunloye, 1996). In the same vein, all human rights are complementary and as such the existence or infringement of one may affect the other. Economically empowered citizens under a regime of observed economic rights have the tendency of exercising their civic-political rights of voting rationally in democratic elections and also asserting as well claiming other rights effectively in democracies (Okunloye, 1990 Okunloye, 2017).

6. Jurisdiction or Framework of Application

Another frame of reference for comparative analysis of the UDHR (1948) and Nigerian Constitution (1999) is the jurisdiction or framework of application of human rights provision in the two documents. The UDHR (1948) human rights provisions, on the one hand, have cross national or international application, especially for the 192 member states

of the UN of which Nigeria is one. On the other hand, the jurisdiction of the Nigerian Constitution (1999) is strictly limited to citizens or inhabitants, bodies, agencies or institutions within the Nigerian territorial boundary. Although, the provisions on human rights in the UDHR are not superior to those entrenched in the constitutions of member states, it has nevertheless become the reference point for ascertaining the level of entrenchment, recognition, observation or violation of human rights in the contemporary world. This is largely connected with the nature of the UN as a universal organization (Okunloye, 2011). Member States are accordingly under obligation to respect and comply with the treaty that established the UN since 1945. Moreover, conformist tendencies may be attributed to the principle of reciprocity and the threat or fear of sanction(s) and other punitive consequences for violations of the treaty. These have contributed immensely to accord the UDHR (1948) international recognition and compliance as UN-based declaration.

Ground of just Violation of Human Rights

Human rights provisions in constitutions are not absolute statements that must be rigidly observed in all circumstances (Okunloye, 1990). Indeed, different constitutions stipulate just, reasonable and legitimate grounds of violation (Okunloye 1990). The UDHR and Nigeria Constitution (1999) contain relevant provisions under which specific entrenched provisions of human rights can be justly violated.

In the same vein, both documents portray the relativity of human right by stating and giving recognition to tenable conditions under which specific provisions can be violated. These elements of relativity of human rights and the grounds of just violations are consistent with Haiman (1951) declaration that “there is no such thing as absolute freedom. People inevitably have an effect upon one another. Freedom in any society is relative, a matter of degree” (p.7) Okunloye (1996) illustrated the relativity of human right thus: “the right of arm swinger ends where the other man’s nose begins” (p.168). The two documents, accordingly, stipulate security of the right of others, public good, public order

and general welfare, among others as grounds of just violation of human rights provisions. The only difference between both documents regarding grounds of violation lies in the scope of coverage of the entrenched provisions of human rights. The UDHR (1948) contains more provisions on grounds of just violations than the Nigerian Constitution (1999) because the former include provisions on human rights outside the civic-political rights. The UDHR (1948) also has provision for the domestication of all human rights stated in the document in member states.

7. Language of Entrenchment of Human Rights Provisions

In the same vein human rights provisions in both documents are broadly similar in terms of the language of entrenchment. The human rights provisions are stated in four ways. First, explicit state provisions secondly implicitly stated provisions, thirdly, idealistically stated provision and finally, the vaguely stated provisions. Explicit statements of human rights provisions are very categorical and specific in nature and this enables both the ruler and the ruled to correctly perceive the meaning and guide their conduct. Implicit statements of human rights are implied or inferential statements from other statements. This may be difficult to pin down to specific meaning or application. Human rights activists who may be going beyond the limits intended by the constitution maker or operator in their advocacy for or enforcement of Human rights. The implicit statements of human rights therefore create room for these conceptions about specific human rights.

Futuristic or idealistic statements of human rights express the ultimate ideal state or future time frame when such rights on expected to be operational or become achievable. Some provisions, starting with ‘shall’ exhibit this feature in both documents. These are also contemptuous provisions because the citizens or human right activists may think the time frame for them to be realized or asserted is ripe whereas the government may think otherwise. These types of clauses implicitly endowed the operators of the constitution (government) with a lot of discretionary power as to when citizens

will enjoy certain rights. In the process, human rights provisions bearing such futuristic phases tend to be misconstrued by the regime of government in power as privileges that can be granted citizens as acts of benevolence.

The vaguely stated provisions on human rights are general statements with elements of Lacuna which give the government a lot of discretionary power on human rights and have tendency of making the citizens to be at the mercy of the government in power when it comes to asserting their rights. For example, Section 39 (3) 3 A, of the Nigerian Constitution (1999) states that: "Nothing in this section shall invalidate any law that is reasonably justifiable in a democratic society for the purpose of disclosure of information received in confidence" (p.90).

8. Implications and Challenges for Democracy and Citizenship Education

Civil liberties or human rights are cardinal principles and essence of democracy. The universal principles and norms of democracy are all human rights-based. These include popular sovereignty, political equality, popular consultation, majority rule and minority rights, rule of law and fundamental human rights and basic freedom (Appadoria, 1975; Centre for Democratic Studies (CDS) 1990; & Nzongola – Ntalaja, 1997).

Similarly, two major environmental conditions in which democracy thrives are also human rights-related, namely: the existence of a politically conscious citizenry who know their rights and obligation and willing to participate in the political process; and the presence of a relatively equitable socio-economic condition which enables an average citizen to live a good life (CDS, 1990). These two environmental conditions guarantee the practice of democracy that empowers people to rise up against a decadent or oppressive political order and replace it with one likely to improve their material conditions of life and ensure a better future for their children (Nzongala-Ntalaja, 1979). Restricting the scope of human rights to civic-political rights will certainly deny citizens and other people in Nigeria the benefit of

enjoying other human rights as recognized by the UDHR (1948). Indeed, the interrelated and inseparable nature of all human rights requires that none of the rights should be denied citizens. The denial of one human right may be tantamount to denial of all other human rights.

In the light of the foregoing, it is imperative for Nigerian to expand the scope of the existing human rights in the constitution beyond civic-political scope to social, economic and cultural rights as spelt out in the UDHR. This has become imperative because Nigeria is a member of the UN who pledge with other members and affirms their beliefs in the UN charter to achieve, in co-operation with the United Nations, the promotion of universal respect for and observation of human rights and fundamental freedoms' (Garling, 1997: 285). Again, the use of the word 'pledge' according to Akehurst (1977) implies a legal obligation on the part of member states to work towards the fulfillment of UN charter (human rights inclusive) in the future. That future is now as the original document (UDHR of 1948) has been in use for over sixty nine years (1948 – 2017). There is the need to rework the contemptuous, vaguely stated and futuristic provisions on human rights in the Nigerian Constitution. This is necessary to portray human rights as rights as opposed to discretionary privileges, and by so doing putting the Nigerian government under legal, and political obligation to recognize, respect and observe them in the conduct of government. This will also remove the discretionary outlook of human rights in the Nigerian constitution and put the government – the government of the people at that, at the mercy of the governed or citizens who are the political sovereign in a democracy.

The need to rework or amend the Nigerian constitution is therefore imperative. It has become much more imperative because the fourth republican constitution emerged from the constitutional-evolutionary process of military disengagement from politics.

Indeed all Nigerian constitutions from 1979 – 1999 were promulgated into legal force by the apex organizational institution of military

regimes under Muritala-Obasanjo; Buhari-Idiagbon, Babangida, and Abdulsalami regimes. The ruling military oligarchy in the Supreme Military Council (SMC) or Armed Forces Ruling Council (AFRC) merely acted as the representative of the Nigerian people (though self-imposed) to promulgate the Nigeria constitutions into law, notwithstanding, the Constitution Drafting Committees and Constituent Assemblies involvement. These modes of constitutional enactment have become the bases for agitations for referendum and other popular participatory process to replace the Nigerian constitutions since 2nd Republic to the fourth Republic (1979 – 1999) (Okunloye, 2017). When this is done the sections or provisions on human rights should be more comprehensive and specific about civic-political, social, economic and cultural rights of citizens.

Mere constitutional entrenchment of human rights is, however, not sufficient for citizens to enjoy them. The citizens must be literate enough to know their rights and politically conscious enough to assert them. This explains why Rajeswari (2000) came to the conclusion that “the law by itself may not be able to provide justice to all unless it is educated and executed...” (p.104)

Citizens also need to be taught about the relativity of human rights so that they will not blindly push for or assert human rights in absolute terms. This is necessary for peace and order in human society. Therefore, free education up to senior secondary level (at least) and human rights education within social studies framework, free adult literacy programmes and the mass media should be vigorously pursued. Human rights club should also be set up in secondary school.

9. Conclusion and Recommendations

Given the significant discrepancies inherent in the Nigerian Constitution (1999) when compared with the international standards as represented by the UDHR (1948), it has become imperative that the Nigerian constitution (1999) be amended to recognise socio-economic and cultural rights in addition to the civic-political rights.

Also, considering the prevailing high level of illiteracy and poverty among Nigerians, and their negative implications for democracy, the capacity of Nigeria to function in democracy and sustain it should be enhanced through free basic education, and improved human rights education in the basic school system and adult literacy programme.

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Part Three

Communication and Media Studies

Exploring the Role of Television Stations on Agribusiness in Kampala Central, Uganda.

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Abstract. The study was to investigate the impact of television coverage on agribusiness in Kampala central, Uganda. The objective of the study was to verify the effectiveness of television programs in promoting agribusiness in Kampala central, Uganda. The study employed descriptive survey design. The target population was 1,507,154 participants. The sample size was computed to 400 respondents using Solven's formula. The participants included community members from Kampala central division and UBC TV, Bukedde TV, NTV, NBS TV, and Urban TV. The main research instrument was questionnaires. The study found that effectiveness of television programs in promoting agribusiness was satisfactory (overall average mean=3.69, Std=1.088). The study concluded that televised agribusiness programmes are effective in disseminating information to the farmers given their audio and video capabilities and disseminate information across the countryside about modern farming system in terms of hybrid seeds, off-seasonal vegetables, selection of seeds, and marketing of the agricultural products. The following recommendations were made: the need for television programs to increase agribusiness programs in their airing, the need for the televisions to increase the coverage of airtime

allocated for agribusiness programs, the need for the government to support the television stations in their agribusiness programs, there is need for the government to organize practical training programs for the local farmers so that they gain practical skills because the information disseminated on televisions shows is not enough to the farmers, Similarly, journalists can as well involve the participation of the local leaders and district leaders so as to make the farmers even more cooperative.

Keywords: Television, Coverage, Agribusiness.

1. Introduction

Television has proved that it is a strong communication means and can greatly affect the society. Television has been used for educational purposes after the World War II. In the beginning, Americans knew educational television similar to lesson television. It seems the main reason for the popularity of television lies in its simplicity for the audiences. Since people intend to choose the easiest way for learning the simplest way can be found in television educational programs (Buren, 2000).

Ekoja (2003) stated that the information sources in different topics of agriculture for the farmers are radio and television, the propagation publication, daily farm newspapers, agriculture exhibitions, practical education, and consultation services, respectively.

Agriculture sector in Malaysia plan is generated to be the third engine growth of economic sectors in Malaysia. The government has continuously put their effort in intensifying the agriculture sector. Mass media is the main information seeking tool utilized by the Malaysians. According to Murphy (2008), on average, Malaysians spend hours to read the newspapers, magazines and other printed media in a day, to listen to the radio in a day, watch television, VCD, DVD and other video. These statistics provide an indicator that mass media have the strength and ability in providing and disseminating valuable information to the community including the agriculture information. Salleh *et al.* (2009), have supported Musa (2008) by emphasizing that farmers prefer to use traditional mass media such as television and radio compared to internet. Based on the encouraging percentage of mass media information received by the Malaysian public, it must be wisely used by the community especially the agriculture community in seeking valuable agriculture information. Even in developing countries in sub-Saharan African like Nigeria and Ghana, governments and individuals invest a great deal of resources in the mass media because these media are credited with a lot of power and influence (Schramm, 1964). The mass media have been charged with the role of diffusion of innovation, social mobilization, attitude change and the creation of psychic mobility and empathy and in Nigeria, it is not different (Nazari, 2010). For instance, the Second National Development Plan (1970-74) saw the role of public communication as "mobilizing massive support for national development measures and programmes" (Agbaje, 1986).

Generally, television is considered to be a powerful medium that performs active role in informing and educating at larger scale. For the past more than two decades, television has

become part and parcel of our lives having visible direct and indirect impact on rural and urban population (Zia, 2012). During the recent past, Uganda media, particularly electronic, has witnessed unprecedented growth and many private satellite television and FM radio channels are operational in almost all parts of the country present. For a long time, the content of what is covered is usually perturbing to the public on the point of its relevance and or importance to the community, who is the intended audience. Media content, especially news, is about events or people that are overwhelming enough to catch the reporter's attention. The protrusion can be as a result of oddity, negativity or numerical or spatial magnitude further contends that, people who are at the frontline of the society, even if they perform an ordinary task, get focused on by the mass media (Ojebode, 2006).

In Uganda, use of electronic media in agricultural sector seems to be a recent phenomenon. However, it is not clear whether these recent strides have made significant impact on farming communities. Electronic media in form of radio and television has remained in use by the department as one of the important teaching tools. But how far these media have been effective in achieving desired results seems to be an important area to be investigated. Grace, (2004) argues that communication plays an important role in the development of a country. If means of communication are economical, fast and well-developed they can produce favorable impact on attitude, modernization and widening of market. Uganda being an agricultural country has a rich and vast natural resources base, covering various climatic zones. So the agriculture sector has potential for accelerating economic and industrial growth in a country like Uganda. The importance of agriculture for Uganda's economy can be gauged in three ways: first, it provides food to consumers and raw material for domestic industries; secondly, it is a source of foreign exchange earnings; and third, it provides a market for industrial goods. At the time of independence, the agricultural sector had the largest contribution to GDP of Uganda. Although over the years' service sector has

become the largest contributor but agriculture sector still remains the largest contributor to its GDP. This sector is also a major source of employment in Uganda, sharing more than 70% of total employment (FAO, 2007).

Despite the paramount importance of agriculture, in Uganda, its pace of development is very slow. The agricultural production of the country is lower as compared to other countries of the world, even within the country there is an ample gap between per hectare yield of crops between progressive and conventional farmers (MAAIF, 1996). This is only because of indifference towards acquiring and adopting latest production technologies for enhancing crop yields and achieving sustainability in agriculture.

Media is now a mainstream form of communication around the world and continues to grow in popularity with the increase in the number of gadgets and devices like smart phones and the ease of use whilst on the go. There are now billions users of various media platforms in the world and other industries have embraced these platforms in business and consumer engagement, however it has not been widely accepted in agriculture. Limited research available shows that there are increasing trends in farmer and agribusiness uptake in media as the popularity of modern media receiving devices increase (Angwenyi, 2016).

2. Theoretical Perspective

This study adopted cultivation theory, cultivation theory investigates television's contribution to viewer's conceptions of social reality, developed by George Gerbner in the 1960s (Morgan, 2010). Riddle, (2010) states that the more time people spend 'living' in the television world, the more likely they are to believe social reality aligns with reality portrayed on television. Under this umbrella, perceptions of the world are heavily influenced by the images and ideological messages transmitted through popular television media. According to West and Turner (2010), cultivation is a positivistic theory, meaning it assumes the existence of objective reality and value-neutral research.

A study conducted by Bryant and Miron (2004), which surveyed almost 2,000 articles published in the three top mass communication journals since 1956, found that cultivation analysis was the third most frequently utilized theory, showing that it continues to be one of the most popular theories in mass communication research.

According to Gerbner *et al.* (1980), cultivation theory is underscored by three core assumptions. The first assumption highlights the medium, the second—the audience, and the final assumption deals with the functionality of the medium on its larger audience. This first assumption lists the differences between television and other forms of mass media. Television is visual and auditory, and therefore doesn't require viewers to be literate. It has the potential to be free, besides the initial costs to obtaining a television. Within the last several years, free access to television is quite limited. Television viewers cannot access most local television broadcasting without purchasing a converter box and attaching the box to the television.

The cultivation theory is related to this study in that TV formats are designed to reinforce messages in order to bring change among farmers to adopt new farming techniques for improved productivity. TV producers do this through programmes planning which informs the selection of topics, presentation of the topics on TV with interviews from selected experts and farmers. Eventually when the program is ready and is repeatedly aired on TV, the masses will take interest of its relevance and try to apply the concepts being communicated.

3. Statement of the Problem

The agribusiness sector in Uganda is beset with myriads of information constraints, the situation has been exacerbated by persistent failures in both input and output markets and the reasons for market failure include imperfect competition, public goods and institutional failure, that is a major challenge facing the growth of agribusiness (Omamo, 2003). There is still a big disconnection between agriculture/agribusiness and major communication channels, mainly due

to lack of rural roads in major agro-ecological zones, grossly underdeveloped agricultural research systems and limited use of modern technologies in the crop, livestock and fisheries subsectors. Dorward (2009) stated that the major areas of institutional failures include underdevelopment of rural market institutions, labor, insurance and food markets, weak legal institutions and enforcement of contracts, land tenure issues and underdeveloped property rights as well as problems of collective action and development of cooperatives.

The impact of the knowledge/information sharing thought the course of human development seems to be lagging behind in Kampala, Uganda (Okello, 2006). Moreover, there are limited studies on developing strategies to enhance the role of media in the dissemination of agricultural information among farmers in Kampala, Uganda. This shows the extent to which this dominant sector (agriculture) has been neglected by not only educationists and researchers but also by the media. This study contributes to this contextual gap by examining the extent of television coverage on issues related to agribusiness in Kampala central, Uganda.

4. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to assess the role of television in promoting agribusiness in Kampala central, Uganda.

Objective of the study is to verify the effectiveness of televisions programme on agribusiness in Kampala central, Uganda.

5. Literature Review

5.1 Effectiveness of television coverage on agribusiness programmes

In discussing the problems and prospects of agricultural information sources, indicated that agribusiness information is needed for overall development of agriculture in order to improve the living standards of farmers. Communication message packaging therefore, has to be conceptualized well as a process of information flow by which ideas are transferred from a

source to a receiver with the intent to change his/her skill (Bello & Obinne, 2012).

The survey conducted by Ahmad et al (2007) indicated that 74% of the respondents watched television and obtained latest information about different agriculture programs from this medium. Concerning the farmer's interest in television programs, 50% of the respondents reported that they were interested in weather updates and another 37% of the respondents were interested in getting information regarding daily prices of agriculture products. Furthermore, the results also indicated that 83 % of the respondents had their own television sets and watched the agriculture related programs and got the benefits from the programs.

Furthermore, a study by Abbas et al (2003) revealed that 62% of the farmers in the district of Faisalabad, Punjab, Pakistan listened to agricultural programs on radio and watched television. The majority of farmers (84%) were aware about sowing, insect control, fertilizer application, and weed control and irrigation methods through television. However, most of the farmers indicated that the current viewing time for agricultural programs on television was not appropriate. Among the respondents 34% recommended that 8.00pm was a more suitable time for the telecast of agriculture-related programs. It was reported by 25% of the farmers that they watched the "Kisan Time" and Sona Chandi agricultural programs on television.

Sher et al (2004) carried out a study on the role of television in agricultural technology transfer. The data showed that majority of the respondents were unaware of the regular agricultural telecasts. Only 5.60% respondents were found to be regular viewers and they preferred watching agricultural telecasts over other assignments. Feedback link between farmers and TV authorities appeared to be totally missing. Majority of the respondents watched agricultural telecasts rarely. A reasonable number were occasional viewers, and only a fraction of the respondents were regular viewers. A vast majority got only up to 25% agricultural information through agricultural telecasts, 12.8% got 25-50% information while those who got more than 50% information were negligible in number.

6. Methodology of the Study

This study adopted descriptive survey design, because it aims at studying a particular phenomenon (or phenomena) at a particular time. The researcher sought to describe the incidence of a phenomenon (for example, television coverage on agribusiness).

Target Population

The target population of this study was all members of the community residing in Kampala central division and program managers of all television stations in Kampala central, Uganda. Kampala central has a total population of about 1,507,149 (National Population and Housing Census, 2014) and five television stations which were included in the study are: Bukedde TV, UBC TV, NTV, NBS TV, and Urban TV. Making the total population of the study to 1,507,154.

Sample Size

This study used Sloven's formula to determine the sample size of the respondents. Sloven's formula states:

Where; n =sample size; N =population size; e 0.05 level of significance. $n = 399.89$ $n \cong 400$

Therefore, the sample size of this study was 400 respondents.

Sampling Technique and procedure

Simple random sampling was used for selecting television stations in Kampala central, which the names of all television stations in Kampala central was written on small pieces of paper and then a few stations were randomly selected while the researcher used convenient sampling method for selecting community members in Kampala central, division.

Data Collection Methods

The study used questionnaires as the data collection methods.

Data Analysis

After retrieving back, the questionnaire and collecting the required data, it was then prepared for analysis by using Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS, version 22.0) software. In this process, the data underwent these processes i.e. data editing which involved

checking the filled questionnaires for any omissions or mistakes; then data coding which involved giving each item of the questionnaire or variable a code to be used when imputing the data into the computer, and lastly data entry into the computer for analysis (George & Mallery, 2003).

After processing (i.e. editing, coding, and entry into the computer) the collected data, the researcher analyzed it. The analysis was done using frequency and percentage distribution tables to achieve demographic characteristics of the respondents. The objective was analyzed using mean and standard deviation.

Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

This section determines the demographic characteristics of the respondents, to achieve it, questionnaires were distributed to capture these responses. Frequencies and percentage distribution tables were employed to summarize the demographic characteristics of the respondents in terms of gender, age, education level, and work experience. The following tables give the summary of the findings.

Table 1: Gender of the Respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percent (%)
Male	267	71.6
Female	106	28.4
Total	373	100.0

Source: primary data, 2017

Table 1: revealed that majority, 71.6% of the respondents were male while 28.4% were female. The dominance of the male respondents was attributed to the fact that the males are more financially positioned hence they are able to pick interest in learning more about agribusiness in television programs and apply such knowledge to develop their agriculture than their female counterparts.

Table 2: Age of the Respondents

Age	Frequency	Percent (%)
21-30	46	12.3
31-40	151	40.5
41-50	126	33.8
50 and Above	50	13.4
Total	373	100

Source: Primary Data, 2017

Table 2: revealed that majority, 40.5% of the respondents were within the age group of 31-40 years, followed by those within the age group of 41-50 (33.8%) while those within the age group of 50 and above and 21-30 were represented by 13.4% and 12.3% respectively. The dominance of the age group within 31-40 years could imply that they are mature enough to take interest in agribusiness compared to their young counterparts within the age group of 21-30 years who might still be interested in whiter-collar jobs.

Table 3: Educational Level of the Respondents

Educational Level	Frequency	Percent (%)
None	9	2.4
Primary	68	18.2
Secondary	156	41.8
University Graduate	140	37.5
Total	373	100.0

Source: primary data, 2017

Table 4: Ownership of Television Set

Ownership of Television Set	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	337	90.3
No	36	9.7
Total	373	100.0

Source: primary data, 2017

Table 4: revealed that majority, 90.3% of the respondents indicated that they owned a television set, while 9.7% said they did not. This implies that majority of the respondents have access to agribusiness information aired over the television.

Table 5: Television Programs Preferred

Television Programs Preferred	Frequency	Percent (%)
Education	39	10.5
News	88	23.6
Agriculture	195	52.3
Drama	51	13.7
Total	373	100.0

Source: Primary Data, 2017

Table 5: revealed that majority, 52.3% of the respondents prefer watching agriculture related program, followed by News (23.6%), while those who prefer watching drama and education programs were represented by 13.7% and 10.5% respectively. The dominance of the respondents who prefer watching agriculture programs

Table 3: revealed that majority, 41.8% of the respondents had secondary school qualification, followed by those with university graduate (37.5%) qualification. On the other hand, respondents who had primary education and those with no formal education were represented by 18.2% and 2.4% respectively. The dominance of the respondents with secondary school qualification implies that they understand better every agribusiness campaign aired on TV. In other words, they understand the agricultural terminologies and the most common language used for communication such agribusiness knowledge (i.e. English). Hence such campaigns can cause significant effect on them, especially in choosing which agribusiness to venture in, including all the nit-gritty involved.

implies that they have rich knowledge regarding agribusiness campaigns on televisions.

Table 6: Agricultural Television Programs Preferred

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Crop production	124	33.2
Livestock farming	146	39.1
Poultry	60	16.1
None	43	11.5
Total	373	100

Source: Primary Data, 2017

Table 6: revealed that majority, 39.1% of the respondents preferred watching livestock farming programs, followed by 33.2% who said they prefer watching crop production program, while those who preferred poultry and those who preferred none of the programs were represented by 16.1% and 11.5% respectively. The dominance of the respondents who preferred watching livestock programs could be attributed to the fact that livestock farming fetches a lot of money compared to crop or poultry farming.

Table 7: The effectiveness of television programs in promoting crop production in agribusiness. n=373

Crop production	Mean	Std. Deviation	Interpretation
Agribusiness television programs have helped me to learn better crop management techniques.	3.73	0.999	Satisfactory
The combination of audio and visual television agribusiness show has proven that it can ultimately improve farmers learning.	3.73	1.051	Satisfactory
TV programs on agribusiness contributed to create awareness and import training in adopting modern technologies for farming activities.	3.70	1.112	Satisfactory
Agribusiness television programs have helped me to know the importance of irrigation.	3.67	1.019	Satisfactory
TV programs increase agricultural production and its essential for poverty reduction.	3.65	1.115	Satisfactory
Agribusiness TV programs have enabled me get the most appropriate information about crop farming.	3.65	1.061	Satisfactory
The TV programs will soon be solution to agribusiness related issues in Uganda.	3.49	1.208	Satisfactory
Agribusiness television programs have helped me to pest control and disease management.	3.45	1.160	Satisfactory
Agribusiness television programs have helped me to learn better methods of crop farming.	3.30	1.207	Fair
Average mean	3.58	1.109	Satisfactory

Source: Primary Data, 2017

The extent of information obtained through agricultural telecasts may be considered as an indicator of effectiveness of television as an information source for the farmers. The results presented in table 7: revealed that respondents assessed the effectiveness of television programs in promoting crop production in agribusiness as satisfactory (average mean=3.58, Std=1.109). This was attributed to the fact that majority of the respondents agreed that agribusiness television programs had helped them to learn better crop management techniques (mean=3.73, Std=0.999) while others agreed that the combination of audio and visual television agribusiness show had proven that it could ultimately improve farmers learning (mean=3.73, Std=1.051).

Furthermore, respondents agreed that TV programs on agribusiness contributed in creating awareness and training in adopting modern technologies for farming activities (mean=3.70, Std=1.112). Other respondents agreed that agribusiness television programs had helped them to know the importance of irrigation (mean=3.67, Std=1.019). A similar view was shared by respondents who agreed that TV programs are essential for poverty reduction (mean=3.65, Std=1.115). In addition, respondents agreed that agribusiness TV programs had enabled them to get the most appropriate information about crop farming (mean=3.65, Std=1.061) such as pest control and disease management (mean=3.45, Std=1.160).

As per the above responses, it is indeed true that television coverage on agribusiness has been very instrumental in extending learning through shows that have agricultural concepts in them. Farmers have therefore benefited from such programs and they have witnessed a turnaround in their agribusiness endeavors. This is because most of the information they do not know have been disseminated right at the comfort of their living rooms through their television sets. The findings indicate that most of them have used the knowledge they acquired to modernize their agriculture through modern technology, and innovation.

Furthermore, farmers have benefited from these television agribusiness programs because they have got knowledge of better methods of farming such as irrigation, pest control and disease management, etc. This implies that application of such knowledge can enable a farmer to get bumper harvests and profits hence reducing poverty in such households.

Similarly, the television agribusiness programs have also enabled farmers to get information regarding the availability of the market of the crops they are producing, the prices, the seed suppliers, fertilizer suppliers etc. Therefore, armed with such vital agricultural information, it becomes an understatement to say agriculture is not a lucrative business to venture

Table 8: The effectiveness of television programs in promoting livestock farming in agribusiness.
SD=strongly disagree; D=disagree; NS=Not sure; A=agree; SA=strongly agree n=373

Livestock farming	Mean	Std. Deviation	Interpretation
Agribusiness TV programs is essential for fighting against poverty in Uganda.	4.01	1.025	Satisfactory
Television coverage on agribusiness is promoting modern farming.	4.00	0.974	Satisfactory
Agribusiness television programs have helped me to understand pest control and disease management for the animals.	3.81	0.988	Satisfactory
Agribusiness television programs are promoting food security, nutrition and agricultural innovation.	3.80	1.056	Satisfactory
Information received through TV stations has changed farmers' perception of agribusiness.	3.79	1.080	Satisfactory
Agribusiness programs on TV stations has potential for accelerating economic and industrial growth.	3.75	1.139	Satisfactory
Agribusiness television programs have helped me to learn better animal rearing techniques.	3.74	0.986	Satisfactory
Agribusiness television programs have helped me to understand the best animal feeds.	3.64	1.113	Satisfactory
Agribusiness television programs have helped me to learn about the different types of animals and how they are reared.	3.55	1.232	Satisfactory
Average mean	3.79	1.066	Satisfactory

Source: Primary Data, 2017

The results presented in table 8: revealed that respondents assessed the effectiveness of television programs in promoting livestock farming in agribusiness as satisfactory (average mean=3.79, Std=1.066). This was largely attributed to the fact that majority of the respondents agreed that agribusiness TV programs was essential for fighting against poverty in Uganda (mean=4.01, Std=1.025) because its coverage is helping in promoting modern farming methods (mean=4.00, Std=0.974). Furthermore, respondents agreed that agribusiness television programs have helped them to understand pest control and disease management for their animals (mean=3.81, Std=0.988).

In addition, due to agribusiness television programs, respondents agreed that it is promoting food security, nutrition and agricultural innovation (mean=3.80, Std=1.056), changing farmer's perception of agribusiness (mean=3.79, Std=1.080) and therefore most of the respondents agree that agribusiness programs on TV stations has potential for accelerating economic and industrial growth (mean=3.75, Std=1.139).

A similarly argument was held by some respondents who agreed that agribusiness television programs had helped them to learn better animal rearing techniques (mean=3.74, Std=0.986), understand the best animal feeds (mean=3.64, Std=1.113), and learn about the

different types of animals and how they are reared (mean=3.55, Std=1.232).

From the above responses, it can be deduced that agribusiness television programs indeed are causing a great impact on the viewers and most especially the farmers. The farmers are getting all the information they need at their fingertips. They know what to do, how to do, when to do and why it should be done. They are equipped with every relevant knowledge to enable them succeed in their agricultural endeavors. They know how to keep their animals from pests and diseases through spraying, dipping, proper medication and keeping the area clean and tidy. All of this knowledge were actually acquired from TV agribusiness programs.

In other words, having the right information warns the farmers to be fore armed. They can use such knowledge to assist their fellow farmers and to come up with better ingenuity that can make them add value their agricultural products hence reap enough profits from their animal farming activities. Farmers can also share their ideas and grievances and come up with a comprehensive solution that protects them from being exploited, abused, cheated and misinformed.

Agribusiness TV programs can therefore be rightfully applauded for the efforts they have extended to enrich farmers with information through televised educative agribusiness shows,

which has given every farmer all the information he/she needs to succeed in the agricultural sector which at the same time employs more than 70% of Uganda's population and is the highest contributor to the GDP of the economy. That is to say, it is the backbone of Uganda's economy and there is no other better way to disseminate agricultural information than the television. This is because it has both visual and audio capability and can be able to serve everyone accordingly.

7. Discussion of Findings

This study found that effectiveness of television programs in promoting agribusiness was satisfactory (overall average mean=3.69, Std=1.088). This was attributed to the satisfactory programs that promoted crop production and animal farming. The findings indicate that television agribusiness programs have been very effective in promoting both crop production and animal farming. This is because the televised programs have been disseminating information to farmers regarding improved seeds, proper methods of farming, pests and disease control, post harvesting handling, weather, market availability and so on. This is because as the rural farmers themselves participate in the TV programs, they become more interesting and effective because of the feeling of ownership. The farmers can get information on better farming methods, improved seeds, timely planting, agro-forestry, better harvesting methods, soil conservation, marketing, post-harvest handling and diversification. In other words, TVs give farmers an opportunity to interact with each other and other relevant authorities e.g. extension workers, crop and animal experts through format like live talk shows, phone in programs and on location broadcasts. Therefore, the strength of TV as an extension tool is widely regarded to lie in its ability to reach illiterate farmers and provide them with information relating to all aspects of agricultural production in a language they understand through both its audio and video capabilities.

This study agrees with that of Sher (2004) on the impact of agricultural programs transmitted by TV stations in Nepal where the study found that

televised agribusiness programs had helped the farmers to improve their farming methods through the knowledge they acquired by watching televised agribusiness programs. This was attributed to the fact that television programs helped the farmers to accept new agricultural technology for obtaining higher yields and changing the age-old concept of low yields.

Accordingly, a study by Ahmad *et al.*, (2007) indicated that 74% of the respondents watched television and obtained latest information about different agribusiness programs from this medium. Concerning the farmer's interest in television programs, 50% of the respondents reported that they were interested in weather updates and another 37% of the respondents were interested in getting information regarding daily prices of agriculture products.

Furthermore, a study by Abbas *et al.*, (2003) revealed that 62% of the farmers in the district of Faisalabad, Punjab, Pakistan listened to agribusiness programs on radio and watched television. The majority of farmers (84%) were aware about sowing, insect control, fertilizer application, and weed control and irrigation methods through television. However, most of the farmers indicated that the current viewing time for agricultural programs on television was not appropriate.

8. Conclusion

The study was to verify the effectiveness of television programmes on agribusiness in Kampala central, Uganda. The study found that televised agribusiness programs are effective in disseminating information to the farmers given their audio and video capabilities and disseminate information across the countryside about modern farming system in terms of hybrid seeds, off-seasonal vegetables, selection of seeds, and marketing of the agricultural products.

9. Recommendations

The study recommends that more agribusiness programs should be run by the television stations given the fact that Uganda is an agricultural

country and therefore disseminating agribusiness information to the farmers can strengthen the economy.

Furthermore, the television stations increase the coverage use to televise agribusiness, this will enable enough agribusiness information to be disposal to the farmers and will even increase much viewership for the television stations.

In addition, televising agribusiness show was found to be very expensive for the television stations to cover on their own. Therefore, there is need for the government to lend a supporting hand financially so as to motivate such ventures that promote the good of the country.

Similarly, there is need for the government to organize practical training programs for the local farmers so that they gain practical skills because the information disseminated on televisions shows is not enough to the farmers.

Furthermore, the study found that during the creation of the agribusiness shows, some farmers were not cooperative to the journalists. This study recommends that farmers should be made aware of the intention of the show and how it would be of great benefit to them and other farmers in all the parts of the country. Similarly, journalists can as well involve the participation of the local leaders and district leaders so as to make the farmers even more cooperative.

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The Effectiveness of Translation Competence in Radio Gotel Yola, Adamawa State, Nigeria.

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Abstract. The study was on effectiveness of translation competence in radio gotel Yola, Adamawa state, Nigeria. The objective of the study was to determine the level of effectiveness of language translation at Gotel Radio station in Yola, Adamawa state, Nigeria. The target population was 134 participants while the sample size was computed to 100 respondents using sloven's formula. The participant included the staff of the Radio Gotel Yola, and listeners of Radio Gotel programs and the main research instrument was questionnaire. The study examined the level of effectiveness of language translation at Gotel radio station in Yola, Adamawa state, that majority of the respondents agreed that translation requires experience and good mastery of the subject matter, that socio-cultural and linguistic background is necessary for good translation. The study concluded that to ensure effective translation, there is need to keep updating the knowledge, skills and competences of the translators. The following recommendations were made: There is need to emphasize proper training and effective training methods for language translators, the Gotel radio should maintain constant interaction and seeking feedback from its listeners in order to gauge whether its program translations meets the expectations of the listeners, lastly the translator should be a native speaker of the language he/she is translating in order to deeply

understand the grammar and vocabulary of the language.

Key words: Effectiveness, Translation, Competence and Radio.

1. Introduction

In the mid (1960s), the concept of translation competence was, admittedly, first tackled by some formal linguists (Chomsky, 1965) whose main interest at that time was to define and classify linguistic competence. In the past two decades, research into translation and interpretation competence theories flourished manifestly. However, some features of this field are still thrust and questionable, for instance, the optimal requisite competence for professional translators and interpreters. Competence in the field of translation and interpretation is crucial, since it mirrors the summation of translators and interpreters' training, experience, as well as their aptitude to embark on this profession. Many theorists have developed various catalogues of translators and interpreters' competences paying attention to the requirement of professional translators and interpreters (Kermis, 2008). This may raise two critical questions; is there a fixed catalogue of professional translators and interpreters' requisite competence? Is translators

and interpreters' competence of a diachronic nature?

Therefore, Translation is now becoming more than a minor subject matter studied in languages and linguistics; it has been mushrooming remarkably over the past decades as a major discipline and interest of different scholars as they realize the significance of this discipline in bridging contacts between nations worldwide. Translation in the general sense is not an easy task; it requires high level of proficiency. This proficiency must base on several types of competence. There is no precise definition of competence, since this issue has been approached in many different trends whose main focus was to define and determine what the translation competences are.

Sebokoya (2010) states that: It is quite difficult to evaluate a concept that was yet neither agreed upon, nor properly defined. Different scholars perceive this construct differently. Even the term itself has several varieties, respective authors call it translation competence (Vienne: 2000) translational competence (Neubert: 2000), translational knowledge (Pym: 1992).

Chomsky (1965) reveals that linguistic competence is the perfect knowledge of an ideal user of the language in a homogeneous speech community. His eminent distinction between competence (the speaker-listener's knowledge of language) and performance (the actual use of language knowledge in real life situations) arouses the interests of many scholars to find out what are the parameters of this perfect knowledge (competence). Meetham and Hudson (1969) define translation as the process of converting information from one language or language variety into another. During the 1970s and 1980s many applied linguists with a primary interest in the theory of language acquisition and the theory of language testing gave their valuable contribution to the further development of the concept of competence (Bagaric and Mihaljevic Djigunovic, 2007).

Communicative competences, the applied linguists Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) argue, are classified into (1) grammatical competence (e.g. language learner's knowledge

of phonology, syntax, the morphology and so forth), (2) sociolinguistic competence (e.g. discourse competence and pragmatic competence, (3) strategic competence. On the other hand, Bell's holistic view of defining competence is even more illustrative and descriptive. According to Bell (1991), translation competence is defined as "the knowledge and skills the translator must possess in order to carry out a translation." He also signifies that it encompasses text-type knowledge, subject area knowledge, contrastive knowledge, and decoding and encoding process skills summarized as "communicative competence" including grammar, sociolinguistics and discourse.

In contrast, Neubert (1994) offers three main components of competence; language competence, subject competence and transfer competence. Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) (as cited in Celce-Murcia, 2007) propose that action competence (the ability to comprehend and produce all significant speech acts and speech act sets) should also be part of communicative competence. These scholars made two important changes in terminology of the Canale-Swain's model (1980): (1) that sociolinguistic competence be modified into socio cultural competence (the cultural background knowledge needed to interpret and use a language effectively) and (2) that grammatical competence be re-labeled as linguistic competence to explicitly include the sound system and the lexicon, as well as the grammar (e.g. morphology and syntax).

Similarly, some translation scholars provided some definitions of the concept competence from translation perspective. Just to name a few, Hurtado Albir defines it as "the ability of knowing how to translate" (1996). Schaffner and Beverly (2000) conclude that the theory of translation could best be taught, in order to better develop the different skills acquired in one or more foreign languages and cultures, in conjunction with the mother tongue, for the purpose of more effective communication. In line with Schaffner and Beverly, Neubert (2000) on the other hand, elaborates that the practice of translation and, hence, teaching translation

require a single competence that could be deemed to integrate a set of competencies that include, for instance, competence in both the source and the target languages.

Another inclusive view of translation competence is that of PACTE research (2000, 2005, and 2011);

PACTE defines translation competence as “the underlying system of knowledge and skills needed to be able to translate.” Neubert (2000) sums up that the complexity of demands that are made on the cognitive faculties and skills of a translator, the heterogeneity, and the approximate nature of the translators’ knowledge must be taken into consideration before defining translators’ competence. Therefore, Neubert offers the following five parameters for the definition of translation competence:

- (i) **Language competence** – this sub-competence encompasses the grammatical knowledge. Besides, knowledge of repertoires of the languages for special purposes, for instance, terminologies, syntactic and morphological conventions.
- (ii) **Textual competence** – this sub-competence is overlapped in one way or another with the linguistic competence, and characterized by specialized proficiencies in various domains, for instance, technical, legal or literary fields, and so forth.
- (iii) **Subject competence** – it is related to textual competence; it represents the familiarity with what constitutes the overall body of the translation area. This concept covers specialist knowledge; therefore, if the specialist knowledge is of high dimensions, the subject competence will not be at stake.
- (iv) **Cultural competence** – this sub-competence emphasizes the significance for translators to be fully acquainted with cultural shackles as they have to mediate between various cultural backgrounds.
- (v) **Transfer competence** – it is the ability to perform translation as such quickly and efficiently, it dominates all other sub-competences; for instance, it incorporates language, subject, and cultural knowledge with the aim of fulfilling transfer demands (Neubert, 2000).

The PACTE group is markedly active in this issue; their definition of translation competence can be viewed as inclusive. This group defines translation competence as “the underlying system of knowledge and skills needed to be able to translate” (PACTE, 2005) and based on their empirical experimental approach concludes that the translation competence includes the following components; bilingual sub-competence, extra-linguistic sub-competence, knowledge about translation, instrumental sub-competence, strategic sub-competence, and psycho-physiological components.

2. Theoretical Frame Work

Holmes (1972) gave in his tremendous contributions in the translation section of the Third International Congress of Applied Linguistics in Copenhagen. Holmes draws attention to the limitations imposed at the time because translation research, lacking a home of its own, was dispersed across older disciplines (languages, linguistics, etc.). He also stresses the need to forget other communication channels, cutting across the traditional disciplines to reach all scholars working in the field, from whatever background. Crucially, Holmes puts forward an overall framework, describing what translation studies covers. This framework was subsequently presented by the leading Israeli translation scholar Gideon Toury (Toury 1995). In Holmes’s explanations of this framework, the objectives of the areas of research are:

- The description of the phenomena of translation; and
- The establishment of general principles to explain and predict such phenomena (translation theory)

The branch is divided into general and partial theories. By ‘general’, Holmes is referring to

those writings that seek to describe or account for every type of translation and to make generalizations that will be relevant for translation as a whole (one example would be Tory's 'laws' of translation). Theoretical studies are restricted according to these parameters (medium, text-type, etc.). The descriptive branch of 'pure' research in Holmes's map is known as descriptive translation studies (DTS). It may examine: (1) the product; (2) the function; and (3) the process.

3. Statement of Problem

The translator should be able to communicate ideas from one group to another in writing that is clear, accurate, and culturally relevant. Translators do this work by reading the source document to fully understand the messages and meaning and then rewriting the document in another language in a style that is best suited to the target audience. The translator should be familiar with the subject matter of the source document, including program names, common terms and definitions, and vocabulary. He or she must understand the author's intentions, so that the translation will convey the intended messages and ideas (Mildred, 1984).

A good translator has intimate insight into the nuances of both cultures—that of the author and that of the target audience. Ideally, a translator will at some point have lived among the people for whom he or she is translating and, therefore, know the language and culture well. A translator may work alone or as part of a team, with colleagues sharing the duties of translation, proofreading, editing, and project management (Kermis, 2008). Despite the fact that Fulfulde language is the dominant local language in Adamawa State, Nigeria, it is evidence that listeners of local Radio programs prefer those programs presented in Hausa language and more than any local languages. Beside most local programs are presented in Hausa language while other local languages especially Fulfulde which is dominant language, and it's have few programs. Meanwhile it is also observed that majority of the translators of Radio Gotel Yola; do not have local cultural and socio-linguistic background of some local languages in

Adamawa state. It is against this background that this research study is proposed to examine the effectiveness of competent translation in media House found in Adamawa State, Nigeria taking Radio Gotel Yola as case study.

4. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the reason, why do some translators lack the ability to translate a given language effectively and to propose an approach/paradigm in tackling those deficiencies which surfaces among the translators and listeners in translation filed.

Objective of the study is to determine the level of effectiveness of language translation at Gotel Radio station in Yola, Adamawa state, Nigeria.

5. Literature review

5.1 Competence of language translators

Competence is defined in terms of the requirements of the tasks that constitute a certain job. This is indeed an important distinction, and in the following we will use the term competence to refer to the former meaning, and the term qualification to refer to the latter meaning. More specifically, the term competence will be used to refer to the capacity of an individual (or a collective) to successfully (according to certain formal or informal criteria, set by oneself or by somebody else) handle certain situations or complete a certain task or job (Ellstrom, 1997).

5.2 Effectiveness of language translation

Translation is the conversion of written text from one language into another so that the new, translated text reflects the content of the original text and corresponding cultural perceptions and customs of the target audience. Translation makes communication possible among people who read or write different languages and have different cultural heritages. Translation is *not* the process of finding an equivalent word in the target language for each word in the original document. That's because there may be no equivalent words, or there may be more than one equivalent word and the translator must examine

the context to choose the one that's best. Additionally, the ways in which words are combined to create meaning vary from language to language, and translating words in the order they appear in the original text often will not make sense in another language (Newmark, 1986).

A translator, a person who converts the content (ideas and information) of a document written in one language (the *source*) into another language (the *target*), thereby linking two groups of people from two different cultures who read two different languages. The translator should be able to communicate ideas from one group to another in writing that is clear, accurate, and culturally relevant. Translators do this work by reading the source document to fully understand the messages and meaning and then rewriting the document in another language in a style that is best suited to the target audience. The translator should be familiar with the subject matter of the source document, including program names, common terms and definitions, and vocabulary. He or she must understand the author's intentions, so that the translation will convey the intended messages and ideas. A good translator has intimate insight into the nuances of both cultures—that of the author and that of the target audience. Ideally, a translator will at some point have lived among the people for whom he or she is translating and, therefore, know the language and culture well.

A translator may work alone or as part of a team, with colleagues sharing the duties of translation, proofreading, editing, and project management (Newmark, 1986).

6. Methodology

Regarding the age categories of respondents, the respondents were aged 16 – 24 years old, 30% of the respondents were aged 25 – 34 years old, 22% of the respondents were aged 35 – 44 years old, 10% of the respondents were aged 45 – 54 years old, 14% of the respondents were aged 55 – 64 years old and 4% of the respondents were aged 65 years and above. This implies that respondents were sourced from various categories of people living and working within the study area of Adamawa state Nigeria

Research Design

The study used descriptive design to understand a research problem being studied.

Research Population

The Target Population of this study was 134 people, consisting of 34 staff of the Radio Gotel Yola, who are mainly translators working in the radio station and 100 listeners of Radio Gotel programs.

Sample Size

The sample size of the study was 100 respondents.

Sampling Technique

The simple random sampling technique was used to select the respondents of the study.

Research Instrument

The main instrument of the data collection was closed-ended questionnaire.

Data Analysis

Frequency and percentage table, mean and standard deviation were used to examine the level of effectiveness of translation.

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

This section presents the background information about the respondents, including gender, age, education levels and years of experience.

Table 1. showing frequency and percentages of respondent's age

Category	Frequency	Percentages
16 -24	20	20
25 -34	30	30
35 -44	22	22
45 – 54	10	10
55 - 64	14	14
65 - above	4	4
Total	100	100

Table 2. Showing frequency and percentages of respondents' educational level

Category	Frequency	Percentages
Ph.D	2	2
Master's degree	21	21
Bachelor degree	36	36
Diploma	27	27
Certificates	8	8
O level	6	6
Total	100	100

Source: Field data, 2017

Information on the education levels of respondents indicate that 2% of the respondents were Ph. D

holders, 21% of the respondents were Master's degree holders, 36% of the respondents were Bachelor's degree holders, 27% of the respondents were Diploma/NCE holders, 8% of the respondents were Certificate holders and 6% of the respondents were categorized as others. These included junior secondary and primary school dropouts and those that do not have any formal education at all. This implied that respondents were from the various educational backgrounds, which helped to expand the pool of information collected, from the learned perspective to the layman's perspective.

Table 3. Length of employment

Category	Frequency	Percentages
1 - 3	3	3
3 - 5	10	10
5 - 8	36	36
8 - 10	32	32
10 & above	19	19
Total	100	100

The information about the length of stay/employment and/or listenership of Gotel radio in the area of study indicates that 16.7% of the respondents had been living/working in the area for 1 – 3 years, while 27.5% of the respondents had been living/working in the area for 3 – 5 years. Also, 19.2% of the respondents had been living/working in the area for 5 – 8 years, 26.7% of them had been living/working in the area for over 8 – 10 years, and only 10% had been living/working in the area for more than 10 years. This implies that the majority of the respondents had spent an average 8 years and above living and/or working in Yola Local Government Area, so they are in position to comment authoritatively about the linguistics and language translation and how it affects radio communication in local communities.

Level of Effectiveness of Language Translation

Table 4: Showing responses on the effectiveness of Language Translation

Statements on effectiveness of language translation	Percentage responses (%)					Mean	Std.	Interpretation
	SA	A	U	D	SD			
Translation requires experience and good mastery of the subject matter	37	35	12	14	2	3.91	1.130	Satisfactory
Socio-cultural and linguistic background is necessary for good translation	40	41	7	7	5	4.05	1.090	Satisfactory
Sound educational background and professionalism improves translation competence	37	37	15	9	2	3.98	1.058	Satisfactory
On the job training and workshop boost translation competence	28	40	16	2	14	3.65	1.307	Satisfactory
Creativity in language and style enhance translation competence	56	26	9	7	2	4.26	1.049	Very satisfactory
Vast knowledge of language grammar and richness in vocabulary can increase competence translation	28	46	14	7	5	3.86	1.060	Satisfactory
Grand mean	37	38	12	8	5	3.95	1.116	Satisfactory

KEY:

SA - Strongly Agree

A - Agree

U - Undecided

D - Disagree

SD - Strongly Disagree

Source: Field data, 2017

The specific objective in the study was to examine the level of effectiveness of language translation on Gotel radio programming. To achieve this objective, respondents were asked for their opinion on a number of aspects about the effectiveness of language translation in the radio programming of Gotel radio. The results on the effectiveness of translation as presented in table 4 above showed 37% of the respondents

Strongly agree that translation requires experience and good mastery of the subject matter, 35% of the respondents were agree, 12% of the respondents were neutral while 14% of them disagreed, 2% of them were strongly disagree and all were respondent agreed and interpreted satisfactory with mean and standard deviation were 3.91, 1.130. In addition, on the fact that socio-cultural and linguistic background

is necessary for good translation were respondent agree and interpreted satisfactory with corresponding mean = 4.05, std. = 1.090. 40% of the respondents strongly agreed, 41% of the respondents were agreed, 7% of them were neutral while 7% of them disagreed and 5% of the respondents were strongly disagree. On the assertion that sound educational background and professionalism improves translation competence, 37% of the respondents strongly agreed, 37% of the respondents were also agree, 15% of them were neutral while 9% of them disagreed and only 2% of them were strongly disagree. Also, on the assertion that on the job training and workshop boost translation competence, 28% of the respondents strongly agreed, 40% of them were agreed, 16% of them were neutral and 2% of them disagreed and therefore, 14% of the respondents were strongly disagreed and generally their responses were agreed and interpreted satisfactory with mean = 3.98, std. = 1.058. Furthermore, on the fact that creativity in language and style enhance translation competence were all respondent agree and interpreted satisfactory with a mean = 3.65 and standard deviation of 1.307. 56% of the respondents strongly agreed, 26% of the respondents agreed, 9% of them were neutral, and 7% of them disagreed and the last from this indicators were only 2% respond mode were strongly disagree. Further still, on the assertion that vast knowledge of language grammar and richness in vocabulary can increase competence translation were generally had a mean and standard deviation of 4.26 and 1.049 respondent strongly agree and interpreted very satisfactory. 28% of the respondents strongly agreed, 46% were agreed, 14% of them were neutral, while 7% of them disagreed and 5% were strongly disagreed. This implied that grand mean of effectiveness of language translation were respondent agree and interpreted satisfactory. This signified that there is widespread awareness among both the staff/translators and the listeners about the importance of effective language translation in the programming schedule of Gotel radio station.

7. Summary of the Findings

Level of Effectiveness of language translation

The study examined the level of effectiveness of language translation at Gotel radio station in Yola, Adamawa state, Nigeria. The results on this showed that majority of the respondents agreed that translation requires experience and good mastery of the subject matter, that socio-cultural and linguistic background is necessary for good translation, that sound educational background and professionalism improves translation competence, that on the job training and workshop boost translation competence, that creativity in language and style enhance translation competence, and that vast knowledge of language grammar and richness in vocabulary can increase competence translation. Many of the respondents involved in the study also agreed that they are in multi-lingual, implying that they spoke other languages other than their indigenous mother tongue. The responses also attested to the fact that they listen to radio, and that they preferred to listen to programs presented in their indigenous language, though they also admitted to listening to translated language programs. This implied that overall; there is widespread awareness among both the staff/translators and the listeners about the importance of effective language translation in the programming schedule of Gotel radio station.

These findings are echoed by HurtadoAlbir and Alves (2009) who stated that translation makes communication possible among people who read or write different languages and have different cultural heritages. Translation is *not* the process of finding an equivalent word in the target language for each word in the original document. That's because there may be no equivalent words, or there may be more than one equivalent word and the translator must examine the context to choose the one that's best. Additionally, the ways in which words are combined to create meaning vary from language to language, and translating words in the order they appear in the original text often will not make sense in another language. Lorsch (1991) also added that the translator should be able to communicate ideas from one group to another in writing that is clear, accurate, and culturally relevant. Translators do this work by reading the source document to fully understand

the messages and meaning and then rewriting the document in another language in a style that is best suited to the target audience. The translator should be familiar with the subject matter of the source document, including program names, common terms and definitions, and vocabulary. He or she must understand the author's intentions, so that the translation will convey the intended messages and ideas. A good translator has intimate insight into the nuances of both cultures—that of the author and that of the target audience. Ideally, a translator will at some point have lived among the people for whom he or she is translating and, therefore, know the language and culture well.

8. Conclusion

From the above findings, the study concluded that the level of effectiveness of language translation at Gotel Radio station in Yola, Adamawa state, Nigeria respondent agrees and interpreted satisfactory. In general the basic requirements for effective translation involved the translators having the competence to translate properly. The core of effective translation lies in the ability of the translator to understand and put into consideration the capacity of the audience to deduce his/her translations, thus the socio-cultural, linguistic background and educational abilities of the audience have to be considered. Therefore, in order to ensure effective translation, there is needed to keep updating the knowledge, skills and competences of the translators.

9. Recommendations

From the findings of the study and the conclusion presented above, the study made the following recommendations:

- There is need to emphasize proper training and effective training methods for language translators. The organization and other institutions should clearly and systematically teach and stress the importance of core competences in language translation. They should also emphasize the importance of understanding the key concepts of language translation, such as

socio-cultural, linguistics and awareness of the audience. Language translators should be trained and regularly updated on their skills and knowledge of the changing attitudes and perceptions of society in order to ensure that the translation is and remains effective.

- There is need for the organization (Gotel radio) to maintain constant interaction and seeking feedback from its listeners in order to gauge whether its program translations meets the expectations of the listeners. Given the fact that radio is in the business of disseminating information, translation is important in reaching those sections of the population whose dialect differs from the indigenous. However, in a bid to reach these sections of the population, care should be taken to ensure that the listeners get the correct meaning of the communication being translated.

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Nigerian English and the Dilemma of Standard English Language Learners

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Abstract. This paper reports on the dilemma learners face when learning English as a second language. Specifically the paper focuses on Nigerian English language learners considering various varieties of English use in Nigerian. The main objective of the paper is to examine the variety of language learners in institutional settings often encounter in the process of learning English as a second language. Employing qualitative approach and desk-based method of data collection, the paper found out that, there are mainly three varieties of English in Nigeria viz: typical Nigerian English, Pidgin English and Broken English. The study concludes that more attention should be given to Standard English language in the instructional settings so that students should not be left in the dark.

Keywords: Nigerian English, Standard English, English Language learners.

1. Introduction

The importance of communication to man is incalculable, especially when daily human interaction is considered. Long before the postmodernist, the value of language began, the primacy of language in human history has never

been in doubt. In political and social policy, language functions as a vehicle of interaction and an instrument of communication with the use of communications, although it has always possessed an added cultural importance as a tool of the dominant ideology. That is to learn a language is not only reaching out to others but to maintain a variety of the social bond, a shared sense of values and communal awareness. Linguists of all persuasions seem to agree that a language should be viewed as a system; a set of elements, each of which has a capacity of contributing to the workings of the whole (Beau Grande & Dressier 1992). Language is a powerful tool of control used by the colonial powers. Language forms a large part of the culture of people-it is through their language that they express their folk tales, myths, proverbs and history (Picador et al., 1988.) Language also covers a more potent and characteristic of human behaviour. It consists of a comprehensive and overlapping set of “sub-languages, “ both ethnically and geographically defined territory known as dialects--some are in some cases defined by shared settings known to be registered while others are linked to profession, class or educational level or a combination of these elements. The language includes a wide range of variation from a variety of human

activities in a system of interacting with somebody, society, or culture. It also plays a crucial role in the social, political and economic life support of the people in a given geographic entity. In spite of all perceived roles of languages to humankind, an all-embracing interpretation of it continues to elude us due to the complexity of its structure and the functions it performs. A useful definition of communication should include the feeling that language has been widely studied and acclaimed as the most valuable human institution and is indispensable in all spheres of life (Crystal, 1987).

Language roles paralleled along the embodiment of culture lead to the depth of a person's reflection—beyond the practical necessities of life to such aspects as the search for knowledge, education and collaboration among multi-ethnic societies. In such a way, it revealed how English language continues to operate signs and elaborate functions in almost all facets of Nigeria's life. Particularly unique position where range of and vital in the use of English are exceptionally experienced in Nigeria is in the domains of politics, education, legal matters, mass media, art and leisure, all of which are typically carried out through the medium of English. The same is true to everyday publications, as well as other various quests for national unity.

2. Statement of Problem

The Use of English language in Nigeria as a language of instruction is taking different dimensions. There are different varieties of English spoken or used in Nigeria, namely Pidgin English, Broken English, creole and the Nigerian English. Because these varieties of English have penetrated almost all sectors of Nigerian institutions education sector inclusive, students are sometimes left in dilemma as to which variety of English can be used in the learning environment. This is true because some teachers are not at all versed enough in the standard variety of English language, the so-called inner cycle that learners need to be taught with.

3. Objectives of the study

This study examines the variety of language learners in institutional settings often encounter in the process of learning of English as a second language. It aims to achieve these specific objectives:

1. To find out the nature of Nigerian variety of English language
2. To identify the interference level of Nigerian varieties of English language in instructional settings in Nigerian schools.
3. To identify the dilemma learners often faced in the process of learning English as a second language.

4. Literature Review

4.1 Introduction

This section discusses recent studies on the perception of the term Standard English and other varieties of Nigerian English.

4.2 The Spread of English Language

The global spread of the English language led to the position that is now true: that there is no exclusive rights in the use of English since the language no longer belongs numerically to speakers of English as a mother tongue. The effective possession of any language in effect rests with the people who use it. However multilingual they are, the major advances in sociolinguistic research over the past half century indicate clearly that languages are shaped by their use. And for English, the users number up to seven hundred million, living in every continent of which less than half are native speakers. Statistically, native speakers are in a minority, and thus in practice for language change, for language maintenance, and for the ideologies and beliefs associated with the language in so far as non-native speakers use the language for a wide range of public and personal needs (Bmmfit 2001).

4.3 The Notion of Standardization

Given that the term 'standard' with reference to English is a label which does not appear until the nineteenth century, is it permissible to speak of 'non-standard' before this time? This would appear justified because authors writing on

matters of language and concerned with condemning usage which they saw as socially unacceptable use labels such as ‘vulgar, ignorant, inaccurate, barbarous, uneducated, shameful, disgraceful’ (Hickey 2010). The forms of English which prescriptivists such as Thomas Sheridan and John Walker criticised are what would be termed ‘non-standard’ today. The concept of ‘non-standard’ usage already existed in the eighteenth century, even though this precise label was not employed. Usage which was censured in previous centuries was usually connected with choices which speakers could make (Hickey 2010). This view of a standard as a national variety led later to the empowerment of Standard English as the language of government and state and hence superior in status to all other varieties with which it might be contrasted (McColl Millar 2005). There is a curious paradox here: the ‘national’ variety was promoted as a form of English for the whole nation, but in essence it corresponded to the speech of a small and privileged section of the population (Claridge & KytO 2010). Self-appointed authorities’ Standard English has always had its guardians and often these are self-appointed authorities who pronounce on ‘correctness’ without necessarily having external legitimacy to do so.

4.4 Nigerian English

Before the entrenchment of the British colonial administration in Nigeria, there had been contacts between Nigeria and European countries. Such contacts brought along with them some form of English to Nigerians. Future developments were to strengthen the position of the language in the country. In projecting the paths of the development of Nigerian English, Bamgbose (1995) identifies three major strands which coincide with specific periods in the history of the country. These strands are Contact English (CE), Victorian English (VE) and School English (SE). Two major variants, Nigerian Pidgin (NP) and Broken English developed from the Contact English (Bamgbose 1995). Nigerian English has been cited several times. Adekunle and Adegbija cited in (Ogunleke 2008) opine that there is no gain saying that English has become a Nigerian language. The language has become an

invaluable legacy of the British which has provided Nigerians with yet another means of expressing their culture. It is noticed that there emerged the Nigerian English from the British English. This means that the variety of English used in Nigeria is regarded as a dialect of the British English. Nigeria, before and after its colonization has indigenous languages spoken in its states. Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba are the three major languages. Every Nigerian has a mother tongue so as to understand one another apart from the trade language of the Portuguese, a koine had to be introduced. Koiné here means an official language. The English language was chosen as the koine (Bolade, 2011). Nigeria has many indigenous languages, and English as used in Nigeria today is an official language. Also it is a language in contact with the various indigenous Nigerian language and cultures used to express Nigerian socio-cultural, political and religious situations which differ from those of Britain. There are bound to be differences because according to Quirk and Greenbaum cited in (Osuji 2010) “geographical dispersion of language is a classical case for variation”. According to Worsefall (2010), Nigerian English is a variety of English spoken in Nigeria but according to Nwachukwu (2007), Nigerian English is a collection of various grammatical structures common to Nigerian usage, having varying pronunciation peculiarities as well as socially constrained usage of some lexical. Naturally Nigerian English has developed from the Standard British English, which was used by the colonial masters. In spite of the long period of relationship between American English and the Nigeria English corpus has not become a major area of research. English is neither the mother-tongue nor the first language of any of the over four hundred ethnic groups in Nigeria. Like the name ‘Nigeria’ the English language is a borrowed gown and one of the inheritances of our colonial experience. The language is indigenous to Britain, but it is today the language most spoken world-wide. In addition to being the lingua franca of Britain, it is the recognized language of the United States of America, a greater part of Canada, and the whole of Australia and New Zealand. It is also widely spoken in South Africa and it is also a language of Government, Law, Commerce,

Education and International Communication for most of the former British Empire, including such faraway places as Hong Kong, most of Africa South of the Sahara (including Nigeria) and even the Caribbean.

5. Methodology

This study employs qualitative research design. Specifically it adopts desk-based method of data collection where materials were searched in broad and in-depth levels. To capture the latest thinking and most rigorous empirical evidence, the study applied a multi-pronged search strategy, involving searching a wide range of citation and journal indexes, online research and evaluation repositories, resource centres, and other search engines.

6. Findings and Discussion

This section presents the findings and discussion of the study. The research questions guiding the study are restated below in order to have a clear picture of the findings.

- (i) What is the nature of Nigerian variety of English?
- (ii) What is the interference level of other varieties of English language in the Nigerian instructional setting?
- (iii) What dilemma do the English language learners face in the process of learning English as a second language?

To begin with the first research question:

- i. What is the nature of Nigerian variety of English?

The expressions below describe the typical Nigeria informal settings. The expressions are presented expressions. Expressions found in both formal and side by side with Standard English

Nigerian English

Here are a few expressions commonly used:

- a. Sam is my senior brother.
- b. I shall branch to the market.
- c. The woman has taken in again.
- d. Those two women hate themselves.
- e. The boy is moving with my sister.
- f. Can you drop me at the school?
- g. Go slow

Standard English

- Sam is my elder brother.
- I shall go to the market.
- The woman is pregnant again.
- Those two women hate each other
- The boy is friendly with my sister
- Can you give me a lift to the school
- Traffic Jam

Onwukwe, (2012).

Akere in (Ajani 2007) asserts that Nigerian English is the concurrently developing varieties that may rightly be understood as dialects, which have resulted from the interplay of English and the vernacular languages spoken in Nigeria.

Examples:

- (i) I have 'eguisi' soup.(Igbo English)
- (ii) Bring the 'eba'.(Igbo English)
- (iii) Do you have 'tuwo'? (Housa English)
- (iv)! need 'amala'.(Yoruba English)

Onwukwe, (2012).

Extracts of Contact English were collected from Antera Duke's records of events in Calabar between 1785 and 1788, as well as those of the records attributed to the King of Opubu in 1824. While Antera Duke's records were in Broken English those of the King of Opubu were in Nigeria Pidgin. The difference between the two is that Broken English is less popular and less grammatical than the Pidgin (Ogbulogo, 2005). Excerpts below:

Variety of Nigerian Pidgin English

* “Soon after I see one my men was Liv with him to canow Corn

Up and tell Enyong peoples tak my canow way for Landing so I Run and Go Down for Landing Ifind no canow

(Soon after I saw one of my men who was left at the Canoe from the landing. So I run down to the landing and I find no canoe...) “Farde (1956).

Variety of Nigerian Broken English

“Suppose my fader, or my fader fader come up from ground and peak me why English man do dat, I no sabby tell why

(Suppose my father or my grandfather were to come back from the grave and ask me why the Englishman did that, wouldn’t he able to say why” Maben (1971).

The expressions above clearly show that there are indisputable varieties of Nigerian English which could be used in various situations.

ii. What is the interference level of other varieties of English language in the Nigerian instructional setting?

Nigerian varieties of English have penetrated several aspects of life. This will lead to the domestication of the so-called Standard English; English English or the RP. This domestication will lead to interference at various levels either formal or informal because even the highly educated members of the Nigerian society often resort to Nigerian varieties of English language in certain situations which to some scholars think as nothing wrong. The development of regional or local varieties of any language resulting from its domestication in non-native environments has been found to be a socio-linguistic reality, an observation which has been made, and in the case of English, defended by such ethnographers and language scholars as Brumfit (2001), McKay (2002), Trudgill and Hannah (2002). Walsh (1967) states that The varieties of English spoken by educated Nigerians, no matter what their language, have enough features in common to mark off a general type, which may be called Nigerian English. Bokamba recognizes the existence of a Nigerian English and refers to it as a variety of what he calls “West African Vernacular English” (WAVE). Similarly, (Ajani 2007) sees Nigerian English as part of the continuum of

“West African English”. Ajani (2005) spoke of the emergence of a “Standard Nigerian English”. Odumuh (1987) recognized Nigerian English as one of the New Englishes and had this to say: “our position is that there exists at the moment a single super ordinate variety of Standard English in Nigeria which can be regarded as “Nigerian English”. These assertions clearly vindicates that interference cannot be avoided in the Nigerian formal and informal settings.

iii. What dilemma do the English language learners face in the process of learning English as a second language?

Owing to possible differences that are found between Standard English and Nigerian varieties of English which are often applicable in instructional settings, there is the possibility that learners will be left in dilemma. Learners’ difficulty in comprehending any of the Nigerian variety of English language may give an indication of the likely difficulties in second language learning, but it is certainly not the only indicator. Learning style, and the level of proficiency of the teachers and the learners are always crucial to learning (Crombie, 1995). Given the fact that second language is often the weaker language of most learners, it follows that they do not possess the required level of proficiency and in a situation where by any variety of Nigerian English is offered to them, they will be certainly left in dilemma and especially to go for the easiest. So in order to avoid this dilemma, there is supposed to be a clear Cut provision on when and where to use Nigerian Varieties of English language as well as the standard variety of English.

7. Conclusion

This paper is on the dilemma that learners in the Nigerian setting may possibly face in their effort to learn English language as second language. The paper identified the varieties of English language present in both Nigerian formal and informal settings namely Typical Nigerian expressions, Pidgin English and broken English. These forms of English are very possible to be found in Nigerian instructional settings because even the learned are not free from using all or one of these varieties of Nigerian English. Employing desk-based method of data

collection, the findings from this study suggest that, in order to avoid these dilemmas, concerted effort should be made to ensure that in the instructional settings learners of English as a second language should be purely taught in the pure Standard English because it is the only acceptable form of English.

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Examining the Role of Makindye-Based Radio Stations in Creating Awareness on Sanitation Practices in Kampala Uganda

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Abstract. The study was conducted between the months of June-August, 2017 to examine the role of Makinde-based Radio stations in creating awareness on sanitation practices in Kampala, Uganda. The study was conducted in five settlements randomly selected within the Makindye Division including Kansanga, Bukasa, Ggaba, Kabalaga-Kataba and Nsambiya-Gogonya. Agenda setting theory was used to underpin this study. Radio campaigns are strong instrument in raising public awareness on environmental related issues however, the role played by most of the Makinde-based Radio stations seem to be very low. Hence, this study was aimed to assess the roles of these Radio stations. A total of 400 respondents comprising of 395 local community people and 5 officials each from 5 different Makinde-based Radio stations selected using Purposive sampling technique. Descriptive Survey design was used. Data collection instruments used were Questionnaires and structured Interview Guide. All quantitative data collected was analyzed in SPSS using descriptive statistics. Some of the findings revealed that Radio programmes enhanced people's awareness on sanitation practices (mean value 2.614. std. 1.26), enabled people to understand how to best relate to the

environment (mean value 3.76, std..952). Based on these findings and others not mentioned here, it is highly recommended that, since positive attitude toward sanitation practices depended on regular radio enlightenment campaigns, frequent campaigns by the media were highly recommended.

Keywords: Radio, Awareness Creation, Sanitation Practices, Makindye.

1. Introduction

The broadcast media in Uganda were under the exclusive control of the government between 1953 and 1993. In 1993 the first privately owned station went on air. This move came in the broader context of privatization of the media worldwide. It was closely linked to changes in the economic, technological and regulatory environment occasioned by the sweep of globalization. The channels of broadcasting have in the last decade grown from one television and one radio station to nearly 200 radio stations, with an additional 40 licensed but not on air according the Uganda Communications Commission (www.ucc.co.ug). This is up from 80 in 2004

when the first NEMPS was conducted. Similarly, there are now 40 television stations on air, with an additional 18 licensed though not on air. This compares with nine television channels in 2004. The stations broadcast in English, French, Kiswahili as well as various indigenous Ugandan languages to different parts of the country. While this growth has been phenomenal, it has not been systematic. As a result, most of the stations are concentrated in the lucrative urban areas and concentrate on English and/or one or two of the major regional languages because these are deemed commercially viable. This notwithstanding, there is also a discernible tendency for local stations to more aggressively champion specific regional interests, as evidenced by the events of 2009 that resulted in the closure of several local radio stations (Broadcasting Council, 2004).

The industry has also seen the expansion of cross-media enterprises like the Vision Group and the Nation Media Group which own interests in radio, television, print and online media and continue to expand systematically, particularly in the broadcast sector, to cover the various regions of the country. The Electronic Media Act of 1996 formalized the liberalization of the media sector and, until 2010, governed its operation. In 2010, the Broadcasting Council merged with the Uganda Communications Commission to streamline the operations of, and bring about harmony in the traditional broadcast and telecommunication sectors. Since policy is by its nature dynamic, the UCC is mandated by the Electronic Media Act to, from time to time, advise the Minister(s) in charge of information and communication on issues pertaining specifically to broadcasting policy with a view to keeping policy and regulation relevant and maintaining efficiency and harmony in the sector. In doing this, the Commission endeavors, as much as possible, to involve key stakeholders in the policy formulation process through periodic research and engagement (Broadcasting Council, 2004).

Since 1986, there have been many changes in the broadcast media. Government has

Ceased to be the sole owner of broadcast media and private entrepreneurs have permitted to enter the sector. The range of programming has become broader and more global. Local media have to compete for audiences with larger, often better endowed regional and global media enterprises. More Ugandans have embraced formal training in journalism and communication. More people have access to both the traditional and new media although disparities in access between urban and rural and rich and poor persist.

Radio programs can have a direct impact on the perception, attitudes and behaviors of individuals enhancing their understanding of environmental related issues. This leads to a potential behavioral change in sanitation practices. The radio stations program provided a platform for the community to obtain in-depth knowledge to discuss issues concerning their environment with local council's officials in a way forward. This effort was followed up by the radio stations and resulted in many of the concerns being addressed with improved infrastructure, sanitation and waste disposal. Mass media provides a public platform for issues to be raised and explored. This contributes to building public demand for action or reform. The public can use the media as an avenue to raise their view in any issues affecting their lives. Therefore if environmental related issues like sanitation practices were given proper attention by the media especially radio stations considering its unique quality, the desired enlightenment campaigns toward proper awareness on sanitation practices can be achieved through programs like discussion, interview, talk shows and drama (Anderson & Hitchins, 2007).

2. Mass Communication and the Environment

Environmental issues are firmly entrenched at the Centre of the world in all spheres of development activity, especially after the Second World War. This is exemplified by the number of international conferences and workshops which are held on the environment.

One of these, the Rio de Janeiro Earth summit in 1992, marked the beginning of relentless environmental campaigns across the world from developed to developing nations. This was followed by the world summit on sustainable development which was held in Johannesburg, South Africa in 2002 where critical targets for sustainable development, including the Millennium Development Goals (MDG's), were defined (UNCED, 1992). These campaigns were largely in response to the alarming rate at which human activities are affecting the environment (Introduction to MDGs, 2008).

Environmental communication has now emerged as a strong complementary practice to environmental education. A broad definition of environmental communication would be, "the sharing of information, insights and opinions on environment issues, trends, conditions and solutions using any means of communication, rising from interpersonal methods to mass communication channel.

Communication through the broadcast media is capable of raising public awareness, perceptions and attitudes to sanitation practices and it is argued that the lack of environmental awareness is a major problem in our society. By this, Nwabueze, (2007) believe that knowledge has to be supported by will, information and abilities to behave in an environmentally friendly way.

Nwabueze, (2007) also suggested that awareness should be created among residents to manage household refuse and educate them on the hazards that ill-disposed waste could pose to the environment and to inhabitants. Therefore, communication becomes necessary to create public enlightenment or awareness and education on sanitation practices. In Makindye division, Kampala Uganda, for instance, broadcast media is important for awareness creation on sanitation practices.

There are many radio stations in Makindye division and the stations are capable of transmitting signals within and beyond the area under study as such, capable of shaping social norms and values, influence people's decisions in manners that promote a more environmentally

sustainable society. Communication plays a central role in shaping our understanding of the natural world and the role of humans therein.

Okunna, (2002) believes that communication facilitates positive change to the target audience in terms of improving their living conditions. This is possible when there is effective mobilization aimed at creating favorable attitudes and behaviors among the people for whom a development project is being executed. In the same vein, McQuail (2010) argues that the media could be a potent force for public enlightenment and popular education. Communication is also the terrain where diverse points of view are negotiated. The broadcast media, for example, are central arena for amplifying environmental issues and can influence the course of policy and attitudinal change. The European Commission for Environment in its 2009 Environmental Policy believes that both the cause of environmental problems and possibilities for addressing them depend on human perceptions, attitudes and behaviors, which are linked to values, preferences and beliefs about the world. Communication, therefore, as they see it, is key to analyzing the relation between all of these aspects. Uganda is rapidly urbanizing with slums and informal settlements housing approximately 45% of its urban population. In the capital city, Kampala, most inhabitants live in low lying areas of reclaimed swamps, prone to flooding during heavy rains. The sanitation coverage in urban areas is estimated at 81% while functioning hand-washing facilities are estimated at 30%. However, disparities are very visible with informal settlements like in Kawempe having latrine coverage to as low as 36% mostly made up of make shift structures which are opened up in the drainage channels whenever it rains posing huge health and environmental challenges. The sewerage system in Kampala only covers part of its central business district and the system currently serves less than 8% of the total population. As a result, the bulk of the people in the city rely on poorly managed on-site sanitation, which has contributed to high incidences of water and sanitation related diseases, such as cholera and diarrhea, as well as degradation of the

environment in and around Kampala (Ministry of Water and Environment, 2010).

Given the environmental pollution from the indiscriminate disposal of human waste, each slum dweller in Kampala spends about 14 dollars per month on water and sanitation related diseases, with an estimated infant mortality related to diarrhea of 36 children per month. In addition, 5% of households practice open defecation. The Uganda Demographic Health Survey, (2011) further confirms that 23 % higher incidence of diarrhea among children in households without improved facilities than in those with improved facilities which are not shared. Inadequate excreta management threatens the public health and the environment of informal urban settlements and urban areas in Kampala. Although legal and policy frameworks exist and are sufficient to achieve desired improvements in sanitation services, the weak enforcement capacities of the local authorities, pose huge set-backs in realizing improved sanitation within the urban poor areas and informal settlements of Uganda (SSWARS, 2008).

For hygiene and sanitation awareness creation and behavioral change the following activities are planned: preparation of targeted sanitation learning materials such as posters, flyers, banners, radio spot messages, radio talk shows and printing of t-shirts. In addition, community sensitization and mobilization meetings will be held across the target community. At the school level sanitation clubs with girl child representation will be established in 20 schools to promote hygiene sensitization, learning and awareness; to reinforce behavior change at school and overtly at home (Ministry of Water and Environment, 2010).

In Kampala City, there are two main institutions mandated to provide sanitation services: These are Kampala Capital City Authority (KCCA), for on-site sanitation, and National Water and Sewerage Corporation (NW&SC), for sewerage services. However, three main problems arise with this structure. Firstly, KCCA has proved to be institutionally weak, in its ability to enforce laws requiring proper latrine facilities in

households and institutions, and to fulfill its obligation to provide such facilities in public places. Secondly, because NW&SC is only mandated to provide water-driven sewerage services, performance improvements in its water operations have only minimally been transferred to sanitation, as the number of people connected to its sewerage network has remained at only 8% leaving out majority of the poor people living in slum areas. Thirdly many external (donor) interventions in slum areas have been highly subsidized and often free, based on the assumption that residents of informal settlements are too poor to pay for the development of their own sanitation facilities. As a result, many poor urban residents have not only found unsafe ways of getting rid of the sludge, like opening the latrines during rainy seasons for the sludge to follow into the drainage channels, but also the formal service providers such as private cesspool empties have neglected them due to inaccessibility of their residences and are highly costly for the urban poor (Ministry of Water and Environment, 2010).

3. Statement of the problem

Status of hygiene and sanitation has been a very serious issue of concern in Kampala city, with pile of wastes dumped on roads, household compound, city squares, schools and almost everywhere (Okot-Okumu & Myenye, 2011). Issues of sanitation has been presented in Kampala with the growing population at an alarming rate coupled with technological advancement over time, waste disposal and management began to constitute serious problem. Indiscriminate dumping of household solid wastes on the streets, rivers and drainages systems has contributed in no small measure to drainage blockage, flooded roads and the spread of offensive odors and diseases. Many households are struggling with how to manage their waste. Waste is accumulating day-in day-out, as there is no proper waste management. In the context of Uganda, sanitation is both an urban and rural problem. It is also indicated by the United Nation that sanitation is a critical concern in Uganda (UN, 2011).

The problem was escalated by the dumping of refuse in gutter, drains, roadside, unauthorized dumping sites and stream channels, poor drainage system and delayed garbage collection from the few allocated garbage skips designated by the city authorities. This condition resulted into a number of health problems including cholera outbreaks, flooding of people's houses. According to Ugandan demographic health survey 2013 confirm that 23 percentage of higher incidence of diarrhea among the young children in households are as a result of poor sanitation practices. Which also leading to widespread diseases (epidemic) such as diarrhea, polio, dysentery, cholera, skin rashes and it's the major causes of high infant mortality rate (Bwire, 2013).

Despite the efforts of Uganda government Kampala Capital City Authority (KCCA) and National Water and Sewerage Corporation (NW&SC) of ensuring proper sanitation through sewerage system still the dumping of waste inside drainages, on the road side still continues. It is assumed that, publics were not adequately enlightened through the media on the effects of their actions on the environment.

It is therefore imperative that the government and people in Uganda are properly informed on the dangers of indiscriminate refuse disposal and how to properly dispose of waste in a hygienic manner. The researcher strongly believes that one medium through which this can be achieved is through awareness campaigns on radio and other media. Radio, is the most popular medium in Uganda, since it is affordable to the majority of the population and has a very wide reach. This study therefore aims to find out the role of Makindye-based radio stations in creating awareness on sanitation practices.

4. Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was to examine the role of Makindye-based radio stations in creating awareness on sanitation practices. Objectives of the study is to determine the of influence radio campaigns have had on the sanitation attitudes of the residents of Makindye Division Kampala, Uganda.

5. Study Area

Makindye division is the southern part of the city of Kampala and is one of the five divisions that make up Kampala city. Administratively the division is made of 21 parishes in which there are 15 of informal settlements. The earlier settlement is said to have been established as early as the 1890 while the most recent was first settled in 1997. As result of their location, residents of the slums in Makindye must cope with natural location hazards like; floods, garbage dumps, busy roads, power lines, open drains, and industrials hazards. These areas are also prone to man-made disasters like; forced evictions, crime, community violence and riots. The study was cover radio stations found in Makindye division. Which includes KFM radio, Galaxy FM1, Community radio, Dembe radio and Radio Sapiensa? It was also cover a sample of listeners found in Makindye Division Kampala Uganda. To access radio stations programs on sanitation campaigns.

6. Material and Methods

The study was conducted between the months of June-August, 2017 to examine the role of Makinde-based Radio stations in creating awareness on sanitation practices in Kampala, Uganda. The study was conducted in five settlements randomly selected within the Makindye Division including Kansanga, Bukasa, Ggaba, Kabalaga-Kataba and Nsambiya-Gogonya. Agenda setting theory was used to underpin this study. A total of 400 respondents comprising of 395 local community people and 5 officials each from 5 different Makinde-based Radio stations selected using Purposive sampling technique. Descriptive Survey design was used. Data collection instruments used were Questionnaires and structured Interview Guide. All data collected was analyzed using Frequency, Percentage, Mean and Standard Deviation distribution tables.

The target populations of this study was 409, 500 local community dwellers residing in Makindye division and officials as well as program managers of radio stations in Makindye

which includes KFM radio, Galaxy FM1, Community radio, Dembe radio and Radio Sapiensa. The sample size of this study was 400 respondents obtained by using the Slovene's formula from a targeting population 409,500 as follows:

Demographic characteristics of the respondents

Demographic characteristics of the respondents who participated in the research study in terms of gender, age, highest qualification and occupation was captured as indicated in the table below.

7. Data Analysis and Interpretation

Table 1: Demographic characteristics of the respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	244	65.8	65.8	65.8
Female	127	34.2	34.2	100.0
Total	371	100.0	100.0	
Age				
Below 20	2	.5	.5	.5
20 - 29	73	19.7	19.7	20.2
30 - 39	184	49.6	49.6	69.8
40 - 49	90	24.3	24.3	94.1
50 and above	22	5.9	5.9	100.0
Total	371	100.0	100.0	
Qualification				
None	25	6.7	6.7	6.7
Primary	37	10.0	10.0	16.7
Secondary	180	48.5	48.5	65.2
Post-secondary	129	34.8	34.8	100.0
Total	371	100.0	100.0	
Occupation				
Farming	60	16.2	16.2	16.2
Trading	80	21.6	21.6	37.7
Sales person	129	34.8	34.8	72.5
Public servant	102	27.5	27.5	100.0
Total	371	100.0	100.0	

The findings presented in Table 4.1 revealed that majority, 65.8% of the respondents were male while the female were represented by 34.2%. The dominance of the male in the study implies that more men were more concerned and listen to radio stations program on sanitation practices than their female counterparts because of the nature of the socio-cultural environment. The dominance of the male in the study implies that more men are involved in sanitation practices than their female counterparts because they have the ability, time and manpower. This is unlikely among their female counterparts.

The Table further revealed that majority, 49.6% of the respondents were within the age group of 30 – 39 years, followed by 24.3 % of the respondents were within the age group of 40 – 49 years, followed by 19.7% of the respondents were within the age of 20 – 29 years, 5.9% of the respondents were within the age of group of 50 years and above and lastly .5% of the respondents were within the age of group of below 20 years. The dominance of the respondents within the age group of 30 – 39

years was because they have the ability and time to participate in all sanitation practice in the community.

Furthermore, Table 4.1 revealed that majority, 48.5% of the respondents were secondary school holders and 34.8% of the respondents were post-secondary holders and 10.0 % of the respondents were primary holders, while 6.7% of the respondents were not educated at all. The dominance of the respondents who were obtained secondary school certificate implies they have the knowledge that can help them to understand the importance of sanitation practices and personal hygiene.

Similarly, Table 4.1 revealed that majority, 34.8% of the respondents were sales person or business people and 27.5% of the respondents were public servants and 21.2% of the respondents were traders, while 16.2% were farmers. The dominance of the respondents engaged in self businesses could be attributed to the high unemployment rates found in almost developing countries.

Table 2: Showing the Number of Sanitation Programs by Makindye-based Radio Stations

Name of radio stations	Program	Airtime used (minutes) Per week
Galaxy FM	Radio Cho campaign	30
KFM 90.4	Bulungi-Bwansi	40–45
Dembe FM 93.3	Bulungi-Bwansi	40
Community Radio FM	Nil	Nil
Sapiensa	Nil	Nil

Source: Primary Data, 2017

Table 3: Showing the influence of Radio Campaigns

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Interpretation
Frequent campaign on sanitation by radio enable me to positive attitude change	371	1.00	5.00	3.6334	.90067	Satisfactory
Radio programs on sanitation enabled to avoid indiscriminate dumping of waste	371	1.00	5.00	3.6873	.97	Satisfactory
Radio programs on sanitation enhances creative thinking about sanitation practices	371	1.00	5.00	3.8113	.88	Satisfactory
Radio programs on sanitation enable me to improved my attitude on personal hygiene	371	1.00	5.00	3.8544	.82	Satisfactory
Radio programs on sanitation facilitating attitude change	371	1.00	5.00	3.8329	.89	Satisfactory
Radio programs on sanitation increase my interest on sanitation practices	371	1.00	5.00	3.8787	.86	Satisfactory
Average mean	371	-	-	3.783	0.89279	Satisfactory

Source: Field Survey, 2017

The results presented in Table 4.5 revealed that community attitude on sanitation practices was assessed by respondents as satisfactory. Because of the finding revealed that majority of respondents (average mean 3.783 and standard deviation 0.89279.) strongly agreed that sanitation program by radio stations assist them towards developing positive attitudinal change, avoid indiscriminate dumping of waste and improved their attitudes on personal hygiene. This has supported the responses of the key informants as stated below. To determine the level of influence radio campaigns have on the attitudes of the community of Makindye division.

Item (1): The researcher summed up his interview by asking the key informants his opinion on the influence of radio campaigns on sanitation practices had on the attitude of the community and the participant's comments as follows:

"Radio stations play a fundamental role in influencing people's behavior and attitudes towards sanitation practices in Makindye division, to the extent that indiscriminate disposal of wastes by the populace has reduced as compared to some years back. And many incidences of diseases resulted from poor sanitation such as typhoid, skin infection; cholera and diarrhea especially among the young children are no longer frequent.....KFM 90.4 Program manager"

On the influence of radio campaigns have on the attitudes of the community on sanitation practices the key informants also added that:

"In organizing program on sanitation we invited the resource persons like doctors, environmentalist and local council officials to participate in the discussion program on sanitation practices where the producer (reporter) asked the experts questions (in an interview session) on sanitation practice and personal hygiene in their responses the experts gave more detail on sanitation practices such as consistent used of latrine, avoid open defecation, wash hand practices, maintain safe water either by boiling, add chlorine, waste management and proper care of children hygiene.....KFM 90.4 Program manager"

Item (2): The researcher in his efforts to find out the influence of radio stations on sanitation

practices asked the key informants in the area under study and the respondents views confirmed that:

"We know our radio stations are doing enough on sanitation and other related environmental programs because we normally listen to it and we actively participate in our community monthly sanitation practices Bulungi-Bwansi, take care of our unwanted materials, avoid indiscriminate dumping of wastes but properly managed our wastes by putting it in provided places where it can collected by the trucks.....Local Council official"

8. Discussions, Conclusion and Recommendations

The influence of radio sensitization campaigns on sanitation practices in Makindye division. The study revealed that radio sensitization campaigns on sanitation practices by radio stations are significant on the attitudes of the residents. The study revealed that radio campaign in Makindye division have influenced the attitudes and behaviors of the residents on sanitation practices to extent that poor disposal of waste by the residents has reduced as compared to some years back. And frequent incidences of cholera, dysentery and diarrhea are no longer frequent because of the improvement on personal hygiene.

The findings of this study also agreed with that of Makali, (2003) who found that media have power to control and direct people's beliefs, attitudes and behaviors through direct appeals toward a specific objective via information that circulate daily among the people. It is believed that, with the help from radio stations in Makindye division people will change their attitudes and behaviors towards the environment conservation.

A study conducted by Singhal and Rogers, (1989) supported the findings above who stated that media play crucial role in disseminating relevant environmental information which offer solutions to environmental issues and possibilities about suitable novelty because environmental awareness helps in conservation and sustainable development.

Consequently media are important social institutions which fight against negative attitudes by raising awareness towards attitudinal change by receiving relevant and educative information from the media. Different societies adopt change as per what they see and hear from the media. These changes are not limited to socio-economic only, it also includes environmental issues like water, sanitation and hygiene practices.

However, findings made by Akpoghiran (2015), disagreed with the above findings. He conducted a study on influence of broadcast media enlightenment campaigns on solid waste management in Nigeria. The findings from the programs schedule of the nine (9) stations obtained showed that public enlightenment campaigns on environmental information and issues like solid waste were inadequate and insufficient for sustainable environmental behavior and development. For example, four (4) stations (Melody FM, Warri; NTA, Amukpe Sapele; Radio Bayelsa and EBS, Benin) do not have direct programs on environmental management. We have explained direct program in this study to mean programs that directly deal on environmental issues like social/magazine program where a small segment for few minutes highlight issues on environmental management. Therefore, from the data obtained from these stations, it is evident that the extent of broadcast media enlightenment campaigns on environmental information and management is very poor, inadequate and insufficient for attitudinal change. Only few stations have regular programs on environmental management and this appears once a week. This is also inadequate.

9. Conclusion

The study also revealed that the residents of Makindye division believed that enlightenment campaigns on Radio stations enhanced the situation with regards to sanitation practices. It was revealed that, campaigns on Radio stations with regards to raising people's awareness on sanitation practices were very much effective in changing attitudes of the residents in that line. The Radio enlightenment campaigns in

Makindye division have changed the attitudes and behaviors of the residents on sanitation practices to extent that poor disposal of waste by the residents has significantly reduced as compared to some years back and frequent incidences of cholera, dysentery and diarrhea are no longer frequent because of the radio enlightenments campaigns.

10. Recommendations

Based on the findings made by this study, the following recommendations are hereby proffered.

- Some of the Radio stations do not have direct programmes on sanitation practices and for those who have, the time allocated for such programmes were short such that the programmes are broadcast weekly and even occasionally. Hence, Radio stations should strengthen the enlightenment campaigns on sanitation practices by creating regular programmes on that aspect.
- Radio enlightenment campaigns should focus on the dangers of indiscriminate waste disposal on the health of the residents of Makindye division and redesign their programmes to encompass discussions, interviews with experts on environmental issues, Radio Links, Dramas as well as public participations. This strategy can help to influence people's attitude and behavior in ways that promote environmentally sustainable societies.
- The study also discovered that attitudes of indiscriminate waste disposal by most of the local communities arise as a result of lack of specially allocated refuse dumping sites in most of these locations. Thus, it is recommended that Governments at all levels should provide refuse dumping sites in each of these locations at places very much accessible to the local residents.

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Part Four

Business and Entrepreneurship Studies

Relationship between Talent Management and Labour Turnover in Nigerian Banking Sector

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Abstract. Employees in Nigeria banking system are highly pressured to improve their present performance while little or no room is given for development of talent to improve future performance. This pressure is what brings about job insecurity, absenteeism, burnout and resignation. This study therefore examined the relationship between talent management and labour turnover in the Nigerian banking sector. A total of 320 respondents were chosen for the study using stratified sampling technique and 178 sampling size was determined through the use of Yaro Yamane formula. Primary data was collected through questionnaire. The Statistical instrument used in analyzing the data and testing the Hypotheses formulated were the Statistical Package for Social Sciences and Pearson Product Moment Correlation analysis respectively. The result shows that there is a positive and significant relationship between Talent Management and Labour Turnover. ($r = .620$, $p < .001$). The conclusion reached is that this study affirms that talent management and employee turnover is positively related and significant to banks performance. It was recommended that organizations should ensure effective and efficient staffing process that will ensure that the right talent is recruited and appropriately placed to ensure reduction in employee turnover.

Keywords: Talent Management, Labour Turnover, Human Resource Management, Employee Retention and Engagement.

1. Introduction

According to Iherionhanma (2010), many changes in global organizations are the result of fierce international competitive pressure faced by enterprises operating in the global place encircled in productive economy which is knowledge-driven. Particularly in the Nigeria banking system, post consolidation era has seen twenty-one (21) of banks merged in 2011 from twenty-four (24) previously consolidated. As a result of these mergers, there have been downsizing leading to forced resignations and retrenchment of more than forty-five thousand (45,000) trained bankers. It is understandable that most staff will focus on retention of their positions against the back drop of job instability. Interestingly, in spite of the current state of the job market, the industry is experiencing a growing trend in voluntary Employee turnover, a situation Essien, Adekunle & Oke-Bello (2013) see as worker resigning and not necessarily taken-up a more lucrative or conducive employment elsewhere. This issue of voluntary resignation is what is being referred to here as “Employee turnover”.

At this point, it should be noted that organizations spend a lot on their workforce in terms of orientation and training, developing, preserving them in their organizations and so on. As such, losing employees is detrimental to the organization. Newstorm, (2007) therefore state that excessive employee turnover can have the following negative effects on an organization:

Separation cost (exit interview time, separation pay, employment tax increase), Training cost for new employee (both orientation and skill development instruction: both formal and informal learning experiences), Vacancy costs (temporary help or overtime pay: productivity loss and service disruption), Placement costs (invitation, screening and reposting of newly employed staff), effects of staff morale (separation of friends, concerns about personal job loss during downsizing).

The above implies that Employee turnover which is majorly caused by problems of recruitment or/and problems of retention must be effectively tackled. Thus, it is necessary for administrators at all expense to reduce Employee turnover by resolving the above-mentioned problems. In other words, organizations that wish to attain corporate goals must have to retain their key employees. For the purpose of this study, the term “employee retention” refers to the means, plan or set of decision making behavior put in place by organizations to retain their competent workforce for performance. In addition, it is note-worthy that the problem of retention begins with recruitment. Therefore, a tool like “Talent Management” which tackles the problem of both recruitment and retention becomes imperative.

Talent management can be defined as a set of entrepreneurial human resource processes and practices ensuring the sustainable effectiveness of the most skilled workers within the organization. It implies that a company is strategic and deliberate in how they source, attract, select, train, develop, promote, move, and retain employees through the organization. Therefore, it can be stated that, talent management comprises three (3) major pillars, that is, talent acquisition, talent development and talent retention (Serendi, 2014). This means that talent management involves hiring the most skilled individuals in the right position that is, putting round pegs in round holes and developing them to enhance their potentials thereby creating a sense of loyalty to the organization in terms of employee commitment, engagement and job satisfaction. By so doing,

talents are retained and Employee turnover is minimized.

As a result of this it has been observed that more emphasis is placed on performance than on competency because of the dangers associated with not meeting targets in the banking sector. Thus, employees are highly pressured to improve their present performance while little or no room is given for development of talent to improve future performance. This pressure is what brings about job insecurity, absenteeism, burnout and other traumas that cause disengagement in the workplace. As a result, employees voluntarily resign even before their potentials are fully maximized. Hence, this study examines the relationship between talent management and Employee turnover.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Concept of Talent Management

Armstrong (2006) defines talent management as an integrated set of activities to ensure that the organization attracts, retains, motivates and develops the talented people its needs now and in the future. Talent Management is defined as the process of ensuring that the organization attracts, retains, motivates, and develops the talented people it needs (Cappelli, 2008). Cheloha & Swain, 2005; Kesler, 2002; as cited in Shaemi, Allemah, & Bajgerani (2011) see a set of designed processes that ensure that employees are properly rotated at the jobs available in the organization and that the right person is in the right job at the right time. Talent in the thinking of Shaemi et al., 2011 could be seen as natural talent and acquired talent. Talent Management in organizations should combine both. Job rotation and succession planning should not be the stopping point rather, it is also about learning and development. One component of it is to identify potential employees. As organizations face skills shortage, to Altman (2008) keeping hold of their best people is becoming all-out war.

Bersin Associates (2010) gave a framework for talent management. They see talent management process has evolving to a model that ensures

business alignment and facilitates talent mobility, meaning the dynamic internal process of moving talent from role to role. That is at the various levels of leadership, profession and operation.

2.2 Concept of Labour Turnover

In human resources context, labour turnover or staff turnover is the rate at which an employer gains and losses employees. The simple ways to describe it are how long employees tend to stay or the rate of traffic through the revolving door (Essien, Adekunle, and Oke-Bello, 2013). Also, Wermelin, (2009), conceptualized turnover as the voluntary leaving of a job. And according to Allen, (2008), employees leave organizations for all sorts of reasons. Reasons why employees leave their organizations include securing other jobs, going back to educational institutions to acquire further knowledge, and relocation to other areas due to transfer, retirement, layoff by any of the spouse. All these reasons lead to reduction in staff strength otherwise known as turnover, however they do not have the same implications on organizations. It then becomes imperative to discuss types of turnover.

Voluntary turnover in view of Allen (2008) is initiated by the employee. For instance, a worker may quit and takes job elsewhere. Involuntary turnover on the other hand is as directed by the organizations; where an employee may be laid off by an organization as result of restructuring or employee poor performance. Functional and dysfunctional voluntary turnover is another important distinction. Out of these two, dysfunctional turnover is harmful to the organization and can take numerous forms. High performing employees in term of skills are always difficult to replace, as well as problem geographical spread. Functional turnover (exit of poor performers or employees whose talents are easy to replace) does not hurt an organization.

2.3 Talent Management and Employee Turnover

Today, talent management as a broader concept is known in order to attract, retain and develop talents (Annunzio Green, 2008). According to

Rani and Joshi, (2012) talent management comprises three components: Talent Identification, Talent Development (Internal and External development), Talent Engagement (Motivation and Retention). On the other hand, Muntaner et al., (2006) stated that the rate of employee turnover is a measure of the level of commitment of employees to the organization and as stated earlier, the key components of talent management include employee commitment and engagement.

As a result, employee engagement as a key to the retention of talent (one-of-a-kind hire in 100 employees; Glen, 2002) is an area in which the lead has been taken by practitioners (Parsley, 2006; Bamruk et al., 2006; Woodruffe, 2005: Gallup Management Journal, 2006; Benneth and Bell, 2004; Hay Group, 2002). In this regard, Hughes and Rog, 2008 concluded in their findings that the major benefits of an effectively implemented talent management strategy include improved employee recruitment and retention rates, and enhanced employee engagement. This implies that talent management improves recruitment and retention; and as such, minimizes labour turnover.

2.4 Talent Retention

Retention according to Echols (2007), take measures to encourage employees to remain in the organization for the maximum period of time. Companies' productivity are usually affected by talent turnover as result of high costs of inputs. These inputs are the direct cost such as transitions costs, turnover costs, and replacement costs. Echols (2007) see indirect costs as costs relating to unnecessary overtime, decrease in production, low morale and reduction in employee performance Vaiman and Vance, (2008) classified retention tool employee's expectation into extrinsic and intrinsic incentives. Different sorts of monetary rewards which can satisfy employees' physiological needs are regarded as extrinsic incentives. while non-monetary rewards that can fulfill employees' psychological needs are referred as intrinsic incentives. The monetary

reward according to Vaiman et al. (2008) is admitted as an essential tool to retaining talent.

It is emphasized by O'Callaghan (2008) that the only way for organizations to retain talented employees is by making sure that the employees are competitive compensation. He identified the strategies that can help in retention of employees to include signing bonuses, stock options with a maturity clause and market-related incentives and pay. Organizations are not always successful at retaining talented workers but can use tried and tested strategies to retain their best employees (Armstrong, 2011).

3. Theoretical Framework

3.1 Career Management Theory

One of the most influential theories of career choice and development is the one developed by Super (1990) known as self-concept theory of career development. He suggested that career choice and development is essentially the process of developing and implementing a person's self-concept. Super (1990) see self-concept as a product of complex interactions among a number of factors which include personal experiences, mental growth, environment and physical growth. How a person is able to implement his or her career self-concept, to Super (1990) is determined by the extent of the degree to which a given individual career development is successful. Super see individuals' career concept as a product of interaction of the persons personality interest, experiences, skills, values and the way in which they integrate these characteristics into their various life roles. As new situations are experienced by people, and new people are met and learn more about the world of work, they are likely to develop new interest, in the thinking of Super (1990), unlock new possibilities of expressing self-concept and find new ways of integrating their career choice

3.2 Expectancy Theory

A fine treatise on job satisfaction and motivation has to do with expectancy theory. That is level of an employee's satisfaction with his job will depend on how well his expectation from that

job is actually met. If the worker expects say in monetary term ₦50,000 per annum from a job and he actually receive that amount or more, that worker is going to be satisfied and that will motivate him to perform more and stay with the organization. However, paying competitive rates will affect the ability of organizations to attract and retain people. As pointed out by Cappelli (2000), there is limit to the extent to which companies can compete with the pull of the market. Meaning, if talented people want to go they will still go regardless of the level of retention or loyalty bonuses provided by companies.

3.3 Empirical Framework

Ali (2014) conducted research on effect of talent management on employee's retention. The research method is a descriptive survey. The population consists of staff of Isfahan University in Iran from which a sample of 280 employees were randomly selected. The data collected through a researcher-developed questionnaire were analyzed using SPSS and AMOS software. The study found that there is a significant relationship between talent management, employee retention and organizational trust.

Using questionnaire to obtain data, Kehinde (2012) carried out a similar research in Nigeria on talent management effect on organizational performance. The questionnaire was used to as the survey method of primary data collection. Correction coefficient and t-student distribution were methods used in the analysis of data gather. The study results showed that 95% of organizations visited were either applying talent management or partially applying talent management.

Grace in 2015 also carried out a related research on impact of talent management on organizational performance of Nigerian banks. The study applied historical research design using time series data covered a period of 1997-2013. Bank performance, talent management and average schooling of employees were the variables of the research. Talent management and average years of schooling of employees according to the study significantly improved

bank performance in Nigeria. On the job training, was however seen to have no significant impact on performance banks in Nigeria.

Another research was also carried out by Rita in 2015 on effect of talent management on organizational performance in companies listed in Nairobi securities exchange in Kenya. This related study used cross-sectional survey designs. In selecting respondents from the ten strata of NSE listed companies, stratified simple random sampling was employed. The study found that the management had positive and significant influence on organization performance.

4. Methodology

Research Design

In this research work, the survey research method was adopted. Survey research focuses on population for intensive study and analysis. Hence, to ensure that adequate and reliable data were obtained for analysis, questionnaire was used for data collection.

Population of the Study

The population is 320 staff of Guarantee Trust Bank branches in Ilorin Metropolis of Kwara State. The management staff, senior staff and junior staff of the bank formed the population of the study.

Sampling Technique and Sample Size

The study used both stratified and random sampling technique so as to ensure that every elements of the population have equal chance of been selected in the sample. A sample size of 178 respondents is drawn from the targeted population through the use of Yaro Yamane formula as illustrated below. $n = \frac{N}{1 + Ne^2}$. “n” represent the sample size, “N” represent the study population while “E” represent desired margin of error.

Thus, the sample size of population 320 would be calculated as follows since the margin of error is assumed to be 5%

$$n = \frac{320}{1 + 320(0.05)^2} = \frac{320}{1.8} = 178$$

Data Collection Instrument

Self-administered Questionnaire was used to collect information about the role of talent management in the reduction of labour turnover. The questionnaire was designed based on the research questions and hypotheses. A five-point scale was used to categories respondents’ responses as follows: Strongly Agree (5), Agree (4), Disagree (3), undecided (4) and Strongly Disagree (5).

Method of Data Analysis

The method used in analyzing the data gathered was Pearson Product Moment Correlation analysis using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) from which frequency distribution, tables and percentages were generated

5. Test of Hypotheses

Hypothesis

H₀: Talent management has no significant relationship with employee turnover

H₁: Talent Management has significant relationship with Employee Turnover.

Table: 1 Pearson Correlation Between Talent Management and Employee Turnover

		TM	ET
TM	Pearson Correlation	1	.620**
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.000
	N	150	150
ET	Pearson Correlation	.620**	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	
	N	150	150

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

Where TM: Talent Management. ET: Employee Turnover

Table 1 Shows that there is a significant relationship between Talent Management and Employee Turnover ($r = .620$, $p < .001$). Therefore, the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference between Talent Management and Employee Turnover is not confirmed and therefore rejected. The alternative hypothesis which states that there is a significant relationship between Talent Management and Employee Turnover is hereby accepted as the P-value is less than 0.05. This implies that Talent Management is positively correlated to Employee Turnover. The magnitude of the result shows that the correlation is greater than 0.3 in the absolute terms, which shows the moderate correlations between the said variables. This concludes that there is a significant relationship between Talent Management and Employee Turnover

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

This research has provided incisive insights regarding the respective relationship between talent management and employee turnover. The research showed that there is positive and significant relationship between talent management and employee turnover. The conclusion is that talent management and employee turnover are both positively related to banks performance. We therefore recommended as follows:

- (i) Effective and efficient talent management must be put in place. Meaning, right recruitment, development, motivation and retention of talents to minimize employee turnover.
- (ii) A well drafted policies, programs and activities as regard employees' talent monitoring and development must be designed to ensure that employees are well motivated to go the extra mile for the organization in achieving the vision, mission, goals and the strategic objectives of the organization

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Exploring the Impact of Service Quality on Customer Satisfaction in Nigerian Banking Industry

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Abstract. Banks require customers to survive and grow. To retain customers and to protect and sustain long-term customer interest, banks need to maintain an ongoing relationship with their customers by providing quality services. The study examined the effect of service quality dimensions on customer satisfaction in banking. A total of two hundred and fifty (250) customers of Nigeria Banks were given questionnaires for the study. The techniques employed for data analysis include multiple correlation, descriptive analysis, and Multiple Regression. The study's findings show that there is relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction in banking industry and that tangibles, reliability and responsiveness have a significant impact on customer satisfaction. The study concluded that since service quality has proved to be an important factors and the driving force behind customer satisfaction in banking Industry. The study recommends that the management should improve quality services so as to satisfy customer's needs. The study further recommended that for Nigerian banks to be more responsive, it needs to look at service render from the view point of the customer rather than the banks' perspective and dimensions.

Keywords: Service Quality, Customer expectations, Customer Satisfaction, Satisfaction Model, Banking Industry

1. Introduction

The present Nigeria banking market is characterized by an empirical justification of their large number consisting of both banking and other financial institutions. Essentially, these banking and other financial institutions are competing for the potentially large market in the country. One of the major trends in the Nigerian banking sector today is the gradual and incremental transaction from traditional orientation to aggressive drive. By this, management is compelled to go out of their shells or enclaves to partake in the sharing of the large market in order to satisfy various needs of customers. It is important to note that customer satisfaction and service quality are closely inter-related. The higher the service quality provided by an organization, the higher is the level of customer satisfaction (Jayaraman, Shankar & Hor, 2010).

Like any other services industry, bank provides services to the public with the aim of maximizing profit. One of the function of the

commercial bank is to mobilize saving by attracting and collecting deposits from customers for safe keeping. The customers' deposits are important to bank's operation and its overall objective of profit minimization. Banks are therefore complete for the customer deposit mostly in terms of services rendered. Hence, there is a strong need for effective quality service of bank services to enable banks to attract more customers. In proving quality enactment of banking industry. It was further stressed that customers are the most important for any organisation and can be maintained as long as service quality to customer is taking as essential part of the organisation (Naeem, Adeel, Hammad, Wasim & Tayyaba, 2016).

According to Lovelock and Wirtz (2004), people learn to recognize quality only through experience gained and through repeated exposure. The product based approach holds the view that quality can be judged by the presence or absence of particular characteristics of the product or service itself. It sees quality as a precise and measurable variable. However, Lovelock and Wirtz (2004) were of the view that the approach though highly objective, it fails to account for differences in the tastes, needs and preferences of individual customers (or even entire market segments). A critical understudy of the operations and activities of most banks in Nigeria within the last five years indicates that they have failed in meeting the customers' expectation arising from network failure, wrong charges, long queues, failure of ATM machine to dispense money after debiting account, among others. The external factors that have contributed to the failure of banks also include ineffective deregulation of interest rate, flexibility of the exchange rate, money laundry, fraud, etc.

The banking industry today is highly competitive with many banking and financial institutions such as Merchant bank, Mortgage society etc, striving to offer wide range of financial services. Until recently, banking industry in Nigeria has failed to embrace an aggressive marketing stand point. However, recent development shows that many banks have been increasingly a new and different orientation because the market situation has changed

service to customer in banking industry there is need to identify and stimulate the customers' needs. If the banks render quality service to customer it will increase the deposit base of the banks and the credit worthy customers to borrow at a profit (Kotler, 1998). It was suggested that customer satisfaction and service quality and customer loyalty has been measured very important in order to expand the overall

appreciably. The customers will only patronize the banks that render quality service and meet their needs. The individual bank should be conscious of the emergence of other financial institutions which is in a very keen competition with the banking sector today in Nigeria.

Banks should therefore graduates from the state of sale orientation which has characterized the marketing of services of most banks in Nigeria to the state of providing other services that can be beneficial to their customers owing to the keen competition in the industry. According to Tran, Nguyen, Taikoo, (2015) for any bank to be relevant the banking industry, the key to success is to improve the quality of services by meeting the meet customers' needs in a unique way. Moreover, the survival and profitability of the bank in Nigeria depends mainly on the extent to which they have been able to satisfy the specific needs of their customers. There is also stiff competition among banks and other financial institutions. Increase in bank branches have also lead the problem of competition and the banks that will survive need to provide quality service and introduce new and improved services to customer in order to enjoy continuous patronage. Service quality is therefore regarded as a measure of how well the service level delivered matches customer expectations of customer in any system (Parasuraman, Valarie & Leonard, 1985).

Cudjoe, Anim, and Nyanyofio (2015) reported that customer defection due to dissatisfaction is a curious research subject that attention must be given to particularly in banking industry. This is because service quality is touted as the sine qua non of every successful organization.

It has been noted that in Nigeria that there are problems and challenges in the banking sector,

banks have not lived up to expectation of achieving optimum customer satisfaction. Customer satisfaction in Nigerian banking Industry becomes a crucial factor that can be used in increasing performance. Consequently therefore its practice needs to be carefully studied in the banking environment. This study therefore focuses on effect of service quality dimensions on customer satisfaction in Nigerian banking industry. It further examines the relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction in Nigerian banking industry.

2. Research Questions

The research questions from this study based on the background information discussed above attempt to address the research questions as follows:

- (i) How do service quality dimensions affect customer satisfaction in Nigerian banking industry?
- (ii) Is there any relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction in Nigerian banking industry?

3. Objectives of the Study

Given the background information discussed above, the objectives of the study are as stated below:

- (i) To examine the effect of service quality dimensions on customer satisfaction in Nigerian banking industry; and
- (ii) To examine the relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction in Nigerian banking industry.

4. Literature Review

Service quality is defined as the degree of discrepancy between customers' normative expectations for service and their perceptions of service performance (Parasuraman et al., 1985; Aremu, Mustapha, Aparo & Okpara, 2016). Consumers usually shop at specific stores,

because they like the service provided and they are assured of certain service privileges; thus, the performance of salespeople stimulates bonding through trust between them and customers, which affects the latter's perception of the store or brand (Lau, Chang, Moon, & Liu, 2006; Leung & To, 2001). Service quality can be defined as meeting the needs and expectations of the customer (Smith, 1998).

Service quality is an important issue in service management (Clotey & Collier, 2008); besides, with the development of the service sector, the notion of service quality has become increasingly significant (Ma Q., Pearson & Tadisina, 2005). In the related literature, Plausible definitions for service quality have been suggested, Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, (1988), defined Customer perceived service quality as a global judgment or attitude related to the superiority of a service relative to competing offerings. According to Bitner and Hubert (1994), it is the customer's overall impression of the relative inferiority/superiority of the organization and its services. Zeithaml and Bitner (1996) see service quality as the delivery of excellent or superior service relative to customer expectations. The service quality in the banking industry will be enhanced and meet the customer expectation if the service providers in the system increase their internet banking facilities as suggested by Adeyemi and Aremu, (2008).

Mccleary and Swan (1996) defined service quality as the difference between customer expectations for service performance prior to the service encounter and their perceptions of the service received. Gefan (2002) sees service quality as the subjective comparison that customers make between the quality of the service that they want to receive and what they actually get.

Sasser, Olsen, and Wyckoff, (1978) and Caruana (2002) have pointed out that service quality is the result of the comparison made by customers about what they feel service firms should offer, and perceptions of the performance of firms providing the services. Gronroos (1984) also defines service quality as the outcome of the

comparison that consumers make between their expectations and perceptions. Service quality is defined as customer perception of how a service meets or exceeds their expectations (Czepiel, 1990). Several practitioners defined service quality as the difference between customer's expectations for the service encounter and the perceptions of the service received (Munusamy, Chelliah, and Mun, 2010).

4.1 Benefits of Services Quality

Without the focus on service quality, financial service organizations may face complaints from customers. Further, a proportion of dissatisfied customers will complain and tell a number of others, generally it is stated that, if a financial company gives a service to one customer, it gains three, and loses nine when give poor service to one customer, hence it is better to gains three than loosing nine, generating adverse word of monthly publicity and some may switch to companies. However, with focus on service quality, an organization can expect a number of benefits. Customer loyalty through satisfaction increased business and this may lead to attract new customers; hence customer retention is more cost effective than trying to attract new customers. Customer satisfaction lead to increase in opportunities for cross-selling, comprehensive and up to date service knowledge and sales techniques among employee, combined with developing relationships. Good service quality enhance corporate image and may provide insulation from price competition.

4.2 Consequences of Poor Quality Service

According to Wimershirch et al., (1994), it is important that management recognized the diverse ways the quality of a firms' product or service affects the organization. This can be achieved by taking into account or by developing and maintaining a quality assurance program. He then went further to outline some major ways poor quality affects an organization thus:

Loss of business: Since the major aim of a business is profit and that can be achieved through satisfied customers, failure to devote

adequate attention to quality may damage a profit oriented organization's image, thereby a decrease in market share, criticism and control from government agency or non-profit organization.

Liability: Since good quality product will attract more customers and create name for the organization, poor quality may do otherwise by creating potential liability for a firm due to damages or injuries resulting from faulty design or poor service.

Productivity: Productivity and quality are often closely related, poor quality can adversely affect the outcome of production process through rework. Conversely, improving and maintaining good quality can have a positive effect on productivity.

Cost: Certain cost may be incurred by the organization given a poor service quality. These costs may include discounts payments to customers to offset the inferior quality, rework costs, warranty cost, replacement costs and so on.

4.3 Conceptual framework

Customer Satisfaction is to degree at which the product or services rich the standard of the buyer in his or her expectations. It deals with what people called as surprise quotient. This is to extend at which firms give out unexpected technical characteristics or personal service to a customer. There is general agreement that, satisfaction is a person's feelings of pleasure or disappointment resulting from comparing a product's performance in relation to its expectations. Customer satisfaction is a result of the provision of services and goods that either meets or exceeds customer needs (Kotler, 2013, Siew-Peng & Sedigheh, 2015). Customer satisfaction is actually a term most widely used in the business and commerce industry. It is a business term explaining about a measurement of the kind of products and services provided by a company to meet its customer's expectation. To some, this may be seen as the company's Key Performance Indicator (KPI). In a competitive marketplace where businesses compete for customers, customer satisfaction is seen as a key differentiator and increasingly has become a key element of business strategy. It is

well established that satisfied customers are key to long-term business success (Kristensen, Dahlgaard, & Kanji, 1992; Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, A. (2006); McColl-Kennedy & Schneider, (2000). It is also defined as a global issue that affects all organizations, regardless of its size, whether profit or non-profit, local or multi-national. Companies that have a more satisfied customer base also experience higher economic returns (Aaker & Jacobson, 1994).

Apparently, many researchers conceptualize customer satisfaction as an individual's feeling of pleasure (or disappointment) resulting from comparing the perceived performance or outcome in relation to the expectation (Brandy & Robertson, 2001; Lovelock, Patterson, & Walker, 2001). There are two general conceptualizations of satisfaction here, namely, the transaction-specific satisfaction and the cumulative satisfaction (Boulding & Zeithaml, 1993; Jones & Suh, 2000; Yi & La, 2004). Transaction-specific satisfaction is the customer's very own evaluation of his or her experience and reaction towards a particular service encounter (Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Boshoff & Gray, 2004). This reaction is expressed by the customer who experiences a product or service for the first time. However, in general customers assess their level of satisfaction after the consumption of a product or a service.

4.4 Customer Expectations

In the beginning of a service experience delivery process, customers are looking forward to service encounters with eager anticipation. In other words, what customers expect to acquire from service providers can define diverse customer expectations. Moreover, customer expectations are regarded as desires or wants of customers, i.e. what they feel a service provider should offer more than what would offer.

Parasuraman et al. (1991a, b) proposed that understanding customer expectations of a service played an important role for delivering satisfactory services. Previous researchers such as Aremu, Mustapha, Nageri, & Aremu, (2015) had presented that how customers assess the

performance of a service provider was based on the single level of expectation standard, which meant customer felt a service provider should offer. However, past researchers kept evolving and extending the conceptual model of expectations, putting a lot of effort to pinpoint the critical element within customer expectations. These researchers offered multi levels of customer expectations (Parasuraman et al., 199; Zeithaml et al., 1993; Walker and Baker, 2000). According to their propositions, multiple standards would be more likely to completely understand.

4.5 Customer Satisfaction Model

4.5.1 Disconfirmation Model Propounded by (Oliver R. L., 1980)

According to Oliver (1980), the customer satisfaction model explains that when the customers compare their perceptions of actual products or services performance with the expectations, then the feelings of satisfaction have arisen. Any discrepancies between the expectations and the performance create the disconfirmation.

He identified three (3) types of disconfirmation. And they are:

- 1. Positive disconfirmation:** This occurs when product or service performance exceeds performance. In this case, the customers are highly satisfied.
- 2. Negative disconfirmation:** This on the other hand occurs when products or service performance is less than expectations. In this case, the customers are highly dissatisfied.
- 3. Zero disconfirmation:** it occurs when product or service performance is equal to expectations. In this case, customers are neither well satisfied nor less satisfied. They feel 'ok' by the turn of events. Disconfirmation theory argues that 'satisfaction is related to the size and direction of the disconfirmation experience that occurs as a result of comparing service performance against expectations'. Szymanski and Henard (2001) found in the meta-analysis that the disconfirmation paradigm is the best predictor of customer satisfaction.

4.6 Theoretical framework

4.6.1 SERVQUAL Model

The SERVQUAL scale is a principal instrument in the services marketing literature for assessing quality (Parasuraman et al., 1991; Parasuraman et al., 1988 ;). This instrument has been widely utilized by both managers and academics to assess customer perceptions of service quality for a variety of services (e.g. banks, credit card companies). Based on Parasuraman et al.'s 1988 conceptualization of service quality, the original SERVQUAL instrument included 22 item sections that intended to measure (a) customer expectations for various aspects of service quality and (b) customer perceptions of the service they actually received from the focal service organization. In short, the SERVQUAL instrument is based on the gap theory and suggest that a customer's perception of service quality is a function of the difference between his/her expectations about the performance of a general class of service providers and his/her assessment of the actual performance of a specific firm within that class (Cronin & Taylor, 1992).

4.7 Definitions and Descriptions of Constructs

SERVQUAL dimensions instruments indicated that five dimensions of service quality emerged across a variety of services. This was operationalized and adopted for this study. These dimensions include: tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy.

i. Tangibility

Tangibles entail the physical evidence of the service. Tangibles in details depict the physical facilities of the service provider, the appearance of personnel, materials associated to the service (credit and debit sheets, cheque books etc.), decorations and business hours the tools and equipment used to provide the service including other customers in the service facility. Tangibles are used by firms to convey image and signal quality (Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 2006).

ii. Reliability

According to (Zeithaml et al., 2006) reliability is "the ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately" or "delivering on its promises". Does the firm perform the service right at the first time? Does the firm honour its promises? These are some of the questions which need to be answered by service providers if they are to achieve reliability. This dimension of service quality according to (Parasuraman et al., 1985) is how the service provider is able to provide service to a customer as promised, dependable in handling customers' service problems, performs service right the first time, provide service at promised time and keep customers informed about when services will be performed.

iii. Assurance

Assurance entails the knowledge and courtesy of employees and their ability to convey trust and confidence. It also includes competence, courtesy, credibility and security. Andaleeb and Conway (2006), noted that assurance may not be so important relative to other industries where the risk is higher and the outcome of using the service is uncertain. For instance, in the medical and healthcare industry, assurance is an important dimension that customers used as criteria in assessing a hospital or a surgeon for an operation. The trust and confidence may be represented in the personnel who connect the customer to the organization (Zeithaml et al., 2006)

iv. Responsiveness

Responsiveness concerns the willingness or readiness of employees to provide service (Parasuraman et al., 1985). This dimension is concerned with dealing with the customer's requests, questions and complaints promptly and attentively. A firm is known to be responsive when it communicates to its customers how long it would take to get answers or have their problems dealt with. To be successful, companies need to look at responsiveness from the view point of the customer rather than the company's perspective (Zeithaml et al., 2006).

v. Empathy

Empathy entails caring and provision of individualized attention to customers by personnel of the firm (Zeithaml et al., 2006). In this respect, the customer feels unique and special. In an attempt to develop empathy, personnel of the firm should endeavor to know the names of their customers, their preferences and needs and take steps to satisfy them. Small Scale enterprises through the provision of customized services to clients are in a better position to achieve empathy than large firms.

4.8 Empirical Review

Every organization knows that key to success for every business is consumer. Organizations that provide superior customer values gain chance to take consumer from the opposite competitors. The study determined that banks should concentrate on refining the consumer services. The study finds that there is a positive and significant association between customer satisfaction and creates of service quality like compliance, (Hafeez, 2012).

Rahaman, Abdullah, and Rahman (2011), explored service quality of the private commercial banks in Bangladesh, the findings from their study revealed that, one of the primary causes of service quality design failure is the lack of understanding of the evolving need and preferences of targeted customers. Research conducted by (Sackey, Adebayo, Oppong, Mensah, & Annor, 2012) on the effects of service quality on customer satisfaction, loyalty and retention using the SERVQUAL model revealed that Barclays bank in Ghana implements all the five service quality dimensions (Empathy, Assurance, Tangibility, Reliability, and Responsiveness), which is to say that the bank strives to be at its best when it comes to quality. This quality service has also become a major critical cause of satisfaction for the banks customers. However on Empathy level, staffs do not give customers their utmost attention and also make decisions without considering the impact those decisions might have on their customers. The research further showed that when it comes to responsiveness,

customer requests and complaints are not authorized and resolved on time enough by the staff and managers of Barclays bank.

Also, Ojo, (2010) investigated the relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction in the telecommunication industry with a focus on Mobile Telecommunication Network (MTN) Nigeria. A total of 230 respondents participated in the study. Regression analysis and Pearson product moment correlation coefficient were employed in analyzing the data. The study revealed a positive relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction. The researcher therefore recommended that organizations should focus more attention on service quality, because of its effects on customer satisfaction. To ensure that customer satisfaction level is high organization must first of all know the expectations of the customers and how they can meet such expectations. Customer satisfaction helps in customer loyalty and retention. It has been discovered that the cost of attracting new customer far exceeds the cost involved in retaining existing ones. Again, (Kheng, Mahamad, Ramayah, & Rahim, 2010) employed the SERVQUAL model developed by (Parasuraman, et al., 1988) with five dimensions to evaluate the impact of service quality on customer loyalty among bank customers in Penang, Malaysia. Customer satisfaction was used as an intermediate variable. The findings show that improvement in service quality can enhance customer loyalty. The service quality dimensions that play a significant role in the equation are reliability, empathy, and assurance. The findings indicate that the overall respondents evaluate the bank positively, but still there are rooms for improvements.

5. Methods

5.1 Approach

It is very important to determine the choice of research approach because it determines how the necessary data will be obtained. Hence, survey research is adopted for this study. According to Blaxter, Hughes and Tight (2001) a survey research is a method of obtaining research

information by asking a set of pre-determined questions from a given sample of individuals drawn from a defined population. Also, primary source of data is adopted for this study which is in line with the survey research design.

5.2 Population of the Study

A population is any group of individuals that have one or more characteristics in common and that are of interest to the researcher (Best and Kahn, 2006). The target population for the study was customers of Nigeria Commercial Bank in the Ilorin Metropolis. The list of elements in the population of interest from which the sample is actually drawn from three (5) branches of Nigeria Commercial Bank which include First bank, Gtbank, UBA, Skye bank and Zenith bank respectively.

5.3 Sample Frame and Size

The sample size is defined as the number of people who were sampled for the study. For the purpose of conducting this study, two hundred and fifty (250) customers of Nigeria Commercial Bank were given questionnaires for the study. This included fifty customers (50) each, purposively selected from five branches of Nigeria Commercial Bank, specifically First bank, Gtbank, UBA, Skye bank and Zenith bank to constitute a final sample size for the current study. These branches were selected due to the fact that they were the busiest and nearness branches to the researcher and had majority of customers visiting the bank for transactions day in and day out. Purposive sampling technique as a non-probability sampling was used as the technique for the research. This method was selected to enable the researchers to elicit vital and quality information from respondents who have reasonable knowledge about the issues under investigation

and were in position to provide the information needed for the study.

5.4 Research Hypotheses

Based on the conceptual framework the following hypotheses were developed and tested.

H_0 . Service quality dimensions do not have effects on customer satisfaction in banking sector

H_1 . There is no relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction in banking industry

5.5 Method of Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics allow the researchers to present the data acquired in a structured, accurate and summarized manner (Huysamen, 1994). The researchers employed the descriptive statistics such as frequency distribution in order to assess the demographic profile of the respondents. The researchers carried out a quantitative research and this involved some quantitative analyses with the use of statistical tools (descriptive). The researcher unanimously agreed to use the Statistical Product for Social Solutions (SPSS) version 20 for the analysis of data since descriptive statistics mainly involve the mean, and standard deviation in the data analysis.

Model specification

$CS = F(SQ)$

$CS = \beta_0 + \beta_1TAN + \beta_2RES + \beta_3REL + \beta_4ASS + \beta_4EMP + \mu$ ----- Equation 1

Where: CS = Customer satisfaction

TAN= tangibility

RES= responsiveness

REL= reliability

EMP= empathy

ASS= assurance

Table 1: Reliability Test and Validity Test

Cronbach's Alpha		No of Items			
0.879		30			
Validity Test					
	Tangibility	Responsiveness	Reliability	Empathy	Assurance
Tangibility	1	0.833	0.789	0.842	0.932
responsiveness	0.833	1	0.822	0.746	0.870
Reliability	0.789	0.822	1	0.850	0.778
Empathy	0.842	0.746	0.850	1	0.871
Assurance	0.932	0.870	0.778	0.871	1

Source: SPSS Output Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

The study revealed the reliability, the estimate obtained for the Cronbach's Alpha which is 0.879; which is far greater than the required benchmark of 0.75 (Asika, 2001). The study further revealed the results of the validity test that is obtained from the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (PPMC) with a value greater than 0.70. This implies that the instrument of analyses employed for this current study is both reliable and valid appropriate for a study. Furthermore the rate of usable questionnaires from the number of questionnaire administered is 85 percent. This further reinforces the reliability of the instrument employed for the analyses of this study as shown in Table 1 above.

5.6 Data Analysis and Test of hypotheses

Test of Hypothesis 1

H₀₁: Service quality dimensions do not have effects on customer satisfaction in banking sector

Table 3: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.976 ^a	.952	.952	.33792

Predictors: (Constant), tangibility, reliability, responsiveness, empathy, assurance

Source: Authors' computation, 2016

From the regression analysis result in table 3, it was found that R value is (0.976), R-square adjusted (0.952) and the standard error of estimate is (0.33792). the value of R square (R^2) indicates a strong relationship between service quality dimensions and customer satisfaction. In other words, the R^2 value (0.952) means that 95.2% customer satisfaction was explained by service quality dimensions. More so, the value of adjusted R^2 (95.2%) showed that the value of R square (R^2) closely reflected the goodness-of-fit of the data to the regression line.

Table 4: ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1479.109	5	295.822	2590.629	.000 ^b
	Residual	74.337	651	.114		
	Total	1553.446	656			

a. Dependent Variable: customer satisfaction

b. Predictors: (Constant), tangibility, reliability, responsiveness, empathy, assurance

Source: Authors' computation, 2016

In table 4, F-statistics shows that the model is useful in determining service quality by customer satisfaction, as the computed F-statistics which is 2590.629 is greater than the tabulated F-statistics value, with the p-value 0.000 less than the critical value is 0.05. This validates the rejection of the null hypothesis that Service quality dimensions do not have effects on customer satisfaction in banking sector

Table 5: Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.370	.039	-9.586	.000
	TAN	.683	.040	.633	.000
	REL	.125	.035	.112	.000
	RES	.362	.045	.262	.000
	EMP	.075	.028	.077	.007
	ASS	.540	.026	.453	.000

a. Dependent Variable: customer satisfaction

Source: Authors' computation, 2016

Based on table 5 shows (coefficient table), it was observed that the relationship between service quality tangibility and customer satisfaction was significant and positive (t-value=17.078, $p < 0.05$) with 63.3% prediction. The relationship between service quality reliability and customer satisfaction was significant (t-value=3.544, $p < 0.05$) with 11.3% prediction. The relationship between service quality responsiveness and customer satisfaction was significant (t-value=7.960, $p < 0.05$) with 26.2% prediction. This analysis suggested that service quality dimensions are statistically significant for customer satisfaction.

Test of hypothesis 2

H₀₂. There is no relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction in banking industry

Table 6: Correlations

		Service quality	Customer satisfaction
Service quality	Pearson Correlation	1	.935**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	657	657
Customer satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	.935**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	657	657

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

Source: Authors' computation, 2016

This table shows that there is a positive relationship of 93.5% between service quality and customer satisfaction. This means that service quality has a positive relationship of 93.5% with customer satisfaction and the results is significant as the p-value is less than 5% significant level. This further implied that service quality highly correlated with customer satisfaction. Consequently, the null hypothesis which states that there is no relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction in banking industry is rejected and its alternative is accepted.

6. Findings and Discussion

A total of 250 questionnaires were administered out of which 208 were completely filled and returned. This represented a response rate of 83.2% and this was considered satisfactory for the analysis. Results from the descriptive statistics indicate that 174 were within 31-39yrs this shows that majority of the respondent are within the age of 31-39 with a cumulative percentage of 43.5%. With this, the banking sector has a large number of young men and women who can participate actively in banking activities as a result of their creativity and exposure. 152 were female with a cumulative

percentage of 38.0%, 178 respondents were undergraduate with 44.5%, 214 respondents has 5-10 years of doing business with the bank with represent 53.5% and which 154 respondents operates savings account representing 38.5%. Hypothesis 1 analysis suggested that service quality dimensions are statistically significant for customer satisfaction. Hypothesis two shows that service quality and customer satisfaction are positively significant to each other.

7. Conclusion and Recommendations

From the overall outcomes and association in this research paper the researcher found that service quality create impact on consumer satisfaction. The data were collected from the customer of money deposit banks in Ilorin metropolis. The result shows that services provided by the bank are good and customers are satisfied services delivered by the bank. From the data collected from customers found that positive service can increase the customer's satisfaction. This study demonstrates that service quality can affect the overall customer satisfaction. In the present competitive Nigeria banking context, bank customers are presented with a wider choice of services and products. Therefore, to gain customer loyalty, banks need

to deliver superior services which exceed customer expectations. To achieve this objective, banks need to understand how customers evaluate the quality of the services they offer, how customers choose a bank in preference to another bank, and on what principle customers give their long-term patronage. Banks should not just focus on improving customer satisfaction but also target on improving customer perceptions of overall service quality and simultaneously, increasing customer's perceived value of the bank.

Customer satisfaction is a critical business requirement. Customer value is an asset to the organization. While, quality service is essential in today's competitive market. The objective of this study was to find out service quality on customer satisfaction with respect to service quality dimensions. A list of recommendations has been presented based on the findings of the survey conducted on customers of banking sectors in Ilorin metropolis.

The management needs to improve quality services so as to satisfy customer's needs. The bank needs to pay much attention on the customer complaints in order satisfy the customer's expectation and delivering on its promises to the customers will bring high level of reliability.

The study further recommended that for Nigerian banks to be more responsive, it needs to look at service render from the view point of the customer rather than the banks' perspective and dimensions.

The bank can set itself as a market leader in customer service delivery by going beyond the conventional way of dealing with customers that is attending to customer in a unique way in order to make them more reliable to customers.

Nigerian bank managers need to ensure that they improve the methods of service delivery to customers in order to maintain and enjoy continuous patronage from their customers.

The study finally recommended that banks employees should be knowledgeable and have courtesy and ability to convey trust and confidence at all times. This will bring high

level of assurance to the stake holders in the industry.

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A Review of Accounting Skills Acquisition in Business Education, Enhancing Career Success

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Abstract. Accounting skill was found to be contributory to entrepreneurial performance and as such entrepreneurs are advised to embark on capacity building in accounting skill in the area of financial management and record keeping. Entrepreneurs are agents and drivers of development in most economies of the world including Nigeria. Accounting is the core academic discipline that aids the entrepreneurial drive given the popular opinion that is the language of business. The objective of this study is to examine the role of accounting on entrepreneurship education for self-reliance and sustainable development in Nigeria. The study considered the accounting profession and the major role it plays in entrepreneurship development. It is the submission of the authors that entrepreneurs with basic accounting knowledge and entrepreneurial skills stand better chances of becoming self-reliant and attaining business success. The paper recommends among other things that government should remove those obstacles that militate against entrepreneurial development in Nigeria.

1. Introduction

The aim of entrepreneurship training as stipulated by the European Commission 2008, among others include; raising awareness of students about business skills, knowledge, promoting creativity, innovation and self-employment. This calls for entrepreneurship education that will equip the students upon graduation to be fitted in the dynamic society. This includes the acquisition of skills in areas that will be useful to business students and make them self-

reliant, independent and productive citizens of the society. This paper examines therefore, the concepts of Business education, entrepreneurship education, its skills and skills acquisition. It further discusses how students can acquire skills in accounting as aspect of business education which is a tool that will enable him/her fit comfortable in his environment as an individual. Finally, strategies for promoting entrepreneurship in Business Education curriculum which include business teacher entrepreneur counselor, school workshops and seminars and acquisition of entrepreneurship education skills are also discussed. It is recommended among others that the curriculum developers should integrate those subjects that will help the students to acquire necessary skills needed for sustenance of one's life and the society at large.

Education lies at the heart of every society. It is a key and a vital element in the broad development of the nation's youth's capacity to address and solves difficulties. Education forms the basis for the proactive and positive economic, social and political changes in the society. Education remains the key to empowerment of the people and the nations as a whole. Ibrahim, 2012).

Education consolidates and builds upon basic education to empower the youth to really live, function as a productive member of the society, earning a living, and contributing to societal progress. Business education continuously builds on the knowledge, skills, values and attitude learnt at the lower phases of education. The greatest weapon

against poverty is education of the youths. (Kibuuka, 2007). The author further explains that any form of education that does not equip its beneficiaries with skills to be self-reliant is a faulty system of education. Sani (2009) believes that business education must be ready to offer their recipients functional education that will enhance performance as well as assist them to contribute meaning to the economic development of the country.

According to Adamu (2014) the desire of the Nigeria government to attain the vision 20-20:20 20 and Millennium Development Goals (MDG) propelled the Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council to revise the secondary education curricula. The reason for this exercise is the transformation at the curriculum with the entrepreneurial education, informational communication technology (ICT) skills, and civic education and for the nation's sustainable development.

The demand for higher education, particularly university education is on the increase all over the world. Entrepreneurship education prepares youths to be responsible and entering individuals, who become entrepreneurs or entrepreneurial thinkers by exposing them in real life learning experiences where they will be required to think, take risks, manage circumstances and incidentally learn from the outcome Ibrahim, (2012). Yusuf (2016) observes that entrepreneurship education enables youths to sekk for success in ventures through one's effort. Buttressing the above view, Adamu (2014), asserts that entrepreneurial education and ICT skills have been acknowledged world wide as a potent and viable tools for self-empowerment, job and wealth creation. Business education has three basic career options, such as skilled, vocational option, professional option and executive business education option. Adam, (2014). The professional option include: auditing, administration and the accountancy profession (Accounting), therefore, the accounting option is the focus for this study.

Business education as a discipline is expected to expose its recipients to diversity curricula, hence, it is that type of education that inculcate in its recipients attitudes, knowledge, skills, values that is required in the business world. This is a means of producing a healthy, literate self-reliant citizen that

would create wealth for human development, when they become self-employed, thereby resulting to sustainable nation's development at large. Business education must have impacted accounting skills and creative knowledge required for employment generation opportunities, such entrepreneurial skills and accounting competences that would also make the business graduates to adopt some strategic survival instincts.

2. Concept of Business Education

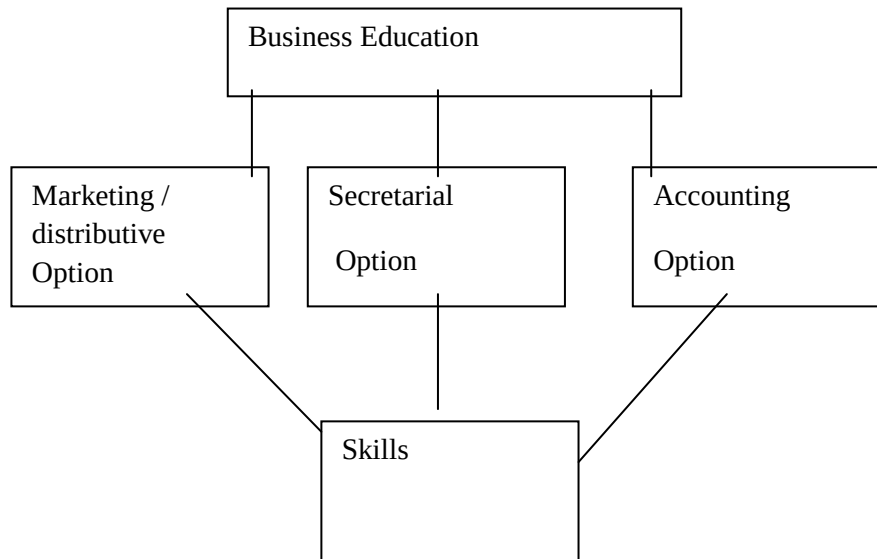
Business education means many things to many people. Aliyu (1999) sees business education as a programme in education that prepares students for entry into and advancement of jobs within the business. Aliyu (1999) have it as a programme one needs to be proud of if properly designed, adequately prepared and religiously harmonized. Aliyu further affirms that business education is an educational programme which involves acquisition of skills, knowledge and competences which makes the recipient/beneficiary proficient. It is an umbrella under which all business programmes take a shield, such as marketing, business administration, secretarial studies and accounting.

Business education is a dynamic field of study geared towards preparing youths and adults for and about business. It is a preparation for a career in business when instruction is designed to prepare youths and adults for actual practice in the world of business. On the other hand, education about business involves preparation of youths and adults for intelligent and effective consumption of economic goods and services offered to society in our free enterprise economy. Adeslina (2012)

However, business education will produce responsible, productive and self-reliant citizens. This highlights the importance of Business Education in inculcating in the recipients knowledge, values, attitudes and skills needed in the business world. The objectives of business education cannot be over emphasized, hence, business education generally are borne out of the needs of industry, commerce and society. In addition, it is career oriented that aims at preparing people for gainful employment.

2.1 The Areas of Business Education

Business education is however, broadly divided into three areas. Thus Marketing/Distributive, Secretarial and Accounting education.



These aspects of branches call for many career opportunities in Business Education such as retailing, wholesaling, word processing, record keeping, preparation of financial report, auditing, consultancy services, advertising and public relation among others. All these recommended business education as a vital tool for entrepreneurship. It is primarily concerned with assisting the individual to be useful and as well as improving his/herself in the business world which will in turn lead to the improvement of the society at large. All these depend on how effective business education curriculum is implemented by the business educators. The relevance of Business Education as a vital tool for entrepreneurship is the focus of this paper with reference to accounting skills as a branch of business education.

2.2 Skills acquisition in the three aspects of Business Education

A business educator is one who studied and is qualified in all areas of Business Education. It is a professional field providing training not only as teachers of business courses but also to fit individual into occupations outside the classroom (Okoh, 1999). The development of skills varies with the nature, complexity and the type of activity. An individual who goes for skill apprenticeship training should possess the following qualities; interest, ability, aptitude, patience, Personality characteristics and other human physical qualities that would enable the to succeed. People that acquire good working

skills continue in spirit of difficulty of danger. All these as it relates to business education; accounting aspect.

2.3 Skills in Business Education (Accounting)

In every business establishment, be it government establishment, parastatals, private companies, banks and other financial institutions, the importance of accounting cannot be overemphasized. Umunah (1992), explained that accounting education is regarded as an area of study needed to equip the youths with knowledge, skills and attitude necessary for efficient financial calculation required for occupational competence, and economic activities of an organization are measured, recorded and communicated to interest parties for analysis and interpretation. This is rooted on the need to keep the records of business transactions. Both Umunah (1992) and Ahukannah, Ndinechi and Arukwe (1989) were of the opinion that the role of accounting activities in the operation of business enterprise are recording financial data, analyzing financial data, preparation of accounting statements and communicating financial information to employers.

Osuala (1989) believed that book keepers are employed in various business and industries including government agencies. The author stressed that book-keepers perform the following duties, make entries in ledger accounts, use the telephone, make journal entries, use the adding and calculating

machine, examining and/or sort business papers, prepare operating and/or financial statements, prepare trial balance, type bills, invoices and statements, balance cash daily, keep inventory records, prepare cheques, reports and payrolls etc. Ahukannah, Ndinechi and Arukwe (1989) are of the opinion that success in accounting occupations requires the following personal traits: accuracy and neatness, confidentiality, attention to details, mathematical ability, skill in using mechanical calculators, organizational and analytical abilities, as well as ability to work under pressure.

The National Board for Technical Education (1991) and Nnamdi Azikiwe University agreed that the syllabus for accounting education to be taught in the university is: financial accounting, auditing, cost accounting, taxation, business law, data processing, advanced financial accounting, advanced costing, financial management, managerial economics and management accounting etc. Apart from the training accounting graduates of business teacher education programmes got in teaching methodology and practice, they are as well versed in some major accounting courses such as taxation, costing, accounting, business law, business management, data processing, auditing, business communication, financial accounting, bank courses — money and banking, principles of economics etc. knowledge acquired from the above listed courses will enable these graduates to secure employment in various sectors of the economy, both in private and public organization.

From the course enumerated above, graduates of business teacher education programmes have got the entry qualification for acquiring accounting jobs. In the views of Ahukannah, Ndinechi and Arukwe (1989) the business training received in the junior secondary schools is a good starting point for a career in accounting. They further stressed that one will, however, require additional training in a polytechnic or a university to qualify as an accountant. The training may also be from NCE/B.Sc. business teacher education programmes.

Agbogu (1992) believed that opportunities exist for accounting graduates of business teacher education programmes for self-employment as well as employment in certain areas and allied professions. The author further explained that they (the graduates) could set up accounting firms and render such services as consultancy, auditing and preparing accurate business records for taxation for private and public enterprises. These graduates could also run

accounting schools and prepare students for accounting and allied examination as a part-time jobs. The above mentioned qualifications, courses, competencies and duties performed by these graduates, offer high status jobs/fields of opportunities as indicated by Osuala (1987), Osuala (1989), Ahukannah, Ndinechi and Arukwe (1989) and Agbobu (1992) below: acting as book-keepers (manual and machine), being accounting officers, serving as bank officers and tellers, working as data entry computer officers, serving as billing officers, being accountants (tax, cost, system analysis), acting as loan counselors, serving as auditors (internal and external), credit controllers, working as programmers and system analyst.

3. Accounting Skills Required by Business Education Graduates (Accountants) for Successful Operation of a Business Enterprise

Osuala (1995) is of the view that there is a correlation between inadequate record and the business organizations of which this constitute a major problem. Accounting is the systematic recording of financial transactions. It is a service activity, the function of which is identifying, measuring, recording and communicating quantitative information, primarily financial in nature. About economic entities, Ezeani (2008) sees accounting as the process of expressing the economic activities of everyday life in money terms, so that we may estimate the costs of creating goods and services, make decisions about production on the basis of these estimates, compare the actual costs as they occur with the estimate originally made, and adjust the output and prices of goods and services accordingly. Ezeani (2008) sees accounting as a set of themes, concepts or ideas and techniques by which financial data are processed into meaningful information for reporting, planning, controlling and decision making purposes; situation according to him may create some difficulties for the entrepreneur, as he may not come to full appreciation of the meaningful relationship between financial activities and results. The author however, advised that the entrepreneur should make effort to acquire knowledge/basic competences of financial accounting as success can only come to his/her business through such efforts.

Akintola (2008) stated that accounting provides information for three broad purposes or uses, thus:

- Managing decision making

- Managing planning, controlling and internal performance evaluation.
- Financial reporting and external performance evaluation
- The Nigeria Small Business Practitioners Association (NSPA) enumerated the objectives of accounting information and statement to include the following:
- To provide information useful for making decisions
- To yield an accurate and true picture of operating results
- To supply information useful in judging management's ability to utilize enterprise goals
- To provide information useful to investors and evaluating potential cash flows to them in terms of amount, timing and related uncertainty
- To provide users with information for predicting, comparing and evaluating enterprise earning power
- To permit prompt filling of report and tax collecting agencies and
- To reveal all possible employee frauds, wastes, theft and record keeping errors.

Having basic accounting knowledge or skills does not necessary imply that the proprietor (entrepreneur) should be able to appreciate the contributions that accounting information offers in solving both financial problems that may arise from financial statements. He should be able to keep and maintain records of receipts and payments (cash book), income and expenditure and a balance sheet for the business.

Adeshina (2015) advised that the need of modern business make it essential for all managers (entrepreneurs) to have a sound appreciation of the financial implications for their plans and actions. They went further to explain that in the competitive world, the key factors are costs, prices, turnover and profits. These are factors which no manager can ignore. Therefore, it is very important that every entrepreneur possess the basic or fundamental knowledge of accounting. They should be able to appreciate and interpret simple accounting statements. This will help in reducing the rate at which small-scale business go into liquidation.

Akpotowoh and Amahi (2006) identified some of the accounting and financial skills required by entrepreneur in business related areas for successful operation of a business enterprise to include:

- Knowledge of accounts
- Knowledge of costing
- Ability to interpret financial statement
- Ability to acquire the skill of preparing financial statements
- Ability to understand payroll and various deductions
- Ability to know gross and net profit
- Ability to know sources of funds
- Ability to know how to obtain loans
- A knowledge of federal, state and local government levies, taxes and regulations
- Acknowledge of factors involved in decision to grant loan by financial houses.

Other accounting skills required

- Ability to process accounts receivable and accounts payable
- Ability to process inventories
- Ability to prepare ledgers and extract the trial balance
- Ability to prepare daily cash reports
- Ability to prepare bank reconciliation statements
- Ability to keep sales and purchases records
- Ability to keep debtors ledgers
- Ability to prepare final accounts, profit and loss accounts and the balance sheet
- Ability to calculate depreciation
- Ability to avoid unplanned expenditures and to prepare simple budget.

4. The Accounting Profession/ Skills

The accounting profession has been described as the backbone of our societal life. This is because in the words of Ibrahim (2014) business organizations use accounting information to plan and control their activities and to report the results of these activities to shareholders, creditors, labour unions and government agencies. Non- profit organizations such as churches, town unions and clubs also use accounting information for planning, conducting and reporting their activities. The Federal, State, Local Governments and other government agencies use accounting information in similar ways. According to Adegite (2010) the accounting profession speaks the language of business as it record all transactions of organizations that have monetary implications. Thus accounting is that discipline that involves the systematic gathering, classification, recording, analysis, interpretation and transmission of information to assist users make economic decision. The accounting profession according to Evbodaghe

(2009) has been responsible for the spread of financial knowledge and for a commitment to help business and non-business organizations develop the capacity to success. Even at the global level, the international accountancy profession has helped several countries to build stronger and more stable economies. In fact the profession is empowered by investor confidence and public trust without which the credibility of the information prepared and presented by the management of the organization will be at risk. In Nigeria, the practice of accounting is guided by the code of conduct of the institute of chartered Accountant of Nigeria (ICAN) and code of Ethics of the Association of National Accountants of Nigeria (ANAN)- the two legally recognized accounting bodies in Nigeria. According to Ajibolade (2008) the ICAN code of Conduct and ANAN code of Ethics are devoted to such ethical issues as integrity, transparency and accountability.

Accounting skills are the totally of skills ranging from record keeping, attention directing, financial management and reporting skills that are expected to promote effective decision, performance evaluation and business reporting of any business enterprise, (Akanke 2011). He further stated that attention directing skill enables the owner manager to make vital decision on production and pricing issues while reporting skill describes the method, and technique by which business information are reported to the stakeholders of the business.

According to the Accounting Education Change Commission (AECC 1990) to be successful in their careers, accounting graduates need skills and abilities that beyond accounting technical knowledge, they include communication skills, analytical skills and interpersonal skills. Accounting graduates are also expected to be able to receive and send information, identify and solve unstructured problems in unfamiliar settings and exercise judgment, Agbiogwu (2010) highlighted nine (9) common traits to entrepreneurs besides accounting skills.

They are as follows:

- Physical and mental stamina
- A desire to take control of their own destiny
- A competitive instinct
- Resilience in the face of defeat
- Good Judgment
- Decisiveness
- The ability to inspire others
- An unfailing positive attitude
- Great communication skills.

5. Managing business Finances

One way of keeping tabs on the flow of money is through accounting. By accounting, we mean a system used to record, classify, summarise and interpret the financial data of a business (Brown & Clow 1992). They further stated that the financial data are made up of the transactions that occur in the daily operations of the business. A good entrepreneur should be able to be conversant with common sources and uses of funds in a business. The diagram below shows the various sources and used of funds in a typical business

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

Business education students in the tertiary institution can benefit from school education when they are exposed to entrepreneurship, equipped with different skills that are education saleable in the labour market. Those students who were equipped with skills that can make them confident, self-reliant and useful citizens were adequately accommodated by the world of business and the society at large.

7. Recommendations

The following recommendations were drawn:

- The higher institutions should focus on curriculum that is aimed at a growing job market and expanding the production of qualified professionals most required by industries.
- Entrepreneurship education in the universities should be adequately funded. This can be achieved through increase in the budgetary allocation to the universities by the government. With adequate funding, universities will be able to establish entrepreneurial development centers for practical work and the provision of training/instructional material for the programme.
- There should be provision for periodic retraining of the teachers to update their knowledge in the various areas of entrepreneurship and in the use of information and communication technology. This will expose them to modern trends in entrepreneurship across the globe and enhance effective teaching.
- Lecturers should re-dedicate themselves by attending more workshops, seminars to acquaint themselves with these skills so that they can in turn, impart same in the students.

- Entrepreneurship education should become a main-stream activity in education to enable transformations to take place very fast in the nation.

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Entrepreneurship Education Content and Venture Creation Potential Among Colleges Of Education Graduates In Kano State Nigeria

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Abstract. The study examined the relationship between entrepreneurship education content and venture creation potentials among graduates of College of Education in Kano state Nigeria. The design was descriptive and involved 385 graduates randomly selected from three Colleges of Education. Data were collected using a researcher made questionnaire. Descriptive statistics, Pearson's linear correlation and linear regression were used to analyze data. The findings revealed a positive significant relationship between entrepreneurship education content and venture creation potentials among graduates of Colleges of Education in Kano state Nigeria ($F = 24.868$, $Sig. = 0.000$), hence rejecting the null hypothesis. This led to the conclusion that entrepreneurship education content has a strong positive relationship with venture creation potentials among graduates of Colleges of Education in Kano state Nigeria. It is recommended that government and other stakeholders should establish standard entrepreneurship education centers, where students can put the content learned in classrooms into practice. This adds more weight in developing their interest towards venture creation as a means for self-employment.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship education, venture creation, potentials

1. Introduction

Education serves as a mechanism for changing the behaviour and attitude of individual citizens, as well as the state economic growth at large. Entrepreneurship education as a skills acquisition

program enables one to observe opportunities, take advantage of them and create a business venture.

The world today is very dynamic in nature and this dynamism is due to changes brought by creativity and innovation. Therefore, for a country's economy to be vibrant these days, its citizens must be creative and innovative in various capacities. To accomplish this, government intervention is necessary. Among the active machinery for a government to meet such obligations are; 1) acting as a protector 2) provider and 3) investing in individual talent (Slaughter, 2017). The concerned point here is investing in individual talent, and that means giving adequate priority to education. The high rate of unemployment in the world especially in developing countries is alarming and this gave birth to search for strategies to carve the menace. If we want young people to succeed in the global job market, there needs to be a stronger focus on entrepreneurial education! Young people need to be equipped with relevant skills and knowledge. We must prepare them better for what is a very fast-paced, constantly changing economy, where we need more job creators and enterprising employees (Damge, 2016).

The World Bank report indicated that only one in every ten graduates get a job while a recent report by the National Directorate of Employment (NDE) indicated that over 200,000 Nigerian graduates who completed the National Youth Service Corps (NYSC) in the last five years, remained unemployed (Igwe, Adebayo, Olakanmi, Ogbonna, & Aina, 2013). A vibrant economy is one that is productive in nature, and that is possible when individuals as a group or in person together with government create

an avenue that will yield a positive result in terms of economic growth.

Nigeria faces a number of challenges that can only be met if she has innovative, well-educated, and entrepreneurial citizens who, whatever their walks of life, have the spirit and inquisitiveness to think in new ways, and the courage to meet and adapt to the challenges facing them. At the same time, given the current socio-economic and political stance of the country, a thriving economy would require a greater number of young people who are willing and able to become entrepreneurs; who can launch and successfully develop their own commercial or social ventures and who will become innovators in the wider organizations in which they work (Aja-okorie, 2013). This study was conducted to establish whether entrepreneurship education has a significant influence on the venture creation potentials of the graduates of Colleges of Education in Kano state Nigeria.

2. Literature Review

Any course handled in a formal school system needs curriculum, methods, content and environment. Competencies and development of mindset are among the goals and objective of entrepreneurship education. In connection to that Illeris (2013) in Rasmussen *et al.* (2015), claims that competencies are not only based on knowledge and skills, but also on more subjective dispositions and various possible courses of action in uncertain situations. Therefore, entrepreneurship education must have content which; 1) supports the development of students' entrepreneurial knowledge and skills; 2) supports the development of students' personal and emotional resources; 3) provides students with experience in applying knowledge, skills and personal resources in value-creating processes. In Illeris (2013), it is indicated that knowledge and skills are part of the content of entrepreneurship education but it never ends there. White (2015) contends that an enterprising attitude and skills for self-employment can be developed in any individual as a genuine discipline, provided that the appropriate knowledge is presented in the right place, in the right manner and at the right time. This implies that entrepreneurial skills such as venture creation potentials can be created among students if the right content is designed and imparted into them.

While there can be different entrepreneurship education contents, White (2015), provides three content aspects namely attitude, skills and knowledge. White's conceptualization seems to have been earlier emphasized by the European activities in entrepreneurship education from Oslo agenda (2006) to European education and training strategy (2020), where it was mentioned that knowledge, skills and attitude are related to what they called the essential key competencies (Agenda, 2006). The Oslo agenda defined the three content areas as follows; 1) knowledge, refers to the ability to identify available opportunities, a broad understanding of the workings of the economies and challenges facing employers or organizations and awareness of the ethical position of enterprises; 2) skills refer to the ability to plan, organize, manage, lead and evaluate; effective representation and negotiation; ability to work both as an individual and collaboratively in teams; ability to judge and identify one's strengths and weaknesses, to assess and take risks; 3) attitude is characterized by initiative, independence, motivation and determination to meet objectives, pro-activity, innovation in personal and social life.

The teaching of entrepreneurship remains a topic of discussion in the academia. Different suggestions are given in respect to what exactly should be taught in entrepreneurship programs and what approaches should be taken in teaching them. Despite the fact that the purpose of teaching entrepreneurship is similar, entrepreneurship education faces diversity with respect to teaching strategies, learning styles and curricula design" which indicates a wide differentiation among the study programs and the individual style of each lecturer (Henry *et al.*, 2003 in Dunchev & Neergaard, 2012). Gibb (2002) in Dunchev & Neergard (2012) suggests three main building blocks that should create an effective entrepreneurial education. He supports the idea that a more broad approach should be implemented by combining behavior, attributes and skills. The author argues that behavior can be directly observed and measured, while attributes are more personally related and remain individual and specific. In respect to skills, he suggests that they can be learned and developed. He further suggests a list of specific important elements in respect to behavior, attributes and skills (Dunchev & Neergaard, 2012), as summarized in table 1.

Table 1: Content of Entrepreneurship Education

Building element of entrepreneurship education content	Aspect of importance
Behavior	Finding opportunities, grasping opportunities, fixing things and bringing networks effectively, taking initiatives, being able to take risks under conditions of uncertainty and through judgment, persevering to achieve a goal and strategic thinking
Attributes	Motivation to achievement, self-confidence, creativity, autonomy and high locus of control, hard work, commitment and determination
Skills	Negotiation, persuasion, selling, proposing, project management, time management, strategizing, creative problem solving

Source: (Gibb, 2002 in Dunchev & Neergaard, 2012)

The educational framework suggested by Gibb (2002) contradicts opinions expressed by Miller (1987) as reported by Dunchev & Neergaard (2012). The acquisition of various analytical techniques for setting up a business, for example, is one of the aspects welcomed by the author and recommended it to be taught in class. The development of features such as persistence, confidence and high energy level, however, are seen as strictly individual and hardly changeable by any means of education which can be seen as a rejection of the self-efficacy proposition and in contradiction to the findings of Gibb (2002).

There is no doubt that the above mentioned successful entrepreneurship features and traits suggested by Gibb (2002) are essential for the creation of business-minded individuals (Dunchev & Neergaard, 2012). According to Nwosu & Ohia (2009) in (Akpan, 2013), entrepreneurship education is that aspect of education which equips an individual and creates in the person the mindset to undertake the risk of venturing into something new by applying the knowledge and skills acquired in school. This means that entrepreneurship education helps to provide students with the knowledge, skills and motivation to encourage entrepreneurship in a variety of settings.

In a study conducted by Uche & Adesope (2009) in (Akpan, 2013), it was discovered that lecturers imparted to the students entrepreneurial skills, including independent-minded skills, skills to start a small scale business, communication/proposal presentation skills, time management skills, risk-taking skills, business management skills, corporate management skills and attitude to work.

Premand *et al.* (2012) conducted an experimental study in Tunisia, in an attempt to find out the most relevant content in teaching entrepreneurship. A new package of entrepreneurship education/training was designed and taught to a randomly selected group of students, while the old curriculum was reserved and taught to another (control) group in the same period.

After the graduation of the two groups, a follow-up study discovered that a bigger number of students exposed to a new entrepreneurship content had become self-employed compared to their counterparts who were not exposed to the new content. It was deduced that the new curriculum designed had more relevant content compared to the old one. The new content focused on business skills, expanded networks and behavioral skills. Participation in the entrepreneurship track also increased graduates' sense of opportunities and optimism towards the future.

3. Knowledge Acquisition and Venture Creation Potential

Entrepreneurs work in a fast changing, highly complex environment and thereby execute varying roles and tasks dependent on the life-cycle of the entrepreneurial venture (Frese & Gielnik, 2014). Frese & Gielnik further explained that entrepreneurs need to act as inventors, investors, accountants, facilitators, organizational change specialists, leaders, technologists, marketing specialists, and top salespeople. All these cannot effectively carry out without knowledge, for that, the more knowledge and skills the entrepreneur is able to bring to the table, the better. In one perspective knowledge acquisition is the process of extracting, structuring and organizing knowledge from one source, usually human experts (Calantone & Benedetto, 1991). But in another perspective knowledge can be developed from a range of sources such as textbooks, manuals, simulation models and experience especially that of entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurs bring knowledge and experience from past educational, business, and hobby activities that may be valuable in spotting new business opportunities and in running firms once they are launched (Dencker, Gruber, & Shah, 2007). This dynamic environment demands constant learning from the entrepreneur in order to successfully explore and exploit entrepreneurial opportunities (Cope 2005b; Minniti & Bygrave, 2001) as cited in (Fienhold, 2016). In a formal educational setting learning entrepreneurial strategy

is paramount especially in developing the mindset of an individual towards establishing new business venture or value addition on existing product or services. The entrepreneurs' previous education provided learning applicable to the startup operations; especially when the education was related to entrepreneurship or business management (Fienhold, 2016).

In a study conducted by Fienhold (2016) on knowledge acquisition of generation Y entrepreneurs: antecedents of entrepreneurs' learning choices, she found that learning needs related to the environment and entrepreneurial networks were relevant from the beginning on; customer- and supplier relationship management was relevant to build customer trust and customer retention. Also, customers and suppliers acted as a valuable source of information and as co-developers of products and services.

In another study conducted by Dencker et al., (2007) on knowledge acquisition activities, prior knowledge and experience & the survival of new firms, they found that knowledge acquisition activities can be a great asset for a new firm, and learning by doing can compensate for low levels of prior knowledge and experience. However, the extent of change created by such activities may also be constrained or facilitated by the founders' prior knowledge and experience.

4. Skill Development and Venture Creation Potential

Globally, entrepreneurship skill acquisition programs introduced into educational institutions were meant to provide the level of education or knowledge needed to exploit entrepreneurial opportunity which could help the economic development of such countries (Shane, 2003). Entrepreneurship involves the acquisition of useful skills and ideas that are necessary for self-reliance and job creation. It is a vehicle through which a sustainable economy can evolve and be created (Nnadi, 2016). Nnadi further said, most studies agree that entrepreneurial skills can be achieved through qualitative education which is provided in tertiary education. Such qualitative training enhances the employability skills of the recipients; and prepares the individuals for the labour market. The quality of instruction for teaching entrepreneurship education therefore, matters a lot for the fact that the course was introduced into tertiary institution by Federal government of Nigeria with the aim of curbing the

menace of youth unemployment if content is not well grounded the aim may be defeated. Content of entrepreneurship education

The knowledge of the entrepreneur is based on the cognitive skills, social and relational skills, technical skills and management skills. This mixture is crucial to creating and running a business (Sousa & Almeida, 2014). To further elaborate the definition Sousa and Almeida said; cognitive skills include creative thinking, formulation and problem solving, decision making and initiative. Social and relational skills include communication skill, capacity for teamwork and ability to adapt to new situations. Technical skills integrate concepts of technical expertise including working methods, processes and contexts. Management skills integrate knowledge about potential strategies to adopt in the company, capacity planning and setting strategic goals and ability to make strategic decisions on company policies in their various areas of expertise. But entrepreneurship education in Nigeria colleges of education the emphasis with regard to skill development is more of venture creation which will allow graduates to either create new business or develop existing ones. In connection to that more emphasis on skill with regard to business development was placed in the content of entrepreneurship education as contained in the Nigeria certificate in education minimum standards. Business and entrepreneurship skills are essential for the formation, survival and growth of a new business, as well as for the upgrading of existing small and medium scale enterprise (SMEs) (Platform, 2005). According to Souse & Almeida skills with regard to business development, includes the strategy that the company will adopt, products and/or services, the corporate image management systems (human resources management, financial management, marketing, etc.) and the formal and informal structure of the company. Based on what Souse & Almeida said further elaboration was made on financial management skill where Nnadi (2016) said; Accounting education is among the significant entrepreneurial skills acquired in business schools. The recipients of the skills often progress to establish themselves as professional accountant and bookkeepers. A shortage of these skills in any country can have significant negative effect on the economy (Nnadi, 2016).

In a study conducted by Ekpe & Razak (2016) on entrepreneurial skill acquisition psychosocial factors and youth's self-employment in Malaysia Kelantan, generally, the results of the study indicated that entrepreneurial skill acquisition, self motivation and

social influence had significant positive relationship with self-employment among Malaysian graduate youths (Ekpe & Razak, 2016).

In another study conducted by Emaikwu (2011) on integrating entrepreneurship skills acquisition in the university curriculum for national development concluded by saying that entrepreneurship skill acquisition has become a high priority area in Nigeria today because government has implicit faith and confidence in it as a solution to the problem of unemployment and under-utilization of the human resources. The integration of the entrepreneurship skill acquisition in the university curriculum will give students an opportunity to combine and coordinate all the elements of business management and it will also inculcate entrepreneurial mind-set as well as motivate the students to setup their business ventures on graduation (Emaikwu, 2011).

5. Attitude and Values and Venture Creation Potentials

For some time there has been increased acceptance and acknowledgement that entrepreneurship is an instrumental factor driving the emergence and growth of new business (McMullan, Long & Graham, 1986) as cited by (Caggiano, Akanazu, Furfari, & Hageman, 2016). Most developed and developing countries in the world introduced entrepreneurship education due to the various economic and social challenges. Europe (for example) faces a number of challenges that can only be met if it has innovative, well-educated, and entrepreneurial citizens who, whatever their walk of life, have the spirit and inquisitiveness to think in new ways, and the courage to meet and adapt to the challenges facing them (European Commission, 2012). In another dimension Slaughter (2017) said the dynamism nature of the world at present inclined to changes brought by creativity and innovation. For a country's economy to be vibrant these days its citizens must be creative and innovative in various capacities (Slaughter, 2017). For a country to deal with its challenges both economic and social its citizens to be innovative and creative in nature is among the solution based on what the European commission and Slaughter emphasized. And entrepreneurship education encompasses the aspects of innovation and creativity as well as attitudes and values needed in a modern dynamic economy. Entrepreneurship education is rendered with multiple objectives ranging from personal skill development to innovative venture creation and target audiences are drawn from diversified backgrounds and levels

of education which result in a multiplicity of its definitions (Azim & Al-Kahtani, 2015). This definition is a clear sign that the innovation and creativity cut across almost every discipline and this shows how wider in perspective entrepreneurship education is. Among the important elements of entrepreneurship education content are values and attitude of entrepreneurs. Cultural values and the level of training in entrepreneurship obtained during university training help to shape graduate employees' attitudes towards the labor market (Gorman, Hanlon, & King, 1997, pp. 56-79; Bechard & Toulouse, 1998, pp. 317-332) as cited (Caggiano et al., 2016). Attitude on the other hand, is the predisposition to respond in a generally favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to the object of the attitude (Ajzen 1982; Rosenberg and Hovland 1960; Shaver 1987) as cited (Lindsay, Jordaan, & Lindsay, 1991).

In a study conducted by Stamboulis & Barlas (2014) on "effect of entrepreneurship education on student attitudes" at the University of Thessaly they found that entrepreneurship program implemented at the University of Thessaly has made significant impact on student's attitudes, especially with respect to critical aims such as students' perception of entrepreneurship, their self-confidence to pursue it and their perception of the external environment. Furthermore, there is evidence that there is a more strategic attitude, paying more attention to team building and competences, as well to the value proposition as expressed by the product offered (Stamboulis & Barlas, 2014).

In another study conducted by Tshikovhi & Shambare (2015) on "entrepreneurial knowledge, personal attitudes, and entrepreneurship intentions among South African Enactus students at South Africa the study tested the level of influence a specialized group of study sample has on entrepreneurial knowledge and personal attitudes toward entrepreneurship. The findings revealed evidence that indeed specialized groups are more highly influenced than other groups. Moreover, it was found that personal attitude and entrepreneurial knowledge were the important factors to arouse one to act entrepreneurially (Tshikovhi & Shambare, 2015)

6. Methodology

Using the quantitative approach, descriptive and correlational design was used and data were collected using a self-administered questionnaire (SAQ). The questionnaire comprised three sections.

Section A is made up of demographic variables of the respondents. Section B covered items of entrepreneurship education content (independent variable) with three aspects namely knowledge acquisition, skill development and attitudes and value. Five questions were designed for each element mentioned making a total of fifteen (15) questions. Section C covered items on venture creation potentials (dependent variable) with three aspects namely opportunity identification, business start-up and self-employment with five questions each making a total of fifteen (15) questions as well. The questions in section A were nominal questions with appropriate responses required. The questions in sections B and C were ordinal questions scaled using the four-point Likert scale from a minimum of 1 strongly disagree (SD), 2 disagree (D), 3 agree (A)

and 4 strongly agree (SD). The population of the study consists of 10,235 graduates from the 3 respective colleges. For sample size sloven's formulae, $n = \frac{N}{1+N(e^2)}$ was used and a sample size of 385 was reached. For sampling strategy, a proportional stratified random sampling technique was used as the second procedure under which the sizes of the samples from the different strata are kept proportional to the sizes of the strata (Kothari & Garg, 2016). Therefore 385 sample size was allocated to the three different strata of the colleges of education mathematically below using proportional stratified random sampling. The formula is calculated as follows: Sample size of the strata $n = \frac{\text{Size of entire sample}}{\text{Target population}}$

Table 2: Target Population and Sample Size

College	Target Population	Sample size
Federal College of Education (Technical) Bichi	3932	148
Federal College of Education Kano	1945	73
Sa'adatu Rimi College of Education Kano	4345	164
Total	10235	385

7. Data Management

The data collected were processed by coding all data questionnaires, entering them into the computer using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), summarizing them using frequency tables and editing them to remove errors. To establish validity, face validity, content validity index (CVI) and constructs validity were conducted in the study. The supervisors checked the questionnaire and the interview guide as face validity. Content validity was conducted in the study where the researcher seeks expert opinion on the relevance, wording and clarity of the items in the instrument developed before data was collected, in line to that 6 experts checked the instrument. For constructs validity, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Test was used and the results for entrepreneurship education content (IV) revealed

0.779 and it was interpreted as middling, while for venture creation potential the KMO value was 0.654 and interpreted as mediocre (Cerny & Kaiser, 1977). To establish reliability Cronbach's alpha was used and the result shows 0.729 for entrepreneurship education content (IV) and interpreted as acceptable while for venture creation potential it was 0.769 also interpreted as acceptable (Gliem & Gliem, 2003). The data analysis involved descriptive, correlation and regression analyses. The descriptive analysis involved percentages from the frequency tables, mean and the standard deviation. In correlation, the dependent variable (DV) venture creation potential was correlated with the independent variable entrepreneurship education content and using regression as well the DV was regressed with the IV using multiple regression.

8. Results and Discussions

Table 3: Demographic characteristics of respondents

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	212	65.8
Female	110	34.2
Total	322	100.0
Age		
Less than 20	14	4.3
20 – 25	157	48.8
26 – 30	102	31.7
Above 30	49	15.2
Total	322	100.0

Institution		
FCE (T) BICHI	122	37.9
FCE Kano	68	21.1
SRCOE Kano	132	41.0
Total	322	100.0

Source: Primary data (2016)

Table 3 results indicate that more male respondents were sample to answer the questionnaire with 65.8% as compared to their female counterparts (34.2%). This result is consistent with the gender distribution of students in tertiary institutions, where males still outnumber female students. This may be attributed due to the fact that, most female students get married on the way before reaching tertiary institutions.

Regarding age, the results indicate that, graduates whose age is below 20 were only 14 (4.3%), those whose age ranges 20 – 25 were 157 (48.8%), those of 26 – 30 were 102 (31.7%) while those above 30 years of age were 49 (15.2%). The results suggest that over 80% of the respondents were between 20 – 30 years. This is consistent with a 9-3-4 system of education currently being used in Nigeria, which takes a minimum of 16 years for someone to finish university and if that person started at four years, he/she must finish normally at 20 years minimum, assuming that he/she did not repeat any class or skip

Mean range

3.26 - 4.00

2.51 - 3.25

1.76 - 2.50

1.00 - 1.75

Response range

Strongly agree

Agree

Disagree

Strongly disagree

any. Therefore, after graduation, the age of a student would range from a minimum of 20 – 24 years.

Venture Creation Potential

The dependent variable (DV) venture creation potential, was a three-dimensional concept and was measured using three constructs, namely opportunity identification, business start-up, and self-employment. Each of the three constructs was measured using a four-point Likert scale. The response modes for the venture creation potential instrument were 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Agree and 4 = Strongly Agree. To indicate the extent to which respondents rated their venture creation potential, the responses from the 15 question items were summarised using means and standard deviations as indicated in table 2. To interpret the means in table 3 the following mean ranges were used:

Interpretation

Very high potential

High potential

Low potential

Very low potential

Table 4: Descriptive statistics on the level of Venture Creation Potential (n=322)

Constructs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Interpretation
Opportunity identification	2.76	.600	High potential
Business start-up	2.87	.620	High potential
Self-employment	2.97	.475	High potential
Overall Mean for Venture Creation Potential	2.87	.438	High potential

Source: Researcher's computation from field survey data (2017)

Table 4 findings indicate that respondents rated their venture creation potential to be generally high for all aspects of venture creation potential examined in this study (Overall mean = 2.87). Their venture creation potential was rated highest on the aspect of potential for self-employment, with a mean of 2.97 and a standard deviation of 0.475, which is generally, suggesting that responses are not much dispersed and so the mean position is most likely the true position of these respondents. The results suggest that all respondents agreed that they were currently looking for all chances of becoming self employed, whether they had a job or not, which means that there are high chances that many of them will create ventures.

The potential to start up a business was the construct rated second out of the three, with an average mean of 2.87, with a standard deviation of 0.620, interpreted as high potential, suggesting that respondents rated themselves as having a high potential to physically start a business.

The results further reveal that the potential to identify a business opportunity was rated lowest among the three aspects used to measure venture creation potential, with an average mean of 2.76 and a standard deviation of 0.600. This proves that opportunity identification, as a starting point for venture creation remains the most contributing factor to employment creation.

8.1 Entrepreneurship Education Content and Venture Creation Potential

To investigate the entrepreneurship education content, respondents were asked to indicate the impact of entrepreneurship education content in them, that is to say, their ability to react to certain situation as a result of acquiring entrepreneurship education knowledge, the skill they can portray as well as the capacity at which it changes their attitude

and values. Three items were used in measuring these elements of entrepreneurship education content namely: knowledge acquisition, skill development and attitude and values based on a four-point Likert scale where 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Agree and 4 = Strongly Agree. Results of descriptive analysis on content quality are presented item by item in table 5. To interpret the means in table 4, the following mean ranges were used.

Description of Entrepreneurship education content

<i>Mean range</i>	<i>Response range</i>	<i>Interpretation</i>
3.26 - 4.00	Strongly agree	Very effective
2.51 - 3.25	Agree	Effective
1.76 - 2.50	Disagree	Ineffective
1.00 - 1.75	Strongly disagree	Very ineffective

Table 5: Means and standard deviations on Entrepreneurship education Content among graduates' of colleges of education in Kano state Nigeria (n = 322)

Elements	Mean	Std. Dev.	Interpretation
Knowledge acquisition	2.88	.542	Effective
Skills Development	2.87	.542	Effective
Attitude and Values	2.72	.588	Effective
Overall Mean for entrepreneurship education content	2.82	.429	Effective

Source: Researcher's computation (2017)

Results in Table 5 suggest that, in terms of content, entrepreneurship education was rated generally effective (overall mean = 2.82, SD = 0.429). This implies that the content taught in entrepreneurship education programs is relevant as far as the graduates are concerned. For all the three elements used to measure the independent variable (IV), the mean ratings suggest that there is effectiveness in entrepreneurship education content. However, the element of (knowledge acquisition) was rated slightly higher than others (mean = 2.88, SD = 0.542). The second element under entrepreneurship education content (skills development) also had an average mean rating of (2.87), with a low standard deviation of (0.542) as well suggesting less deviation from the average. The third and last element examined on entrepreneurship education content (attitudes and values) was also rated high, suggesting that the entrepreneurship education content is rated effective in influencing the attitudes and values of the graduates (average mean = 2.72, SD = 0.588). It is important to note that education is meant to positively change the attitudes and values of the learners; so that they are able to implement the knowledge they have acquired to positively change the world (communities) into better places of living

for humanity. When a venture is created, the community improves in many ways. So when graduates have the potential to create new ventures, it means they are able to improve themselves and their own communities as well.

8.2 Relationship between Entrepreneurship Education Content and Venture Creation Potential

To establish whether entrepreneurship education content was a significantly positive determinant of venture creation potential among the College of Education Graduates in Kano state Nigeria a correlation analysis was carried out at a bivariate level. The three elements of entrepreneurship education content (knowledge acquisition, skills development and attitude and values) were correlated with the index on venture creation potential using Pearson's Linear Correlation Coefficient and the results are given in table 6.

Table 6: Pearson Correlation for Entrepreneurship Education Content and Venture Creation Potential among Colleges of Education Graduates in Kano, Nigeria

Variable correlated	r-value	Sig.	Interpretation
Knowledge acquisition and venture creation	.338**	.000	Significant correlation
Skill development and venture creation	.348**	.000	Significant correlation
Attitude and values and venture creation	.321**	.000	Significant correlation
Overall EE Content and venture creation	.436**	.000	Significant correlation

** . All correlations are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). Source: Researcher's computation (2017)

The results in Table 6 suggest that all the three corresponding element of entrepreneurship education content, were significantly correlated with venture creation potentials of the graduates of Colleges of Education in Kano State Nigeria. The results revealed that the three elements of entrepreneurship education content (knowledge acquisition, skills development and attitude and values) whether individually considered or taken together are positively and significantly correlated with venture creation potentials. This implies that an improvement in the content quality of entrepreneurship education is likely to increase venture creation potentials among the graduates. To further ascertain and to establish the predictive strength of entrepreneurship education content

elements towards venture creation potential, multiple linear regression was applied, the results of which are presented in Table 7.

Testing Hypothesis

In line with the second objective of the study, the hypothesized negative relationship between the three elements of entrepreneurship education content and venture creation potentials was finally tested by running a multiple linear regression. This was done to prove that entrepreneurship education content significantly and positively influence venture creation potential among the Colleges of Education graduates in Kano state Nigeria. The results of this test are presented in Table 7.

Table 7: Regression Analysis for EE Content and Venture Creation Potential

Variable Regressed	Adjusted R ²	F	Sig.	Interpretation	Decision on Ho
EE Content VS Venture creation	.182	24.868	.000	Significant effect	Rejected
Coefficient	Beta	t			
(Constant)	1.608	10.879	.000	Significant effect	Rejected
Knowledge acquisition	.180	3.086	.002	Significant effect	Rejected
Skill development	.198	3.380	.001	Significant effect	Rejected
Attitude and value	.188	3.401	.001	Significant effect	Rejected

Source: Researcher's computation (2017)

The results from Table 6 reveal that all the three elements of entrepreneurship education content taken together significantly affected venture creation potentials of the graduates (F=24.868, sig. = 0.000). However, the results indicate that the three elements of content taken together accounted for only 18.2% towards variations in venture creation potential of the graduates (adjusted R² = 0.182). This means that the remaining 81.8% is a contribution of other factors not included in this study. This implies that, whereas the factors related to entrepreneurship education content are important in determining the potential to create ventures among the graduates, many other factors as well are important.

The results further indicate that skills development ($\beta = 0.198$, $p = 0.001$) followed by attitude and values ($\beta = 0.188$, $p = 0.001$) are stronger determinants of venture creation potentials as compared to knowledge acquisition is having ($\beta =$

0.180, $p = 0.002$), based on the respective magnitudes of the betas. For example, the beta of 0.198 suggests that a one unit improvement in skill development is likely to bring a 0.198 increase in venture creation potential and this contribution is higher than 0.188 and 0.180 respectively that is in case of improvement in attitude and values and knowledge acquisition.

9. Conclusion

For the fact that the content of entrepreneurship education in colleges of education in Kano state is guided by the Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE) minimum standards, it was concluded that content of entrepreneurship education in these colleges were designed in line with the students' area of specialization. This makes the students' internalize it with ease.

10. Recommendation

From the study, only one College has entrepreneurship education centre where various practical trades are been taught, although one of the College covered by this research was technical biased College yet the other one is conventional. In addition, even the one that is technical in nature there are some courses that need to have entrepreneurship education centers because they do not have workshops for their study area, for example, Primary Education. For that government through Federal Ministry of Education and National Commission for Colleges of Education should provide well equip entrepreneurship education centers in all Colleges of Education in the country capable of putting entrepreneurship education content learned by the students into practice.

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The Business Educator after Graduation: Beginning of a New Era as an Entrepreneur

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Abstract. The paper argued that the business education graduate can perform successfully as an entrepreneur because the main objective of the business education program at all levels of the educational system, particularly at the university level, is to inculcate in the individual practical skills that will make him fit into the world of work either as an employee, self-employed or as an employer. However, success as a self-employed person requires entrepreneurship skills. The paper explained the link between the objectives of the business education program and success as an entrepreneur, identifying the various areas - such as establishment and running of shops for the repair and sales of cell phones, establishment and running of bookshops, establishment and running of barbing and hair dressing saloons, establishment and running of restaurants - that the business education graduate can venture into as an entrepreneur. The paper concluded that graduating from school should be something worth looking forward to, because the world is full of opportunities. It however cautioned that to become a successful entrepreneur is not an easy thing; there will be huddles to cross. Becoming a successful entrepreneur requires tenacity, focus, perseverance and a firm belief in one's ability to succeed. The paper made five recommendations. One of them is that the business educator should look around and identify the opportunities that abound. Another recommendation made is that after identifying an opportunity, the business educator should draw up a business plan that he will be able to convince sponsors to finance.

1. Introduction

Nations that are economically buoyant have one thing in common; their citizens are fully equipped with skills, knowledge and attitudes that enable them function effectively and contribute to the development and growth of the economies of those nations. Business education plays an important role in equipping citizens of nations with abilities to become economically efficient and effective.

Business education is primarily education for vocation. Ibrahim (2008) explained that it is a training system that equips the beneficiary with skills that are needed by individuals to fit into the world of work. Ibrahim (2008) explained further that business education encompasses knowledge, attitudes and skills that are necessary in order to effectively manage personal as well as business affairs within the economic system. From the above, it is clear that business education is an embodiment of vocational knowledge and skills that are needed not only for managing personal affairs, but also for

entry level employment and advancement in a broad range of businesses.

Entrepreneurship is one of the four factors of production. The other three are land, labour and capital. The entrepreneur is the one that brings the other three factors – land, labour, capital – together. In other words, it is the entrepreneur that co-ordinates production activities. Odo (2001) stated that entrepreneurship is the act of risk taking. Kurya (2002) explained that the entrepreneur is someone who is quick to realise that an opportunity exists, seizes the opportunity, and looks for the necessary ingredients (land, labour, capital) to actualise the opportunity.

Entrepreneurship is about creating value as a result of recognition of a business opportunity, effectively managing the risk involved, co-ordinating the various activities and necessary resources, and ultimately reaping the envisaged returns. This is aptly reflected in the position of James (2002) who

opined that entrepreneurship is the process of creating value by devoting the necessary time and effort, assuming the accompanying financial, psychological and social risks, and eventually receiving the envisaged returns.

Entrepreneurship is all about tenacity. The entrepreneur believes that the environment and what it offers can be influenced and successfully managed and value created for the benefit of the economies and citizens of nations (Telentino, 2004).

From all the above, it can be surmised that entrepreneurship is really all about identifying, developing and bringing a vision, an idea, an opportunity to reality. The ultimate objective is to eventually get a return for venturing into the unknown.

2. The Business Education Program

Business education covers a wide range of spectrum of economic activities in any society as well as all desirable business competencies necessary for self-employment and self-reliance. Thus business education can, through appropriate training, ensure all its graduates full employment, even in the present economic recession, by equipping them with life-long skills for self-employment.

Sani (2011) outlined the objectives of business education as:

- To educate individuals for and about business.
- To provide a continuous program of planned learning experiences designed to equip individuals to effectively fulfill three roles:-
- To produce and distribute goods and services as workers.
- To use the result of production as consumers.
- To make judicious socio-economic decisions as citizens.
- To provide career information that helps students relate interests, needs and abilities to occupational opportunities.
- To provide educational opportunities for students preparing for careers in fields other than business.

This means business education primarily aims at educating and preparing people, among other things, for roles in enterprises in an economy. Accordingly, it can be inferred that the knowledge acquired in business education is relevant to entrepreneurs in all disciplines starting from the pure sciences to humanities, as there is

hardly any field of human endeavor without an element of business.

Business Education, as earlier explained, embodies an educational process with the primary aim of preparing people for roles in enterprises. Such roles can be as employees, entrepreneurs, employers or simply as people who are self-employed.

A business enterprise can be promoted to create a commodity or render service. Business is not just expected to seek out, identify, create or anticipate demands, but is also required to create the needed goods and services to satisfy wants and needs of its customers. Business education plays the role of the activist, catalyst, promoter and patriot of inventions and human resourcefulness, as well as the arbiter on the crucial issue of what the criteria should be for allocating or distributing society's wealth (resources) so as to achieve equity and justice. As Ibrahim (2010) aptly put it, business education can be seen as the sum total of the knowledge, skill and attitude that are required for successfully promoting and administering business enterprises.

The goal of business education is the production of manpower that possesses the requisite knowledge, skills and attitude for harnessing resources and binding them into a co-operative relationship that ultimately yields the goods and services demanded by societies for the satisfaction of the numerous wants and needs of the citizens of societies. The output of business education includes supervisors, managers and entrepreneurs. It is the role of the business educator as an entrepreneur that is the focus of this paper.

3. The Business Educator as an Entrepreneur

Taking all that has been discussed in this paper into consideration, business educators can venture into the following enterprises:

- Establishment of business centers. This involves the acquisition of computers, printers, photocopiers, generators and a host of other equipment that are necessary for successful running of a business center.
- Establishment and running of private schools (baby class, nursery, primary, junior secondary, senior secondary).
- Private tutoring of students in their homes in preparation for examinations such as the Senior Secondary School Certificate Examination (SSCE).

- Establishment of consultancy services outfits such as secretarial consultancy to be responsible for pursuing registration of businesses with the Corporate Affairs Commission (CAC) for clients, recruitment and employment services; marketing consultancy to promote and market goods and services of various companies, and Accounting consultancy as financial analysts.
- Training outfits as consultants to be responsible for training and retraining of employees of organisations through seminars, workshops, refresher courses and on-the-job training.
- Establishment of Computer Training Schools for training in ICT and computer skills, leading to acquisition of certificates for participants in computer literacy and proficiency.
- Establishment and running of shops for the repair and sales of cell phones.
- Establishment and running of bookshops.
- Establishment and running of barbing and hair dressing saloons.
- Establishment and running of restaurants.
- Establishment and running of provisions and general goods stores.

The list is not exhaustive. What is important is to see the content of the list as things that are not only possible, but also as things worth engaging in.

4. Conclusion

Graduating from school should be something worth looking forward to. The world is full of opportunities. However, it should be clearly understood that life is not a bed of roses, and there is no free lunch. There will always be huddles to cross in any venture one chooses to engage in. As stated earlier in this paper, the catch word for the entrepreneur is tenacity; focus, perseverance, and a firm belief in one's ability and to find the light at the end of the tunnel.

5. Recommendations

The business educator should look around and identify the opportunities that abound. The opportunities are there waiting to be identified and to be exploited.

After identifying an opportunity, the business educator should draw up a business plan that he will be able to convince sponsors to finance. Remember an entrepreneur may not necessarily have the financial wherewithal needed to actualise the identified opportunity.

The business educator should start small and let the business build itself. As experience is gradually gathered, confidence in one's ability to succeed is built up.

The business educator should be focused in whatever he chooses to do. There will be hurdles. When he falls, and not if he falls, he should pick himself up and continue.

The business educator should continue to improve himself academically. For example, as a business person, he should not over-trade, he should plan his business such that he collects from his debtors before he pays his creditors, he should be liquid and yet he should not leave current assets idle.

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Entrepreneurship Training and Poverty Reduction in Kano State, Nigeria

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Abstract. The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of entrepreneurship training on poverty reduction in Kano State, Nigeria. The study was guided by the following hypotheses: i) there is a significant effect of technical skills on poverty reduction in Kano State, Nigeria; and there is a significant effect of management skills on poverty reduction in Kano State, Nigeria. The study had a sample size of 255 respondents. However, 198 respondents actually participated in the study. The study employed cross-sectional survey design. The main research instrument was questionnaires. Data was analyzed using Pearson correlation coefficient and regression analysis. The study found that technical skills had a positive and significant effect poverty reduction ($r=.405^{**}$, $p<0.01$); and that management skills also had a positive and significant effect on poverty reduction ($r=.250^{**}$, $p<0.01$). The study recommended continuous training of the NAPEP beneficiaries to equip them with technical and managerial skills.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship training, poverty reduction, Kano State, Nigeria

1. Introduction

Poverty is a global phenomenon that affects socio-economic and political aspects of lives of about 2 billion people across the globe (Umar, Abdullah, & Wahi, 2016). It afflicts people in various depths and levels, at different times and phases of existence. There is no nation that is absolutely free from poverty (Atkinson, 2016). The main difference is the intensity and prevalence of this malaise. Nations in sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia and Latin America are currently with the highest level of poverty and consequently with the

lowest level of socio-economic development. They also have the highest level of social insecurity, violence, unrest and generally unacceptable low standard of living (Atkinson, 2016).

In the case of Nigeria, poverty has been on the rise since 1980s with the subsequent rise in the population. For instance, according to the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS, 2010), out of 65 million people, 17.1 million were poor in 1980, in 1985, the population increased to 75 million and the number of the poor doubled to 34.7 million, similarly in 1992, the population was 91.5 million and the poor were estimated at 39.2 million. Furthermore, the NBS (2010) reported that in 1996, the population was 102.3 million and the poor consisted of 67.1 million, while in 2004, the population increased to 126.3 million and the poor as well increased to 68.7% and in 2010, the population was estimated at 163 million and the poor were 112.47 million. The NBS (2010) report further indicated that 38.3% of the poorest people were from rural while 29.5% were from urban setting.

In order to bring better understanding of what poverty is all about, the Central Bank of Nigeria (1999:1) viewed poverty as “a state where an individual is not able to cater adequately for his or her basic needs of food, clothing and shelter; is unable to meet social and economic obligations, lacks gainful employment, skills, assets and self-esteem; and has limited access to social and economic infrastructure such as education, health, portable water, and sanitation; and consequently, has limited chance of advancing his or her welfare to the limit of his or her capabilities”.

The governments of Nigeria in the past regimes attempted to reduce poverty through several alleviation programmes but to no avail (Agwu & Kadiri, 2014). According to Baghebo and Emmanuel (2015), poverty

reduction programmes in Nigeria are means through which the government aims to revamp and reconstruct the economy. The high incidence of poverty in the country has made poverty reduction strategies important policy options over the years with varying results. Poverty reduction strategies ranging from Operation Feed the Nation of 1978, the Green revolution of 1982, the directorate of Foods, Roads and Rural Infrastructures (DFRI) of 1986, the National Directorate for Employment (NDE) of 1986, Poverty Alleviation Programme (PAP) of 2000, up to the National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) of 2001, were all attempts made by various governments in the country to curb the menace of poverty (Baghebo & Emmanuel, 2015).

Despite the aforementioned efforts, the scourge of poverty is still rampant in Nigeria. Giving the breakdown of the trend of poverty rates in the country, the National Bureau of Statistics laments that the magnitude of the people below the poverty line has increased tremendously despite the fact that Nigerian economy is ironically growing (NBS, 2012). Furthermore, recent studies on the subject of poverty and its reduction agencies in different States in Nigeria as well as programmes indicate that considerable gap exists between the target objective – alleviating or eradicating poverty – and achievement (Ijaiya et al. 2011; Mustapha, 2011; Abdu 2012; Sylvester & Ekpenyong, 2014; Baghebo & Emmanuel, 2015).

According to National Bureau of Statistics (2016), poverty is high in most States in Nigeria because of the high unemployment level which stands at 12.1%. Apparently, more than ever, Nigeria is in dire need of more jobs to lift her people out of poverty and governments alone cannot provide these jobs. Hence, the role of entrepreneurship in job creation and poverty reduction cannot be disregarded. In his submission, Silvinski (2012) reveals that a substantial number of academic studies posit that entrepreneurial endeavours can help move people out of poverty, whether they start their own business – like a food truck or a hair salon – or whether they are hired by an entrepreneur. Indeed, higher average rates of entrepreneurship in a State correspond to bigger declines in poverty; in fact, every 1 percentage point increase in entrepreneurship corresponds to a 2 percent decrease in the poverty rate (Silvinski, 2012). However, entrepreneurship cannot be possible without entrepreneurship training. This is because, entrepreneurship training will bring about entrepreneurship skills such as technical and business skills which will help their business to be successful and thrive even in bad economic times. This study was an

investigation on the effect of entrepreneurship training on poverty reduction in Bichi local government, Nigeria.

2. Problem Statement

There is high poverty level in Kano State. According to NBS (2012) those who are living in extreme poverty in Kano State are 8.8% compared to its neighbors Katsina (5.3%), Jigawa (5.5%), Bauchi (4.9%) and Kaduna State (4.3%). Furthermore, report by NBS (2012) show that poverty in Kano state has been on the increase since 2003 to date. *The government over the years initiated several poverty alleviation programmes such as Poverty Alleviation Programme (PAP), National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP), Youth empowerment scheme (YES) etc.* However, several of these programmes did not succeed because of high corruption level, poor programming, and poor targeting of beneficiaries among others (Ogun, 2010; Sylvester & Ekpenyong, 2014). In addition, the government also embarked on training the beneficiaries of these poverty reduction programmes with entrepreneurial skills but their success has been limited (Usman and Adam, 2017). It is against this background this study investigated the impact of entrepreneurship training on the poverty reduction in Bichi local government. Entrepreneurship training was limited to technical and management skills.

3. Hypothesis

There is a significant effect of technical skills on poverty reduction in Kano State, Nigeria.

There is a significant effect of management skills on poverty reduction in Kano State, Nigeria.

4. Literature Review

4.1 Entrepreneurship Training

Hisrich (2015) defined entrepreneurship as the process of creating something new with value by devoting the necessary time and effort, assuming the accompanying financial, psychic, and social risks, and receiving the resulting rewards of monetary and personal satisfaction and independence. Bruton and Ketchen (2013) defined entrepreneurship as the identification of a new business opportunities and the mobilization of economic resources to initiate a new business or regenerate an existing business, under the conditions of risks and

uncertainties, for the purpose of making profits under private ownership.

Entrepreneurship training is the impartation of skills and knowledge on an entrepreneur before s/he embarks on a business venture. In this study, the entrepreneurship training skills were limited to technical and business management skills.

4.2 The Effect of Technical Skills on Poverty Reduction

Technical skills involve such things as writing, listening, oral presentation, organizing, coaching, being a team player, and technical know-how. Technical skills also refer to the talent and expertise a person possesses to perform a certain job or task. Technical skills are those abilities acquired through learning and practice. They are often job or task specific; in other words, a particular skill set or proficiency required to perform a specific job or task (Mullins, 2010).

Technical skill is important because it saves one a lot of spending on unnecessary repair and maintenance of one's machineries and other business equipments. Therefore, a business that spends less and saves more is highly likely to improve and the income level will also increase hence improvement in the standard of living and eventual reduction in poverty in one's household. (Alberti, et al., 2014).

4.3 The Effect of Management Skills on Poverty Reduction

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

A successful entrepreneur must be able to make wise decisions about how he uses his time, continually evaluating and prioritizing tasks according to relevance and importance. This type of time management includes short- and long-range planning and the ability to participate in economic forecasting and market research. This implies that when his/her business succeeds, he will be able to get out of poverty (Arogundade, 2011).

4.4 Poverty Reduction

Poverty is one of the most difficult challenges facing any country in developing world where, on the average, majority of the population is considered poor. Although the Nigeria economic report released in July 2014 by the World Bank put poverty rate at 33.1% for a country with massive wealth and a huge population to support commerce. The report seems inconsistent with reality. The World Bank report indicated that income inequality worsened from 0.43 to 0.49 between 2004 and 2009. The report further revealed that, the depth and severity of poverty was more in the rural than in the urban (World Bank, 2010).

Oluwatayo (2008) assert that one of the main effects of poverty is poor health, as is reflected in Nigeria's high infant mortality and low life expectancy. Poor people in Nigeria face several health issues as they lack basic health amenities and competent medical practitioners. Abiola and Olaopa (2008) states that the scourge of poverty in Nigeria is an incontrovertible fact, which results in hunger, ignorance, malnutrition, disease, unemployment, poor access to credit facilities, and low life expectancy as well as a general level of human hopelessness.

According to Ucha (2010), there are several causes of poverty in Nigeria which include but not limited to corruption, bad governance, debt overhang, unemployment, low productivity, burgeoning population growth, globalisation, poor education system, inequality, unfocused government policies, oil dependency, lack of effective skills training etc. This implies that Nigeria, amidst her endowment with valuable natural resources can only boast of a greater percentage of impoverished Nigerians.

This study measured poverty reduction using income expenditure. A report by NBS (2012) showed a high degree of disparity on expenditure pattern. For instance, the poorest per capita expenditures were 4,291.00 on food and 3,520.00 on non-food, while the least poor per capita expenditures were 29,489.00 on food and 39,543.00 on non-food. The urban households expended more on food and non-food compared with rural households. The urban households' per capita household expenditure on non-food almost doubled that of the rural households. The figures were 25,101.00 and 13,058.00 respectively. The per capita household expenditures on food were 18,099.00 and 16,568.00 in urban and rural areas respectively which still showed higher expenditure in urban areas. The rural households expended more of their income on food.

4.5 Theoretical Review

This study was guided by the Individualistic Theory of Poverty by O'Donnel (1997). This theory is viewed from the angle of the individual's inability to be productive so as to get out of poverty. The theory emphasizes on the fact that the poor were poor because they did not work hard, they squandered money on gambling, drinking and unnecessary luxuries and they had disorder of family life. They had no ambitions, no inner call for work, were fatalistic and suffered an 'intractable in-educability'. This theory is founded on self-help and survival in which case those who work hard succeed while, the weak fail to succeed giving rise to the non-poor and the poor respectively. The poor person is poor because his behaviour has made him so. The poor under this condition may remain poor except if the society is not able to increase his/her income significantly through deliberate efforts aimed at pulling him out of poverty (Archibong, 1997). Programmes established in Nigeria in line with this theory are: poverty alleviation programme (PAP) and the on-going national poverty eradication programme (NAPEP). This is because these two programmes have been characterized by payment of stipends (in the case of PAP) and granting of loans to individuals under NAPEP.

4.6 Empirical Studies

Muttalib et al. (2016) carried out a study on the effect of entrepreneurship on poverty reduction in Southeast Sulawesi and found that entrepreneurship had significant effect on poverty reduction. Furthermore, the study showed that enterprise business actors in implementation have been good but still needs to be optimized entrepreneurial competencies. This means

that poverty reduction can be done through the development of entrepreneurship.

Similarly, Kareem (2015) carried out a study on the impact of entrepreneurship on poverty alleviation in Nigeria using descriptive correlational design and found a significant relationship between entrepreneurship and poverty alleviation at 1% probability level.

In addition, a study by Shaeikh and Hafiez (2013) on entrepreneurship development and poverty reduction in Somalia using correlation research design and 80 participants found weak positive relationship between entrepreneurship development and poverty reductions significant at 0.01 level of significance.

5. Methodology

This study was carried out in Kano State but specifically from seven local governments, namely: Bichi, Doguwa, Gwale, Nasarawa, Tudun Wada, Kura, and Kano Municipal. The study targeted 100 beneficiaries of NAPEP from each State, hence making a total of 700 target population. Solven's formula was used to determine the sample size:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(\alpha)^2}$$
 Where n=sample size, N=target population, $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance. The sample size was 255 respondents; however, 198 managed to participate in the study, giving a participation rate of 78%.

This study employed a cross-sectional research design because it allows for the study of the population at one specific time and the difference between the individual groups within the population to be compared (Creswell, 2014). The study also used quantitative approach where questionnaire was the main research instrument. The study used inferential statistics to establish the effects of the IV on the DV. Here, Pearson correlation coefficient and regression analysis were done.

6. Findings

Table 1: The effect of technical skills on poverty reduction (n=198)

					Technical skills		Poverty Reduction		
Technical skills		Pearson Correlation			1	.405**			
		Sig. (2-tailed)				.000			
		N			198	198			
Poverty Reduction		Pearson Correlation			.405**	1			
		Sig. (2-tailed)			.000				
		N			198	198			
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.405 ^a	.164	.160	.69424	.164	38.552	1	196	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Technical skills

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

The findings presented in Table 1 revealed a positive and significant association between technical skills and poverty reduction ($r=.405^{**}$, $p<0.01$). Therefore the alternative hypothesis that there was a significant effect of technical skills on poverty reduction was upheld. Furthermore, the study established that technical skills could explain 16% variance in poverty reduction (Adjusted R Square=0.160).

Table 2: The Effect of Management Skills on Poverty Reduction (n=198)

					Management skills			Poverty reduction	
Management skills		Pearson Correlation			1			.250**	
		Sig. (2-tailed)						.000	
		N			198			198	
Poverty reduction		Pearson Correlation			.250**			1	
		Sig. (2-tailed)			.000				
		N			198			198	
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the	Change Statistics				
				Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.250 ^a	.062	.058	.73534	.062	13.063	1	196	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), management skills

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

The presentation in table 2 revealed a positive and significant association between management skills and poverty reduction ($r=.250^{**}$, $p<0.01$). Therefore the alternative hypothesis that management skills had a significant effect on poverty reduction was upheld. In addition, the study found out that management skills could explain 5.8% variance in poverty reduction (Adjusted R Square=0.058).

Table 3: The Relationship Between Entrepreneurship Training and Poverty Reduction

					Entrepreneurship training		Poverty reduction		
Entrepreneurship training		Pearson Correlation			1		.372**		
		Sig. (2-tailed)					.000		
		N			198		198		
Poverty reduction		Pearson Correlation			.372**		1		
		Sig. (2-tailed)			.000				
		N			198		198		
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the	Change Statistics				
				Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.372 ^a	.138	.134	.70494	.138	31.483	1	196	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Entrepreneurship training

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

The presentation in table 3 revealed that entrepreneurship training and poverty reduction has a positive and significant relationship ($r=.372^{**}$, $p<0.01$). This implies that a positive improvement in entrepreneurship training will cause an equal improvement in poverty reduction. Furthermore, entrepreneurship training explains 13.4% variance in poverty reduction (Adjusted R Square=0.134).

Table 4: Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	1.726	.332		5.205	.000
Technical skills	.438	.089	.383	4.908	.000
Management skills	.046	.088	.041	.529	.597

a. Dependent Variable: poverty reduction

Table 4 revealed that the model was a best fit for poverty reduction ($p=0.000$). However, management skills was found not to significantly fit in the model ($p>0.01$); only technical skills was found to significantly fit in the model

($p < 0.01$). Furthermore, the study found that every single change in technical skills could cause a variance of 38.3% in poverty reduction (Beta=0.383).

7. Discussions

The results of the study revealed a positive and significant relationship between entrepreneurship training and poverty reduction ($r = .372^{**}$, $p < 0.01$). This implies that entrepreneurship training is important in contributing to reduction. This study agrees with that of Muttalib et al. 2016; Kareem 2015; Shaeikh and Hafiez 2013) who in their studies found positive and significant relationships between entrepreneurship and poverty reduction. This is true because entrepreneurship training helps in imparting skills and knowledge into the lives of entrepreneurs. Therefore having technical and management skills attained through entrepreneurship training helps one to establish a business which can strive through bad economic times. In other words, a successful business implies that an entrepreneur's income level will increase. This signifies that when the income level increases, one will be able to afford basic needs such as well dieted food, clothing, shelter, education, medication, and access to clean water. In short, it will mean that poverty in his/her household has reduced to a certain extent. However, if people do not participate in entrepreneurial activities, then they will be vulnerable to poverty if they cannot get jobs that can earn them salary or wages.

8. Recommendations

There is need for the government to encourage continuous training and education on life skills of NAPEP beneficiaries; such skills could include business management skills, technical skills, and marketing skills. Such skills would help the businesses started and operated by the NAPEP beneficiaries to thrive even in bad economic times.

Furthermore, the government of Nigeria should emphasize youth participation in entrepreneurship to reduce their level of vulnerability and help them to be more productive in life. This can be done by encouraging the youth to join vocational training institutes that provide hands-on training and life skills.

The government can accomplish this by financially supporting students with tuitions and offering bursaries. This will help the youth to be equipped with the necessary skills that can help them to start and manage their own businesses.

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A Comparative Study of Undergraduate Chemistry Students' Performance on Soap Production in North Central Nigeria, Using a Developed Entrepreneurial Skill Training Package.

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Abstract. The study compared federal and state undergraduate chemistry students' entrepreneurial skills and performance in soap production using a developed entrepreneurial skill training package. It specifically compared the entire undergraduate chemistry students of Federal and State Universities in the North Central region of Nigeria on one hand and the B.Sc and B. Sc(Ed) students on another hand. The objective was to assess the students' ability to use the developed package successfully to produce soap and to compare their entrepreneurial skills in soap production. Two research questions and two hypotheses guided the study. The non – randomized post – test only quasi experimental design was employed to carry out the study. Two hundred and thirty six (236) students and sixty(60) Chemistry lecturers were purposively selected for the study. Two instruments – the undergraduate chemistry students' soap production package (UCSSPP) and chemistry lecturers' rating scale (CLRS) were developed and used. Data were analyzed using mean($\bar{X}$) and t – test statistical tools. The results showed a significant difference($P=0.006$) between the mean scores of State and Federal University Undergraduate chemistry students who were trained using the developed entrepreneurial skill training package for soap production in favour of the State Universities. There was also a significant difference ($P =0.152$) between the mean scores of the B Sc and B.Sc(Ed) undergraduate chemistry students in both Federal and State Universities trained using entrepreneurial skill training package on soap production. The findings revealed that there was a significant difference between the mean scores of federal and state universities in favour of state universities. With respect to gender of federal universities there was no significant difference in the mean scores of entrepreneurial skills for soap production. It was therefore recommended among

others, that chemistry lecturers in both federal and state universities should teach both male and female chemistry entrepreneurially for its economic relevance.

1. Introduction

Chemistry is an important course taught in the Nigerian Universities. Of the science subjects, chemistry is a key subject upon which the bulk of the present technological breakthrough is built(Gongden,1998). Chemistry is the study of the composition, properties, uses and structure of matter(Aniodo & Eze, 2014). Eze(2012) described chemistry as a branch of science which enables learners understand what happens around them; Abubakar & Ashiru (2010) viewed chemistry as a physical science with immeasurable intrinsic and utility values in all spheres of human activities which leads to its inclusion in school curriculum. The study revealed that Chemistry plays a vital role in national development, yet there is evidence in literature that the objective of teaching chemistry in schools is yet to be attained (Aniodoh &Eze, 2014). According to Ezeliora, chemistry education has a crucial role to play in helping to find answers to various human and socio – economic problems as well as making the society more scientifically literate. The author stressed that chemistry is one of the school subjects students find difficult to understand, many students perceived chemistry as a body of isolated facts to be memorized, lacking relevance to reality (Ezeliora, 2009). The reason why chemistry is perceived as a difficult mistress is the way it is been delivered to students, chemistry is a practical subject and therefore it is activity oriented. Learning chemistry is by students doing it not been done for them (NRC 2012). Teaching chemistry entrepreneurially is student centred which focused on active learning with an intrinsic motivation of chemistry

brought to reality of life for economic relevance of chemistry.

Chemistry forms a basis of various careers which individual learners may train in for example, Medicine, Pharmacy, Medical Laboratory Science, Biochemistry, Microbiology, Geology, Mining engineering, Industrial Chemistry, Nursing Science and Technology, Agricultural Science, Engineering, Extractive industry, Manufacturing industry, Petroleum and Petrochemical industries forestry, Food processing and teaching services.

One of the purposes of chemistry teaching is to enable individuals to use scientific process skills in order to attain self – reliance (Delmang, 2014). Teaching chemistry entrepreneurially to students to acquire skills to be self – reliant through their scientific process skills, ideas and the management abilities for self – employment rather than being employed will lead to value re – orientation, poverty eradication, job creation, wealth generation. The University education can be defined as education students received after secondary education at the tertiary stage. The main aim is to prepare the individuals for useful living within the society. The Universities in Nigeria are managed by the Federal government, State government and Private organizations. Each of the 36 states and the Federal Capital Territory has at least one Federal and State Governments' University funded and managed partially by the Federal government through the Ministry of Education. Admission into these Universities is based on merit determined by the Universities' requirement in addition to the general requirement in addition to the general requirements of the University Unified Tertiary Matriculation examination and direct entry.

Saponification (soap making) is a topic that runs from SS 1 curriculum for third term to the university level of education. The process of saponification (soap making) could be explained to students but they can not grasp or understand the concept and develop so much interest as the way it could be delivered to them entrepreneurially. Since entrepreneurship has become a global and unavoidable issue. The idea of becoming an entrepreneur is more and more attractive to students, because it is seen as a valuable way of participating in the labour market without losing one's independence (Aurora, 2008). In the view of Rinji (2013), entrepreneurship education has become an important phenomenon in the lives of Nigerians and institutions of learning. Therefore, Universities have

seen the need to include entrepreneurship in their curriculum. Regarding this the researchers opined that entrepreneurship education in chemistry is that which will help learners to redirect their minds towards the world of business and independence, increase innovative and creative spirit thereby increasing the number of employers than employees as well as ensuring stable national economic growth development and sustainability.

2. Statement of the Problem

At the university level of education, the 400 level undergraduate chemistry students are required to display a high level of chemical knowledge prowess, be able to effectively apply what they have learned theoretically in the class for self – reliance. However, research evidences have shown that formal education in Nigeria has not provided school learners with functional education (i.e education for self – reliance) rather, it has continued to turnout half – baked graduates with mere certificates which are not justified by such graduates in most labour markets and industries.

Chemistry which should be taught using hands – on and minds – on (practical) approach is based taught theoretically which makes the learner not to benefit maximally from their education. It was also revealed that (Udofia & Ekong, 2014) understanding of the principles and applications of knowledge gained for cognitive growth as well as technological advancement, hence development of useful skill necessary for self – reliant living is lacking. Beside this, teaching of chemistry theoretically to students is difficult because they are likely to complain that "theory is boring! Lectures are boring! School is boring! And so everything in the chemistry lecture becomes irrelevant. The purpose of teaching chemistry should be to assist the students to become skilled and self – employed.

The present trend of mass unemployment in Nigeria shows that the science education being taught in schools do not prepare Nigerian graduates to function well in the nation undergoing transition from rural economy to modern economy (Nwachukwu, 2009). The researcher further observed that the lack of skills occasioned by absence of training modules by teachers, thus, the concern of this research was to develop a module that would be used in the teaching and learning of chemistry to enhance the chemical entrepreneurial skills of graduates or youth so that they can acquire the right entrepreneurial habits, attitudes and saleable skills with

which they can explore their environments as means of surviving the face of unemployment.

3. Purpose of the Study

The objective of the study was to assess undergraduate chemistry students' ability to use a developed entrepreneurial skill training package to produce soap successfully. It also aimed at assessing their entrepreneurial skills.

Specifically, the study was carried out to:

- (i) Compare Federal and State Universities undergraduate chemistry students' performance in soap production using a developed entrepreneurial skill training package.
- (ii) Compare B.Sc and B.Sc(Ed) undergraduate chemistry students' performance in soap production using a developed entrepreneurial skill training package.
- (iii) There is no significant difference between the mean scores of the female federal university undergraduate chemistry students' and their counterpart in the state university who were trained using the developed entrepreneurial skill training package on soap production.

4. Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions:

- (i) What are the mean scores of federal undergraduate chemistry students compare to state undergraduate chemistry students in soap production using a developed entrepreneurial skill training package?
- (ii) What are the mean scores of B.Sc and B.Sc(Ed) undergraduate chemistry students trained using the entrepreneurial skill training package?

5. Research Hypotheses

- (i) There is no significance difference between the mean scores of state and federal university undergraduate chemistry students who were trained using a developed entrepreneurial skill training package for soap production.
- (ii) There is no significant difference between the mean scores of B.Sc and B.Sc(Ed) undergraduate chemistry students who were trained using a developed entrepreneurial skill training package for soap production.

6. Methodology

The study employed the non – randomized post – test only quasi experimental design. A sample of 296 undergraduate chemistry students and 60 chemistry lecturers from four North central Nigerian Universities was drawn from the lecturer, students' population of 1,640. The researchers developed two instruments known as chemistry lecturers' questionnaires (UCSSPP) and chemistry lecturers' rating scale (CLRS) were used for data collection. The instruments were validated by five experts from the Department of Chemistry and Science Education University of Jos and University of Agriculture Makurdi. The instrument were pilot tested using Cronbach Alpha formula(α) which yielded a coefficients of 0.87 and 0.83. The developed entrepreneurial skill training package was developed by the researchers on soap production. The treatment lasted two days during which data were also collected at various intervals using CLQ and CLRS. The data collected were analyzed using mean and standard deviations to answer the two research questions and the two hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance.

8. Results

Research Question 1

What are the mean scores of Federal undergraduate chemistry students compare to state undergraduate chemistry students in soap production using a developed entrepreneurial skill training package?

Table 1: Comparison of the mean Scores of Federal and State Undergraduate Chemistry students' Entrepreneurial Skills For Soap production(ESSP)

S/N	ITEM	Mean $\bar{X}_1(\text{State})$	$\bar{X}_2(\text{Federal})$	REMARK Federal	State
1	Ability to measure the mass of caustic soda accurately	2.44	2.96	Low performance	Moderate performance
2	Ability to measure the concentration of chemicals during soap production	2.55	2.84	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
3	Ability to measure the concentration of chemicals during soap production	2.83	4.29	Moderate performance	High performance
4	Ability to prepare the standard solution of the substances accurately	2.84	2.72	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
5	Ability to measure the mass of caustic soda and soda ash accurately	2.73	4.25	Moderate performance	High performance
6	Ability to dissolve soda ash appropriately	3.50	3.83	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
7	Ability to dilute substances accurately	2.83	4.06	Moderate performance	High performance
8	Ability to take safety measures	3.20	4.06	Moderate performance	High performance
9	Ability to dissolve caustic soda appropriately	2.60	3.84	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
10	Ability to locate regulate supply or raw materials	3.31	3.78	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
11	Ability for good record keeping for soap production	2.26	3.61	Low performance	Moderate performance
12	Ability to manage crisis during soap production	2.00	2.86	Low performance	Moderate performance
13	Ability for self – motivation to accomplish the task for soap production	3.20	2.83	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
14	Ability for self – motivation to accomplish the task for soap production	2.90	3.65	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
15	Ability to identify and procure appropriate equipment and chemicals for soap	3.90	2.80	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
16	Ability to package the soap product very well	2.30	3.48	Low performance	Moderate performance
17	Knowing the need to register with regulatory body like NAFDAC	3.11	4.00	Moderate performance	High performance
18	Ability to estimate the cost of soap production	2.30	2.52	Low performance	Moderate performance
19	Ability to establish and sustain quality standards	2.63	3.68	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
20	Ability to identify market for the products	2.61	2.60	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
21	Ability to determine the PH values of the acid solutions	3.19	4.12	Moderate performance	High performance
22	Ability to take precaution during soap production	3.92	4.53	Moderate performance	High performance
23	Ability to identify perfumes that can react to heat and caustic soda	3.20	2.44	Moderate performance	Low performance
24	Ability to mix chemicals during soap production	3.19	4.06	Moderate performance	High performance
25	Ability to package the soap product very well	3.92	4.06	Moderate performance	High performance
26	Ability to identify and procure appropriate equipment and chemicals for soap production	3.20	4.20	Moderate performance	High performance
27	Ability for self – motivation to accomplish the task for soap production	3.20	3.82	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
28	Ability to manage crisis during soap production	3.12	3.50	Moderate performance	Moderate performance

Data from Table 1 revealed that all the 28 items on entrepreneurial skill for soap production were demonstrated by undergraduate Chemistry students in soap production. The mean scores of undergraduate Chemistry students by their lecturers ranged from 2.00 – 4.53.

Hypothesis 1

There is no significant difference between the mean scores of state and federal university undergraduate chemistry students who were trained using entrepreneurial skill training package for soap production.

Table 2: Independent sample t – test analysis for federal and state university undergraduate chemistry students on soap production module.

Independent variables	N	Mean	Std Dev	DF	T – cal	P – value
Federal university	166	63.09	10.16	234	-1.21	0.006
State university	70	67.27	11.53	122.72	-2.63	
Total	236					

From table 2, the result shows that p-Val (0.006) is less than 0.05 level of significance. It is also revealed that federal university undergraduate chemistry students and state university undergraduate chemistry students needed this equally and hence both groups put in as much zeal towards what was taught. It was revealed that there was significant difference between the skills and competence acquired by federal and state university undergraduate chemistry students in favour of State universities. Based on the result, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Research Question 2

What are the mean scores of B.Sc and B.Sc(Ed) university undergraduatry Chemistry students who were trained using the entrepreneurial skill training package developed in soap production?

Table 3: Comparison of the mean Scores of B.Sc and B.Sc(Ed) Undergraduate Chemistry students' Entrepreneurial Skills For Soap production(ESSP)

S/N	ITEM	Mean $\bar{X}_1$ (B.Sc)	$\bar{X}_2$ B.Sc(Ed)	REMARK B.Sc	B.Sc(Ed)
1	Ability to measure the mass of caustic soda accurately	2.54	2.96	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
2	Ability to measure the concentration of chemicals during soap production	2.55	2.84	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
3	Ability to measure the concentration of chemicals during soap production	2.83	3.29	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
4	Ability to prepare the standard solution of the substances accurately	2.84	2.72	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
5	Ability to measure the mass of caustic soda and soda ash accurately	2.73	4.25	Moderate performance	High performance
6	Ability to dissolve soda ash appropriately	3.50	3.83	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
7	Ability to dilute substances accurately	4.83	4.06	High performance	High performance
8	Ability to take safety measures	4.20	4.06	High performance	High performance
9	Ability to dissolve caustic soda appropriately	2.60	3.84	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
10	Ability to locate regulate supply or raw materials	3.31	3.78	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
11	Ability for good record keeping for soap production	3.26	3.61	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
12	Ability to manage crisis during soap production	3.00	2.86	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
13	Ability for self – motivation to accomplish the task for soap production	3.20	2.83	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
14	Ability for self – motivation to accomplish the task for soap production	2.90	3.65	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
15	Ability to identify and procure appropriate equipment and chemicals for soap	3.90	2.80	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
16	Ability to package the soap product very well	3.30	3.48	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
17	Knowing the need to register with regulatory body like NAFDAC	4.11	4.00	High performance	High performance
18	Ability to estimate the cost of soap production	2.53	3.52	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
19	Ability to establish and sustain quality standards	2.63	3.68	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
20	Ability to identify market for the products	2.61	2.60	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
21	Ability to determine the PH values of the acid solutions	3.19	4.12	Moderate performance	High performance
22	Ability to take precaution during soap production	4.02	4.53	High performance	High performance
23	Ability to identify perfumes that can react to heat and caustic soda	2.53	2.54	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
24	Ability to mix chemicals during soap production	4.19	4.06	High performance	High performance
25	Ability to package the soap product very well	4.22	4.06	High performance	High performance
26	Ability to identify and procure appropriate equipment and chemicals for soap production	4.20	4.20	High performance	High performance
27	Ability for self – motivation to accomplish the task for soap production	3.20	3.82	Moderate performance	Moderate performance
28	Ability to manage crisis during soap production	3.12	3.50	Moderate performance	Moderate performance

Data from Table 3 revealed that all the 28 items on entrepreneurial skill for soap production were demonstrated by undergraduate Chemistry students in soap production. The mean scores of undergraduate Chemistry students by their lecturers ranged from 2.53 – 4.53 and were above the bench mark of 2.50. This showed that both B.Sc and B.Sc(Ed) students demonstrated high level of entrepreneurial skills during production as rated by their lecturers.

Hypothesis 2

There is no significant difference between the mean scores of the B.Sc and B.Sc(Ed) degree undergraduate Chemistry students who were trained using the entrepreneurial skill training package developed in soap production.

Table 4: Independents sample t-test analysis for B.Sc and B.Sc (Ed) degree undergraduate chemistry students on soap production module

Independent variables	N	Mean	Std Dev	df	t-cal	p-value
Chemistry B.Sc	153	49.61	8.96	231	-1.43	0.152
Chemistry B.SC (Ed)	83	53.31	4.86	13.132	-1.52	
Total	236					

From table 4, the result shows that p-Val (0.152) is greater than 0.05 level of significance. Based on the result, the null hypothesis was accepted. It was revealed that there is no significant difference between the skills and competences acquired by B.Sc and B.S (Ed) Undergraduate chemistry students.

Result on Table 4 indicates that learning took place and the B.Sc undergraduate chemistry students learned as much as B.Sc (Ed) undergraduate chemistry students. This reveals that if B.Sc and B.Sc (Ed) undergraduate chemistry students are engaged, with the right equipment, positive results would be achieved.

9. Discussion of Findings

The purpose of the study was to compare the skill acquisition of federal and state undergraduate chemistry students using a developed entrepreneurial skill training package in North central zone of Nigeria. The findings are discussed based on the two research questions and two hypotheses. The finding showed that state undergraduate chemistry students had higher entrepreneurial skills for soap production than the federal undergraduate chemistry students. The finding also showed that the mean rating scores of chemistry lecturers on undergraduate chemistry students' entrepreneurial skills on soap production (ESSP) was significantly higher than those of federal university. This finding corroborates the finding of Olasehinde and Olatoye (2014) who found that there is a significant difference between public and private (in this case, state and federal) in science achievement. One possible reason here is the fact that most state universities are treated like private universities and so, they are not only well equipped for teaching but are closely monitored by the proprietors (the state governments) than the poorly funded(equipped) Federal Universities. Nbioho and Daodu (2014) had earlier found out that skills are required for the development of entrepreneurial skill training module for planning fish breeding and hatching. Similarly Ekpedu and Ekubo (2011) also found out that skills are required for the development of entrepreneurial skill training module for farmers in fish production and marketing occupation. There was also a significant difference between the mean scores of the male and female undergraduate chemistry students in both federal and state universities trained using the draft entrepreneurial skill training module for paint production. The male undergraduate chemistry students performed better than their female counterparts. This finding is consistent with those of Eribe and Ande (2006) who had earlier found out there exists gender

difference or inequality in science achievement among science students all over the world. Dhindsa and Emran (2011) observed that most studies on gender difference report male dominance. Ezeudu, Gertrude, Chiahia, Anazor, Eze and Omeke (2015) reported that male students performed better than female students in chemistry tasks. Casey (2001) reported higher problem solving among males than female students. Onekutu (2002) had also found that male students performed better than females with an increasing gap in chemistry examination. This is due to the fact that females encountered problem solving difficulties more frequently than their male counterparts (Adesoji and Babatunde, 2008). Gongden (2015) reported that male chemistry students have better reasoning ability than female. The life – world experience and interaction of male students with the environment helped them visualize abstract idea than females. They therefore learn and do better in tasks that require high level of abstract thinking. Another reason is the fact that males are generally more enterprising and business oriented than females. The society places much responsibility on males than females such that anything that will lead a man to succeed financially will have his interest and attention.

The finding however, is contrary to that of Olorundare and Aderogba (2009) who found out that no significant difference occurred between male and female students' performance in chemistry. Kumar and Helgeson (2000) in a study on the effects of gender on computer – based chemistry problem solving using hyper equation on the macintosh computer platform reported no significant difference between male and female students. The finding on gender shows no significant difference in the mean rating scores of male and female undergraduate chemistry students trained using the developed entrepreneurial skill training package. This finding is in line with the finding of Olasehinde & Olatote (2014) and Hudson (2014) who found no significant difference between male and female students in science achievement ($t=0.678$ $p>0.05$), ($F(1,181)=15.9$ $P< 0.01$) respectively. A possible reason for this finding could be that, with the use of a developed entrepreneurial skill training package both male and female undergraduate chemistry students one provided with equal learning experiences that strengthened the development of the entrepreneurial skills in soap production.

10. Conclusion

Based on findings of the study, the researchers have concluded that the state undergraduate chemistry students performed better in soap production using the developed entrepreneurial skill training package than their counterparts from federal universities. The result also showed that, there is no difference in the performance of male and female undergraduate chemistry students in both federal and state universities.

11. Recommendations

The study recommended the use of the developed entrepreneurial skill training package for the teaching of undergraduate chemistry students in universities to enable them acquire entrepreneurial skills in soap production. It also recommended that graduates of chemistry from universities be given low interest loans by government to embark on production of soap and other chemical products that are useful and economically. Empowering undergraduate chemistry students should be encouraged to learn to use the developed entrepreneurial skill training package for soap production so as to be self-employed.

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Part Five

Gender Studies

Gender Mainstreaming and Socio-Economic Development of Women in Kathile Sub-County, Kaabong District, Uganda

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Abstract. The study sought to examine gender mainstreaming and socio-economic development of women in Kathile Sub-County, Kaabong District, Uganda. The study objectives were; to determine the level of income generation on socio-economic development of women in Kathile sub-county, Kaabong district, Descriptive design was used. The study population involved 133 participants where 15 Community Development officers (Kathile Sub-County), Community leaders (Kathile Sub-County), 35 Kathile Sub-county top authorities and 65 Selected women. A sample size of 100 respondents was determined through purposive and proportionate sampling techniques. Data was collected from primary and secondary sources using questionnaires and interviews. The data was presented using frequencies and percentages. The study findings revealed that income generation has significant influence on the socioeconomic development of women in the area of study. In addition, micro credit or extending small loans for income generating activities to the poor, particularly women in predominantly developing countries has become one of the most popular development strategies of the last few years. The study recommends that civil society, NGOs and CBOs should advocate for the need to create income generating activities for women in the sub-country. This is because the involvement of civil society, public consultation, and polling can have different

outcomes on income generating activities which can help to promote socio-economic status of the women.

1. Introduction

United Nations Charter of 1945 and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948 established the first official worldwide recognition of women's equality and non-discrimination on the basis on sex. However up until the late 1960's the focus was on women's reproductive roles, as women were seen as wives and mothers and their main issues were supposed to be obtaining access to food, contraceptives, nutrition and health care. The 70's and 80's marked a new phase in which the debate moved beyond women's equality and the domestic sphere of women's role as wives and mothers onto the global stage where the role of women was promoted as an aid for economic development. The important events such as the First World Conference for Women held in Mexico 1974, the UN decade for women "76-85" and the promotion of the Women In Development (WID) approach emphasised women's right to development, recognition of women's economic role in national economies and, most significantly, gave a voice to women in developing countries.

In Africa, the mainstreaming of gender was identified as a key process for instituting change

to the new South African democracy in 1995. South Africa ratified the Beijing Platform for Action, an agenda towards female empowerment, and made a firm commitment to the mainstreaming of gender within the Public Service by creating the National Gender Machinery. However, appreciation for the diversity between men and women still remains limited in most government departments, and the processes currently in place are not making much of a difference. The process of gender mainstreaming is especially important in a participatory democracy, as it enables international agreements in the area of gender to have clout. Gender is widely recognised as a marginalised issue, and the UN defines gender mainstreaming

Over the past decade, Uganda has made significant progress in the advancement of gender equality and empowerment of women in political, economic and social spheres. National Development Plan (NDP) which describes the country's macroeconomic and social policies in support of growth and poverty reduction during the period 2010/11 to 2014/15- emphasizes that discrimination against women in the country is embodied in traditional rules and practices that explicitly exclude them or give preference to men, resulting in a lasting constraint on women's empowerment and economic progress. At the governance level, these rules and practices limit political and economic participation of women. This in turn, leads to formulation and passing of policies and laws which do not protect women's rights. At the community and household level, women are restricted from participating in important decisions such as resource use, family planning, and access to services such as health and education.

The development of a National Gender Policy (NGP) in 1997, and its revision in 2007, confirms the Government of the Republic of Uganda's unequivocal commitment to take actions that will bring about more equal gender relations. The policy will ensure that all Government policies and programs, in all areas and at all levels, are consistent with the long-term goal of eliminating gender inequalities. The policy gives a clear mandate to the Ministry of

Gender, Labour and Social Development and other Line Ministries to mainstream gender in all sectors. It sets priority areas of action at the National, Sectoral, District and Community levels with all levels of planning, resource allocation and implementation of development programs redressing gender imbalances and acting with a gender perspective. The ultimate objective of this policy is to lead to a society that is both informed and conscious of gender and development issues and concerns.

2. Statement of Problem

In Uganda, many of the women have been have been victim of gender discrimination across country depending on the social cultural facts most of their participation have not been released in policy making and planning in most offices much as they are being involve in the offices their pay is low in country and most poor. Uganda has a strong legislative and policy framework that supports gender equality and women's empowerment, based on commitments under the Constitution well as other international obligations on gender equality. However, Ugandan society is characterized by strong patriarchal beliefs that value male supremacy and women's subordination. Gender inequalities stand in the way of Uganda's achievement of economic growth and transformation as highlighted in the National Development Plan (NDP) and the Millennium Development Goals.

In Karamoja region, decades-long efforts of the government intervention towards SDGs have remarkably reduced gender disparities in health, education, employment and political participation. However, substantial gender inequality persists and women in Kathile Sub-County, Kaabong District remain disadvantaged and vulnerable in many ways around the world. These include gender disparities in girls' secondary education enrolment and completion; high maternal mortality rates; women's unequal access to economic resources; disproportionate burdens of unpaid work; legal and social discrimination against women and girls; and widespread gender-based violence. In settings affected by tribal conflicts in Karamoja, and other crises, gender inequalities are often

magnified and their negative impacts on development are exacerbated.

Women still suffer and in a family setting they suffer more because they cannot give up their children. Moreover, the ultimate wellbeing of women is influenced by culture to a large extent.

Most women in Uganda have been marginalized in access to ownership and control over land, education, business ownership, skills. Whereas women comprise an estimated 70 per cent of the work force in agriculture, they experience unequal access to and control over important productive resources like land. This limits their ability to move beyond subsistence agriculture. In wage employment, women are concentrated in the lowest paying sectors, which is linked to their lower education levels; 50 per cent of employed women work in the three lowest paying sectors, compared to 33 per cent of men in Uganda.

The society decides which cultural beliefs and practices govern women and take control of their roles and responsibilities. Men on the contrary are left with the role of defining these societal norms with full control being left to them. Their interaction on different levels is fully determined by societal norms. Economically the means of production and access are also controlled by the society. The society on a bigger angle controls the process of development through resources (Hooks, 2000). It seems that, lack of awareness on gender issues is an influencing factor as well as the limited nature of resources and dysfunctional policies. That necessitates an investigation of this kind that enlightens the socioeconomic state of Women in Kathile area of Uganda.

In Kathile Sub-County, Kaabong, allocating enough resources towards gender mainstreaming is partially demonstrated by bringing on board the under-represented groups which in most cases is women. This enables them to take part in decision-making and ensure that they are truly part of the change process.

With the acquisition of basic knowledge and skills, people may demand to be consulted, heard and be involved in development projects

and programmes. It is through consultation that people's views and perceptions can contribute to development that affects them

3. Statement of Problem

Gender mainstreaming is integral to a country's sustainable development. Socio-economic development in any country is also pegged on access to optimal use of resources for both men and women. Gender mainstreaming of policies and programs in both the public and private sector is important if gender equality and equity for all citizens is to be achieved. Gender mainstreaming also results in more effective service on the part of operation, power and resources. Uganda as a country has made great efforts to mainstream gender in its activities but there have been challenges that have derailed the process.

According to Boughelaf (2012), the government policy in post-colonial times has not seriously challenged the basic structure of gender relations through creating awareness. This implies that gender inequality still persists. Awareness has not been created in terms of observing the rights of women, their participation and due place in socioeconomic and political arena as well as their safety and protection. This situation can be blamed on both individuals and institutions and this is very common in remote areas such as Kathile Sub-County, Kaabong District.

In Kathile Sub-County, gross inequality in terms of access to resources by both men and women is another challenge. This imbalance has resulted to higher incidences of poverty in women than in men. Most women depend on brewing local brew such as Kwete, Malwa etc which yields very little compared to men who do cattle rearing. In addition to that, women are often given heavy work load such as building houses, gardening, taking care of children yet their male counterparts are always idle taking alcohol.

Despite the fact that the government has done much to promote respectful relations, expressions of stereotypes are still rampant. The government has not keen on the progress of women who are the core of gender

mainstreaming given the inequalities they have faced over the years. This is because despite the fact that the government is sensitive to their needs, the voice of women has not been considered important in decision making processes. In addition, awareness is not created among male staff on the objectives of gender equality. It seems that the government did not see the need. If the government was committed to the process of gender mainstreaming, supervisors would have been encouraged to play a strong role in gender mainstreaming to a large extent. Despite the existence of gender policies developed and implemented by the government, their functionality and implementation in gender mainstreaming is still very poor. In support of this statement is the fact that the government considers gender mainstreaming to be an important aspect in its policies and programmes and specific projects are designed and funded to address women's problems.

Despite the government's efforts in implementing gender mainstreaming to overcome such gender disparities, little success has been realized in Kathile Sub-County. It was this regard that researcher intended to examine the gender mainstreaming and socio-economic development of women in Kathile sub-county, Kaabong district.

4. Purposes of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate the contribution of gender mainstreaming to the socio-economic development of women in Kathile sub-county, Kaabong district

Specific Objective is:

To determine the level of income generation on socio-economic development of women in Kathile sub-county, Kaabong district, Uganda.

5. Methodology

The study was carried out from Kathile sub-county. The area is located in Kaabong District, Karamoja region, north eastern Uganda. The researcher used this area due to its huge cases of gender inequalities which impacts socio-economic development of women in the area. Income generation was used as the construct of

gender mainstreaming. The study covered information from 2014-2016. The period was chosen because it was the period when the Kathile sub-county recorded the highest cases of gender disparities

Both quantitative were used in data collection and analysis and general information on the subject matter was collected from the different stakeholders involved in the study. The quantitative design involved use of close-ended questionnaires which were issued to the officials from Ministry of Health, Uganda as the method was convenient for them to fill during their free time.

The study population involved 133 participants where 15 Community Development officers (Kathile Sub-County), Community leaders (Kathile Sub-County), 35 Kathile Sub-county top authorities and 65 Selected women. The area was purposely selected because of its convenient location and also bore the necessary and required study elements. A sample size of 100 respondents was determined using Sloven's Formula. The result was analyzed using the percentage and Frequency.

6. Literature Review

6.1 Income Generation on Socio-Economic Development of Women

Women comprise 50 per cent of the world's total population, perform two-third of the world's work hours, receive 10 per cent of world's income and own less than one per cent of total assets (Andrea, 2012). Women are 70% of the world's poor and 70% of agricultural labor in developing countries. Lack of land for farming is perhaps the severest constraint faced by the rural poor, and one that affects more women than men. In rural areas, there are very few employment opportunities. Moreover, they worked as casual and seasonal laborers in agriculture or construction may not be an option for women. There is a growing body of literature which argues that credit programs empower women by strengthening their economic roles, enhancing their capacity to contribute their family's income, helping them to establish their identity outside the family and giving them experience and self-confidence in the public

sphere. Many studies have been made to investigate whether self-help groups and micro credit programs have been efficacious in the empowerment of women (Aufhauser and Hafner, 2002)

Micro credit or extending small loans for income generating activities to the poor, particularly women in predominantly developing countries has become one of the most popular development strategies of the last few years (Boughelaf, 2012). Despite the fact that micro credit has liberated the women from poverty and enhanced their empowerment to some extent, it has been seen that, many women are unable to use the loan for income generating activities. Rather they are forced to divert the use of their loans for other purposes. Food Agriculture Organization (FAO) may successfully facilitate a variety of micro-enterprise developments among the rural poor by helping women form groups in order to gain. A particularly successful approach may be implementing in the State where a project creates new income earning opportunities for rural women by developing organizations with both social and economic functions (Bruno, 2006). According to Brynard and Coning (2006), the major problems in the project villages are poverty, unemployment, failure of crops, heavy debts, no secondary income, lack of capital for investment and emergency needs, in addition to lack of knowledge and skills, lack of leadership, insufficient knowledge and skills in taking up feasible income generation programs, lack of awareness on mobilization and utilization of the locally available raw materials and natural resources, lack of marketing facilities and business skills etc. Due to all mentioned above people are living in low income level and economic status.

Considering the above problems and situation in the project area there is a need to organize the poor women of villages and councils communities in the State into women Self Help Groups (SHGs) to bring about changes in their social and economic aspects (Brynard, 2007). Hence there is a need to initiate savings, provide credit facilities, and improve the income level and economic conditions of the poor target women in the project villages. Many factors can contribute to the socio-economic development of

women such as land, technology, credit, employment etc (Cooper and Schedler, 2006). Of these various factors, access to credit constitutes the crucial input for their ability to earn an income, leading to an increase in their status and autonomy. In short, it contributes to their holistic development. In any country, there are mainly two sources of credit for any production activity. They are the owned sources and debt sources of finance. For those with little or no land, some of FAO projects may provide strong support for non-farming activities, such as marketing, milk processing, and other micro - enterprises

Women's enterprises tend to be relatively small, have informal structures, flexibility, low capital needs, modest educational requirements, high labor intensity, and depend on local raw materials (Cornwall and Whitehead, 2007). They are also characterized by their dependence on family labor and limited technical and managerial skills. Commonly, these enterprises are not registered, maintain no business records and do not have access to credit from formal credit institutions. Women in developing countries must often rely on informal financing sources that demand high interest. They take loans from the moneylenders at high rate of interest which is making them to live in debts.

Rural women are playing pivotal roles in almost every aspect of our society from time immemorial. They have made important contributions in creating access to human, natural, financial, physical and social capital for making their livelihood sustainable (Council of Europe, 1998)

All phases of agricultural activities from seed sowing to harvesting and processing of crops are intimately done by rural women. The women are participating in both farming and nonfarming activities directly or indirectly with men. The small farmland and homestead area is being used intensively mostly by women (African Development Bank, 2004). However, the majority of new livelihood opportunities are still considered to fall under the male domain, including work in the private sector, in small-scale businesses, or at the marketplace. In rural areas, interest of resource poor women in income-generating activities is high and they are involved in various non-farm income activities

(ADB, 2001; Zunes, 2007). Khan And Rahaman (2007) state that at the individual level, IGAs are perceived to be the ultimate liberator, which bring about a positive change to poor women's income and provide not only the financial help to household but also have positive impact on other factors of daily life. Some of the literature indicates that women's income is the key to sources of power and opportunities that may otherwise hinder their lives

The involvement of women in income-generation activities changes their attitudes (Daly, 2005). A number of studies recognize that women's IGAs are not only crucial but also an urgent priority to reduce poverty and improving their livelihoods or living standard. It has been found that growing economic power of Situation of women in Bangladesh: A brief overview women entails significant improvement in women's participation in household decision making, family planning, children survival rate, health and nutrition and children education especially girls' education (Daly, 2005).

7. Data Presentation

Income Generation on Socio-Economic Development of Women

To achieve this objective, questionnaires were administered to the subject. These are presented in the tables below:

Table 1: Credit programs empower women by strengthening their economic roles, enhancing their capacity to contribute their family's income

Response	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Disagree	4	4
Disagree	14	14
Not sure	18	18
Agree	44	44
Strongly Agree	20	20
Total	100	100

Table 1 above indicates that 4% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 14% of the respondents disagreed, 18% of the respondents were not sure, 44% agreed and the remaining 20% of the respondents strongly agreed that credit programs empower women by strengthening their economic roles, enhancing their capacity to contribute their family's income. This implies that majority of the respondents were aware that credit programs play a vital role on boosting the income levels of households hence contributing to improved socio-economic development of women

Table 2: Micro credit or extending small loans for income generating activities to the poor

Response	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Disagree	3	3
Disagree	7	7
Not sure	12	12
Agree	28	28
Strongly Agree	50	50
Total	100	100

Table 2 above reveals that 3% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 7% of the respondents disagreed, 12% of the respondents were not sure, 28% of the respondents agreed and the remaining 50% strongly agreed that micro credit or extending small loans for income generating activities to the poor. This implies that majority of the residents in the Sub-county were of the view that extending small loans to them can help to improve on their income status since these can be invested in different income generating activities hence improve on their socio-economic development especially women

Table 3: Women's enterprises tend to be relatively small, have informal structures, flexibility, low capital needs, modest educational requirements, high labor intensity, and depend on local raw materials

Response	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Disagree	5	5
Disagree	12	12
Not sure	13	13
Agree	37	37
Strongly Agree	33	33
Total	100	100

Table 3 above indicates that 5% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 12% of the respondents disagreed, 13% of the respondents were not sure, 37% of the respondents agreed and the remaining 33% of the respondents strongly agreed that women's enterprises tend to be relatively small, have informal structures, flexibility, low capital needs, modest educational requirements, high labor intensity, and depend on local raw materials. This implies that it is vital to enable women to generate incomes in order to improve on the social welfare and hence develop within their communities

Table 4: Rural women are playing pivotal roles in almost every aspect of our society from time immemorial

Response	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Disagree	5	5
Disagree	3	3
Not sure	12	12
Agree	50	50
Strongly Agree	30	30
Total	100	100

The study results presented in the table 4 above indicate that 5% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 3% of the respondents disagreed, 12% of the respondents were not sure, 50% of the respondents agreed and the remaining 30% strongly agreed. This implies that the majority of the respondents revealed that rural women are playing pivotal roles in almost every aspect of our society from time immemorial. This implies that it is vital to equip rural women with appropriate entrepreneurial skills in order to start up their own businesses hence improve on the socio-economic development

Table 5 : Women's income is the key to sources of power and opportunities that may otherwise hinder their lives

Response	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Disagree	5	5
Disagree	10	10
Not sure	9	9
Agree	50	50
Strongly Agree	26	26
Total	100	100

Table 5 reveals that 5% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 10% of the respondents disagreed, 9% of the respondents were not sure,

50% of the respondents agreed and the remaining 26% of the respondents strongly agreed. This implies that majority of the respondents revealed that Women's income is the key to sources of power and opportunities that may otherwise hinder their lives. This further implies that enabling women to access income helps them to widen their opportunities hence minimizing gender discrimination and improving on their socio-economic development

Table 6: The involvement of women in income-generation activities changes their attitudes

Response	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Disagree	12	12
Disagree	5	5
Not sure	12	12
Agree	33	33
Strongly Agree	38	38
Total	100	100

According to the table above, 12% of the respondents, 5% of the respondents disagreed, 12% of the respondents were not sure, 33% of the respondents agreed and 38% strongly agreed. This implies that majority of the respondents revealed that the involvement of women in income-generation activities changes their attitudes. This implies that a lot needs to be done to involve women in income generating activities.

8. Discussion of the Findings

It was found out that 4% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 14% of the respondents disagreed, 18% of the respondents were not sure, 44% agreed and the remaining 20% of the respondents strongly agreed that credit programs empower women by strengthening their economic roles, enhancing their capacity to contribute their family's income. This implies that majority of the respondents were aware that credit programs play a vital role on boosting the income levels of households hence contributing to improved socio-economic development of women. This is in line with Aufhauser and Hafner, (2002) who noted that there is a growing body of literature which argues that credit programs empower women by strengthening their economic roles, enhancing their capacity to

contribute their family's income, helping them to establish their identity outside the family and giving them experience and self-confidence in the public sphere. Many studies have been made to investigate whether self-help groups and micro credit programs have been efficacious in the empowerment of women.

The study results reveals that 3% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 7% of the respondents disagreed, 12% of the respondents were not sure, 28% of the respondents agreed and the remaining 50% strongly agreed that micro credit or extending small loans for income generating activities to the poor. This implies that majority of the residents in the Sub-county were of the view that extending small loans to them can help to improve on their income status since these can be invested in different income generating activities hence improve on their socio-economic development especially women. This is in line with Boughelaf, (2012) who stressed that micro credit or extending small loans for income generating activities to the poor, particularly women in predominantly developing countries has become one of the most popular development strategies of the last few years.

It was revealed that 5% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 12% of the respondents disagreed, 13% of the respondents were not sure, 37% of the respondents agreed and the remaining 33% of the respondents strongly agreed that women's enterprises tend to be relatively small, have informal structures, flexibility, low capital needs, modest educational requirements, high labor intensity, and depend on local raw materials . This implies that it is vital to enable women to generate incomes in order to improve on the social welfare and hence develop within their communities. This is in line with Cornwall and Whitehead (2007) who noted that women's enterprises tend to be relatively small, have informal structures, flexibility, low capital needs, modest educational requirements, high labor intensity, and depend on local raw materials. They are also characterized by their dependence on family labor and limited technical and managerial skills. Commonly, these enterprises are not registered, maintain no business records and do not have access to credit from formal credit institutions.

The finding reveals that 5% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 3% of the respondents disagreed, 12% of the respondents were not sure, 50% of the respondents agreed and the remaining 30% strongly agreed. This implies that the majority of the respondents revealed that rural women are playing pivotal roles in almost every aspect of our society from time immemorial. This implies that it is vital to equip rural women with appropriate entrepreneurial skills in order to start up their own businesses hence improve on the socio-economic development. This is line with World Bank, (2008b) who noted that women's participation in agricultural decision-making is also very limited. Still, rural women are the dominant decision-makers in areas such as home gardening, cattle, goat and poultry rearing, and post-harvest activities such as seed production and storage.

It was revealed that 5% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 10% of the respondents disagreed, 9% of the respondents were not sure, 50% of the respondents agreed and the remaining 26% of the respondents strongly agreed. This implies that majority of the respondents revealed that Women's income is the key to sources of power and opportunities that may otherwise hinder their lives . This further implies that enabling women to access income helps them to widen their opportunities hence minimizing gender discrimination and improving on their socio-economic development. This is in line with Khan And Rahaman (2007) who stated that at the individual level, IGAs are perceived to be the ultimate liberator, which bring about a positive change to poor women's income and provide not only the financial help to household but also have positive impact on other factors of daily life. Some of the literature indicates that women's income is the key to sources of power and opportunities that may otherwise hinder their lives

According to the finding, 12% of the respondents, 5% of the respondents disagreed, 12% of the respondents were not sure, 33% of the respondents agreed and 38% strongly agreed. This implies that majority of the respondents revealed that the involvement of women in income-generation activities changes their

attitudes. This implies that a lot needs to be done to involve women in income generating activities. This is in agreement with Daly, (2005) who noted that the involvement of women in income-generation activities changes their attitudes. A number of studies recognize that women's IGAs are not only crucial but also an urgent priority to reduce poverty and improving their livelihoods or living standard. It has been found that growing economic power of Situation of women

9. Conclusion

Based on the findings, the study concludes that the level of income generation in Kathale area is low, there are very few employment opportunities. Moreover, they worked as casual and seasonal laborers in agriculture or construction may not be an option for women. In addition, micro credit or extending small loans for income generating activities to the poor, particularly women in predominantly developing countries has become one of the most popular development strategies of the last few years.

10. Recommendation

The study recommends that civil society, NGOs and CBOs should advocate for the need to create income generating activities for women in the sub-country. This is because the involvement of civil society, public consultation, and polling can have different outcomes on income generating activities which can help to promote socio-economic status of the women

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Governance, Politics and Antecedents of Gender Behavioural Flexibility in Africa

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Abstract. The coming of western and eastern cultures changed the “face” of Africa and brought in a new dispensation which eroded what was in operation hitherto in Africa. Women became relegated to the background in the scheme of influence. The situation was worsened because written records were not available before the coming of foreign cultures. Necessary efforts for proper documentation by the new elites in Africa for hitherto ‘erased’ history in Africa have also been poor. This paper is intended as gap-filling in this regard. It delves into ‘gender blindness’ governance and politics before foreign infiltrations.

1. Introduction

The woman had important roles to play in the scheme of thing within the Africa world order before foreign infiltration. The most significant being the dual-gender system of social-political line that was in operation. Sofola (1991) espoused on how womanhood was perceived in the following realities:

A reality as a woman and the divine equal of man in essence

- A reality as a daughter
- A reality as a mother
- A reality as a wife

These realities were conceptualized and established within a system of co-ruler ship structure politically. And, the world view of the African is rooted in the philosophy of holistic harmony and communalism rather than in the

individualistic isolationism of Europe (Sofola, 1991). This is more so, because of the communal system in operation in most parts of African societies.

In most habitats, people were related in varied ways. If not by blood line, then by marriage ties. This “relatedness” brought about not just peace and communal feelings but a deterrence to maltreatment of the female not just because of “relatedness” but the fear of negative tags on families that may deter future probable in – laws from agreeing to unions with notorious bad in – laws (Mowaiye Fagbemi 2008).

2. Gender Structures, Politics and Governance

Sofola (1991) articulated that in pre-colonial period, the individual belonged primarily to a family and within it he/she moves and has his/her being. It is this philosophy that informed African social order and the dual-gender system of social-political organization which Okonjo in Sofola (1991) articulated further as follows:

The African woman has not been inactive, irrelevant and silent. Rather, African tradition has seen the wisdom of a healthy social organization where all its citizens are seen to be vital channels for a healthy and harmonious society. Hence the establishment of a dual-sex power structure which is lacking in European and Arab cultures (Okonjo, 1986).

The principle of relatedness makes it possible for the African society to evolve a social-political order that gives every member a proper context to live in with a check and balance mechanism that helped to maintain equilibrium. This mechanism evolved within the micro-unit of the home to the extended political, economic and larger dominated political governing council in societies where there will not be a female voice to represent the voice of other females in the varied communities. At least, there will be a female priestess or female political head or head of market women in council who can be called in at critical moments to articulate the opinions and wishes of others. In Yoruba land of western Nigeria, these were known as Iyalode and Iyaloja among other titles. The co-ruler-ship concept of governance falls into the following categories (Sofola,1991):

- Monarchy that evolved on gender line
- Monarchy and co-ruler-ship that evolved on the principle of daughterhood
- Monarchy based on the principle of queen-motherhood,
- Priestess/spirit medium principle
- Warrior-queen system based on daughterhood representative of the throne in the supreme military council of the kingdom.
- Monarchical co-ruler-ship based on the principle of woman of the house role of the first wife of the king, Anasi-Obi (Igbo); Olori (Yoruba).
- Co-ruler-ship based on constituted roles of heads of female professionals; Iyalode (Yoruba).
- Co-ruler-ship based on the principle of institution of wives.

The principle of dual-gender political line of power evolved initially from the principles of father and mother of the family units, and gained a stronger reinforcement through the principles of man/woman of the house system of governance. But the composition of the governing council of each arm, male and female, demonstrates more clearly the reality and significance of the dual gender power structure. In Igbo land, The Obi was the head of the male arm while the Omu was the head of the female arm.

The Eze-Omu, the head of the female line of power, may not be the wife of the king nor necessarily be related. Unlike in European and Arab cultures where “Queenship” refers only to the wife of a king, she is a duly elected head of that political line of power, and with her governing council; Ndi Olinzele-Omu, she caters for the interest of the female citizens, controls certain areas of the power in the combined central council of the kingdom and the commercial life of the state. She is a priestess and spirit medium, and has a primarily role to maintain a sustained spiritual health of the kingdom both at peace and war time, (Sofola. 1991).

Governance of the state/kingdom begins from the head of the family unit, who sees to the welfare of the family members, control and seeks for the peaceful co-existence of all in the family, and extends to the larger extended family unit: oldest family member heads the unit and is regarded as the elder, who resolves conflicts and gives correction.

Among the peoples of Ijebu land, Owo and Ondo in Yoruba land, the same system of political power line existed, but with a slight difference. For example among the Ondos in general, and Ile-Oluji in particular, there existed a strong dichotomized power structure based on gender line - each with a political head as ruling monarchs; Oba – Okunrin (male) and Oba-Obinrin (female).

There was also the Iyalode in Yoruba land, who is the head or voice for the females. That the council of high chiefs integrates both genders reflects the structure that existed among the Yorubas and the western peoples of Nigeria where each line of governance had its say akin to what was operational in the eastern of Nigeria. Hence the saying that no matter how powerful a king may be he cannot be an Omu or Iyalode. (Sofola,1991; Mowaiye, 2002)

The people of Ijebu land in the present Ogun State of Nigeria had the Erelu (women) in the council of governors. There was a female line of power which combined with the male line of power in a joint council of high chiefs which served as the supreme executive council of the kingdom. Then directly below this council is a ‘lower’ house where the Iyalode system also

existed. The same structure also existed in Ile-Ife in present Osun State, Nigeria. This was also the governing structure for most states in Yoruba land. European/Arab encroachment destabilized this system.

Powerful women emerged in their own rights as astute politicians to become Obas. In the kingdom of Ile-Ife, there is a record of Ooni Luwo, Oba Obinrin or female king, whose reign over the kingdom of Ile-Ife experienced great development. Among her physical developments and her artistic nature made her totile the palace ground in Ile-Ife in a typical intricate style of African civilization. She was the first and the last monarch in Ile-Ife as Sofola (1991) extensively articulated.

It must be noted that today, notwithstanding colonial pollutions-positions such as Iyalode, Erelu, still exist in some parts of Yoruba kingdom, though these positions are not as powerful as before colonial period but some of the title holders are no push overs. An example is Olufnmilayo Ransome Kuti, who rallied women against colonial powers in present day Abeokuta.

Among the Edos; of the eleven dynasties of Ogiso era and before the advent of Oranmiyan era with its Yoruba influences, there was also a high chief level where women also had their power line. It was from that structure that the female Ogisos; female kings, emerged as the ruling monarchs in their own rights as astute and powerful politicians. For example, Lady Emose. The Europeans and the Arabs arrival on the scene and introduction of their philosophy of inferior position of women in the scheme of things, enthroned the superiority of men; and monopolistic intolerance of male psyche. The dislodgement of political structures has led to chaos and women were dislodged and made irrelevant, a fact that is now full-blown in today's European-Arab system of government of contemporary Africa. (Sofola 1991).

As noted, in some areas, there were two lines of power ruling kingdoms on gender line. Each having his own governing council and ruling over its own gender, though periodically a joint

council would hold to discuss matters of common interest.

In some kingdoms at the death of the king, a female regent would reign until a new king is enthroned. This is still in practice in Ile-Oluji, Ondo State, Nigeria and some other parts of Nigeria. As articulated by Mowaiye (2002), women heroines abound. For example, Emotan of Benin who risked her life as a spy to save the kingdom of Benin at a very dangerous point in Benin history when the throne of Benin was viciously threatened. Till date, in many parts of Nigeria, the women folks still have their ways of making unpopular kings to abdicate the throne. For example, among the Ijumu people of Kogi state in Nigeria, in the past, a tyrant king who refuses to do the people's biddings or take to correction would be overthrown in days from when the women go half naked for him.

The Queen warrior, Queen Amina of Zaria who as the daughter representative of her father's throne in the supreme military council of Zauzzau, seized power at a diminishing point of the kingdom, and expanded it far and wide through her military leadership and tactical mobilization of her warlords and soldiers. The ancient city of Zaria, built under her leadership, is a testimony of her greatness (Sofola, 1991). Till date, she remains a heroine in Zaria, Nigeria.

In Angola, there was Queen Warrior Nzingha who spat fire on the Portuguese. It was her acceptance of European culture through Christianity that mellowed her down, yet the sheer force of her presence prevented the Portuguese from taking over Angola until after her death. There was Yaa Asantewa of Ghana, 1863, 1923, the monarch, (female king) who fought to the last against the British and finally gave her life in a bid to serve her people.

The Europeans, not having a system of power line which is not attached to "wife-hood" could only understand such powerful female characters as either wives of the king, Queen, or mother of the king, Queen mother. Consequently, they would refer to women of such high monarchical status only as Queen-Mothers.

There was the Priestess/Spirit-medium Mbuya Nehenda of Zimbabwe, who mobilized her

people and fought the British when her people were invaded. She was executed by hanging by the British for her resistance against imperial authority.

There were powerful Queen mothers such as Queen Idia of Benin Empire and also the Queen-Mother of Mai Idris Alooma of Borno empire. It was Queen Idia of Benin Empire whose series of successful war exploits in defence of the throne won the favour of Oba Esigie of Benin such that an hitherto ritual as put to an end and an end was put to the ritual killing of Queen-Mothers during the coronation ceremonies of their sons, the heir apparent.

Among the Edos of Nigeria, before Orunmiyan, there were powerful women politicians like Emose and Orhorho who were rulers of their people. In old Borno Empire in Nigeria, the (Queen mother) or (queen sister) or the Gumsu (the king's senior wife) were influential in the state, especially the Queen mother. They were regarded as special advisers to the king and those seeking favours from the king had to go through them. (Mowiaiye 2008).

It was Iyalode Tinubu of Lagos, strongly supported by Efunsetan Aniwura, the Iyalode of Ibadan, which resisted the signing of a treaty that was to sign off Lagos into a colony. She was finally betrayed by the Oba of Lagos and the treaty was signed. She then chose to die in exile in rejection of the damage the men had done to selling their birth rights for a mess of pottage.

And of recent history was the Aba women's war, popularly known as Aba riots of 1929, where the women resisted taxation by violent protest and succeeded in suspending for a long time, the colonial government's decision to introduce taxation in the eastern part of Nigeria.

Mrs Olufunmilayo Ransome Kuti successfully mobilized the market women of Abeokuta of Nigeria in 1940s to drive a point home and successfully got the king of Egba land to go on exile for some years until things cooled down.

Recently also, there was Omu-Ako of Issle-Oligbo of Aniocha who during the Nigerian civil war of 1967 – as the head of Omu women's council, took over the traditional government, combined both male and female lines of power, and confronted both warring camps of the

Federal Nigeria and Biafra in defence of her citizens. Madam Okwuanyi Okwumabua (paternal aunt to Prof. Sofola) was a member of that governing council.

In various part of Africa, women did not see themselves as irrelevant in the scheme of things. They had their way of not only making their points but also getting their way at critical periods of their kingdom's history, especially if a king was getting despotic. Till date, women in some areas of Nigeria such as Ijumu kingdom in Kogi State (Central Nigeria) as noted ,still protest half naked when they think their views are being pushed aside or they want to insist on a king taking particular steps, to the point of asking a king to commit suicide if found wanting in governance.

3. Conclusion

With the type of African womanhood reflected in the foregoing array of African heroines, one would not have expected any less from women in the diaspora (after the slave trade) who themselves were undoubtedly descendants of warrior Queens, Monarchs, women intelligence/spies, economic magnets and powerful daughters of the African land.

This was reflected by various women who found themselves in diaspora and actions they took which led to the breakage of colour bar in the 1950s in the United State of America.

And as succinctly put by Sofola (1991) it was the Africa women's healthy psyche and heritage that they carried over to the new world. It was not brought about by a mere circumstance of being left in the home during slavery nor accidental.

It is apparent that African's governance and politics was different from the western and eastern dispensation as regards genes and political structure. The strength of African womanhood and her essence lies in the past. When this essence is brought to the fore and males and females potentials are maximized for the good of the society, African development will be hastened.

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Gender, Emotional Intelligence and Conflict Resolution Proficiency of Managers in Nigerian Organizations

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Abstract. This study investigated the influences of gender and emotional intelligence on managers' conflict resolution proficiency in public and private organizations in Jos, Nigeria using one hundred participants (52 males and 48 females). Findings of the study revealed a significant effect of emotional intelligence on managers' conflict resolution proficiency ($t(1, 99) = -18.364, P < 0.05$). Results also showed that significant differences exist between female and male managers' conflict resolution proficiency $t(1, 99) = -72.859, p < 0.05$. The study further revealed an interactive influence of the two variables on managers' conflict resolution proficiency $F(1, 99) = -13.462, P < 0.05$. Based on findings of the study, we recommend that organizations should adopt the policy of recruiting male and female managers with high EI and high conflict management proficiency. This is because hiring employees and managers who have these characteristic traits yields twice as much result compared to those with low EI and low conflict management proficiency. Organizations should also provide conflict management proficiency training to their managers for efficient and effective performance. Lastly, changes should be effected in the design of today's organizations to accommodate flatter, decentralized, and less complex social systems that will make it easier for the managers to manage in order to reduce

conflict in the organization to its barest minimum.

Keywords: Gender, Emotional Intelligence, Conflict Management, Proficiency, Managers

1. Introduction

Managerial leadership is a topic of great importance to people who are administrators or managers, to people who aspire to be administrators or managers and to those who are employees in organizations. The concept of managerial leadership has fascinated mankind for thousands of years. The kind of managerial leadership style in a workplace enhances subordinates' performance, involvement and commitment and further determines the manager's ability to resolve conflicts in the organization. What a manager or leader does influence to a greater extent the level of effectiveness and cooperation of his or her subordinates and vice versa.

In examining the social system in an organizational set up, systematic appraisal needs to be done to understand the kind of manager or leader the organization has. This is because the man in the organization who overcomes great odds, battles seemingly un-surmountable obstacles, influence followers to do the things that he wants them to do; and achieves great success is the image of the leader or manager

and his ability to run the organization effectively and efficiently. The concept of managerial leadership suggests a process of goal attainment, follower satisfaction and group cohesion and support. Managerial leadership requires a dynamic and innovative approach to problems commonly perceived by a group of people. The primary function of the manager/leader in any group is to facilitate the accomplishment of group goals.

Over the years valuable questions have been raised about managerial leadership to include the following-How are leaders or managers made? When and why is managerial leadership seen as being important? How do leaders or managers come to be perceived as such? These questions signify that managerial leadership is an interpersonal issue as well as a personal one. The social psychology of interpersonal relations and the psychology of interpersonal influences are both crucial to the manager or leader in order to take care of the interactions between him (the leader) and his subordinates. Within organizational context, Krietner and Kinicki (2001) posit that managerial leadership is a social influence process in which the manager seeks the voluntary participation of his or her subordinates in an effort to reach set organizational goals/targets.

Managerial leadership entails more than just wielding power and exercising authority; it is exhibited at varying levels. At the individual level, for example, leadership involves mentoring, coaching, inspiring, and motivating (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001); the leader builds teams, creates cohesion, and resolve conflicts at the group and organizational levels. Finally leaders build culture and create change at the organizational level. What the leader does, rather than who he is, is the determinant of how well he leads; leaders behave in characteristic ways. Steers (1999) and Chamorro-Premuzic and Furnham (2003) in their seminal works identified three of such patterns of leadership behavior as participative, authoritarian, and delegate ship usually termed "leadership styles". A style of leadership is a relatively enduring set of behaviors which are the characteristics of the individual regardless of the situation.

Although in recent times our organizations have been constantly changing in order to improve

their competitive position, this does not, of course, mean that such organizations are learning to manage conflict more effectively. The problem is that managers and administrators attempt not so much to understand and deal with conflict functionally as to find ways of reducing, avoiding, or terminating it. It appears that this state of affairs has remained unchanged. Steers (1999) concludes that unresolved conflict often results in loss of productivity, the stifling of creativity and the creation of barriers to cooperation and collaboration. Perhaps most importantly for managers, good conflict resolution ability equals good employee retention. Managers who don't deal with conflict will eventually watch their good talents walk out the door in search of healthier and safer work environment. As a result, Rahim (2002) concludes that valuable resources are wasted as employees engage in dysfunctional conflict and miss the opportunity of utilizing functional conflict to improve their effectiveness.

For any organization to excel in today's highly competitive global economy there is need to properly address the issue of its leadership especially the manager's style, proficiency and ability to promptly address the interpersonal and intergroup conflicts in his or her organization which are key factors in determining how well its employees will get along, get involved and be committed to work. Once the style of leadership does not encourage employee commitment and involvement; they become de-motivated and tend to feel like aliens in the organization and this consequently leads to low motivation in pursuing creative ideas that will enhance organizational productivity. This can further brew dysfunctional conflict that can manifest at varying levels in the organization.

Several underlying factors that are of interpersonal, intergroup and organizational nature, contribute to workplace conflict. The most obvious forms of conflict are those based on interpersonal relationship and tensions; office politics, gossips, rumors, etc (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001; Steers, 1999) and their consequences are easy to observe. Clashing personality types, language and cultures as well as gender conflict often lead to harassment or discrimination charges (Birkhoff, 2017; Watson, 1988). Hierarchy and conflicting interests lead to

work-related conflicts. They can arise out of resource allocation, workload or benefits (Krietner & Kinicki, 2001) as well as role ambiguity and role conflict (Mwantu, 2007). If groups perceive unequal treatment, this can lead to resentment and conflict over real or imagined disparities (Kelman, 2009).

Each of us has his or her way of dealing with conflicts. Studies have indicated that our ability to address conflicts both at home and at work are based on many variables, such as our gender, our personality and emotional quotient, the environmental situations, the nature of the conflict, and where we are in our professional career (Birkhoff, 2017; Semadar, Robins & Ferris, 2006). Conflict is a common occurrence in organizations, and with the advent of women in the managerial realm (Juliet, 2003; Leah, 2005; Songra, 1989; Watson, 1988), researchers have become interested in the question of whether women and men vary significantly in their conflict management styles and conflict management abilities?

Although this interest has encouraged many researchers to investigate the issues of gender differences and conflict management styles (Chusmir & Mills, 1989; Bastian, Burns & Potter, 2005; Songra, 1989) and conflict management proficiency (Kaushik & Dhaka, 2010; Rahim, Psenicka, Polychroniou, Zhao, Yu, Chan, et al, 2001; Watson, 1988); there has been limited research to explore the interactive influences of gender and managers' EI on their conflict resolution effectiveness and proficiency particularly in Nigeria. This particular study therefore hypothesized that gender, and the manager's emotional intelligence or EQ are likely to have significant influences on Nigerian managers' conflict resolution proficiency.

Because female and male managers occupy different roles at work and at home, role theory suggests that they would use different conflict resolution behaviors in each role and will therefore exhibit different abilities in resolving such conflicts too (Songra, 1989). Gender for example, have been found to affect and permeate conflict dynamics at the individual, organizational, and societal levels (Birkhoff, 2017). Understanding the role of gender in conflict according to Birkhoff is best accomplished through an analysis of individual

levels, interactional levels and societal levels (p.1) Birkhoff further posits that within these three levels of analysis, there are two paradigms namely the essentialist paradigm which assumes a separate female world - one in which women are by nature different from men; and the post-modern feminism paradigm which focuses on the exchange between the social construction of individuals and the individual's constitution of themselves.

Various other studies have also been conducted on the influence of gender as a predictor of managers' conflict negotiation behavior. Carol Watson investigated whether gender or power was a better predictor of manager's negotiation behavior (Watson, 1988). She hypothesized that perceived gender differences in negotiation behavior are an artifact of status and power difference between men and women. That study provided a more realistic view of the legitimacy of gender stereotype by comparing the effects of power and gender on conflict negotiation behavior. Watson found that power was a better predictor of the feelings, behavior and outcomes of managerial negotiations than gender (Watson, 1988; Birkhoff, 2017).

The construct of emotional intelligence has also attracted a lot of research attention in the health sector, education, psychology and the world of work in recent times. Several studies by Cherniss and Adler (2000), Karuri and Tanko (2007), Coe, Palmer and Elshabazz (2012) and Reece (2014) have found that emotional intelligence has significant impact on various elements on everyday living including the individual's organizational job performance and ability to negotiate in conflict situations. Coe et al (2012) found that higher emotional intelligence was a good predictor of life satisfaction. Salovey and Mayer (1990) defined emotional intelligence as a subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions to discriminate among them and use the information to guide ones thinking and actions. Salovey and Meyer further proposed a model that identified four different factors of emotional intelligence: the perception of emotion, the ability to reason using emotions, the ability to

understand other's emotions and the ability to manage one's own and others' emotions.

- (i) Perceiving emotions: The first step in understanding emotions is to accurately perceive them. In many cases, this might involve understanding non-verbal signals such as body language and facial expressions.
- (ii) Reasoning with emotions: The next step involves using emotions to promote thinking and cognitive activity. Emotions help prioritize what we pay attention and react to; we respond to things that garner our attention.
- (iii) Understanding emotions: The emotion that we perceive can carry a wide variety of meanings. For example, if someone expresses an angry emotion, the observer must interpret the cause of the anger and what it might mean.
- (iv) Managing emotions: The ability to manage emotions effectively is a key part of emotional intelligence. Regulating emotions, responding appropriately and responding to the emotions of others are all important aspects of emotional management.

Studies have also shown that emotional intelligence is related to perceived stress and social adjustment (Franzoi, 2000; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Emotional intelligence is an important factor that determines success in life as well as an individual's psychological wellbeing. Everyone have certain level of emotional intelligence and will take a position towards what is confronting him either positive or negative life events and will compromise with them.

A person who has high emotional intelligence gives order and stability to his life in such a way that with high emotional intelligence, he will experience less negative events in his life (Franzoi, 2000). For example, most psychologists consider happiness as one of the basic human emotions just as anger, disgust,

surprise and sadness (Franzoi, 2000; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001).

Franzoi further posits that happiness' essential components include: positive emotions, life satisfaction, and lack of negative emotions; positive relations with others, having purposeful life, personal growth and love of others which are all direct aspects of our emotional intelligence. Thus, this study seeks to examine the effects of the variables of gender and emotional intelligence on managers' conflict resolution proficiency or ability. It is the view of this study that when the variables are taken together, a better understanding of their effects on workplace behavior would be of considerable help in developing a more effective and robust conflict resolution model and practical counseling and dispute resolution techniques for managers of Nigerian organizations in particular and conflict resolution practitioners in general.

A brief look at workers' productivity in today's organizations reveals that most workers have a hard time fitting into the work environment and acclimatizing with the organizational culture. Furthermore, the level of anger, hate and unfriendly "politics" (organizational politics) shows a heightened need for proper orientation and or reorientation about emotional intelligence. Today's organizations hold high standards when it comes to strict organizational culture and meeting of deadlines and this has over the years posed very serious challenges particularly to the management of such organizations. This effect also puts employees under high pressure to meet deadlines, interact with customers and produce results and these attempts in some cases lead to conflicts between employees themselves, and between employees and management of the organization.

The ability to resolve such conflicts however differ from one manager to the other; some previous studies have held many individual variables, such as gender, personality and emotions, the environmental situations and the nature of the conflict, as factors responsible for such diversities (Birkhoff, 2017; Sogra, 1989). This study therefore examined the role of gender and emotional intelligence as factors that

influence the manager's organizational conflict resolution proficiency/ability.

The main aim of the study therefore was to investigate the roles of gender and emotional intelligence on the manager's conflict resolution proficiency/ability. The study examined the following specific research objectives:

- (i) Ascertain the relationship between gender and conflict resolution proficiency.
- (ii) Determine the predictive impact of emotional intelligence on managers' conflict resolution proficiency;
- (iii) Investigate the predictive interaction effects of gender and emotional intelligence on managers' conflict resolution proficiencies.
- (iv) Proffer plausible solutions by way of recommendations towards effective conflict resolution in work organizations in Nigeria.

In order to achieve these objectives, the study hypothesized that:-

- There would be significant effect of gender on managers' conflict resolution proficiency in public and private organizations in Jos, Nigeria.
- There would be significant effect of emotional intelligence on managers' conflict resolution proficiency in public and private organizations in Jos, Nigeria.
- There would be significant interaction effects of gender and emotional intelligence on managers' conflict resolution proficiency in public and private organizations in Jos, Nigeria.

The study was conducted in public and private organizations in the metropolis of Jos and Bukuru in Plateau State, Nigeria. The study was necessary because it will provide information on the specific influences of gender and emotional intelligence on managers' ability to resolve conflict in the workplace. The results of findings could also help policy makers in formulating policies that boarder on labor laws that could help with recognizing gender issues and the

place of emotional intelligence in resolving endemic disputes at the workplace. The findings of this study will be useful to top management in public and private organizations in designing effective policies that could enhance their organizational culture to create friendly environments for high level productivity.

2. Method

Participants and Setting

The participants were 100 supervisors and managers (52 males and 48 females) drawn from public and private organizations in Jos/Bukuru metropolis. As stated above, the organizations used in the study included the Plateau State Revenue Commission, Power Holding Company of Nigeria (PHCN), Jos District Office and owners, supervisors and managers of selected private businesses such as Poultry farms, welding outfits, hair dressing and barbing salons and sports lottery game outfits. Others are car and tricycle hiring companies, pharmaceutical stores and restaurants all drawn from a pool of Small Scale to medium businesses that operate in the metropolis. The respondents in the study were selected using the convenience sampling technique since participation was voluntary. The selection of participants caught across the genders.

Research Design

The 2x2 factorial designs were used for the study; this is because there are two independent variables of gender (Male and Female) and emotional intelligence (low and high), respectively. The dependent variable in the study was manager's conflict resolution proficiency.

Measures

A structured questionnaire was used for data collection in the study. The questionnaire is a self-report paper and pencil test which was administered individually to participants. Three scales of measurement were merged to get the responses of the participants. The questionnaire therefore was divided into three sections. Section A assessed participants' socio-demographic characteristics (age, gender, highest educational qualification, marital status, position, and years of managerial work experience). Section B of the questionnaire contained items on emotional intelligence scale

which was used to measure participants' level of emotional intelligence and Section C measured the respondents' proficiency in conflict management.

Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS)

Developed by Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden and Dornheim (1998); the scale is a 32-item scale with a five-point Likert-type scale. The instrument has three categories: (a) the appraisal and expression of emotion assessed by 13 items; (b) the regulation of emotion assessed by 10 items; and (c) the utilization of emotion assessed by 9 items. Participants read each statement and decided whether they 'strongly disagree', 'disagree', are 'undecided', 'agree', or 'strongly agree' with the statement. Schutte et al. (1998) reported a Cronbach alpha of 0.90 internal consistency for adults with mean age of 29.3 (SD = 10.2) and $r = 0.78$ for test-retest reliability after a two-week interval on the scale for a smaller group drawn from the sample. Schutte et al. (1998) further reported predictive validity of $r(63) = 0.32$ for first year GPA of college students. For the scale's discriminate validity they reported $r(41) = -0.06$ for the correlation between the scale and SAT scores, and $r(22) = -0.28$ to 0.54 for subscales of NEO Personality Inventory of scores of college students. The scale is scored by summing up scores. A higher score is indicative of high emotional intelligence, while a lower score is indicative of low emotional intelligence.

Conflict Management Proficiency Scale (CMPS)

The Conflict Management Proficiency Scale was developed by Vanadan Kaushik and Sunati Dhaka in 2010 to assist male and female managers in identifying their attitudes toward conflict management (Kaushik & Dhaka, 2010). The scale assesses managers' proficiency in managing organizational conflicts. Different people have approached conflict management differently and conflict management proficiency assessment is the essential first stage in the process of conflict management and resolution. The scale according to Kaushik and Dhaka, offers a reflective tool, which clarifies disputants' interests, positions and issues and allows revealing of others. At the same time, it builds a shared body of knowledge and information made available to the manager

through the use of this scale of measurement. The tool then, at times, may begin to reframe relationships, build interests and issue-based coalitions (Shmueli 2003). There was requirement for developing such conflict management proficiency assessment tool that is embedded in reflection and social learning and can help reveal disputes through self-discovery. Present tool can bring those issues into lime light that are important to disputants in addition to understanding the priorities that motivate the beliefs and actions of others. Assessment using this tool can be helpful in building relationships and in eliciting the managers' participation in managing and resolving conflict.

The instrument has received international adaptability with significantly high reliability and validity coefficients and good inter-item factor analysis coefficients even on African samples including Nigeria (Akintayo, 2006; Rahim et al, 2001). After item analysis, CMP scale was subjected to test of reliability for judging its stability so that it yields consistent results. The CMP scale was found to be reliable for the study of Conflict Management Proficiency of managers and leaders. The values of reliability coefficient of correlation by split - half method and test - retest method were found to be 0.82 and 0.79 respectively. The scale, thus, had both internal consistency and stability.

The tool was further validated to assure its dependability in assessing conflict management proficiency in managers in the study setting. Criterion related validity of the scale was established by calculating the index of reliability that came to be 0.903 by split - half and 0.89 by test - retest method.

Procedure

The researchers selected two public organizations namely the Plateau State Board of Internal Revenue and Power Holding Company of Nigeria, Jos District Office and seventy five owners of small/medium business private organizations all operating in Jos/Bukuru metropolis using the convenience sampling method (Coolican, 2009). Thereafter, the researchers approached the management of the respective selected organizations and sought for permission to carry out the study. When permission was granted, the researchers administered the Questionnaires based on

willingness to participate by the respondents. This is due to the tight and busy nature of this set of respondents. One hundred and eight Questionnaires were administered to the respondents. The Questionnaires were administered personally by the researchers so as to ensure a high rate of validly completed document that would generate the information and data required for the study. The completed Questionnaires were collected and out of the number administered, 100 were finally selected for the study. The remaining eight were discarded due to incomplete supply of information or errors made in completing them. Participants were debriefed regarding the study. Furthermore, the completed questionnaires were coded and analyzed.

Data Analysis Tools

A number of descriptive and inferential statistical tools were used for the purpose of analysis with the aid of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Software Version 21. These include the percentage and standard deviation and Regression Analysis of Variance (RANOVA). The Regression Analysis of variance is a statistical test procedure for comparing multivariate population means of several groups; it uses the variance-covariance in testing the statistical significance of the mean differences of the variables used in a study. Statistical reports of the data generated for this particular investigation provided individual p-values for each independent variable, indicating whether differences and interactions are statistically significant. The results are presented below:

3. Results

Descriptive Statistics

S/N	Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	Gender	1.48	.502
2	Age Group	1.88	.795
3	Marital Status	1.71	.591
4	Religion	1.46	.610
5	Years of Service	1.78	.773

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of Demographic Variables

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	52	52.0
Female	48	48.0
Total	100	100.0
Age Group	Frequency	Percent
20-35yrs	38	38.0
36-45yrs	36	36.0
46 & Above	26	26.0
Total	100	100.0
Marital Status	Frequency	Percent
Single	36	36.0
Married	57	57.0
Divorced	7	7.0
Total	100	100.0
Religion	Frequency	Percent
Christianity	60	60.0
Muslim	34	34.0
Others	6	6.0
Total	100	100.0
Years of Service	Frequency	Percent
1-10yrs	43	43.0
11-20yrs	36	36.0
21yrs & Above	21	21.0
Total	100	100.0

Table one shows that, out of the 100 respondents who were supervisors and managers in public and private organizations used for this research, 52.0% of them were males whereas 48.0% were females, respectively. Age ranges of participants were from 20-46years. The table shows that 38.0% of the respondents were within the ages of 20-35 years; 36.0% were within 36-45yrs while 26.0% were 46 years old. Concerning marital status of the respondents, 57.0% were married while 7.0% were divorced. None of the respondents was single. Sixty percent of the respondents in the study were Christians, 34.0% were Muslim and 6.0% were worshipers of the African Traditional Religion (ATR), respectively. Finally, the managerial experiences of respondents were also analyzed and it was found that 43.0% of the respondents had either served the organization as Supervisor or manager for 1-10years; whereas 36.0% had manage their respective organizations for between 11-20years and 21.0% had manage the organization for 21 years and above.

Table 2: Mean and Standard Deviations of Respondents on Demographic Variables

Table two presents the mean scores and standard deviation of the respondents' gender, age group,

marital status, religion and years of service respectively. For instance, mean 1.48 and SD of .502 for Gender, Mean 1.88 and SD of .795 for Age Group of the respondents, Mean 1.71 and SD of .591 for marital status, Mean 1.46 and SD of .610 for Religion and Mean 1.78 and SD of .773 for years of service/managerial experience of respondents, respectively.

In order to test the hypotheses of this study, the data were further analyzed using Regression Analysis of Variance (RANOVA) and the results are presented below.

H1: There would be significant effect of gender on managers' conflict resolution proficiency in public and private organizations in Jos.

Table 3: Regression Analysis of Variance (RANOVA) of Respondents' Gender on Conflict Resolution Proficiency

	Paired Differences					t	df	Correlation	Sig
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference					
				Lower	Upper				
Gender-Managers' Conflict Resolution Ability	-76.890	10.553	1.055	-74.984	-74.796	-72.859	99	.075	.461

Table 3 indicates that, there is a significant effect of gender on managers' conflict resolution proficiency in public and private organizations in Jos. The result shows $t(1, 99) = -72.859$, $p < 0.05$. The table further reveals that a significant difference exists between female and male managers' conflict resolution effectiveness. This vividly reveals the influence of gender on the respondents' conflict resolution effectiveness. The result supports or confirms hypothesis one.

resolution proficiency in public and private organizations in Jos.

Table 4 indicates that there is a significant effect of emotional intelligence on manager's conflict resolution proficiency in the organizations studied. The result shows $t(1, 99) = 18.364$, $P < 0.05$) that emotional intelligence has significant effect on manager's conflict resolution proficiency in public and private organizations in the area the study was conducted indicating that the result of analysis supports hypothesis two.

H2: There would be significant effect of emotional intelligence on manager's conflict

Table 4: Regression Analysis of Variance (RANOVA) of Respondents' EI on Conflict Resolution Proficiency

	Paired Differences					t	df	Correlation	Sig
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference					
				Lower	Upper				
Emotional intelligence & Managers conflict resolution ability	35.760	19.473	1.947	31.896	39.624	18.364	99	.419	.000

The result as presented in table 4 confirms the significant influence of emotional intelligence on the respondents' conflict resolution proficiency. This indicates that managers with high EI are assets to their respective

organizations in terms of performance, employee cooperation and the manager's ability to resolve interpersonal and intergroup conflicts compared to managers with low emotional intelligence.

Table 5 indicates that, there is a significant interaction effect of gender and emotional intelligence on managers' conflict resolution proficiency/ability in public and private organizations in Jos. The result shows $F(1, 99) = -13.462$, $P < 0.05$. Therefore, gender and emotional intelligence have significant interaction effects on managers' conflict resolution proficiency/ability in public and private organizations.

Table 5: Regression Analysis of Variance (RANOVA) of the Interactive Effects of Gender and EI on Respondents' Conflict Resolution Proficiency

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression					
1	3280.777	3	1093.592	13.462	.000b
Residual	7798.533	96	81.235		
Total	11079.310	99			

4. Discussion

Findings of the study were discussed in light of the results presented above. Hypothesis one stated that there would be significant effect of gender on managers' conflict resolution proficiency in public and private organizations in Jos. The result revealed a significant effect of gender on the respondents' conflict resolution ability in the public and private organizations the respondents manage. This result corroborates previous research which found that multiple variables such as gender have some correlation to conflict resolution effectiveness (Babajide, 2000). Of great interest is the interaction of heterogeneous (opposite sex) and homogeneous (same sex) dyads in managing subordinate conflicts (Akintayo, 2006; Monroe, Disalvo, Lewis & Berzi, 1991). These authors investigated the effect of gender on conflict management style of supervisors in relations to difficult subordinates and reported that the supervisors' perceived sex of the difficult subordinates had the greatest effect on conflict resolution style and ability of the manager. They found that male subordinates use relational leverage (confrontation) more often with a

female supervisor and female subordinates use avoidance more often with male supervisors.

The finding further reveals that female managers in selected work organizations were more effective in managing industrial conflicts than their male counterparts. This may be due to the fact that female managers mostly adopt democratic management style in the course of managing industrial conflict which makes them to be more proficient and effective than male managers, who tend to adopt autocratic management style which in itself at times brews more conflict.

There is also some evidence that male managers tend to use more aggressive competitive, confronting, assertive, pro-task and coercive strategies more often and faster than female managers (Ajaja, 2004; Akintayo, 2006; Sorenson & Hawkins, 1995; Watson, 1989). Babajide (2000) on the other hand, noted that authoritarian style is prevalent among female managers while the democratic style is manifested more by male managers.

Further supporting this result, Birkhoff (2017) in her investigation explained that gender is a significant determinant of manager performance in the workplace. She emphasized that male and female managers differ in their abilities to resolve conflict at home and in the organization. If this is the case, the implication could be that gender has a significant correlation with job performance and particularly the manager's ability to handle conflicts that occur between employers and employees, and between different groups of employees in the organization.

In contrast with the findings of this study, some researchers do not agree to the fact that gender significantly has an impact on the manager's conflict resolution proficiency and ability (Korabic, Baril & Watson, 2000; Cole & Streeter, 2003). These authors found that female managers do not differ from male managers in preferred conflict management style; but they do differ from their conflict resolution effectiveness. Leah (2005) reported that gender does not have as much influence as the experience of the managers in conflict resolution and managerial effectiveness in work places.

Hypothesis two stated that there would be significant effect of emotional intelligence on

manager's conflict resolution proficiency in public and private organizations in Jos. The result obtained from a test of the hypothesis indicates that there is a significant effect of emotional intelligence on manager's conflict resolution proficiency among the respondents in this particular study. In corroborating this result, previous studies also concluded that by using their own emotional competencies, managers can encourage subordinates to enhance their performance and problem-solving strategy (Karuri & Tanko, 2007). The perception of subordinates of their supervisors' use of these skills may have positive impact on the subordinates' problem-solving strategy and proficiency in conflict resolution in the organization in particular and the community in general. Therefore, the major challenge for 21st Century organizations is to enhance the emotional intelligence of their managers.

Goleman (1998), Cherniss and Adler (2000) and Reece (2014), in their respective studies concerning the influence of EI concluded that managers may be trained to enhance their EQ so that their subordinates are encouraged to use more problem-solving and less bargaining strategies of handling conflict. This will help the supervisors and subordinates to work together to attain organizational goals. Improving managers' EQ would however, involve education and specific job-related training. Managers should also be encouraged to enhance their skills through continuous self-learning. Supporting this result further, Dabke (2016), studied the relationship between performance-based EI and transformational leadership as exhibited by participants in the workplace with leadership effectiveness as perceived by their supervisors and subordinates. The sample comprised 200 managers who were administered the Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso EI Test and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) 5X scale. Superior's perception of leadership effectiveness was measured via the MLQ 5X scale as well as effectiveness scale developed by Shanock and Eisenberger (2006).

Hypothesis three revealed that there is a significant interaction effect of gender and emotional intelligence on managers' conflict resolution proficiency in public and private organizations in Jos. This result corroborates

previous studies that were conducted on the different variables of this study as have been presented above. (See Ettany & Okem, 2016; Mukhuba, 2016) for related studies on gender influence on managers' conflict resolution ability. Goleman (1998) and Bar-on, Handley and Fund (2006) for related studies concerning the influence of EI on managers' conflict resolution ability. Others are Rahim et al (2002) and Kaushik and Dhaka (2010) for results of studies that investigated the influence of manager's conflict management proficiency to resolve organizational conflicts.

5. Conclusion

The findings of the study revealed that gender and high emotional intelligence significantly increase employee productivity and a manager's ability to resolve organizational disputes and conflicts. This reflects the kinds of research that are the current focus within the area of emotional intelligence and employee work productivity. The fact that gender and emotional intelligence significantly influence employee productivity may have valuable implications for organizational recruiters, trainers, and supervisors. Emotional intelligence and conflict management proficiency are particularly important as they enable male and female managers with these traits to tackle important organizational problems including the resolution of interpersonal and intergroup conflicts to enhance achievement of organizational goals.

The management of people at work is an integral part of the management process. To understand the critical importance of people in the organization is to recognize that the human element and the organization are synonymous. An effective organization will therefore make sure that its workers remain motivated and productive, having a spirit of cooperation; with little or no space left in the organization for disputes and conflicts. It is an undisputable fact that conflict management proficiency is the essential first stage in the process of conflict management and resolution.

6. Recommendations

Nigerian Organizations may have to adopt the policy of recruiting male and female managers with vision and charisma who are likely to be high in EI and proficient in managing conflicts. This is because hiring employees and managers who have these characteristic traits gives twice as much result compared to those with low EI and low conflict management proficiency. High EI and proficient managers enhance better achievement of organizational goals and add more value to the organization (Reece, 2014). To achieve this, organizations should provide conflict management proficiency training to their managers for effective and efficient performance.

Lastly, all 21st Century Organizations should effect changes in their design to accommodate creating flatter, decentralized, and less complex social systems that will make it easier for the managers and leaders to manage in order to reduce conflicts in the organization to its barest minimum.

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Part Six

Legal Studies

The Role of Law in Development Agenda

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Abstract. Development simply means the process of growing, changing or becoming better. Development has also been defined as the process of change i.e. the process of changing and becoming larger, stronger or more impressive, successful or advanced, or of causing something to change. The ultimate aim of development is the constant improvement of the well-being of the entire population on the basis of its full participation in the process of development and a fair distribution of the benefits therefrom. A lack of meaningful development manifests in situations like poverty, societal lawlessness, stagnation, among others. Unfortunately, this is the status quo in a lot of societies. This paper seeks to identify and discuss the meaning of development, the various aspects of development, the role of law in actualising development in the society and the challenges which the law encounters in the process. The paper concludes that the law indeed has a vital role to play in the attainment of a developed society whose inhabitants have access to every requirement necessary for them to attain their full potentials.

Keywords: challenges, development, law, role, society.

1. Introduction

In many parts of the world, the past years have been marked by flagrant disregard for the rule of law – from mass killings of civilians and deliberate displays of cruelty to horrific violence

and discrimination against women and girls, unfair trials and gross miscarriages of justice. Widespread corruption robbed citizens of resources, agency and dignity. Weak and failing institutions showed scant respect for rights and justice. Where rights were violated and justice denied, insecurity and poverty flourished. Tens of millions were forced to abandon their homes and seek shelter elsewhere, in lands often unprepared or unwilling to welcome them. Lives were lost, destinies thwarted, opportunities missed.

Development is a process towards improving living conditions. Law is considered an effective and utility mechanism in driving the processes which are designed to secure development. Laws are tools and instruments for overcoming the decadence and inefficiency that hinder development.

To this effect, this paper takes a look at the meaning of development and the various aspects of development. It also reviews the roles which the law is expected to play to bring about the development of any society. The paper also reviews extensively, the challenges which the law encounters in the course of its operations to ensure development in the society. Some recommendations are made at the end of the paper.

2. What is development?

Microsoft Encarta defines development as the process of change i.e. the process of changing and becoming larger, stronger or more impressive, successful or advanced, or of

causing something to change. The ultimate aim of development is the constant improvement of the well-being of the entire population on the basis of its full participation in the process of development and a fair distribution of the benefits therefrom. According to Amartya Sen, who articulated the Human Development Approach to defining development, development is 'a process of expanding the *real freedom* that people enjoy.' He further argued that development is not the mere accumulation of goods but the enhanced freedom to choose; to lead the kind of life one values. These choices which the individual has under the paradigm of development may alternatively be regarded as the dimensions of human development.

According to the Declaration on the Right to Development, development is a comprehensive economic, social, cultural and political process, which aims at the constant improvement of the well-being of the entire population and of all individuals on the basis of their active, free and meaningful participation in development and in the fair distribution of benefits resulting therefrom. Development is a process towards improving living conditions. Law is considered an effective and utility mechanism in driving the processes which are designed to secure development.

Development in many less developed countries would inevitably be conditioned by the fact that it occurs in the context of a complex economic, political and cultural relationship with more developed countries. The enhancement of living conditions must clearly be an essential – if not the essential – object of the entire economic exercise and that enhancement is an integral part of the concept of development"

In a society besieged by the evils of economic, environmental, social and security challenges, all in monumental proportions, promoting development should be a priority. We can distinguish between two sides of human development here. The first is the formation of human capabilities, such as improved health or knowledge. The other is the use that people make of their acquired capabilities, for work or leisure.

3. Various aspects of development

3.1 Economic development

This form of development can, in the simplest terms, be regarded as the creation, by a state, of economic wealth for its citizens. It implies a positive growth in trade, industry and development of wealth of a country so that all people have access to increased income.

Economic growth means measurement of national income and output in terms of Gross National Product. Human development is not confined to the rise or the fall of the GNP. It aims at 'expanding the choices people have to lead the kind of life that they live...and it is thus about much more than economic growth, which is only a means – if a very important one – of enlarging people's choices' Its scope includes the process and policies by which a nation improves the economic well-being of its people. From the perspective of economic development for transformation, law and legal institutions are the main tools necessary to remove bottlenecks, deepen financial activities and broaden market transactions.

Laws are tools and instruments for overcoming decadence and inefficiency that hinder development. Law and legal reforms are central to the economic development and social transformation of any nation. Sadly, the reformers in Nigeria carry on as if law and legal reforms are tangential and at the periphery of their reforms.

North examined long-term differences in economic performance among nations and concluded that countries that protect property rights and establish predictable rules for resolving contract disputes provide a better environment for economic growth than those that do not. "How effectively agreements are enforced," North asserts, "is the single most important determinant of economic performance."

From an economic perspective legally enforceable property rights are considered desirable because they provide security of tenure. Security of tenure gives landholders incentives to invest in land conservation and improvement. Property rights constrain the sovereign and prevent expropriation by the state. Enforceable contract law prevents private firms

from appropriating value. These two sets of institutions extend the time horizon for the entrepreneur and make many more types of contracts possible. Without them, people would be reluctant to cooperate and entrust their capital to others. In North's view, the legal system's protection of property rights and enforcement of contracts lowers transaction costs for exchange and allows resources to be transferred to those who can use them in the most productive fashion. In this way, the law promotes economic development.

The main economic virtue of a formal system of contract law is that it provides a means for enforcing promises and thus facilitates non-simultaneous exchanges. This serves to expand the set of potential contracting opportunities, an expansion that is presumed to expand the set of opportunities to create wealth. It is not clear that informal methods of contract enforcement are perfect substitutes for formal mechanisms. But the absence of legal enforcement mechanisms may also lead to violent methods of enforcement which entail large deadweight costs to society. Law, through the mechanism of security interests, plays an important role in lending. Indeed, many studies have confirmed that this is the case in the West, where the regime of secured transactions does not suffer from the problems in creating, perfecting and enforcing security interests prevalent in the Third World. Such studies lend support to the contention that all a developing country needs is a proper legal system of secured transactions to promote the use of security interests, which in turn will lead to increased lending and economic development. To ensure a sound economy the legal regime must be equally sound and provide an assuring platform for entrepreneurs and businesses that can create jobs towards alleviating or at least significantly diminishing poverty.

3.2 Cultural Development

Cultural development is the change or evolution of the culture like traditions, beliefs, norms, behavioral patterns, arts and everything that relates to human thought and work. Development is not synonymous with economic growth alone. It is a means to achieve more satisfactory, intellectual, emotional, moral and

spiritual existence. As such development is inseparable from culture.

Ignorance about the culture of others impoverishes one's own and to destroy the culture of others is an act of self-mutilation. Therefore respect for culture and its corollary dialogue are essential for survival of humanity because culture in its vast diversity is a common source of wealth, heritage and creation which facilitates law and social development.

3.3 Socio-Political Development

Social development is simply an upward directional movement of society from lesser to greater levels of energy, choice, mastery, enjoyment and accomplishment. Development of individuals and societies result in increasing freedom of choice and increasing capacity to fulfill its choices by its own capacity and initiative. Political development is broadly, the development of the institutions, attitudes and values that form the political power system of a society.

Political development enhances the state's capacity to mobilize and allocate resources and process policy inputs into implementable outputs. This assists with problem solving and adaptation to environmental changes and goal realization. The contemporary notion of good governance also dwells on efficient, effective and non-corrupt public administration. Every society possesses a good reservoir of potential human energy that is absorbed and held static in its organized foundations – its cultural values, physical security, social beliefs and political structures. At times of transition, crisis and opportunities, this energy is released and expressed in action. Policies, strategies and programs that tap this latent energy and channel it into constructive activities can stir an entire nation into action and rapid advancement.

Socio-political development makes for sound and efficient management of human, natural, economic and financial resources for equitable and sustainable development. It does this by insisting that leaders be accountable for their actions, be transparent in their dealings and efficient in their performance. It is in the areas of accountability and transparency that law comes into play.

3.4 Environmental Development

The environment is a key factor in every activity, be it economic, socio-political or cultural. If the environment is not well maintained or developed, every activity grinds to a halt. It is our duty to ensure that present interactions with the environment does not destroy the ecosystem, the biodiversity or the structure of the environment. To achieve this, the idea of keeping the environment clean and in its natural state must underlie every policy and laws that affect the environment.

Development economists regard well-defined and freely alienable property rights as essential methods of ensuring that individuals both have adequate incentives to invest in property and are able to transfer property to those who value it most highly. Meanwhile, for those whose vision of development entails redistribution of wealth and power in society, redistribution of property rights, and in particular rights to real property, offers a natural method of achieving their goals. It is the law that provides for these rights.

Theoretically, the long term result of environmental degradation will manifest in the inability of the environment to sustain life. If this continues to occur on a large scale, it will translate to the extinction of humanity. Abuse of the environment may have no visible impact until a certain threshold is reached for example a body of water may absorb toxins being dumped in it for a very long period of time without showing any signs of degradation till the moment of sudden breakdown when it is discovered that all forms of life in it are dying off.

The question remains: how far has the existing framework on environmental matters addressed, tackled, halted or otherwise abated the problem of environmental degradation in its entire ramification? Environmental quality has been declining in many countries despite a growing body of environmental laws. This question will be answered in a subsequent section.

4. Law and Crime

There are so many reasons why crime is problematic.

In the first place, crime and violence deplete the stock of physical capital. At the most basic level, acts of terrorism or vandalism destroy physical infrastructure such as roads, power generation facilities, and other public facilities. Beyond such immediate effects, the state of law and order can affect investment in a country. Crime is generally perceived to have an adverse effect on the overall investment climate. Crime causes a reduction in investment by creating a risky environment wherein businesses are likely to resist investment because criminals are likely to reap the returns. Corruption and crime are considered important obstacles to business, particularly when the government fails to implement law and order and tolerates criminal action and extortion. It can be surmised that countries which have greater crime rates may suffer from reduced investment if entrepreneurs view the crime rate and inefficacious law enforcement to be insurmountable barriers to doing business in those countries. In this way, crime causes a reduction in investment in physical infrastructure.

Second, crime erodes the development of human capital. Destruction of human capital includes the wasting of lives and the associated human productivity lost due to untimely deaths, incompetent and ineffective replacements. Also, the allocation of governmental expenditures and scarce resources to fight crime in the forms of increased funding to security and quasi-security agencies, maintenance of order and expansion of prisons constitute a diversion of resources which could have been spent on development projects. Crime and violence destroy social capital. What is social capital? According to Wikipedia, social capital is a form of economic and cultural capital in which social networks are central, transactions are marked by reciprocity, trust and cooperation, and market agents produce goods and services not mainly for themselves, but for a common good which is valued by all. The main premise of social capital is that social networks have value. Social capital refers to the collective value of all social networks [our connections] and the inclinations that arise from these networks to do things for each other, i.e., norms of reciprocity.

We cannot dispute the inescapable fact that in Nigeria today we live in fear because of the

activities of kidnappers, armed robbers, political assassins, internal terrorists and militants, extra judicial killings, etc. All these are manifestations of internal security problems currently confronting us. These all constitute grave threats to the peace, security and development of Nigeria. States with poorly functioning legal systems and poor crime control mechanisms are unattractive to investors, so economic growth also suffers. Addressing the issues of security is crucial in order to execute successful development projects. Again, the law is a necessary ingredient here.

5. The Nexus Between Law and Development

Without proper functioning institutions of governance based on the rule of law that guarantee, establish and promote social stability, social justice and legal certainty, there cannot be investment assumption of risk that forms the basis of market economy development, let alone sustainable development. The resultant effect is lack of investment which in turn slows economic growth and consequently deprives the government of resources to invest in education, social safety nets and sound environmental management all of which are critical for development.

In various parts of the world, tens of thousands have been killed, and many more disappeared, as wars or violence rage between gangs, militias of different ideologies and government security forces, though few perpetrators have been brought to justice. A common problem underlies each and every one of these tragedies: the failure of the rule of law.

Law in social engineering can be likened to a process in which law provides the framework that society builds upon. Taken differently, law could be regarded not only as a means to an end but that which constitutes the 'intentionally constructed framework for social order.' The rule of law is a premise without which development cannot be sustained. Clean government is as important as clean water. The rule of law is about equal protection, accountability and transparency. Without access to justice and the rule of law, development cannot flourish, investment will not take root,

the planet cannot survive, the poor cannot overcome poverty, and women cannot fight discrimination and become agents of their own destiny.

No matter where in the development spectrum a particular country stands, establishing peace or protecting the planet, eradicating poverty or encouraging economic opportunity, require good laws and regulations that are fairly administered by transparent and accountable institutions and that, most importantly, produce fair outcomes for all.

As IDLO said in its statement to the Summit:

"Building the rule of law takes vision, time and money. But it is the soundest investment there is. The more governments and the international community are willing to invest in it, the less they will have to scramble to address catastrophic development failures, from famines to refugee crises. Building the rule of law and ensuring access to justice is more efficient than mending the broken pieces when states fail."

The rule of law is both an enabler and facilitator of development. The rule of law is central to any civilization as it provides a modus operandi and infuses predictability into social and individual behaviors. A world anchored in peace, stability and shared prosperity was one which fostered sustainable development. Goals designed to uplift people and to ensure provision of basic services cannot be realized without adequate safeguards and prudent management of our natural resources and environmental capital.

Strong judiciaries, with the right expertise, are core to the rule of law, constitutionalism and enforcement of environmental law. Without an effective judiciary, we will end up with constitutions without constitutionalism, which in turn will directly undermine the rule of law. An independent judiciary and judiciary process is vital for the implementation, development and enforcement of law. Without adherence to the enforcement of the rule of law, there cannot be order in the society. Order is necessary for development.

The goal of governance is often designed and presented to actualize development through a variety of manifestations – stability, nation building, or democratization. The non-

realization of the goals often depends on the implementation strategy of the government on the one hand and on the other hand, the indifference of the governed to ensuring government accountability.

The rule of law also could be integrated into concrete and measurable targets, such as doubling over the next decade the number of people who enjoy access to legal advice at low or no cost, or halving the number of people who have no legal identity. Without a human rights culture 'rule of law' remains a dream. However, a culture of respect for the rule of law remains both an essential foundation for human well-being and a distant goal in many places.

Where the rule of law is strictly observed, it gives rise to an independent and efficient legal system which in turn engenders a just society. It further makes room for easy accessibility of the legal system for the citizens. A system that upholds the rule of law is one in which fair and equitable laws are applied equally to the citizens without reference to their status and such application is consistent, coherent and defined. The rule of law and good governance are inseparable in any effort to achieve good sustainable development.

Respect and observance of the rule of law has tremendous potentials to facilitate the creation and sustenance of an enabling environment of peace, security and stability conducive to the promotion and attainment of development. In the words of the United Nations Environmental Program Executive Director,

We all have a duty to do whatever we can to restore respect for the rule of law, which is the foundation for a fair and sustainable society.... Sustainable development cannot be achieved unless law governing society, economy and relationship with the earth both internationally and domestically are put into practice and connect with our deepest values. Law must be enforced and complied with by all of society and all of the society must share its obligation.

Development requires the support of key people within the system and the core group needs to be given enabling assistance to help build the internal political will that these reforms require. An analysis of the existing law involves asking some broad pertinent questions, answer to which

will provide policy makers with a window onto the strengths, weaknesses, overlaps and gaps in the current legal frameworks.

The role of law in promoting economic development cannot be underscored because most of our lives and interaction with each other are regulated by law. The kind of laws needed to promote and establish development are the laws which are superior to any person's personal interest. Law serves an economic function because it recognizes the freedom to do business within defined parameters. For example, the law of contract is a device to promote market institutions and the economy by recognizing and protecting the freedom to choose interfaced by deliberate government policies that imply that in promoting selfish economic interests entrepreneurs will promote the overall economic interest of society. By promoting competition through the mechanism of law government prevents monopolies and undue profits and enhances efficiency in goods and service delivery. In order to enhance the growth of business and consequently economic development, governments in developed societies use law as a catalyst for economic development. The laws that promote economic development do not atrophy. They respond to social conditions, international developments and emerging trends. They are organic and forward looking. They tend not to lag behind the activities of entrepreneurs, merchants and business men but rather chart new courses for them in realization of much needed economic growth and human development.

6. Challenges

Many countries, especially the transitional and developing economies, continue to face the challenges of balancing out political mandates, good governance and development with competing socio-economic challenges. The governments of African countries continue to feign ignorance of the cause(s) of the increasing economic hardships being experienced by its people.

It is often noticed that inability to enforce rights is not caused by absence of courts; rather such inability lies with cobwebs of technicalities and costs that are beyond the reach of affected

individuals. Expectedly, the lack of potency in international legal instruments finds a companion in a national inefficiency that consequently explains the hostage conditions that a people find themselves in; while their governments continue to fail. Political leaders may have had the talk, but they didn't quite have the walk: their commitment to genuine reform was often "*skin-deep*" and there was "*lack of follow-through*".

There are myriads of scenarios which represent instances where public institutions expected to manage specific processes in the public interest failed to succeed due to inability to fully appreciate social peculiarities while designing and implementing its development programs. The consequences of ignoring the locality and particularity principles underscore the contention that systems or places to a larger extent, differ in accordance to urgency of needs and what must be explored to circumvent impossible institutional bottlenecks that would otherwise frustrate the realization of a desirable end. The viability of economic systems with these localities has direct correlation with functionality of the laws. Most legal systems are still functioning poorly despite all the hundreds of millions of dollars expended on aids. The reason for this is the inadequate investment in the enforcement and compliance efforts.

The problems with the Nigerian legal regime for development are myriad and is indicated by archaic or multiple laws and regulations, overlaps in administrative and institutional structures, absence of laws in critical areas, and a general state of confusion that is a disincentive to investment by local and international investors and entrepreneurs.

African countries have typically adopted stringent environmental legislations. For example, South Africa and Ghana both have constitutional provisions relating to the environment. Several African countries like Nigeria have enacted punitive legislation prohibiting the dumping of toxic wastes. Other African countries have set up special commissions by decree to tackle specific environmental problems in specific regions, and environmental impact assessments are now required for all substantial development projects in most African countries. However, lack of

strict enforcement is the bane of these legislations.

It is common knowledge that regulatory and supervisory institutions in developing countries are too weak to ensure absolute compliance with law and order. Labour unions do not fare better. Poor governance and corruption also constitute grave problems. In many cases, poor administration and enforcement weakens the law. While Brazilian laws regarding timber extraction are rigorous, for example, their implementation is difficult. This is because IBAMA, Brazil's environmental agency, has few officials, and little equipment and resources to monitor logging companies, resulting in much illegal harvesting.

Regulatory obstacles may also hinder development by increasing costs and creating incentives. Constraints may take the form of bureaucratic procedures that increase the transaction costs of a particular activity without a corresponding public benefit. Citizens would expectedly desist from further involvement in such activities. Or they may unintentionally create incentives for undesirable behavior, as when commercial cyclists decide to use alternative routes or avoid particular parks in a bid to avoid paying some outrageous and unwarranted fees and levies imposed by governmental agencies.

7. Recommendations

At the heart of good governance is an equitable, effective and efficient legal and judicial system that caters to the needs of the people. Empirical evidence supports the view that the reform strategy succeeds where economic policies move in tandem with legal and judicial reform efforts. We must jointly support judicial systems that are socially sensitive and equipped to efficiently and justly serve local communities; an approach that engenders the confidence required for both domestic and global transactions. Such judicial systems require the involvement of various groups including the judiciary, the law societies, legal aid groups and the academia.

Another area that needs attention is the strengthening of domestic institutions of conflict management. The most frequent cause for the

collapse in growth is the inability to deal with the consequences of external shocks – i.e., terms of trade declines or reversals in capital flows. Endowing the economy with resilience against such shocks requires strengthening the rule of law, solidifying (or putting in place) democratic institutions, establishing participatory mechanisms, and erecting social safety nets. When such institutions are in place, the macroeconomic and other adjustments needed to deal with adverse shocks can be undertaken relatively smoothly. For meaningful development to endure the supremacy of the constitution is to be considered, the rule of law respected by all levels of government and more importantly, the independence of the judiciary must be secured so as to ensure that the dispensation of justice is undertaken fearlessly. Active participation of persons in a given society requires the facilitation by not only the instruments of law, but an efficient framework for the protection of basic rights and freedom. Furthermore, collective participation in a society provides a foundation for stability and development. The stability provides a framework for institutionalized self-enforcement of laws in a society. This requires the commitment of all to support legitimate livelihood of all by ensuring observance of the rule of law in spirit, practice and in letters. Adequate investments should be imputed into the judiciary as well as implementation, enforcement and compliance with existing laws.

The existence of fundamental rights in any society requires corresponding availability of verifiable infrastructures, authorized by law, for their enforcement and the realization of individual freedoms. The unenforceability of rights occurs daily in a variety of ways. The retrogression of society begins with the inability to protect rights which would have enabled an individual to contribute to society's general well-being. This breach or failure to uphold rights causes needless anxieties to individuals and creates further breaches in the evolutionary process of a given society. Typical instances of this litter developing countries where basic and fundamental rights are unenforceable. Furthermore, when rights cannot be enforced, the people as units become weak links rather

than strong links to processes that are designed for progress in any society such as development plan and societal stability. There seems to be a trend where basic rights only exist under the law, but are not realizable in practice. The existence of fundamental rights in any given system is an affirmation of human dignity and values with commitment to uphold them. It is often the existence of rights and their realization that provide the most important distinction between the developed and developing countries.

The obsession with comprehensive institutional reform leads to a policy agenda that is hopelessly ambitious and virtually impossible to fulfill. Telling poor countries in Africa or Latin America that they have to set their sights on the best-practice institutions of the U.S. or Sweden is like telling them that the only way to develop is to become developed – hardly useful policy advice! Development does not have to follow much the same path in less developed countries as it did in the more developed countries. Every society should adopt a development pattern or course that is best suited to its peculiarities. The experimentation which has been a way of governance remains too costly for human lives and society in general.

Is law a necessary determinant of development? The answer remains in the affirmative. And as has been widely quoted: *It is lawyers who run our civilization for us.....our governments, businesses, our private lives. We cannot buy a home or rent an apartment, we cannot get married or try to get divorced; we cannot leave our property to our children without calling on the lawyers to guide us. To guide us, incidentally, through a maze of confusing gestures and formalities that lawyers have created.*

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|Analysis of the Rising Profile of Equitable Interests and their Application to Transfer of Interests in Land under Nigeria Land Law

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Abstract. Equitable interests in property are generally viewed as of lower value, particularly when they are in competition with legal interests. Generally, equitable interests are considered as minor interests, largely unwritten and if written have failed to comply with all the necessary requirements and therefore are vulnerable and may be lost upon sale of the land to a new purchaser. However, the above view of equitable interests has undergone tremendous changes. Given the contributions of equity in validating most transactions which would have been otherwise invalid by strict application of the law, equitable rights have advanced almost to the status of legal rights. This paper discusses the distinction between equitable interests and legal interests in property and analyses the modern enhanced status of equitable interests. This paper also examines the application of the enhanced status of equitable interests to transfer of interests in land in Nigeria. Given the enhanced status of equitable interests in property and its application to property transactions in Nigeria as demonstrated in this paper, it can be asserted that equitable interests in property have transcended the minor interests they were in the traditional view as they have now almost attained the status of legal estates. Thus, the dichotomy between legal interests and equitable interests has lost much significance. The paper therefore recommends that some statutory provisions which exclude equitable interests from the definition of “conveyance” should be amended to include equitable interests as

instruments that validly convey interests in land in Nigeria.

1. Introduction

Property is capable of sustaining a wide range of interests and rights. Traditionally, property rights were distinguished from personal rights. Property rights arose in relation to land and personal rights in relation to every other “thing” not being land. An interest in property is a comprehensive term to describe any right, claim or privilege that an individual has toward real or personal property. It is all or part of a legal or equitable claim to or right in property. In other words, while interest in property could be referred to as right, claim or title, such interest can either be “legal” or “equitable”.

The distinction between legal interests and equitable interests in property has been of tremendous concern to legal studies since the medieval period when the common law began to develop. The attempts by the Lord Chancellors and later by equity courts to remedy the hardships occasioned by the strict application of legal rules culminated in the growth of equity that led to an open confrontation between common law and equity. This led to the enactment of the Judicature Acts of 1873 and 1875. The Acts fused the administration of the two systems, providing *inter alia*, that in all cases where the rules of common law and the rules of equity were in conflict, the rules of Equity were to prevail. Many scholars have noted that the Acts may have fused the two

systems; they have not fused the rules and principles of law and equity. In other words, the Judicature Acts notwithstanding there exists a clear distinction between legal rights and equitable rights.

Property law in Nigeria is governed by customary law, statutory law, case law, common law and equity. Customary law refers to the various customary laws that have governed Nigerian communities since the pre-colonial era. Common law was bequeathed to Nigeria by the British colonial authorities who introduced the common law of England and the doctrines of equity as sources of law in the country. Common law and equity have remained sources of law in the country in the post-colonial era and have greatly influenced land law in the country. Equitable rights and interests are proprietary rights in real property introduced into Nigeria under the doctrines of equity.

The problem associated with equitable interests generally is the quantum of value to be attached to them in a competition with legal interests in a given property. Generally, equitable interests are viewed as minor interests, largely unwritten or if written, have failed to comply with all the necessary requirements and therefore are vulnerable and may be lost upon sale of the land to a new purchaser. For this reason, equitable interests are generally omitted from the definitions of “conveyance” in property laws in Nigeria. The paper argues that notwithstanding the traditional view of equitable interests, equitable interests have grown beyond mere rights in *personam* as they are now as powerful as legal rights in certain circumstances. In achieving this objective, the paper discusses the distinction between equitable interests and legal interests in property and analyses the modern enhanced status of equitable interests. The paper also examines the application of the enhanced status of equitable interests to transfer of interests in land in Nigeria. The paper ends with the conclusions and recommendation of the research.

2. Distinguishing Equitable Interests from Legal Interests

A legal right or interest can be defined as the right or title in property conferred on an

individual by law. It is always derivable from a legal instrument which must have been created according to laid down formalities. It is a right historically recognized by common law court.

An equitable interest on the other hand, is simply a right or interest in property conferred by equity. They are specie of rights over property not known to common law. They were recognized and enforced by the court of chancery administering equitable jurisdiction. Equitable interest operates to protect a party damnified by a strict application of legal rules, particularly when there is a failure to comply with legal formalities. When the application of legal rules will work hardship or lead to absurdities, equity will intervene to prevent injustice from being done to either of the parties. The general distinction is that a legal estate or interest is valid against all the world (it is usually expressed as right *in rem*) and any person who subsequently acquires a legal or equitable interest in the same property takes his interest subject to the prior legal interest whether he has notice of that interest or not. A legal estate in property is enforceable against the whole world. An equitable interest in property is enforceable against the whole world except a purchaser for value of the legal estate in the property in question, provided that, when the purchaser acquired the legal estate, he had no notice either actual, constructive or imputed of the equitable interest. An equitable interest is said to be a right in *personam*, that is, enforceable only against specified persons.

3. The Modern Status of Equitable Interests in Property

Under the common law, certain formalities had to be observed in order to create or transfer legal interest in property and when these formalities are not completed no legal interest vests in the purchaser. It is in all these areas of imperfection in the legal formalities that equity came in and filled the gap in the law. However, the traditional view was that an equitable interest was never as strong as a legal interest because an equitable owner never had absolutely indefeasible title. This position was fortified by the maxim “Equity acts in *personam*” which underlies the fabric of early equity jurisdiction

as equitable rights are only enforceable against the conscience of specified persons. This meant that equitable rights and interests are in *personam* and that equitable decrees bind the person to obedience on pains of imprisonment but the decree does not operate on the subject matter of the dispute.

However, the above traditional view of equitable interests has undergone tremendous changes. Given the contributions of equity in validating most transactions which would have been otherwise invalid by strict application of the law, equitable rights have advanced almost to the status of legal rights. For this reason, Hanbury, one of the leading equity scholars writing in the early part of the last century argued that the traditional status of equitable rights has changed and that "Equitable rights and interests must ... be regarded as hybrids, standing midway between *iura in personam* and *iura in rem*". More recently, another learned scholar, Jill Martin expressed the view that the status of equitable interests in property have advanced further than their traditional status. She argues that for example, "equitable interests under trusts are equitable proprietary interest corresponding to legal estates, and the beneficiary can properly be regarded as the owner of the beneficial interest and the ownership is a right in *rem*".

The modern view of equitable interests is fortified by other developments in the role of equitable interests in property transactions. For example, equitable interests have evolved to the extent that they can now defeat the purchaser of legal estate in certain circumstances. In addition, equity interests have evolved new rights in property hitherto unknown to common law. The next section hereunder will demonstrate that the courts in Nigeria have accepted this enhanced status of equitable interests.

4. Application of the Enhanced Status of Equitable Interests in Property Transactions in Nigeria

The growing profile of equitable interests is discernable from the decisions of Nigerian courts relating to property interests especially

regarding the role equitable interests have played in validating transactions which are otherwise imperfect because they fail to comply with required legal formalities and in the creation of new rights in properties. In addition, this growing profile is noticeable in the judicial decisions relating to transfers of interests in land under native law and custom and in obtaining Governor's consent to alienation of interests in land under the Land Use Act.

5. Validation of Transactions that have Incomplete Legal Formalities

Equitable interests have made possible the enforcement of certain transactions in land which would have been otherwise invalid because they fail to comply with legal formalities. These categories of transaction are enforceable on the basis that "equity treats as done that which ought to be done". Where this happens equity will decree specific performance for the enforcement of the terms of the contract. Accordingly, it was held in *Erioso v. Owokoniran & Ors* that a sale of land which is imperfect because the legal formalities have not been complied with may give rise to an equitable interest in the property if there is evidence that the purchaser buys the land and goes into possession. This decision affirmed the rule in *Walsh v. Lonsdale* that states that where a lease has not been made under a deed as required by law, equity will enforce the written agreement for the lease as if the agreement had been under deed. Recently, in *Opara v. Dowel Schlumberger (Nig) Ltd.*, the Supreme Court again affirmed the principles of *Walsh v. Lonsdale* by holding that an agreement for a lease is as good as a legal lease though the agreement confers only an equitable interest in the property. However, the equitable interest which the intended lessee has under an agreement for a lease does not exist *in vacuo*, but arises because the lessee has an equitable right to specific performance of the agreement. In such a case, that which is agreed to be done and ought to be done is treated as having been done and carrying with it in equity the attendant rights.

It is clear from the above that equitable interests were created through the act of part performance

of one of the parties to the transaction thereby making it inequitable for the party who had benefited from the act of part performance to resile from the contract on the account that the transaction failed to comply with legal formalities.

6. Creation of New Rights in Property

Equitable interests have brought about the creation of certain rights in property which have no legal equivalents. Such rights include estate contract, equitable mortgage, and mortgagor's equity of redemption.

6.1 Estate Contract

An estate contract arises where there is a valid contract to convey a plot of land; the purchaser is at once considered as having an equitable interest in the property and it does not matter that the date for completion, when the purchaser may pay the purchase price and take possession, has not yet arrived. Equity, treating that as done which ought to be done, will decree specific performance for the enforcement of the terms of the contract. A contract of sale of land or interest in land is a standard contract which contains not just the basic requirements of the parties, property, the price and the nature of the interest to be granted, but goes further to include detailed terms of what the parties have agreed to such as the capacity in which the parties are contracting, payment of deposit, payment of the balance of the purchase price, interest on balance, date and place of completion insurance of the property and other terms which the parties may agree upon. It has been held that a contract of sale of land create an equitable interest in the land. In *Kachala v. Banki*, the appellant had purchased a house in Maiduguri Borno State, but for some reasons, he was frustrated from registering the property. Judgment was later obtained against the appellant in a matter unrelated to the purchase of the house and the house was attached and sold to satisfy the judgment debt which the respondents bought. The Court of Appeal held that the equitable interest in the property still resided with the appellant and the subsequent sale of the property had not divested him of this equitable interest.

6.2 Equitable Mortgage

An equitable mortgage is an agreement to create a legal mortgage. It is a contract which operates as security and is enforceable under the equitable jurisdiction of the courts. It is treated in equity as an express or implied agreement to create a legal mortgage, which is supported by valuable consideration and for which specific performance may be decreed. This is in accordance with the maxim that "equity regards as done that which ought to be done", for it is treated as a present, immediately existing security in equity. An equitable mortgage is express when created by an agreement, usually a written memorandum, in which the mortgagor undertakes to execute a legal mortgage whenever called upon to do so by the mortgagee. It is implied, when it is constituted by a deposit of title deeds with the intention to create a security (whether or not accompanied by a written memorandum). In this case, equity implies an agreement to give and the right of the mortgagee to call for a legal mortgage. It can be safely concluded that the act of depositing the mortgagor's title deeds constitute an act of part performance of an agreement which remove the transaction from the provision of the statute of fraud.

6.3 Equity of Redemption

The legal estate in the mortgaged property remains in the mortgagor at all times during the subsistence of the mortgage. Under the common law, the mortgagor's right to redeem the mortgaged property is lost once he is unable to pay on the contractual date for payment. However, equity gives a right of redemption even after the contractual date for payment had passed. This equity of redemption arises as soon as the date to redeem the mortgage has passed. Equity of redemption has been defined as: *the right of the mortgagor to recover the security by discharging his obligations under the mortgage although the time fixed by the contract for the performance of those obligation has passed, and even though under the express terms of his agreement, the security may be stated to be the absolute property of the mortgagee.*

This right to redeem is so inseparable an incident of mortgage that it cannot be taken away by an express agreement of the parties that the mortgage is not to be redeemable or that the right is to be confined to a particular time or a particular description of persons. Ogundare JSC in *Ejikeme v. Okonkwo* stated that: “this right continues unless and until the mortgagor’s title is extinguished or his interest is destroyed by the sale either under the process of court or of a power in the mortgage incident to the security”. The equity of redemption is also transferable.

7. Transfer of Interests in Land under Native Law and Custom

Equitable interests have been invoked with regard to alienation of land, purchasers of legal estate, and customary pledge in transfer of interests under customary law.

7.1 Alienation of Land

Unlike under the English Law, where it is required that transactions relating to transfer of interest in land must be evidenced in writing this is not so under Native Law and Custom, the requirement of writing is unknown to customary transaction in land. In *Alake v. Awawu*, the plaintiff claimed an account of rent and mesne profit in respect of certain properties. The defendant claimed that one of the properties had been given to him by the mother of both plaintiff and the defendant. The plaintiff’s argument that any such gift was invalid under section 4 of the Statute of Fraud which provided that any transaction in land should be supported by a note or memorandum in writing failed before the Supreme Court, the parties to the transaction being natives were bound by customary law.

Also the Court of Appeal in *Sowoniku v. Orotiosakin & Others* held that “there is no law that require the Head of the family under Native Law and Custom to “join in” meaning execute a conveyance of family land as neither a “receipt” nor a “conveyance” as such is known to native law and custom”.

A sale of land under customary law is validly concluded when payment of purchase price coupled with actual delivery of the land has been made, there is concurrence of the vendor and the land is handed over in the presence of witnesses

and usually accompanied with a ceremony. The purchaser must take physical possession and remain in continuous possession thereof. A person who is first in time under Native law and Custom but fail to proof evidence of continuous occupation may lose priority to a subsequent buyer of the same land who was let into possession immediately after the purchase and who continued to remain in occupation.

7.2 Equitable Interests and Purchasers of Legal Estate

In order to make equitable interests effective, equity aimed at eliminating the purchaser of legal estate without notice which has been a menace to its existence. The fact that a purchaser had the legal estate conveyed to him is not sufficient to make his interest superior to the already existing equitable interest. Once an equitable interest is created in property and the equitable owner continue to be in possession of the property, the equitable interest cannot be defeated by subsequent legal interest even if obtained without notice of the equitable interest. The courts in Nigeria have applied these same principles to transfer of interests in land under native law and custom. The courts have held that if land is sold to a party under native law and custom without the execution of a formal deed of conveyance, his interest was an equitable interest, but if it is coupled with possession, it cannot be overridden by a legal estate. In the case of *Etajata v. Ologbo* the respondents, as plaintiff in the old Bendel State High Court filed the present suit against the defendants/appellant claiming in the main, orders of declaration that the sale of portions of family land at Ugbusi, Ughelli, be set side as the land was the family land of the plaintiffs, orders for account of proceeds of the land and injunction restraining further sales of the lands. PW 5 bought a piece of land measuring 200ft x 200ft from the defendants at the cost of N400.00. The document evidencing the transaction was tendered as receipt and admitted as Exhibit “D”. The plaintiff succeeded with most of their claims. The High Court specifically ordered: “That the land in dispute called Ugbusi land as shown in Exhibit D is the property of the entire Omovwiare”. The defendants then appealed to the Court of Appeal.

The appellate court, while dismissing the appeal, varied the above order of the trial court to wit: "It is hereby declared that the plaintiffs are entitled to a customary right of occupancy in respect of the land called Ugbusi land and shown on Exhibit C (respondents' plan) less the area sold to PW 5....." On further appeal to the Supreme Court, the Court held that supposing that Exhibit "D" was admitted as receipt, it would only establish an acknowledgment of the payment of money in respect of the land by the plaintiffs but not in proof of title to the land as the nature of the title relied upon by the plaintiffs was that of sale under customary law and not by virtue of conveyance. That the general practice under native law is that the making and giving of receipts of purchase is unknown to native law and custom. In the present case, in order to show that Exhibit "D" was not admitted as receipt, the trial court admitted it as a document *simpliciter* because a written agreement of sale of land, even though under native law and custom, is not the same with a purchase receipt as the two of them serve different purposes in such a transaction. The Court held further:

that if a party received title to land under native law and custom and there is proof or evidence that money was paid for the land coupled with an entry into possession, it will be sufficient even to defeat the title of a subsequent purchaser of the legal estate if the possession is continuously maintained. In other words, if land is sold to a party without the execution of a formal deed of conveyance, his interest was no more than equitable. Even if it was an equitable interest, but it is coupled with possession, it cannot be overridden by a legal estate.

In essence, the decision in the case of *Etajiata v. Ologbo* enhanced the status of a person who has paid purchase price or rent and has remained in continuous possession in a transaction under native law and custom.

In view of the above decisions of the courts, one thing is clear, that under native law and custom an agreement for transfer of interest in land though not made in writing is enforceable once there is evidence of payment of purchase price, the purchaser has been let into possession and there is continuous possession which actions are equated to an act of part performance. In other

words, equitable interest in land created under native law and custom is equivalent to act of part performance capable of being converted to specific performance.

7.3 Customary Pledge

There is the tendency to equate a customary pledge to a mortgage. However a customary pledge is not on all foresh the same as a mortgage. A pledge is a form of security transaction known to customary law. According to Smith, a pledge is created where the owner occupier of land known as the pledgor, in order to secure an advance of money or money's worth, gives possession and use of the land to the creditor known as the pledgee until the debt is fully discharged. In other words, a pledge is a deposit of some personal property to a creditor as a security for some debt or engagement or the performance of some act. The pledgee only has the right to possession over the property until the debt is satisfied, while in mortgage, the mortgagee acquires ownership (interest is conveyed) and the borrower usually retain possession. A pledge is a possessory security as distinct from a proprietary security in mortgages, thus vesting in the pledgee a right to possession of land and enjoyment of the profits, while the radical title remain in the pledgor.

The relevance of equitable interest in customary pledge is the redeemability of the pledged land however how long it might have been in the possession of the pledgee. In *Leragun v. Funlayo*, a pledged land which ensured for 30years was held to be redeemable. The right of the pledgor to recover possession of the land remains with him and is never extinguished hence the popular saying in customary parlance; "once a pledge, always a pledge". The pledgor's right to redemption cannot be clogged either by demanding any amount in excess of the sum for which the land was originally pledged or by planting heavy economic trees on the pledged land or using any other means to postpone or defeat the pledgor's right to redeem. In essence, equity of redemption which is a creation of equitable interest is also available to redeem customary pledges just like in mortgages even after the contractual date of repayment had passed.

7.4 Requirement of Consent to Alienate under the Land Use Act

Another area where equitable interest has come handy to play a significant role in whittling down the hardship of the provision of the law regarding transfer of interest in land in Nigeria is the provision requiring Governor's consent to alienate. By the provision of section 1 of the Land Use Act (hereby referred to as the Act), all land comprised in the territory of each state of Nigeria is vested in Governor of the state. Section 5 of the Act gives the Governor the power to grant statutory right of occupancy and Section 6 of the Act gives similar power to the Local Government in respect of customary right of occupancy over land not in urban areas of the state.

The requirement of Governor's consent (or Local Government as the case may be) to alienation of rights of occupancy (whether statutory or customary) is the subject matter of sections 21, 22 and 23 of the Act. The provision of these sections of the Act stipulates that it is unlawful to alienate any right of occupancy either by way of assignment, mortgage and transfer without the consent of the Governor. There is no doubt that the requirement of Governor's consent is central to most commercial transactions over land in Nigeria. Most financial institutions normally require collateral before loan facility is disbursed and in most cases prefer securitization in land or landed property. Before the enactment of the Act, it was quite convenient to obtain loans from banks and other financial institution for business and other developmental purposes by depositing title deeds in the understanding that the financier could dispose the bare land or developed land in the event of the borrower's inability to pay up the loans. Such transactions are virtually or practically difficult since the inception of the Act because of the consent requirement. The implication of the provision for consent is that every subsequent transaction on right of occupancy either by way of transfer, mortgage, assignment or lease without the requisite consent is void and illegal. The initial inclination of the court was to apply the literal words of the provision of the Act regarding Governor's consent. Among such cases the one that was

prominent and got to the Supreme Court is *Savannah Bank v. Ajilo* where Mr. Ammel Ajilo had mortgaged his property in favour of Savannah Bank to secure a loan. On default in repayment of the loan, the bank sought to exercise its statutory power of sale. Mr. Ajilo sought a declaratory order of the court that a deed of mortgage was null and void and of no legal effect, the consent of the Governor not having been first sought and obtained in accordance with section 22 of the Land Use Act. He relied on section 26 of the Act to submit that the mortgage transaction and the mortgaged deed were void. The trial court granted the said relief and subsequently upheld by the Court of Appeal. On further appeal to the Supreme Court, the Apex court unanimously affirmed the decision of the appellate court and accordingly held that the mortgage transaction was invalid for want of Governor's consent as required under Section 22 and 26 of the Act.

That was the position of the Supreme Court believing its hands to be tied by the provisions of the Act notwithstanding the injustice the strict application of the provision of the Act might have caused particularly in stifling commercial transactions. It is worrisome that the Supreme Court became powerless against the provision of the Act. One would have expected that the court would follow its own reasoning in *Oil Field Supply Centre Ltd v. Joseph Lloyd John* where Eso, JSC observed as follows:

it is the appellant who should have applied for a permit for him and failed to, before he helped them found the company that now intends to meet him with illegality perpetuated by same company. Certainly equity will not allow the company to benefit from their own illegality.

This was the rationale the Court of Appeal applied in the case of *Adedeji v. National Bank of Nig. Ltd.* which case was similar to the case of *Ajilo*. But here, the Court of Appeal came to a different conclusion, reasoned that it was the defendant who defaulted in his obligation to obtain consent. The position of the court became more clearer in the case of *Okunneye v. FBN Plc.* In that case the issue was the applicability of section 22 and 26 of the Land Use Act to a transaction that involved the deposit of title deeds with the bank (equitable mortgage) to

obtain overdraft. Uwaifo, J.C.A (as he then was) held:

under the Land Use Act, the best a holder can have is a right of occupancy. To alienate that right under section 22, it has to be done either by assignment, mortgage, or transfer of possession, sublease, or otherwise... It has been held that where a statute requires the consent of a specified authority before property can be alienated by way of sale, sublease, assignment, mortgage or otherwise, this does not include an agreement to sell or lease, which therefore does not need such consent.

However, the Supreme Court soon realized the magnitude of injustice that its decision in *Savannah Bank v. Ajilo* could perpetrate and at the earliest opportunity redeemed its position. In *Awojugbagbe Light Ind. Ltd. v. Chinukwe* where Onu J.S.C. affirmed the decision on *Okunneye v. FBN Plc.* and held inter-alia "...although section 22 of the Act prohibits the alienation of a right of occupancy without the consent of the Governor first had and obtained, it does not prohibit agreement so to do preparation for the purpose of effecting such alienation".

Flowing from the above authorities, it is clear that an agreement for sale of land subject to Governor's consent will not be an illegal transaction. It is therefore submitted that the Court of Appeal and the Supreme Court in the cases just cited above have realized the significant role of equitable interest in property transaction and thus held that the absence of Governor's consent may not invalidate an agreement for sale of land which is an equitable interest. It is the benefit of equitable interest in agreement for sale of land as demonstrated in the decisions in *Okunneye v. FBN Plc* and *Awojugbagbe Light Ind. Ltd. v. Chinukwe* which now enable people dealing in land to freely transfer their interest in land through the instrument of an agreement subject to Governor's consent without contravening the provisions of section 22 and 23 of the Land Use Act.

8. Conclusion

This paper examined the enhanced status of equitable interests in property. While the

traditional position was that equitable interests are minor interest and mere rights *in personam* which are only enforceable against specified persons. The modern approach consider equitable interests more than mere acts *in personam* and that they have advanced to rights *in rem* in certain circumstances.

The paper had highlighted the application of the enhanced status of equitable interests to specific property transactions by the courts in Nigeria. These are in the areas of validation of transactions that have incomplete legal formalities; creation of new rights in property which include contract for sale, equitable mortgage, and equity of redemption; and transfer of interests in land under native law and custom. Under the latter head, the paper discussed the role of equitable interests in the sale and alienation of land; elimination of the purchaser of legal estate; and customary pledge. The paper also demonstrated how equity is being invoked in the matter of consent to alienation of land under the Land Use Act.

The paper finds that a contract for sale of land coupled with part performance can defeat the claim of a purchaser of legal estate who had no notice of the equitable interest. The paper also finds that in land transactions governed by Native law and Custom where the requirement of writing has not been met but there is evidence of purchase, purchase price paid, purchaser is let into possession and there is continuous possession, although the interest created might be equitable in nature, the equitable interest created thereby is as good as legal interests and such equitable interests cannot be defeated by subsequent legal interests. The paper further finds that where consent to alienate was not obtained which would have been fatal to the transaction under the Land Use Act; the courts have elevated such agreement to alienate to an equitable interest that is valid and enforceable. Given the enhanced status of equitable interests in property and its application to property transactions in Nigeria as demonstrated in this paper, it can be asserted that equitable interests in property have transcended the minor interests they were in the traditional view as they have now almost attained the status of legal estates.

Thus, the dichotomy between legal interests and equitable interests has lost much significance.

The paper therefore recommends that some statutory provisions which exclude equitable interests from the definition of “conveyance” should be amended to include equitable interests as instruments that validly convey interests in land in Nigeria.

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The Jurisprudential Approach to Statutory Interpretation

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1. Introduction

Jurisprudence is the general part of adjudication. Jurisprudence as a discipline provides guidance to judges on how to carry out the function of interpreting statutes so as to foster the common good of the community. Statutory Interpretation is an important task of the courts. The basic rules of interpretation are the Literal rule the Golden rule and the Mischief rule.

Statutory Interpretation has assumed a wide pre-occupation among jurist and scholars. The debate is over the proper way to interpret statutes. The views of the Naturalist, Positivist, Sociologist, Realist, Purpositivist and Textualist theories to the debate are the focus of this study.

2. Theories of Statutory Interpretation

2.1 Naturalist Theory/Approach

The Naturalist believed that the Natural law, which depend on the nature of the universe and which can be discovered by reason should be adopted to interpret statutes whose effect is plain and clear except when the plain meaning is absorbed. The Naturalists' argument is that a meaning leading to an absurd result should not be imputed to the legislation.

The Naturalist theory as propounded by Aristotle who believed in the principles of equity to statutory interpretation. Aristotle argued that as a law is made up of general rules it is necessarily imperfect, for it is impossible to foresee and provide in advance for all the different combinations of circumstances, which may arise. Therefore in order to do justice in the

exceptional cases, which had been taken into account when the general rules were framed, it will be necessary that the judges be given a power to depart from the general rules when these exceptional cases arise.

Rostov is very clear in his opinion that there is no objective natural law; therefore it should play no role in the decisions of a judge. He stated that the judge's duty, surely, is to interpret and apply the merging moral code of the community that is, to identify the common moral convictions on which the community is coming to agree and apply them in deciding controversial cases.

2.2 Positivist Theory/Approach

Like the Naturalist, the Positivist favoured plain meaning to interpretation of statutes. Legal Positivism is a formalist theory of statutory interpretation. Legislative positivism postulated that courts should follow the plain meaning of the statutes, except where the plain meaning is absurd. The positivists approach to statutory interpretation reflects Fidelity to enacted law, which defined law as a system of legal and accepted legal concepts that have been handed down over the ages and which have not been weakened into variation and uncertainty. To the positivists, a judge must not fill in gaps in the statutes, assume or surmise the intention of the legislature.

Judges must have recourse to ethical principles in reaching their decisions. Judges have to determine whether a certain course of action is just or unjust, fair or unfair, simple; in order to be able to apply the law. As Finnis has put it:

The arguments and counter-arguments which it is proposed to expel from jurisprudence are in fact... to be found on the lips of lawyers in the court and of judges giving judgment.

The Positivist believed that statutes are to be interpreted so as to avoid inconsistency, absurdity or 'injustice'. As it was held in *Erisi v. Idiaka* that a Superior Court of Records has inherent powers to enable it to make such order or take such actions as will protect or enhance the dignity of the court or promote the speedy or fair dispensation of justice. The positivist theory viewed law as what is decreed by the ruler for the obedience of the subject. The positivist idea according to Aguda is not suitable in the modern democracy. He said: "No third World country especially in Africa can afford the luxury of the thesis that whatever is decreed by the ruler must be law to be administered by the lawyers and judges regardless of the barbarity of what law and the lawyers as his savior from the land of emerging dictators in Africa. We cannot afford to fail him".

The crux of a grid adherence to positivist postulation is how the courts, in giving a meaning to statute, can ensure that a rule, which is made with the best of intentions, does not prove to be the instrument of injustice inefficiency and confusion.

2.3 Socialist Theory/Approach

The socialist approach is that law making interpretation and application must take into account social factors. The socialist believed that the proper method of statutory interpretation was an imaginative reconstruction of the legislature's specific intent. The role of a judge, according to the pragmatic sociological jurisprudence of Rosco Pound; is to discover what the lawmaker meant by assuming his position, in the surroundings in which he acted and endeavoring to gather from the mischief with respect to the particular point in controversy.

Socialist theory tried to study systematically what the judges actually do and to discover the real influences on their behaviour. For instance the socialist theory studies the influence on judicial decisions of factors like the Judge's education, opinions and interests.

A major problem of the sociological theory is that some judges or lawyers lack the essential training in the area of statutory interpretation. As Dworkin has put it:

Some lawyers, like Jerome Frank and Pound himself, attempted to carry out this sort of study, but they discovered that lawyers (judges) do not have the training or statistical equipment necessary to describe complex institutions than an introspective and limited way.

2.4 Realist' Theory/Approach

The Realist' approach to the nature of the law is one of functional jurisprudences. It states that the law should be found out not in books, but in the courts, through the agencies enforcing laws. As Max Radin puts it: *There is no law until the statute has been interpreted and so the sovereign rules are the results of the judicial and not the legislative process.*

According to Gray "it is only words that the legislature alters, it is for the courts to say what those words mean, that is, it is for them to interpret legislative act"

The Realist' approach affords the opportunity to study not only the court room procedure, but also temperament of the judicial process especially the man interpreting the laws. Like Positivist theory, the Realist accepts the tenets that the law is the command of the sovereign for the obedience of the subject. Pound views the main function of the judge as one of social engineering, that is, of satisfying as many interests as possible with the least friction and waste. According to Pound, 'Judges must take the interest of all the members of the society as given. His task is merely one of devising ways and means of satisfying as many of them as possible; the role of the judge was conceived to be one of pure deductive application of the relevant rule to the case before him.

Realism was a reaction against this conception of legal reasoning. Realists' started by asserting that in many cases, the existing legal rules are not definite enough and that in these cases, the judge has a measure of discretion in reaching his decision, later, some of them radicalized their positions and came to say that judges are never

constrained by rules to decide in one way or another notwithstanding what the judges themselves may state in their judgment that their decisions are not necessary consequence of the application of the existing legal rules. Radical realists believe that judges have always a choice between possible alternative meanings of the words of a statute or between either following or distinguishing a line of precedents. These radical realists distinguish sharply between the motives, which really move a judge to decide a case in a certain way and the reasons, which he gives in his judgment for reaching that decision among which the existence of some legal rules will often feature prominently. Frank went far as to say that the reasons offered by judges were simply rationalization and nothing more.

Gray asserts that law is only what the judges decide. Everything else (including statutes) is only sources of law interpreted by a court and Liywellyn says what these officials (mainly judges) do about disputes, is to my mind, the law itself. Realists also advocated that judges should pay much more attention to the study of the social sciences. Having rejected the doctrine, which presented law as a value free discipline in which the correct decision in a case can be reached by a process of inevitable logical deduction from some legal rules or principles, they called upon judges to base their decision on scientific knowledge about the impact, which their rulings were likely to have on society.

The Realists certainly corrected the excesses of conceptualism in showing how the decisions of the judge in many cases could not be seen as a pure exercise in logical deduction. They also rightly emphasize that, 'once judges are bound to use in many cases their connections of justice and social policy; they should do so in an open manner so that their reasons could be identified, discussed, and, if necessary criticized by other lawyers.' Besides, they greatly stimulated interest in the sociological study of the factors, which influence judicial decisions and the way in which law actually works in the society.

The basic problem with Realists was that they correctly came to realize that judges are influenced by many factors besides the rule of

law and that there can be a great distance between law in the books (or paper rules) and law in action (or real rules, the rules, which are actually applied in the courts). The conclusion of extreme Realists is that if rules are not useful for predicting the decisions of courts, they are good for nothing and jurists rescind them.

2.5 Purposivist Theory/Approach

The Purposivist theory postulated that law is purposive generally. The theory stated that the court should in order to interpret the statute, follow the plain meaning of the words, but when such meaning is absorbed, the court should look beyond the words to the purpose of the act. The theory stated further that even if the plain meaning does not produce absorbed results but merely an unreasonable one at variance with the policy of the legislation as a whole, the court should follow the purpose rather than the literal words of the statute.

According to Hart and Sacks *"every statute has some kind of purpose or objective. Ambiguities can be intelligently resolved first, by identifying that purpose and the policy or principles it embodies, and then by deducing the results of most consonant with that principle or policy"*.

The Purposivist theory suggested knowledge of legislative history. It has been argued the study of legislative history by the interpreter creates a comprehensive and detailed ...contextual setting that protect against idiosyncratic interpretation by judges. Under the purposivist theory, statutory interpretation could be dynamic and legitimate, equitable as well as law like. That general purpose is more easily determinable than specific intent. However, the purposive interpretation is judicial lawmaking. The theory is consistent with legislative supremacy and its corollary 'obligation of the judiciary to enforce faithfully the written law. Another constraint of the purposivists theory is in respect of a statute that has more than one purpose. For example, the criminal code and the penal code have the purposes, other than to deter wrong doing, to ensure retribution and rehabilitation. What purpose would be adopted when the purposes of statute are disputed? The legislators might have had different purposes: political, economic, social and so on. It is too easy to determine,

yielding a plethora of purposes, cross-cutting purposes, and purposes set at such a general level that could support several different interpretations. This might make the theory even less determinate than mere traditional approaches inquiries based upon incoherent or analytical impossible. Thus; the theory is not more objective or determinate than the plain meaning and imaginative construction approaches.

2.6 Textualist Theory/Approach

The Textualist argued that there should be plain meaning approaches to statutory interpretation. They postulated that statutory interpretation should not aspire to reach results that are good *ex post facto* but should instead subserve extant goals, such as providing congress with clear interpretative rules so that it can know the effect of the language it adopts. The approach, they argued, stimulates congress and not the courts to make important policy decisions. Miller, G.C in response to the Textualist views stated that the democratic process can foster itself, and that the democratic process has delegated to courts and agencies the lawmaking responsibilities and the duty to do justice *ex post* when it enacts broad statutes.

The Textualist theory missed the point that ambiguity of language is more of a headache created by communication pitfall than the legislature itself creates; in the process of law making.

3. Conclusion

Where a court has to decide a case, in which some difficult problems of statutory interpretation arise and on which there are conflicting precedents, a clear understanding of the social objectives is essential in order to be able to discharge the task in a competent way. The Nigeria judicial approach takes cognizance of the policy and object of statutes in so far as it helps to detect the intention of the legislature. According to Max Radin, legislation has an aim being a ground design, it is an instruction to administrators and courts to accomplish a definite result; usually the securing or

maintaining of recognized social, political, or economic values.

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