

KIU Journal of Social Sciences

College of Humanities and Social Sciences



Kampala International University, Uganda.

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Published in March, 2019

ISSN: 2413-9580 (Print)

ISSN: 2519-0474 (Online)

Published by:

*College of Humanities and Social Sciences,
Kampala International University,
Kampala, Uganda.*



Editorial

This issue of *KIU Journal of Social Sciences* focuses on Development Studies, Entrepreneurship Studies, Human Rights and Gender Studies Educational Psychology, Educational Management, Moral Education and Physical and Health Education.

The first section of this edition addresses various issues in Entrepreneurship Studies such as training packages, self-esteem and achievement striving among others. Entrepreneurship Studies aids students from all socioeconomic backgrounds to think outside the box and nurture unconventional talents and skills. It creates opportunities, ensures social justice, instills confidence and stimulates the economy. Entrepreneurship studies is a lifelong learning process, starting as early as elementary school and progressing through all levels of education, including adult education. Introducing young kids to entrepreneurship develops their initiative and helps them to be more creative and self-confident in whatever they undertake and to act in a socially responsible way. There are many ways entrepreneurship lessons can be integrated in the school curriculum. It was revealed in one of the papers in this section that self-esteem and achievement striving has both relative and composite contributions towards entrepreneurial aspiration of the youths. The researchers therefore recommended strategies such as mentoring of students by the established entrepreneurs in the industries; review of entrepreneurship education curriculum among others.

Section two explores explores Development Studies is a multi- and inter- disciplinary field of study (i.e. not a discipline) that seeks to understand social, economic, political, technological and cultural aspects of societal change. Little wonder, Developmental psychologists study human growth and development over the lifespan, including physical, cognitive, social, intellectual, perceptual, personality and emotional growth. Academic scholars tend to focus primarily on research or teaching aspect of Development. Papers, in this second part of the Journal, addresses issues in Development Studies such as Millennium Development Goals, importance of self-employment, modernization theory and so on. One of the papers argues that there are many internal factors in Africa that hinder her development and therefore recommends amongst others that there should be effective leadership in Africa and also efforts should be made to fight corruption and adhere to the principles of rule of law.

In today's world, Gender equality is still at the very heart of human rights and United Nations values. A fundamental principle of the United Nations Charter adopted by world leaders in 1945 is "equal rights of men and women", and protecting and promoting women's human rights is the responsibility of all States. This is why the third section of this edition is devoted to issues in

Human Rights and Gender Studies such as Gender Mainstreaming, Inclusion Education and Girl Child Education.

Sections Four and Five which centre on Educational Management and Educational Psychology features paper meant to explain how people learn and retain knowledge as well as how to improve the learning process and promote educational success for all students.

One purpose of moral education is to help make children virtuous - honest, responsible, and compassionate. Another is to make mature students informed and reflective about important and controversial moral issues. Both purposes are embedded in a yet larger project—making sense of life. It is against this backdrop that the sixth section of this issue concentrates on topics that will enable readers acquire those virtues or moral habits that will help them individually live good lives and at the same time become productive, contributing members of their communities.

The last section is on Physical and Health Education. This is borne out of the fact that Physical education in high school is essential to the development of motor skills and the enhancement of reflexes. Hand-eye coordination is improved, as well as good body movements, which helps in the development of a healthy body posture. Physical education teaches students the importance of Physical Health.

In all, all the papers in this edition of KIU Journal of Social Sciences are interesting and thought provoking. I congratulate the contributors and all members of the editorial board for a job well done.

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March, 2019.

Part One
Entrepreneurship Studies



Entrepreneurial Skills' Training Packages on Disinfectant Production among Universities Chemistry Students in North Central, Nigeria

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Abstract. This study developed and determined the effect of entrepreneurial skill training package on disinfectant for undergraduate chemistry students' skill acquisition in North Central Zone, Nigeria. To guide the study, two research questions and two hypotheses were stated and formulated respectively. The design of the study was non randomized post-test only quasi experimental. The population of the study comprised 1,640 consisting of Chemistry Lecturers and Undergraduate Chemistry Students from four Universities within the Study Area. Sample of Two Hundred and Ninety Six (296) respondents were used for the study. The instruments for data collection were structured questionnaires which were developed by the researcher from literature. Five specialists validated the items of the instruments. The reliability coefficients of the instruments were computed using Cronbach Alpha method. The coefficients of 0.83 and 0.77 was established. The data collected were analyzed using mean (\bar{X}), standard deviation (SD), and percentage (%) to answer the research questions, while the two hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance using t-test statistic. The result of the finding revealed that 16 skills are required for disinfectant production. All the skills were accepted by respondents as necessary and required for the development of entrepreneurial skill training package in disinfectant production for undergraduate chemistry students. Hypotheses tested showed that there was no

significant difference in the performance mean scores of male and female Undergraduate Chemistry Students hence were accepted not rejected $p > 0.05$ while result from the second hypothesis revealed that there was significant difference between the mean scores of state and federal undergraduate chemistry students, hence were rejected $p < 0.05$. Some recommendations were made among others as a result of the study findings which were that: Chemistry teachers, lecturers and their students should make use of the developed skill training package to teach chemistry so as to understand its concepts and at the same time get the economic relevance and benefits of chemistry for self-reliance and sustainable economic development. Nigerian government should integrate the developed entrepreneurial skill training package on chemical product production for youths who wish to go into chemical products production on short term basis so as to enable them acquire the required entrepreneurial skills in chemical products production for employment.

Keywords: Entrepreneur, entrepreneurial skills, Training packages, self-reliance, development

1. Introduction

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. The Nigerian government is advocating that entrepreneurship education be promoted and fostered among business and non-business students at all levels of education. This is because entrepreneurship is one of the drivers of the economy for Nigeria and all over the world, thus, the quest for entrepreneurial skill training package in the universities becomes essential.

Entrepreneurship as declared by Abdu (2010) is the "process of creating something different with value by devoting the necessary time and assuming the accompanying financial psychic and social risks and receiving the resulting reward of most personal satisfaction." It is about self-reliance, which involves identification of a market and mobilizing necessary resources to serve that market through a business outfit. It is essentially about someone creating a market from his/her own resources. Regarding entrepreneurship, the researcher opines that entrepreneurship education in science and in chemistry in particular 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 growth, development and sustainability.

Skills development is synonymous with the best mode of science learning that is, learning by doing; for it is only by practice that skills in doing things develop in individuals. Nigerian graduates lack the opportunity of learning chemistry by doing, as well as for entrepreneurship to create jobs for themselves and others. It is however sad to observe that even at the University level of education, undergraduates find themselves in an environment not fully prepared for teaching and learning practical skills due to lack of adequate teaching and learning facilities and especially the lack of an entrepreneurial training module. It

is in this respect that the Nigerian science graduate of chemistry in particular cannot stand out proudly and announce to the world that the Nigerian class has taught him/her how to be on his/her own after graduation. On the other hand, Coyert (2012) noted that "the class has taught him how one can successfully create one's own job, a skill that is very worthwhile in today's uncertain times."

Teaching chemistry practically, will lead to acquisition of skills and entrepreneurship that will ultimately promote employability of Nigerian youths. A developed entrepreneurial skill training package will be adequate for the teaching of chemistry practically which is directly related to the students' real life situations. This is in tune with Omosewo and Alex (2013) who noted that the need for introducing entrepreneurship education in the Nigerian educational system is a sure way of curbing the unemployment saga of the nation. It is only then that Nigerian youths can successfully create jobs for themselves and others. Elechi (2009) posits that the entrepreneurship is a concept that is attracting a lot of attention presently. Agbe (2013) defined entrepreneurship as employment for self and others. Bodang (2013) stresses that entrepreneurship education is the training of individuals to understand and develop key entrepreneurial skill and behavior. Entrepreneurial skills such as; creativity, innovativeness, quick decision making and risk taking are relevant to those who have interest in starting and growing their own business.

Entrepreneurship in the opinion of the researcher therefore presents an opportunity for chemistry graduates to lift themselves out of economic hardship if they are properly trained to become good entrepreneurs. To actualize this lifting Amwe (2013), enumerates five basic skills an individual needs which include; personal skills communication skills, negotiation skill, leadership skill and management skills. It is in this respect that Uzoechi (2014) asserts that, science education programmes should be able to produce citizens who can apply their knowledge, skills and experience to solve real life problems by harnessing the resources from their

environment for the betterment of the society. The author maintained that these skills are simply those skills that are attached to one's personality (they are characterized habits that are formed). On the other hand, characteristics of entrepreneurship and entrepreneur according to Pinson (2010) include: Creative activity, dynamic process, purposeful activity and risk. The characteristics of the entrepreneur according to the author are self-confidence being multi-skilled, confidence in the face of difficulties and discouraging circumstances, risk taking, innovative skills result-oriented and total commitment. In the same vein, Stephenson (2010) identified entrepreneurial characteristics as seriousness, planning ability, procedure and team work. Thus training will become effective if a skill training module is available for the teaching of chemistry for the purpose of entrepreneurship.

It was further observed by the researcher that the teachers at tertiary level of education teach their students theoretical knowledge of chemistry based on their syllabus. This is done just for the students to pass the examinations with good grades and consequently they suffer unemployment after graduation. The teaching and learning of chemistry for the purpose of entrepreneurship is practical-based approach and it is the key to breakthrough in science and technological advancement and consequently for economic development.

Adeyemo (2009) defined entrepreneurial skill as the ability to create something new with value by devoting the accompanying financial, psychic and social risk and receiving the resulting rewards of monetary and personal satisfaction and independence. Entrepreneurial Skills is the ability of an individual to exploit an idea and create an enterprise (small or big) not only for personal gain but also for social and developmental gain. On the other hand Training is the activity of imparting and acquiring skills. Training is generally organized to assist trainees to acquire skills for entry into occupations or assist those already in business to acquire professional skills for improving their businesses; trainers also train individuals to achieve a certain number of entrepreneurial

skills. Entrepreneurial skill training package will help the undergraduate chemistry students to acquire entrepreneurial skills leading to economic, political and social development. In the same vein, researchers such as Runge and Brase (2014) accepted that entrepreneurial behaviour remains a crucial engine of innovation and growth for the national economy and for individual companies. For Nigeria to be at par with the developed countries of the world there is the need to make science more interesting to the citizenry and ensure effective teaching of science in our schools (Arokoyo & Ugonwa, 2012). Hence the development of an entrepreneurial skill training package may enhance and increase the interest of learners since it is practical based and learner- centered, this confirms to a Chinese proverb that says what I hear, I forget, what I see I remember and what I do, I understand.

Chemistry being an investigative science subject which deals with the procedures and processes of making things would serve as a medium through which the basic chemical knowledge and skills required by chemistry graduates and youths to be employable are acquired. This is the reason why science in the opinion of Obiajulu (2014) has been acknowledged as the bed rock of national development and also that chemistry's contribution to quality of life and nation building are worthwhile in all aspects (Festus & Ekpete, 2012).

As a developing nation, Nigeria has turned out many graduates including chemistry graduates, who are roaming the streets in search of non-existing white collar jobs. This situation is contrary to the aims and objectives of Nigeria education, as contained in the National policy on Education, which stresses the development of a self-reliant nation. Also the goals of science education in Nigeria include among others; cultivating, knowing, inquiring and having rational mind for the conduct of good life and democracy, producing scientists for national development and providing understanding of the complexity of the physical world, the forms and the conduct of life (FRN, 2008: Effiong & Okon, 2012).

Chemistry graduates ought to have acquired sufficient skills that would make them self-reliant and prepared to enter into jobs and make progress. Chemistry education should prepare individuals to be self-employed in various enterprises, because as the backbone of all sciences, it is contextually versed with topics and concepts that have so much to offer, its students and graduates for self-employment. However, Nigerians are currently facing unemployment related problems because science education including chemistry education is not being taught in our universities to prepare the graduates to function well in the nation. In the same vein, Abdu (2014) lamented that the teaching of chemistry in Nigeria is not practically done as it ought to, that the practical relevance to the development of skills needed for entrepreneurial development is mostly theorized because of lack of competent teachers or lack of equipment to enable that. Hence, the resultant effects are students/graduates without hands on skills and minds on experience.

These lapses might include; the lack of a developed entrepreneurial skill training module for the teaching of chemistry which has to be properly tackled for our science education to produce chemistry graduates who might have sufficient skills for self-reliance. The present trend of mass unemployment in Nigeria shows that the science education including chemistry education in our Nigeria universities are not preparing the Nigerian graduates as it ought to. The Nigerian educational system is supposed to focus on the problem of its people particularly the youth. As noted by Susianna (2011), unemployment is the result of not only the limited job opportunities but also the job seekers incapability of meeting the requirements and qualifications required by the business sector. Thus, any job seeker needs to be equipped with certain knowledge, skills and attitude. The attitudes needed by anyone intending to become an entrepreneur and a job seeker are entrepreneurial attitudes.

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 skillfulness, 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.

Gender difference in diffusion of entrepreneurship has been a topic of many studies over decades. Numerous studies have shown a higher prevalence of entrepreneurship for man than that for women with similar backgrounds (Ferk, Maja, Posavek, 2013). Also this gender difference tends to be robust across countries and cultures. In an ideal world every person, regardless of age, gender, origin, and financial status should have an equal opportunity to realize his/her potential.

Taking in account this statement, the question about the potential of female entrepreneurship arises. If female and male characteristics are compared with regards to leadership and management abilities, started from the physical diversities, the basic difference is that female brain is defused and uses significant portions of both hemispheres, so it's able to multitask, whereby the male brain is specialized and uses specific parts of one hemisphere or the other, mainly the left one, in other to accomplish specific task.

Average weight of an adult male brain is 11 – 12 % more than the average brain weight of a female. Due to their larger corpus collosum women can transfer data between the right and left hemisphere faster than men. Furthermore, female are more creative and more aware of feelings whereby male are dominantly task-oriented, and their perceptual sense is vision. Females have broader perspective of things whilst males focus more on narrow issues.

In a decision making process, the female are less risk taking than male (Ferk, et al, 2013). Several large scale studies on female and male

entrepreneurship conducted on several nations revealed that female entrepreneurs are less successful in objective success measures, including lower sales, slower growth, and lower profits (Ferk, et al, 2013). If we compare female and male entrepreneurs, women entrepreneurs are less likely to seek start-up as well as angel financing. They also have less financial and human capital (i.e. education and quantity of work experience) invested in their start ups, and less access to business clients beyond their traditional household clientele. Women are to some extent discriminated at various stages of entrepreneurship that include lower salaries and the conflict between work activities and motherhood.

According to Ferk, et al (2013), general-held gender stereotypes exist in many countries against woman entrepreneurs and in this part of the paper we will focus on Female Entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurial career is generally associated with masculine characteristics. Several studies have demonstrated that these gender role stereotypes influence men's and women's intention to pursue an entrepreneurial career. These stereotypes may result in female entrepreneurs' stronger self-imposed barriers to growth and less favorable perceptions of themselves and the entrepreneurial environment, as compared to male entrepreneurs. Consequently, many women entrepreneurs tend to use entrepreneurship as a means of balancing work and family rather than achieving final success (Ferk, et al, 2013).

Chemistry which should be taught using hands-on and minds-on (practical) approach is basically 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 be self-employed.

The present trend of mass unemployment in Nigeria shows that the science education including chemistry education being taught in schools do not prepare Nigerian graduates to function well in the nation undergoing transition from rural economy to modern economy. The researcher further observed that the lack of entrepreneurship ability among chemistry graduates could be attributed to the lack of skills occasioned by absence of training modules by teachers, thus, the concern of this research was to develop a training module that would be used in the teaching and learning of chemistry to enhance the chemical entrepreneurial skills of the graduates or youth so that they can acquire the right entrepreneurial habits, attitudes and saleable skills with which they can explore their environments as well as means of surviving the face of unemployment.

3. Research Questions

The following research questions were raised to guide the study.

- What are the entrepreneurial skills required for disinfectant production by undergraduate chemistry students?
- What are the performance mean scores of undergraduate chemistry students in disinfectant production using the developed entrepreneurial skill training module?

4. Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested in the study at 0.05 level of significance.

- There is no significant difference between the performance mean scores of male and female undergraduate chemistry students who were trained using the entrepreneurial skill training packages for disinfectant production.
- There is no significance difference between the performance mean scores of

state and federal students who were trained using the developed entrepreneurial skill training package for disinfectant production.

5. Methodology

The study employed the non-randomized post-test only. A sample of 296 respondents out of 1640 and it consisted of all the 60 chemistry lecturers and 236 400 level undergraduates chemistry students using purposive sampling

6. Results

Research Question 1: What are the entrepreneurial skills required in disinfectant production by undergraduate chemistry students?

Table 1: Mean Responses of Chemistry Lecturers on Entrepreneurial Skills for Disinfectant Production (ESDP)

S/N	Entrepreneurial skills for disinfectant (lzal) production	N	\bar{X}	SD	Remark
	Ability to measure the mass of solid substance accurately.	15	3.11	0.90	Accepted
	Ability to measure the volume of liquid substances accurately.	15	3.28	0.84	Accepted
	Ability to measure the concentration of chemicals during disinfectant production.	15	3.20	0.88	Accepted
	Ability to prepare the standard solution of the substances accurately	15	3.13	0.91	Accepted
	Ability to dilute substances accurately	15	3.19	0.91	Accepted
	Ability to take safety measurers	15	3.29	0.86	Accepted
	Ability to locate regular supply of raw materials	15	3.24	0.84	Accepted
	Ability for good record keeping for disinfectant production.	15	3.19	0.92	Accepted
	Ability to manage crisis during disinfectant production.	15	3.18	0.89	Accepted
	Ability for self-motivation to accomplish the task for disinfectant production.	15	3.15	0.91	Accepted
	Ability to identify and procure appropriate equipment and chemicals for disinfectant product very well.	15	3.22	0.89	Accepted
	Ability to package the disinfectant product very well.	15	3.15	0.95	Accepted
	Ability to register with regulatory body like NAFDAC/SON/MAN for my product.	15	3.19	0.92	Accepted
	Ability to estimate the cost of disinfectant production.	15	3.19	0.92	Accepted
	Ability to establish and sustain quality standards.	15	3.17	0.91	Accepted
	Ability to identify market for the product.	15	3.22	0.98	Accepted

Data from Table 1 revealed that all the 16 items on entrepreneurial skills required for disinfectant production were accepted by respondents and used in disinfectant production. The mean of the items ranged from 3.11 to 3.29 and were above the bench mark of 2.50. This showed that all the items are necessary and required for the development of entrepreneurial skill training module for undergraduate chemistry students in disinfectant production. The standard deviation ranged from 0.84 to 0.98. This implies that the respondents are not too far from the mean and from one another in their responses.

Research Question 2: What are the achievement mean scores of undergraduate chemistry students in disinfectant production using the draft entrepreneurial skill training module?

Table 2: Mean Rating of Chemistry Lecturers of Undergraduate Chemistry Students' on Entrepreneurial Skills for Disinfectant Production (ESDP)

S/N	ITEM	E	V.G	G	P	TF	F	%	\bar{X}	Remark
	The students' ability to measure the concentration of chemicals during disinfectant production.	9	6	1	0	16	15	93.8	3.73	High performance
	The students' ability to prepare the standard solution of the substances accurately.	9	7	0	0	16	15	100	3.80	High performance
	The students' ability to dilute substances accurately.	8	7	1	0	16	15	93.8	3.67	High performance
	The students' ability to take safety measure	9	7	0	0	16	15	100	3.80	High performance
	The students' ability to locate regular supply of raw materials	12	4	0	0	16	16	100	3.75	High performance
	The students' ability for good record keeping for disinfectant production	8	8	0	0	16	16	100	3.50	High performance
	The students' ability to manage crises during disinfectant production	9	6	1	0	16	15	93.8	3.73	High performance
	The students ability for self-motivation to accomplish the task for disinfectant production	9	7	0	0	16	16	100	3.56	High performance
	The students' ability to identify and procure appropriate equipment and chemical for disinfectant production	10	5	1	0	16	15	93.8	3.80	High performance
	The students' ability to package the paint product very well	9	6	1	0	16	15	93.8	3.73	High performance
	The students' awareness to register with regulatory body like NAFDAC/SON/MAN for their product.	11	5	0	0	16	16	100	3.69	High performance
	The students' ability to estimate the cost of disinfectant production	10	5	1	0	16	14	93.8	4.07	High performance
	The students' ability to establish and sustain quality standard	10	5	1	0	16	14	93.8	4.07	High performance
	The students' ability market for the product	9	5	2	0	16	14	87.6	3.93	High performance
	The ability of the student to estimate the cost of disinfectant production	10	4	2	0	16	14	87.5	4.00	High performance
	The ability of the student to establish and sustain quality standards	7	6	3	0	16	13	81.3	3.54	High performance
	The ability of the student to identify market for the product	9	6	1	0	16	15	100	3.73	High performance

Data from table 2 revealed that all the 17 items on students' entrepreneurial skill for disinfectant production (ESDP) were demonstrated during Izal production using the developed entrepreneurial skill training module for disinfectant production. The mean scores of undergraduate students by their lecturers ranged from 3.50 – 4.07 and were above the bench mark of 2.50. This showed that the module on disinfectant production had an effect on the students and hence displayed entrepreneurial skills during training using the developed module.

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference between the mean scores of male and female undergraduate chemistry students who were trained using the draft entrepreneurial skill training module for disinfectant production.

Table 3: Independent sample t- test analysis for male and female undergraduate chemistry students on disinfectant production.

Independent variables	N	Mean	SD	DF	t-cal	P- value
Male	173	50.38	8.37	224	-1.803	0.073
Female	9.23	52.72	-2.34	96.23	-1.72	
Total	182.23					

From Table 3, the result shows that p-Val is 0.073 which is greater than 0.05. 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 males' undergraduate chemistry students and female undergraduate chemistry students in disinfectant production.

Results on Table 3 indicate that learning took place and that male undergraduate chemistry students learned as much as female undergraduate chemistry students. This reveals that if male and female undergraduate student are engaged with the right equipment, positive result would be achieved.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significance difference between the mean scores of state and federal students who were trained using the developed entrepreneurial skill training module for disinfectant production.

Table 4: Independent sample t-test analysis for federal and state undergraduate chemistry students on disinfectant production

Independent variables	N	Mean	Std Dev	Df	t-cal	P- value
Federal university	167	50.30	8.45	234	-2.24	0.026
State university	69	53.08	8.70	1125.3	-2.21	

Table 4, the result shows that p-Val is 0.026 and is less than 0.05 i.e. p-Val; (0.026) < at 0.05 based on the result, the null hypothesis was rejected. It was revealed that there is no significant difference between the skills and competences acquired by federal undergraduate chemistry students in disinfectant production and the state undergraduate chemistry students. This indicates that the training module developed for disinfectant production does not have the same effect on both federal and state university undergraduate chemistry students.

7. Discussion of Findings

This research investigated the skills required by undergraduate chemistry students for the development and determination of the effect of entrepreneurial skill training modules in disinfectant production for the undergraduate chemistry students in North central zone, of Nigeria. Data were collected, analyzed and a number of findings were discussed as follows:

The results of the findings revealed that, there is no statistical significant difference between the mean score of male and female. This shows that there was no significant difference between the skills and competences acquired by male and female undergraduate chemistry students in disinfectant production. The module developed has effect on both male and female in acquiring entrepreneurial skills and competences in

disinfectant production. This implies that most of the skills, equipment, materials chemicals and processes involved in disinfectant production were required or demanded for the development of entrepreneurial skill development for the undergraduate chemistry students in North central zone of Nigeria. This finding is in consonance with that of Nbioho and Daodu (2014) who found out the skills required for the development of entrepreneurship skill training module of planning fish breeding and hatching occupational. In the same vein, Obiyai, Ekpedu and Ekubo (2011) found out the skills required for the development of entrepreneurship skill training module for farmers in fish feed production and marketing occupation.

Students' performances on displaying their skills during disinfectant (izal) production is using the developed entrepreneurship skill trainings module in disinfectant (izal) production was very high. This finding is in agreement with that of Adeyemo (2009) that entrepreneurial skill is the ability of an individual to exploit an idea and create an enterprise (small or big) not only for personal gain but also for social and developmental gain.

The result in Table 1 answered research question one and it showed that the mean and standard deviation scores of the chemistry lecturers on undergraduate chemistry students on

entrepreneurial skills for disinfectant production (ESDP) were above the bench mark of 0.05

This finding is consistent with that of Obiayai, Osimem and Agbulu (2010) who found that from their research that certain skills are required for the development of a skill training module for fish feed production for fish farmers, therefore, they displayed a high level of performance in terms of entrepreneurial skill, competences and attitudes.

Their findings also revealed that three clusters of skill are required for the development of entrepreneurial skill training modules in fish preservation and marketing occupation. The clusters are planning, feeds processing and marketing of fish feeds, planning consisted of 10 essential skills and marketing has 5 essential skills. The findings were very important for the fact that for any business enterprise to achieve success, the entrepreneur must possess certain entrepreneurial skill.

The finding of this current study, is also consistent with that of Obiayai, Ekpebu and Ekubo (2011) who accepted the research and development (R & D) to identify skill in fisheries, industries, Agricultural extension agent and fisheries experts for use in the development of training module on fish feed production. Sudarwatis (2013) in his own study found that developing an integrated module on entrepreneurship to improve ability in making business plans worked on individual learning on entrepreneurship materials implementing the integrated module the student and they could successfully develop business plans. The individuals also learnt development of entrepreneurial spirit, running the business and practice making business plans.

The result in Table 2 revealed all the items in entrepreneurial skills for disinfectant production, and the results also implied that the undergraduate chemistry students have mastered the skills for disinfectant or Izal production therefore performed excellently. The undergraduate chemistry students were able to identify the equipment the materials, the

chemical and the process involved in disinfectant production very well.

The finding of this current study, nevertheless, is contrary to the findings of Ezeudu, Gertrude, Chiaha, Anazor, Eze and Omeke (2015) who concluded that males performed better than females in chemistry. On the other hand, Hudson (2014) concluded that females generally performed slightly better on multiple-choice than did males in chemistry. This finding is consistent with Olasehinde and Olatoye (2014) who opined that there is significant difference between male and female students general achievement and attitude towards science namely biology, chemistry and physics.

The Test of Hypothesis one as shown in table 3 showed that there is no difference between the mean scores of male and female undergraduate chemistry students who were trained using the developed entrepreneurial skill training module on disinfectant production. The findings from this study is consistent with the findings from Olasehinde and Olatoye (2014) whose study revealed that there is no significant difference between male and female students in science achievements.

The test of Hypothesis two as shown in table 4 showed that the independent sample t- test analysis on mean scores of federal and state undergraduate chemistry students after training on disinfectant production using the module developed. The test of hypothesis 1 and 2, showed that $p < 0.05$ hence null hypothesis was not rejected. This implies that there is a significant difference between the scores of state and federal university chemistry students.

8. Conclusion

From the foregoing discussion on the finding of the study, it was concluded that:

- The entrepreneurial skills required for the development of entrepreneurial skill training package for disinfectant production for undergraduate chemistry students in north central zone, Nigeria was developed.

- The effect of the developed entrepreneurial skill training package on the 400 level undergraduate chemistry students yielded a positive result as they performed moderate, high and very high in chemical products production.
- The students learnt the ability to take safety measures, locate raw materials, prepare standard solutions for good record keeping, to manage crisis during production, be self-motivated, procure the right equipment, materials and chemicals, to package products well, to register with NAFDAC, to estimate the cost of production, to establish quality and sustain good quality and standard products and ability to identify the market.
- The findings are very important for the fact that for any business enterprise to achieve success, the entrepreneur must possess certain entrepreneurial skills. The skills are necessary in boosting the chemical products production industry, as well as stimulate interest and competences in undergraduate chemistry students.

9. Recommendations

For efficient and successful training of undergraduate chemistry students for self-reliance, skills in various of chemistry products production are required and hence the development of entrepreneurial skill training package is very necessary. The study therefore recommends that:

- Chemistry teachers, lecturers and their students should make use of the developed package to do chemistry so as to understand its concepts and at the same time get the economic relevance and benefits of chemistry for self-reliance for sustainable economic development.
- Nigerian government should integrate the developed entrepreneurship skill training modules on chemical product production youth who wish to go into chemical product production on short

term basis as to enable them acquire the required entrepreneurship skills in chemical products production for employment.

- Curriculum planners should allocate enough time for teaching chemistry in secondary school, colleges of education and universities. And should adopt the training modules in to the learning institutions.
- Loans with low interest rates should be given to graduates especially chemistry graduates who have shown interest in chemistry product production
- The entrepreneurs can also make use of the module whenever they are conducting interviews to select qualified people in order to improve their production.
- Schools, colleges and tertiary institution should establish chemical products factories and demonstration rooms to arouse and sustain the interest of students to have high retention, positive attitude towards chemistry as a subject and perform well in internal and external examination like WAEC, NECO and JAMB and can still acquire chemical knowledge for – self-employment after graduation
- Refresher courses should be organized by the government periodically to retrain those already in the system doing the chemical products but lack the chemical knowledge so that they can produce qualitative chemical products.
- Government should earnestly pursue the aim and objectives of Nigerian policy on education which stresses the development of a self-reliant nation.\
- Chemistry lecturers or science lecturers in general should be trained to get them well equipped with entrepreneurial skill in chemical products production. This is to enhance their capability to retrain undergraduate chemistry students.
- Government or non-governmental organizations should give take-off grants to youths who have interests in chemical products production and have been trained to enable them start

chemical products production and marketing.

- Government should also establish chemical products production places to reduce incidences of shortage in supply of the products since we use them on a daily basis.
- Chemistry lecturers should go for regular seminars, conferences, workshops for capacity building to be more efficient in educating undergraduate chemistry students on modern technologies and subsequent adoptions.

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Self Esteem and Achievement Striving on Entrepreneurial Aspiration among the Nigerian Youths: Implications for Entrepreneurship Education

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Abstract. The resurgence of entrepreneurship in the late twenty century has made it the focus of the global economic community. In fact, the developing nations are tending towards entrepreneurship economy. The potency of entrepreneurship is quite heavy while its resultant effects cannot be ignored. The contribution of this economic driver towards national development is significant and its incremental impact on nations' GDP cannot be undermined. Fostering entrepreneurship is vital in every part of the world. Supporting youth entrepreneurial aspiration in developing countries with education, motivation, mentorship and encouragement is a critical pathway to stimulate the creation of sustainable livelihoods. Thus, identifying and labeling the psycho-social predictors of entrepreneurial aspiration is germane. Three hypotheses were formulated to guide the study and were analysed with multiple regression statistical method at 0.05 level of significance. Hence, this study investigates entrepreneurial aspiration among the Nigerian youths focusing on the relative and composite contributions of self esteem and achievement striving. Adopted and modified and revalidated instruments were administered on the four hundred (400) respondents sampled to participate in the study. The findings revealed that self esteem and achievement striving has both relative and composite contributions towards entrepreneurial aspiration of the respondents. Based on the findings of this study, the researchers recommend strategies such as mentoring of students by the established entrepreneurs in the industries; review of

entrepreneurship education curriculum among others. These are expected to enhance the sustenance of entrepreneurial aspiration among the youths, using self esteem and achievement striving as predictors.

Keywords: Entrepreneurial Aspiration, Self-Esteem, Achievement Striving, Youth.

1. Introduction

Early references to the entrepreneurs in the 14th century spoke about tax contractors, individuals who paid a fixed sum of money to a government for the license to collect taxes in their region. In the 19th century, entrepreneurs were the “captains of industry”, the risk takers, the decision makers, and the individual who aspires to be wealthy and who gathered and managed resources to create new enterprises. Notable early French, British and Austrian economists wrote enthusiastically about entrepreneurs as the “change agents” of progressive economies (Holt, 1992). The concept of entrepreneurship has been around for a very long time, but its resurgent popularity implies a “sudden discovery”, as if we had’ stumbled onto a new direction of national and global economy (Holt, 1992).

It is widely assumed that unemployment (and its social vices), job dissatisfaction and profitability among others are largely responsible for the drive towards entrepreneurship. Brockhaus (1992) opines that a major factor pushing people towards self-employment is job dissatisfaction which he tagged “negative displacement”. Audretsch and Thurik (1998) argue that the

positive effect of unemployment as it shows a replacement ratio and propensity of unemployed persons to become self-employed. The foregoing is known to be push factors. On the contrary, Acemoglu (1995) cited in Wennerkers, Noorderhaven, Hofstede and Thurik (2000) argues that reward structure of entrepreneurship can be pecuniary (monetary profit) and non-pecuniary (respect-self esteem and achievement striving). The non-pecuniary reward structure of entrepreneurship is described as the pull factors which is the focus of the study.

The concept of self-esteem originated from a psychosocial perspective. The concept first arose in psychology and can be traced back to the writing of William James in the late 19th century. James was the first Social Scientist to develop a clear professional definition of the self (Turner, 1998). In his typology of self, James' description of the social self recognized that people's feelings about themselves arise from interaction with others; he recognized that humans have the capacity to view themselves as objects and to develop self-feeling and attitudes towards themselves (Turner, 1998). Self esteem has been described as the judgments that we make about our own worth and the feeling associated with the judgments. It has been ranked as among the most important aspects of self- development since evaluation of our own competencies affect emotional experiences, future behaviour and long term psychological adjustment (Nagar, Sharma & Chopra, 2008). Your self esteem depends on many questions such as: Is your job worthwhile? Do others respect what you do? Do you believe you are successful? How do you see yourself? What do you think of your social status? and so on. Thus, if entrepreneurship is towards self-employment, self-esteem is more ubiquitous to entrepreneurial aspiration.

Holly (1987) espoused that self esteem is influenced by achievement-related attributions, culture, child rearing practices amongst other factors. Adolescence (youth), being the stage of turmoil, is one of the period in life of individuals, when self esteem increases and is highly influenced by the environment. It is really a person's perception of life experiences and

relationships that have a greater impact on one's self esteem (Mecca, Smelser & Vasconcellos, 1989)

Achievement striving is the extent to which individuals take their work seriously, active, and work hard (Bluen, Barling & Burns, 1990). Studies have shown that it is associated with positive organizational outcomes such as job satisfaction (Bluen, Barling & Burns; 1990), escalating commitment to a course of action for individuals who perceive a high responsibility (Schaubroeck & Williams, 1993) and job performance (Helmreich, Spence, & Pred, 1998; Northam, 1994). Wright (1988) opines that achievement striving is traditionally associated with career success. Individuals high in achievement striving is likely to be hard working, involved in their jobs and ambitious (Lee & Gillen, 1989). These are all characteristics that are particularly suited for entrepreneurship; and research reports showed consistently that achievement striving is associated with sales performance (Bluen et al., 1990). This is the core of self-employment (Entrepreneurship) business, both in product or service dimension.

Various researches have tried to unknot the variables responsible for entrepreneurial aspiration; but most of these searched into the level of awareness of entrepreneurship as learning experience, while the study subjects were students and lecturers within the school system (Gurol & Atsan, 2006; Kiadese, 2006; Zaidatol, 2009). Also, other researches have looked into the cultural factors affecting entrepreneurial attitude and self-employment across national frontiers but there are questions of relative homogeneity and representativeness of the sample (Lorraine & Thurik, 2003; Tan, 2002).

Young people make up a large share of the Nigerian population. The review of global and regional trends highlights that youths are largely unemployed or mostly employed in informal sector. Fostering youth entrepreneurial aspiration is a useful way to promote self employment and engender a sustainable development in developing nations. Thus, the need to support the youths with access to

infrastructure, take-off grants, and other economic input, might not be enough for taking a step towards entrepreneurship. Other psychosocial variables may serve as accompanying influences on entrepreneurial aspiration.

Hence, this study investigates whether self-esteem and achievement striving would determine entrepreneurial aspiration of youths in Lagos State, Nigeria.

The following null hypotheses were specifically tested at 0.05 level of significance:

- H₀₁: Self-esteem will not significantly determine entrepreneurial aspiration of youths
 H₀₂: Achievement striving will not significantly determine entrepreneurial aspiration youths
 H₀₃: Self-esteem and achievement striving will not significantly determine entrepreneurial Aspiration of youths.

2. Method

2.1 Design

This study adopts the descriptive research design. The population comprises all the Nigerian youths living and working in Lagos State, both at the formal and informal sectors of the economy. This study used proportional stratified sampling technique. Twenty (20) Local Government Areas in Lagos State were stratified into formal and informal sectors. Two Hundred (200) respondents are randomly selected from each sector; meaning Twenty (20) respondents were selected from each Local Government Area. In all, four hundred (400) respondents were sampled to participate in the study.

3. Results

The results are as presented in Tables 1-3

Hypothesis 1: Self-esteem will not significantly determine entrepreneurial aspiration of youths

2.2 Instrumentation

The instrument was developed based on the modification of previous instruments developed by several authors such as Rosenberg (1965) - Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES), **Goldberg, Johnson, Eber, Hogan, Ashton, Cloninger, and Gough (2006)** - Achievement Striving Scale (ASS) and Kiadese, (2006) - Entrepreneurial Aspiration Scale (EAS). The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale and Achievement Striving Scale were administered on a segment of the sample using test-retest method and correlation co-efficients of 0.76 and 0.78 were derived respectively. The entrepreneurial aspiration scale was validated by experts in the field of entrepreneurship education and was subjected to a test-retest method of reliability with a resultant correlation coefficient of 0.87. The measurement of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale was based on the 6 points Likert scale with 1 demonstrating “strongly disagree” to 6 demonstrating “strongly agree”. Achievement Striving Scale and Entrepreneurial Aspiration Scales were based on the 4 point Likert scales with 1 demonstrating “strong disagree” to 4 demonstrating “strongly agree”.

2.3 Procedure

The questionnaires were administered personally by the researchers with the aid of a working team of trained research assistants. All questionnaires were collected immediately. It took one month to administer the scales. Data resulting from the administration of the instruments were analyzed using Multiple Regression Analysis at .05 significant level.

Table 1: Multiple Regression of the influence of Self-Esteem on Entrepreneurial Aspiration of Youths

Model	Analysis of Variance							
R	.177		Sum of Square	df	Mean square	F	Sig	Remark
R Square	.031	Regression	164.101	1	164.101	12.807	.000	Significant
Adjusted R Square	.029	Residual	5099.899	398	12.814			
Std Error of the Estimate	3.57964	Total	5264.000	399				

Table 1 shows that self-esteem in determining entrepreneurial aspiration yielded a multiple regression coefficient (R) of .177 with F-ratio (12.807) significant at 0.05 level. This indicates that 3.1% of the variation in entrepreneurial aspiration was accounted for by self esteem. Hence, self-esteem determines entrepreneurial aspiration of the youths. Thus, hypothesis one is rejected.

Hypothesis 2: Achievement striving will not significantly determine entrepreneurial aspiration of youths

Table 2: Multiple Regression of the influence of Achievement striving on Entrepreneurial Aspiration of youths

Model	Analysis of Variance							
R	.133		Sum of Square	df	Mean square	F	Sig	Remark
R Square	.018	Regression	93.735	1	93.735	7.216	.008	Significant
Adjusted R Square	.015	Residual	5170.265	398	12.991			
Std Error of the Estimate	3.60425	Total	5264.000	399				

Table 2 reveals that achievement striving in determining entrepreneurial aspiration yielded a multiple regression co-efficient (R) of .133 with F-ratio (7.216) significant at 0.05 level. This indicates that 1.8% of the variation in entrepreneurial aspiration was accounted for by achievement striving. Hence, achievement striving determines entrepreneurial aspiration of the youths. Thus, the hypothesis two is rejected.

Hypothesis 3: Self-esteem and achievement striving will not significantly determine entrepreneurial aspiration of youths

Table 3: Multiple Regression of the Determination of Self-Esteem and Achievement Striving on Entrepreneurial Aspiration

Model	Analysis of Variance							
R	.212		Sum of Square	Df	Mean square	F	Sig	Remark
R Square	.045	Regression	237.058	1	118.529	9.361	.000	Significant
Adjusted R Square	.040	Residual	5026.942	397	12.662			
Std Error of the Estimate	3.55842	Total	5264.000	399				

Table 3 shows that self-esteem and achievement striving in determining Entrepreneurial aspiration yielded a multiple regression co-efficient (R) of .212 with F-ratio (9.361) significant at 0.05 level. This

indicates that 4.0% of the variation in entrepreneurial aspiration was accounted for by composite contribution of self esteem and achievement striving. Hence, self esteem and achievement striving can determine entrepreneurial aspiration of the youths. Thus, the hypothesis three is rejected.

4. Discussion of Findings

The empirical evidence in Table 1 revealed that self esteem has significant effect on entrepreneurial aspiration of the Nigerian youths. This agrees with the assertion of Greenberg (1992) cited in Flynn (2003) that self-esteem is an individual characteristics that all humans possess and continually striving to improve upon. The implication is that it is a universal human need that cut across cultural and demographic landscapes. Although, it may vary in intensity (i.e, low or high), but a significant level of self esteem will definitely leads to entrepreneurial aspiration. Flynn (2003) reports that majority of researchers believe that self-esteem lies on a linear vector: individuals who espoused high self-esteem are considered to be functioning smoothly in society and vice versa. Self-esteem is a product of social environment within which the youths function. Holly (1987) opined that, adolescence (youth), being the stage of turmoil, is one of the period in life of individuals, when self-esteem increases and is highly influenced by the environment. Little wonder that Flynn (2003) asserts that it is the perceived and experienced reality that affects the individual self-esteem. If we are to understand people's reaction, we must understand the contexts in which they live, for it is the perceived and experienced worlds that shape their feelings towards themselves and towards life. Generally, Nigerian youths are quite adventuresome, gregarious and daring; but the productive channeling of these towards entrepreneurship should be encouraged.

The discovery from the analysis of hypothesis two, in which achievement striving accounted for 1.8 percent of the variation in entrepreneurial aspiration of the Nigerian youths is quite significant. In corroboration with this, Barling, Relloway and Cheung (1996) opined that individuals high in achievement striving is likely to be hardworking, involved in their jobs and ambitious. Bluen, Barling and Bums (1990) asserts that achievement striving is associated

consistently with positive organizational outcomes such as escalating commitment to a course of action for individuals who perceived a high responsibility. Hence, the prevalence of youth unemployment has opened the consciousness of the respondents to strive to assume responsibility towards self employment and aspiration (ambition) to own their businesses. Also, Lee and Gillen (1989) find that achievement striving amongst others is a characteristic that is suited for sales success and performance which is the focal part of entrepreneurship.

Furthermore, Jamal (1985), reported that achievement striving is inversely associated with qualitative performance in a sample of white-collar workers. Few studies have investigated achievement striving and sales performance but surprisingly revealed characteristics that are peculiar to entrepreneurs which include energetic, hardworking, competitive, high value for money, status and high standard of living (Lee & Gillen, 1989, Matteson, Ivancevich & Smith, 1984). With the depth of poverty as a result of graduate unemployment in Nigeria, the Nigerian government introduced the idea entrepreneurship education as a compulsory component of higher education curriculum that a student must pass before graduation (CAEL Report, 2015). Also, the public enlightenment campaign on entrepreneurship by various non-governmental agencies seems to have accounted for the realization of the snares of the white-collar jobs that clogs self fulfillment, wealth creation and national development. Little wonder, some Nigerian youths are taking the bull-by-the-horn by engaging in small scale enterprise at least for survival; but many are yet to tread the direction. They are still conservative and stereotyped.

From Table 3, it can be seen that self esteem has a composite contribution with achievement striving in determining the entrepreneurial aspiration of the Nigerian youths. The level of significance of these constructs might be the

influence of the environment within which the respondents operate. This is in agreement with Glass (1977) cited in Barling Relloway & Cheng (1996) that achievement striving is a behaviour resulted from individual attempt to control his environment; which is also the platform upon which self esteem derived its potency. Thus, self-esteem and achievement striving are joint predictors of entrepreneurial aspiration of the Nigerian youths who are mostly influenced by their environment. In addition, self esteem and achievement striving have been found as entrepreneurial motivation variables which have predictive relationship towards self employment. This is supported by Lindsay (2005), that entrepreneurial attitude is measured in terms of achievement striving, innovation, personal control, self esteem and opportunity for recognition. Cassar (2007), Van Gelden and Jasen (2006) opined that self esteem is a pull motivating factor towards entrepreneurship. They stressed that mostly pull entrepreneurship motives include; autonomy, income and wealth, recognition, self esteem and status. Achievement striving is seen as a push factor. This is the opinion of Collins, Hanges and Locke (2004) in their investigation of depth-psychological motives of entrepreneurs. They identified need for achievement as one of the basis for their venture.

Self-esteem and achievement striving are in the realm of human personality which plays significant role in human behaviour. Greenberge and Sexton (1985) cited in Akpomi (2009) asserts that the main premise of this personality perspective is the notion that certain individuals have a unique set of inherent, stable and enduring personality characteristics that predispose them to entrepreneurial activity. Of significance, is the perception that these traits are permanent and remain consistent across time and context. Gartner (1985) argues that personality characteristics of the entrepreneurs are view as ancillary to behaviour. He opined that research should concentrate on what entrepreneurs do rather than who they are. Controvertibly, it is the knowledge of what entrepreneurs are that projects what they do. Thus, in as much we recognize the functional

perspective to entrepreneurship; the behavioural dimension is also germane.

Although, a process-based perspective of entrepreneurship is laudable given the fundamental problems associated with the personality perspective, a learning perspective offers a new capacious avenues for studying entrepreneurship can be developed (Akpomi, 2009). As Shaver and Scott (1991) argue that, the deep dissatisfaction with the attempt to identify psychological characteristics of entrepreneurs has resulted in a tendency to concentrate “on almost anything except the individual”. They go as catalysts for entrepreneurial activity and represent the essence of entrepreneurship. Hessels, Golderen and Thurik (2008) opined that one way to explain entrepreneurship aspiration level is by means of motives. Policy goals usually do not correspond with the motives of enterprising individuals. Hardly anybody starts a business in order to achieve innovation, job creation or economic growth at the national level. Instead, people desire personal profits, project their need for autonomy, achievement and self-esteem amongst others; or they are just forced into entrepreneurship because they have no other options (Locke & Baum, 2007).

5. Conclusion

The findings from the study revealed that there were relative and composite contribution of self-esteem and achievement striving on entrepreneurial aspiration of youths in Lagos State. The finding reveled that self-esteem significantly determines entrepreneurial aspiration of the youths. Also, it was showed that achievement striving significantly determines entrepreneurial aspiration of the youths; and the combination of self-esteem and achievement striving significantly determine entrepreneurial aspiration of the youths.

6. Recommendations

Having realized that self-esteem and achievement striving are human need and universal phenomena that cut across demographic boundaries; it is expedient that the

approach to the development of entrepreneurial aspiration should embrace experiential teaching method in the delivery of entrepreneurship courses. Task-oriented and mentoring of the youths and the students alike should be encouraged. Successful entrepreneurs should be saddled with the responsibilities of mentoring the upcoming generation in order to enhance their self-esteem and cultivate I-can-do spirit. The future of our youths must not be left to chance or trial and error.

The curriculum should be reviewed to accommodate entrepreneurship learning experience of mastery and support by involving the youths within the school system to engage in hands-on learning activities, business plan development and running simulated or real small business. This tends to influence their self-esteem and need for achievements which are predictors of entrepreneurial aspiration.

Parents and guardians should be encouraged and motivated to provide their children with large amount of support in order to raise their self-esteem and lessen the likelihood of being preys to the antisocial behaviours such as gangsterism, robbery, prostitution, kidnapping, cyber crimes all of which are associated with low self-esteem towards productive entrepreneurial venture.

Public campaign towards entrepreneurship should be intensified by the governments at all levels. Incentives and public recognition and respect should be accorded to young ones involved in entrepreneurial activities.

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Evaluation of Undergraduate Business Education Programme in Universities in South-West, Nigeria

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Abstract. The study examined the challenges facing the business education, availability of facilities and equipment for teaching business education and comparisons of content taught and content objective of business education in universities in south west, Nigeria. Stratified random sampling was used in selecting 417 respondents, out of which 59 were lecturers, 19 technical-instructors, 179 undergraduate business education students, 80 employed business education graduates and 80 employers of business education graduates. Three major structured research instruments were used in this study for collection of data, they are: Business Education Programme Problem Check List with reliability $r = 0.97$, Attainment of Business Education Programme Objective Inventory with reliability coefficient $r = 0.97$ and Facilities, Equipment and Resources Inventory with reliability coefficient of $r = 0.90$. Three research questions were raised and answered using frequency counts and percentages. Results indicated that both the contents of the Business education programmes taught and the contents specified in the objectives of the programmes are comparable. Facilities, equipment and resources meant for business were not adequate and accessible in south west universities and that finally, business education programme's faces various challenges such as inadequate infrastructural and instructional facilities, lack of state policy statement on business education programme and etc. Hence it is recommended that the teachers should expose their learners to practical aspect of business education that will enable them stand on their own after graduation.

The government should address the problem associated with business education programme.

Keywords: Evaluation, Undergraduate, Business Education, Programme

1.1 Background to the Study

Business education is the economic concepts necessary for living in a business economy and learning skills to enter a business or distributive job. Therefore, business education is a course that prepares students for entry into and advancement in jobs within business and it is equally important because it prepares students to handle their own business affairs and to function intelligently as consumers and citizens in a business economy. Njoku (2006), gave a definition of business education is an educational programme that equips an individual with functional and suitable skills, knowledge, attitude and value that would enable him/her operates in the environment he/she finds himself/herself. Osuala (2004) defines Business education as an essential part of the preparation of youth for live and living. He further explained that 'Business education is a programme of instruction which consists of two parts (1) Office education, a vocational programme of office careers through initial, refresher and upgrading education and (2) General business education a programme to provide students with information and competences which are needed by all in managing personal business affairs and in using the services of the business''.

General education is a subset of business education and it is for everyone irrespective of trade or profession. It allows for the development of basic skills in reading, writing and computation/arithmetic as well as social skills that could improve interpersonal relationship. This is needed by all citizens of Nigeria in order to function effectively. Everyone needs general education irrespective of the person's age, sex, ability or background. It is needed in order to be part of the society. For instance, the consumer of certain products like soft drinks, biscuits, bread, milk and other beverages; in the next few years the consumer would not be a consumer but someone who would make input on how the products are produced, packaged or distributed. This is because the consumers could read and write. Vocational education is needful in order to prepare individuals for acceptable business decorum, appearance and speech, how jobs are interrelated and how responsibility relates to job success. According to Njoku, (2006) and Osuala (2004) this type of training starts with the elementary business courses through vocational or business like classroom setting and unto work.

Importance of business education cannot be over emphasis; this subject would make students to acquire skills that would enable them engage in any meaningful employment. Either they are employed or will become employer of labour. With the understanding of business education they can make informed decisions as a consumer of goods and services. They can avoid spontaneous buying and know which products or services meet their immediate needs. They should be in a position to ask questions about the/or how of a product. It will help the individual to know when they are in a position to spend judiciously and live a life devoid of excessive acquisition of wealth, which has led the whole country into social vices such as corruption, sexual abuse as well as inefficiency and waste of the nation's resources. Today, the country is full of individuals deeply rooted in excessive acquisition of wealth which the government is trying to curb. The researcher feel that business education will solve this problem as mentioned above.

Business education is very important because it gives new life especially as regards value system. It will give a new focus on environmental management, amicable conflict resolution, and to shy away from prostitution, violence, cultism, rape, drugs, etc. Business education is important because it will inculcate into the learners the sense of discipline and patience through the study of courses such as human relations, professional ethics, entrepreneurship etc. They are well placed to work with people and accommodate others. It offers them the opportunity to operate successfully their own business and be able to determine the flow of business at each time, thereby reducing the risk of business failure.

Business Education is important to the nation because more people would have skills that can make them ready employers of labour. Dependence on the nation would be minimized as people become job creators. As people develop proper values towards work they tend to contribute more economically to the nation. For instance, the nation is divorced from violence, sexual immorality, pride, and corruption and examination malpractice among others. And as individual citizens become judicious spenders, the country gains by way of investing excess resources on meaningful projects that would lead to economic development. Today, we are talking about poor infrastructural facilities in our educational and health systems, this can be avoided if we spend wisely.

If one understands one's right as a citizen of this country and enforces them the country would have less, to worry about but would rather devote more time and resources on development. If we as citizens of this country develop sound moral value then the country will be free from insecurity and peace will reign supreme. More people will invest in the country and there will be increased in growth and development. Business education has made it possible for those who want to be retrained in order to upgrade their skills and have access to education. In this way, people who finish secondary grammar school with no saleable opportunity skills will have to acquire skills that make them

become functional, through retraining programmes.

The knowledge of business education will help individual in keeping accurate financial records and their ability to retrieve them will serve as a guide to financial planning and welfare of themselves, and their family. Business education is important to them because the knowledge acquired will enable them keep proper record of themselves, business and family. In addition they will be able to separate business accounts without the other suffering, similarly regular analysis of transactions i.e. debits and credits. It can enable them to avoid financial losses through waste in the purchase of office items: as they bear the criteria for selection of equipment in mind and involve staff who should take part in the exercise. Not all documents that they would like their secretary to type. There are highly confidential documents they would like to keep only to themselves and the recipients. Again, they may want to save some documents in the computer, which they would not want, anyone else to open. An understanding of the various ways of handling such matters can be said to be the advantage they derive from business education. Also, with the knowledge and understanding of business education will help individual concern to understand their staff, customers and retain them. Individuals with business education knowledge will know how to handle and deal with difficult staff/customers, safe guard their documents, develop professionals and understand advertising. They will be able to know where to advertise, strategies to use in arouse the interest of customers, monitoring of their competitors and other media most appropriate to the consumers.

From the above programme objectives, the NUC identified and benchmarked outcomes, so referred to as programme effects in this study. Outcomes or programme effects are measured basically to provide answer to such question as; does a programme really make a difference in the lives of the participants and communities? Therefore, as data are collected, they can be used in a variety of ways such as: (1) to help improve programmes and services; (2) to be accountable in order to retain or increase

funding; (3) to gain valuable information to use in decision making and long range planning; (4) to focus programmes that can really make a difference for participants; (5) to determine cost-effectiveness.; (6) to gain support from the community to aid in sustainability; (7) to gain public and professional recognition as a quality programme; (8) to attract new participants; (9) to recruit and retain talented staff; (10) to recruit and motivate volunteers; (11) to take pride in accomplishment; etc.

Focus on outcomes of programmes has received quite tremendous attention just as it is the case with the outcome-based benchmark minimum academic standard. For instance, the position of a portion of the executive summary of the report on “Moving from inputs to outputs to outcomes: The future of education policy” holds as follows: Focusing on the inputs has the effects of locking a system into a set of way of doing things and inhibiting innovation; focusing on outcomes, on the other hand, encourages continuous improvement against a set of overall goals and, in this case, can unlock a path toward the creation of a high-quality student-center education system (Horn and Mackey, 2011)

The NUC outcomes against which the minimum standards have been benchmarked fall in the above categories of terms. In the immediate-term, this study considers two number output measures as follows: undergraduates’ enrolments (UEn) and undergraduates’ graduations (LTGr). In the short-term, four numbers outcome measures were considered as follows: undergraduate achievement in business education (UABE), undergraduates’ skills in Business education pedagogy (USBEPe), and undergraduates’ skills in Business education practical (USBEPPr) and undergraduates’ attitude to Business education (UAAtBE). Lastly, in the long-term, the study considered the following impact measures namely graduates’ attitude change (GAC) and graduates’ employability rating (GER).

Undergraduates’ enrolments and graduations in an educational system are measures of return on investment of the system provides. They give an insight into the key success factors a given

educational programme portrays in the eyes of stakeholders. Monitoring of such output data during the life cycle of participation in a programme is ensured and data developed are used for students' and faculty advisory and planning purposes. This is in line with NUC (2004) adoption of the carrying capacity policy in the Nigerian, the difference being that data of enrolments and graduations are not used for planning for expansion rather for regulation not minding the attendant toll on access to university education by prospective applicants. Therefore, if and when utilized, these programme outputs are very important measures for effectiveness and efficiency in programme implementation process in our universities' system.

The United Nations Educational Social and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) through its General Education Quality Analysis/Diagnosis Framework (GEQAF) states that, learners (undergraduates) are the ultimate products of learning outcomes since all competences (knowledge, skills and attitude) have to be acquired by them. All other elements which include curriculum, staffing and learning environment are to facilitate learners in producing desired learning outcomes (UNESCO, 2016) and also by extension, desired employability ratings. This is a position corroborated by the NUC in the 2007 BMAS which was categorized an outcome-based benchmark minimum academic standard (NUC, 2007)

To attain these outcomes, the updated version of the minimum requirements as published in the Manual of Accreditation Procedures, the standards are rated as follows: curriculum matters are now rated 18%, staffing 32%, physical facilities (learning environment) 27%, funding 2%, library resources 18% and employers' rating of graduates 3% (NUC, 2012). Curriculum matters refer to the totality of the experiences that are offered by the institution and or the programme to achieve the philosophy and objectives of the programme (NUC, 2012). At the global stage, curriculum has been described as a systematic and intended packaging of competencies (knowledge, skills and attitude that are underpinned by values) that

learners should acquire through organized learning experiences... (UNESCO, 2016)

Accordingly, the BMAS stipulates a mandatory minimum of 120 units of curriculum content coverage for graduation through 4-year programme duration by students. These units are expected to be attained from four course areas; general studies, core (teaching practice and all the education courses); specialization (general Business education, accounting, typing and short hand, business method,, economics, book keeping, entrepreneurial leadership, research project), and electives (restricted-general mathematics, computer studies). NUC places emphasis on adequacy of courses and how adequately they prepare the students for their chosen profession/discipline (NUC, 2007).

The right quality and quantity of participants are expected to be enrolled through some basic routes such as the unified tertiary matriculation examination (UTME) and direct entry (DE) with their strict stipulations to follow. This measure is accounted for as the programme admission requirements (PAR) which should conform to the minimum and stricter standards of NUC and individual universities respectively. According to the minimum standards, admission into undergraduate Business education programmes entail requisite SSCE level credit passes; attaining the cut-off mark in the unified tertiary matriculation examination (UTME) and or through direct entry (DE) with relevant sub-degree certifications such as Advanced (A' level), National diplomas (ND), National Certificate of Education, etc. The attainment of programme admission requirement (PAR) by prospective candidates is very cardinal to their enrolments. PAR is an indicator of programme quality from stakeholders' perspective. NUC emphasizes all candidates enrolled into the programme to meet the minimum PAR.

Another important curriculum component is students' handbook. This is a compilation of academic regulations in clear terms and distributed to all students enrolled in the programme. StuHb should normally contain information on curriculum matter, staffing and physical facilities. Specifically, the students'

handbook informs students on probations, withdrawals, expulsion and graduation, etc. Other information usually provided in StuH include regulations for the conduct of assessments and examination; courses offered, course contents and credit unit system; evaluation modalities which includes continuous assessment and examination weighting and grading; final year project format and guides; as well as all general programme information for students' consumption. The importance of StuH in the possession of students cannot be overemphasized as it provides students with the dos and don'ts of the programme. NUC rates this requirement in terms of availability, content, usability and accessibility of document by students (NUC, 2007).

According to the NUC (2012), the ultimate test of the quality of manpower produced from a programme is in meeting the minimum level of competency expected from their level of training for their chosen professional/discipline. All degree programmes must include acceptable level of final year degree projects' quality (FPQ) in education or in the area of specialization which is a requirement for graduation. FPQ is a strong positive correlate of students' entire learning outcomes as all competences can be measured from a single final year project experience. FPQ is therefore, rated based on quality of work. Students' evaluation of course (SEC) involves the effective evaluation of the teaching/learning process by students through the assessment of: the relevance and adequacy of the courses to their chosen professional/discipline; the delivery of the content in terms of lecture/tutorial/practical; the adequacy of available learning materials e.g. books, journals, equipment, consumables, etc; and the adequacy of physical facilities, e.g. classroom space, lecture theatre, laboratories, etc.

External examination moderation (EEM) is an independent expert measure practiced in programme examination systems. External examiners are necessary to help the University obtain input on how well the University is meeting the National Standards laid down for that level of certification. External examiners should therefore, be qualified persons who can

make judgment on the standard of work with regard to the type and level of manpower to be produced. The issue in this study is whether the undergraduate Business education programme in the universities considered are in compliance with these minimum academic standard stipulated in the BMAS

According to the NUC (2007), the availability of resources is sine-qua-non for effective and efficient implementation of programmes, therefore, adequate resources must be provided as required. Such resources which include staffing and learning environment (physical facilities and others) are adequately benchmarked for programme operators or universities. Ferguson and Ladd (2005) defined staffing as the process of hiring, positioning and overseeing employees in organizations which also corroborates the NUC (2012) definition of recruitment, administration and development of the human capital resource of the programme.

The 32% rating for staffing covers academic staff to student ratio (ASR) 8%, academic staff structure (ASS) 5%, academic staff qualifications (ASQ) 7%, academic staff competence (ASC) 1%, programme administration (ProA) 3%, non-academic staff number (NSN) 3%, and staff development programmes (SDP) 5%. It is an established fact in recent times that an organization that is adequately staffed will outperform its contemporaries (Kim and Ployhart, 2014).

Academic staff to students' ratio (ASR) is benchmarked at 1:30 for undergraduate education programmes (UEP) and universities are expected to maintain or improve upon it as it is the most weighted factor only seconded by qualification in the human resource value chain in this context. Akinsolu (2010) has established a positive correlation between ASR and students' academic performance. For academic staff structure (ASS), NUC benchmarked 20:35:45 in percentage for the professorial grade, senior lecturers grade and other lecturers grades (lecturers I and II, assistant lecturers and graduate assistants) respectively. For academic staff qualification (ASQ), the doctoral degree is the basic qualification for all academic staff;

however, master's degree holders in relevant areas also make the cadre of academic staff profile on the condition that such staff members must be in a relevant doctoral programme. In a new university, good bachelor's degree holders may be among the ranks of academic staff. Staff qualification has been reported to show positive relationship with students' performance (Betts, Zau and Rice, 2008; Brewer and Goldhaber, 2000).

Academic staff competence (ASC) is one very importance staffing variable that is rated low but very crucial. Competence is a product of experience over time. The NUC rates competence by physical observation of the teaching staff for the quality of instruction in the classroom (Omede, 2012). This position is also maintained by Oseni (2012) who holds that experience in a profession requires the possession of skill and knowledge in that profession because of long period of service: This position is also presented by Eleri (2011) who reported that about two hundred studies conducted on factors that improve students' achievement, only a knowledgeable and skillful teacher factor was found to create students' achievement.

The NUC stipulates that a programme must be adequately staffed with non-teaching staff comprises of technical staff and administrative staff such as technologists and secretary respectively, as well as their junior counterparts. Their roles complement those of the academic staff in the running of the programme. Programme administration (ProA) entails effective leadership and its effects on productivity cannot be over-emphasized. A capable staff can be more effective if he performs his function in an atmosphere of good relationship with the administration. Therefore, a competent and qualified academic staff member is recommended by the NUC to provide administrative direction. The NUC recommends a staff member of the cadre of senior lecturer and above to play such role.

Staff development programme (SD?) may be achieved through planned sponsorship and or staff to participate in seminars, industrial

attachments, higher degree are strongly recommended by the NUC as programmes are usually these SDP measures are supported. In the United States of America, a large scale study revealed that every additional dollar spent on raising teacher quality netted to greater student achievement gains than did any other use of school resources (Ferguson and Ladd, 1996). Findings have also shown that whereas all other aspects of staffing equips the programme with human capital resource with the generic or cognitive ability or knowledge, it takes staff development or training component of staffing to upgrade such staff with the specific competences (knowledge, skills and attitude) required for the job (Hatch and Dyer, 2004).

Learning environment encompasses the physical facilities in any designated place of learning such as classrooms, laboratories, libraries, teachers' lounges/offices, gymnasiums and non-formal learning spaces. The United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization Institute of Statistics (UNESCO/UIS) defines learning environment as the complete physical, social and pedagogical context in which learning is intended to occur (UNESCO/UIS, 2012). Physical learning environment, according to the organization of economic cooperation and development (OECD) is an influential element in the complex and highly contextualized nature of learning, characterized by dynamics and interactions between the learner, teacher, content, equipment and technologies (OECD, 2013). UNESCO (2016) asserts that learners in a supportive environment have high levels of self-efficacy and self-motivation and use learning as a primary transformative force. In the same way, welcoming the learners where they feel safe and nurtured is very important for the development of each individual and the society as a whole.

In line with NUC stipulations, learning environment in this study includes spaces (classrooms, laboratories, reading rooms, office accommodations); equipment (classrooms, laboratories, studio, staff offices, reading materials holdings and currency of holdings); and safety and sanitary conditions of the learning environment. The NUC rating of 27% covers laboratory spaces (Labs) 4%, laboratory

equipment (LabE) 7%, classroom spaces (ClaS) 5%, classroom equipment (ClaE) 3%, office accommodation (OffA) 5% and safety and environment (Safe) 3%. The BMAS recommends a minimum professorial and heads of department space of 24 m², senior technical and administrative staff space of 20 m², senior lecturer's space of 16 m², others lecturers' space of 7 m² and student's space of 0.65 m². BMAS also recommends a 150 students capacity Labs and ClaS. It has also been reported that some explicit relationship do exist between the physical characteristics of school buildings and educational outcomes (Khan and Iqbal, 2012; Werang, Leba and Bataubun, 2014).

Other programme resources include library facilities rated 18% and funding 2% in this regime of NUC evaluation criteria. The former, which is rated significantly high, is a faculty level resource requirement covering physical 10% and e-library 8%. This study will investigate library holdings (LibH) 10% and library holdings currency (LibC) 8% such as currency of textual materials. However, the latter rated 2 % is a university level resource it will be investigated with the indicator of funding of programme supplies (FPS) 2% (NUC, 2012). The importance of library and adequate funding in an educational system cannot be over-emphasized. The library and information system is intellectual property bank of the society. Lastly, the NUC stipulates that some form of feedback measure from the eventual beneficiaries of the products of the programme, the employers. Employer' rating of graduates (ERG) is allotted 3% of the total programme assessment. This is a measure that serves as an indicator and also a medium term impact of an educational programme on the society. According to the Employees' Personality Attributes for the Future (2002) as adopted by the Commonwealth of Austria (2004), there are two attitude factors that contribute to employability, personal attributes and skills.

These are what employers look out for in an employee in addition to specific subject area competences which are both considered to be partly the responsibility of the programme producing the graduates into the labour market

or society. Therefore, this study considers for data collection, a total of 25 NUC weighted variables distributed as shown below: curriculum matters 8, staffing 6, learning environment 5, library 2, funding 1 and employers' rating 1.

2. Statement of Problem

The NUC minimum standard is to ensure quality in the entire university education system on a broad spectrum and specifically the undergraduate Business education programme (UBEP) offered in the universities. Nevertheless, it is regrettable to note that in spite of the efforts being made to maintain quality in the UBEP in South west geo-political zone, the quality and even quantity of graduate Business education teachers seem to be reducing at an alarming rate. The researcher therefore, considers it necessary to evaluate the Undergraduate Business Education Programme in the universities in South West zone and by extension, the Nigerian Universities in order to ascertain ways of improving on the quality of service and products of the undergraduate Business education programme.

3. Objectives of the Study

The main objective of this study is to conduct a process evaluation of the undergraduate Business education programme (UBEP) in the universities in South West geo-political zone. Therefore, this study considered three major objectives. They are (i) the challenges confronting the UBEP, (ii) the facilities and equipment available for the teaching-learning of UBEP and (iii) the contents covered in UBEP compared to UBEP contents objectives.

4. Methodology

Research design: Descriptive research design of survey type was adopted for this study. Among other things, the purpose of a descriptive research design of survey type is to provide an in-depth description of a phenomenon or the relationships between two or more phenomena. Documentation of planned programme works which include the inputs and activities and

intended programme results which are the outputs, outcomes, and impacts without any manipulation(s).

Population: The population of the study was composed of all: (a) academic staff members including head of department of the programme in the south west universities; non-teaching staff members of the programme; all except year one undergraduate students of the programme in the study universities; all 2013-2017 graduates of the programme employed teaching in schools in south west and employers of graduates of the programme in schools south west.

Sample and Sampling Technique: Stratified random sampling technique was used for the selection of sample in this study. Sample comprised of the following: (a) simple random selection of 59 academic staff members (20, 20 and 19 from U1, U2 and U3 respectively) was done; (b) simple random selection of 19 non-teaching staff from each university was also used; and (c) simple random selection of 179 undergraduates (40, 21 and 118 from U1, U2 and U3 respectively) was. From the above, 257 members of universities' community (59 academic, 19 non-teaching and 180 undergraduates) made the sample size. Eighty business education graduates that have gained employment and also 80 employers of the graduates selected were also randomly selected. Sampling technique was informed by the following criteria: (a) areas of highest concentration of employers (public and private schools) of business education graduate teachers in south west zone.

Instrumentation: Three major instruments were used for this study, one was developed by the researcher and the other two were adopted.

Business Education Programmes' Problems Checklist (VRPC): This checklist was adapted from Agomoh (2004) and was subjected to pilot-testing. It was used to collect information on various problems facing Business Education programmes in the universities where business education are being offered in the six states of South-West Nigeria. It has two sections; Section A contains information on the respondent, and section B is in likert scale form, it contains 32 items on various types of problem Business Education programmes may be faced with. This

inventory was answered by the school's administrators and business education lecturers (Cronbach Alpha result of $\alpha = 0.97$ was obtained).

Attainment of Business Education Programmes' Objectives Inventory (ABEPOI): This instrument was adapted from Agomoh (2004) and further pilot-tested. It was used to collect data from the respondents on the attainment of the objectives of Business Education programmes. It has two sections; section A contains information about the bio-data of the respondents. The respondents were Lecturers and head of department used for the study (Cronbach Alpha result of $\alpha = 0.97$ was obtained).

Facilities, Equipment and Resources Inventory (FERI): This instrument was adapted from Eleri (2012) which yielded an alpha value of 0.90 to elicit information from the trainees and lecturers concerning available facilities, equipment and resources for Business Education programmes at the schools of business study. It also covered adequacy and utilisation of the available items. FERI was validated; it was also tested for reliability using Cronbach method which yielded an alpha value of 0.87 was obtained.

Data collection procedure: Procedure for data collection involved three stages training of research assistants, visitation and application for approval from the programme authority and data collection and collation. Six research assistants were trained on the procedures and implications or otherwise in the use of data collection instruments and methods. The training session took two days to cover. Research assistants selected for training were education degree holders that are social sciences (mostly economics teachers. The training involved procedures of administration of instruments, retrieval of instrument and collation of completed instruments and data provided by respondents as well as a question and answer session for further clarifications. The instruments for data collection were administered by the researcher with the assistance of the research assistants in the universities and outside in the selected schools as follows.

Data analysis: The data analysis involved both quantitative and qualitative methods. Quantitative data analysis involved descriptive statistics: frequency counts and percentage, mean and standard deviation as well as inferential statistics which involved pair and independent t-test statistics, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Pearson correlation coefficient. Qualitative data analysis involved

organization of responses from the key informants' interview by generating records of common views by informant on an issue as well as highlighting catchy phrases by individual informants. The responses were finally organized in tabular format with issues in rows and informant category in columns order to facilitate the collation of the responses.

4. Data Analysis and Results

The findings of this study are as follows:

RQ1: What are the challenges confronting implementation of business education programmes' objectives?

Research Question 1: What are the challenges confronting implementation of Business education programmes' objectives?

Table1: Frequency Counts Showing the Challenges Confronting the Implementation of Business education Programmes

S/N	Statement	SD	D	A	SA	Mean	S.D.
21	Inadequate infrastructural facilities	1 3.8%	8 30.8%	11 42.3%	6 23.1%	2.81	.94
1	Lack of state policy statement on Business education programmes	5 19.2%	2 7.7%	14 53.8%	5 19.2%	2.69	1.09
8	Delay in the release of fund for Business education programmes	1 3.8%	6 23.1%	14 53.8%	5 19.2%	2.88	.77
9	Lack of regular training for Business education facilitators	2 7.7%	3 11.5%	17 65.4%	4 15.4%	2.85	.88
15	Lack of motivation for facilitators	-	3 11.5%	19 73.1%	4 15.4%	3.04	.53.
20	Poor training and learning condition	1 3.8%	7 26.9%	14 53.8%	4 15.4%	2.77	.86
4	Lack of effective implementation of the available policy/law	2 7.7%	4 15.4%	18 69.2%	2 7.7%	2.77	.71
11	Lack of adequate instructors/facilitators	1 3.8%	3 11.5%	20 76.9%	2 7.7%	2.88	.59
13	Lack of facilitators' commitment to duty	7 26.9%	4 15.4%	13 50.0%	2 7.7%	2.35	1.06
23	Inadequate number of universities offering Business education	2 7.7%	1 3.8%	5 19.2%	18 69.2%	3.46	1.03
32	Lack of employment opportunities for persons that read Business education trained in the state	-	2 7.7%	6 23.1%	18 69.2%	3.62	.64
5	Inadequate funding of Business education programmes in the state	2 7.7%	3 11.5%	4 15.4%	17 65.4%	3.35	1.09
3	Lack of awareness on the existing laws and policy by the public	4 15.4%	2 7.7%	4 15.4%	16 61.5%	3.19	1.23
16	Lack of adequate Business education programmes equipment and supporting staff	3 11.5%	1 3.8%	6 23.1%	16 61.5%	3.31	1.12
17	Lack of business education programmes' materials	2 7.7%	2 7.7%	6 23.1%	16 61.5%	3.35	1.06
24	Long distance of Business education universities to interested persons	3 11.5%	3 11.5%	4 15.4%	16 61.5%	3.23	1.18
25	Lack of accurate population data of persons that is interested in Business education program in the sstate	2 7.7%	2 7.7%	6 23.1%	16 61.5%	3.35	1.06

26	Lack of proper planning for persons that is interested in Business education by the government	2 7.7%	3 11.5%	5 19.2%	16 61.5%	3.27	1.19
30	Parental ignorance about Business education programmes	1 3.8%	2 7.7%	7 26.9%	16 61.5%	3.42	.95
18	Lack of relevant Business education programmes	3 11.5%	1 3.8%	7 26.9%	15 57.7%	3.27	1.12
31	Poor attitude of the public toward persons that is interested in Business education	2 7.7%	-	9 34.6%	15 57.7%	3.38	.98
19	Inadequate of relevant Business education programmes' materials	1 3.8%	3 11.5%	8 30.8%	14 53.8%	3.31	.97
28	Ignorance on the part of government officials on the needs of persons that is interested in Business education.	3 11.5%	5 19.2%	4 15.4%	14 53.8%	3.04	1.28
2	Lack of state legislation for the persons that is interested in Business education	4 15.4%	5 19.5%	4 15.4%	13 50.0%	3.00	1.17
6	Mismanagement of available fund for Business education programmes	6 23.1%	5 19.2%	2 7.7%	13 50.0%	2.85	1.29
7	Improper monitoring of utilization of available fund	5 19.2%	5 19.2%	4 15.4%	12 46.2%	2.85	1.29
12	Lack of training for the instructors	3 11.5%	4 15.4%	7 26.9%	12 46.2%	3.04	1.15
29	Lack of adequate supervision	2 7.7%	5 19.2%	7 26.9%	12 46.2%	3.08	1.09
22	Lack of good workshops	1 3.8%	7 26.9%	7 26.9%	11 42.3%	3.04	1.04
14	Instructors' negative attitude to work	3 11.5%	8 30.8%	14 53.8%	1 3.8%	2.46	.86
10	Lack of commitment on the part of business education facilitators	3 11.5%	8 30.8%	15 57.7%	-	2.46	.71
27	Lack of government commitment to Business education	3% 11.5	5% 19.2	6% 23.1	12% 46.2	3.00	1.17
	GRAND MEAN = 3.04						

Table 1 showed the results of the challenges confronting the implementation of Business education programmes' objectives in South-West, Nigeria which included inadequate infrastructural facilities (mean=2.81) ranked highest by the mean score rating and was followed by Lack of state policy statement on Business education programmes (mean=2.69), Delay in the release of fund for Business education programmes (mean=2.88), Lack of regular training for special education facilitators (mean=2.85), Lack of motivation for facilitators (mean=3.04), Poor training and learning condition (mean=2.77), Lack of effective implementation of the available policy/law (mean=2.77), Lack of adequate instructors/facilitators (mean=2.88), Lack of facilitators' commitment to duty (mean=2.35), Inadequate number of vocational universities (mean=3.46), Lack of employment opportunities for persons that is interested in Business education who are business educationally trained in the state (mean=3.62), Inadequate funding of Business education programmes in the state (mean=3.35), Lack of awareness on the existing laws and policy by the public (mean=3.19), Lack of adequate Business education programmes equipment and supporting staff (mean=3.31), Lack of business education programmes' materials (mean=3.35), Long distance of business educational universities to interested persons (mean=3.23), Lack of proper planning for persons that is interested in Business education by the government (mean=3.27), Parental ignorance about Business education programmes (mean=3.42), Lack of relevant Business education programmes (mean=3.27), Poor attitude of the public toward persons that is interested in Business education (mean=3.38), Inadequate of relevant Business education programmes' materials (mean=3.31), Ignorance on the part of government officials on the needs of persons that is interested in Business education (mean=3.04), Lack of state legislation for the welfare of persons that is interested in Business education (mean=3.00), Mismanagement of available fund for Business education programmes (mean=2.85), Improper monitoring of utilization of available fund (mean=2.85), Lack of training for the instructors

(mean=3.04), Lack of adequate supervision (mean=3.08), Lack of good workshops (mean=3.04), Instructors' negative attitude to work (mean=2.46), Lack of commitment on the part of special education facilitators (mean=2.46), Lack of government commitment to Business education (mean=3.00). The overall conclusion for the challenges confronting implementation of Business education programmes' objectives as stated above were agreed upon by the participants.

Research Question 2: How comparable are the contents of the Business education programmes taught with the contents specified in the objectives of the programmes?

Table 2: Frequency Counts Showing the Contents of the Business education Programmes Taught with the Contents Specified in the Objectives of the Programmes

S/N	Statement	NAA	VL	L	H	VH	Mean	S.D.
9	Provision for business education for persons that is interested in Business education	15 5.4%	33 11.9%	87 31.5%	74 26.8%	82 29.7%	3.69	1.127
14	Opportunities for development of potentials for business education competency	20 7.2%	33 11.9%	85 30.8%	80 29.0%	78 28.3%	3.66	1.150
16	Provision of adequate Business education programmes' facilities and equipment for training	18 6.5%	27 9.8%	92 33.3%	91 33.0%	66 23.9%	3.64	1.081
13	Opportunities for development of good communication ability	28 10.1%	79 28.6%	42 15.2%	39 14.1%	116 42.0%	3.59	1.438
1	Provision of business education universities	19 6.9%	75 27.2%	37 13.4%	76 27.5%	88 31.9%	3.57	1.307
10	Provision and implementation of law and policy on Business education programmes for persons that is interested in Business education	26 9.4%	36 13%	94 34.1%	77 27.9%	69 25.0%	3.55	1.179
15	Opportunities for development of potentials for social competency	15 5.4%	70 25.3%	51 18.5%	82 29.7%	73 26.4%	3.52	1.228
5	Provision for equal opportunities for persons that is interested in Business education	38 13.8%	75 27.2%	69 25.0%	39 14.1%	93 33.7%	3.41	1.420
7	Provision for equal opportunities for persons that is interested in Business education	59 21.4%	80 29%	74 26.8%	30 10.9%	92 33.3%	3.27	1.519
8	Provision for equal opportunities for persons with Business skill to compete favourably with other professional.	53 19.2%	70 25.4%	79 28.6%	56 20.3%	71 25.7%	3.27	1.412
12	Provision of appropriate training methods for persons that is interested in Business education	73 26.4%	88 31.8%	87 31.5%	21 7.6%	80 29.0%	3.07	1.533
11	Provision of appropriate training methods for persons that is interested in Business education	52 18.8%	112 40.5%	47 17.0%	58 21.0%	59 21.4%	3.04	1.429
	GRAND MEAN = 3.28							

The results from Table2 showed that provision for business educational training for persons that is interested in Business education (mean=3.69) ranked highest by the mean score rating and was followed by Opportunities for development of potentials for business competency (mean=3.66), Provision of adequate Business education programmes' facilities and equipment for training (mean=3.64), Opportunities for development of good communication ability (mean=3.59), Provision of business educational universities (mean=3.57), Provision and implementation of law and policy on Business education programmes for persons that is interested in Business education (mean=3.55), Opportunities for development of potentials for social competency (mean=3.52) and provision for equal opportunities for persons that is interested in Business education (mean=3.41).

The result of Table 4.1 revealed that the contents of the Business education programmes are in tandem with the objectives of the programmes. This is shown by the value of the grand mean (3.28) which is greater than the criterion value (2.50). This implies that both the contents of the Business education programmes taught and the contents specified in the objectives of the programmes are comparable.

Research Question 3: To what extent is Business Education Program materials and equipments available for Business Education in universities in South-West, Nigeria?

Table 3: Frequency Counts Showing the Level of Availability, Adequacy and Accessibility of the Facilities, Equipments and Resources in the Vocational Universities and Special Schools

S/N	Facilities, Equipments and Resources	Availability	
		No	Yes
1	Textbooks	37 13.4%	239 86.6%
2	Computers	109 39.5%	167 60.5%
3	Electronic typewriters	93 33.7%	183 66.3%
4	Office copiers	36 13.0%	240 87.0%
5	Power supply and Generating set	78 28.3%	198 71.7%
6	Adequate working and storage space	69 25.0%	207 75.0%
7	Word processors	81 29.3%	195 70.7%

The results from Table 3 were as shown below:

(a) Availability of the Facilities, Equipments and Resources

- Textbooks, 37(13.4%) indicated no while 239(86.6%) indicated yes;
- Computer, 109(39.5%) indicated no while 167(60.5%) indicated yes;
- Electronic typewriters, 93(33.7%) indicated no while 183(66.3%) indicated yes;-
- Office copiers, 36(13.0%) indicated no while 240(87.0%) indicated yes;
- Power supply, 78(28.3%) indicated no while 198(71.7%) indicated yes;
- Generating set, 69(25.0%) indicated no while 207(75.0%) indicated yes;
- Adequate working, 81 (29.3%) indicated no while 195(70.7%) indicated yes;
- Resource Unit/Room, 127(46.0%) indicated no while 149(54.0%) indicated yes;
- storage space for training facilities, 47(17.0%) indicated no while 229(83.0%) indicated yes;
- Word processors, 117(42.4%) indicated no while 159(57.6%) indicated yes;
- Workshops, 107(38.8%) indicated no while 169(61.2%) indicated yes;

- Trainees’ accommodation, 132(47.8%) indicated no while 144(52.2%) indicated yes;
- Centre toilet, 91(33.0%) indicated no while 185 (67.0%) indicated yes;
- Staff Room, 125(45.3%) indicated no while 151(54.7%) indicated yes.

5. Discussion of Findings

On challenges confronting the implementation of business education programme’s objectives in universities in the South-West, Nigeria

As indicated in the findings of this study, business education programme’s objectives face various challenges such as inadequate infrastructural facilities and was followed by lack of state policy statement on business education programme, delay in the release of fund for business education programme, lack of regular training for business education facilitators, lack of motivation for facilitators, poor training and learning condition, lack of effective implementation of the available policy/law, lack of adequate facilitators, lack of

facilitators' commitment to duty, inadequate number of universities with business education, lack of employment opportunities for individuals who are vocationally trained in the state, inadequate funding of business education programme in the state, lack of awareness on the existing laws and policy by the public, lack of adequate business education programme equipment and supporting staff, lack of business education rehabilitation programmes' materials, long distance of universities with business education to individuals, parental ignorance about importance of business education programme, poor attitude of the public toward individuals with certificate in business education, ignorance on the part of government officials on the needs of individuals vocationally, mismanagement of available fund for business education programme, lack of seminar/workshops, facilitators' negative attitude towards work and lack of government commitment to business education.

The contents of the business education programme are in line with the objectives of the business education programme in all universities in the South-West, Nigeria.

Findings of the study indicated that the contents of the business education programme are in line with the objectives of the programmes in the universities across South-West of Nigeria. The findings revealed that provision for business education training for individuals ranked highest by the mean score rating and was followed by opportunities for development of potentials for business education competency, provision of adequate business education programme' facilities and equipment for training; opportunities for development of good communication ability; provision and implementation of law and policy on business education programme for individuals; opportunities for development of potentials for social competency; provision for equal opportunities for individuals to compete favourably within and outside their community; provision of appropriate training methods for all the business education students; provision of appropriate training methods for disable and non-disable persons and provision for equal

opportunities for persons with intellectual and non-intellectual disabilities;

This will imply that there are provisions for business education training for individuals and opportunities for development of potentials for business education competency, good communication ability, and social competency. The findings further confirmed that there are provisions of adequate business education programme' facilities, equipment for training, provision and implementation of law and policy on business education programme, provisions of equal opportunities for all categories of individuals and provisions of appropriate training methods.

On availability, adequacy and accessibility of the facilities, equipments and resources in the universities in the South-West, Nigeria

The findings of this study revealed that universities that offer business education programme in the South-West, Nigeria are not adequately equipped with needed facilities, equipments and resources. Training individuals calls for availability, adequacy and accessibility to necessary equipments, facilities and resources. It is not possible to train persons in business education programmes without those materials and equipments because of their specialised nature. Effective training requires the use of various specialised equipments, facilities and resources.

This finding corroborates the findings of Eleri (2011) which stated that facilities, equipments and resources for the implementation of business education curriculum are not available in the Colleges of Education in Nigeria. The finding of Agomoh (2004) supported this study which confirmed that available facilities and their utilisation were ineffective in the states of Eastern Nigeria. Oseni (2012) maintained that to enhance standard in business education in Nigeria, problem of inadequate of equipments, resources and materials must be addressed.

This finding is a total departure from Federal Government stands in National Policy of Education (2004) that all necessary facilities,

equipments, materials, and other assistive devices that would ensure easy access to quality education for individuals shall be provided. To this end, it is almost certain that not much gain is expected from the business education programmes in the affected universities in South-West, Nigeria.

6. Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations are hereby made:

- Facilities, equipment and resources meant for all categories of skills in business education should be made available in large quantities for effective implementation of business education programmes.
- Efforts should be made by all business education facilitators at ensuring that individuals are exposed to all contents of business education programmes as all are equally important (both able and disable students). In doing this, the facilitators need to adopt innovative strategies/methods.
- Funding should be improved upon towards provision of necessary materials that would help solve most of the problems identified.

7. Conclusion

The researcher concludes based on the results established that there were reasonable numbers of contents being covered by the business education facilitators in the South-West, Nigeria. On the other hand, weaknesses which need to be addressed upon include inadequate training materials and equipments, shortage of the programmes' facilitators at the various universities, inadequate training methods and low level of seriousness on the part of individuals (the trainees) at the universities with business education across the South-West, Nigeria.

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Profitability Analysis of Plantain Production in Yewa Division, Ogun State

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Abstract. The study analyzed the profitability of plantain production in Yewa Division of Ogun State. The study was based on primary data obtained in a cross-section survey of 120 respondents drawn by multi-stage random sampling across communities the Local Government Areas (LGAs). Trained enumerators, that personally administered questionnaires/interview schedule, were employed in collecting the study data. The data consists of socio-economic characteristics of the sampled respondents. The study data were analyzed by both descriptive and quantitative techniques. Descriptive techniques including construction of frequency distribution, computation of descriptive statistics (mean, standard errors, etc) were used to analyze socio-economic characteristics of the farm households. The finding reveal that age distribution showed that 61.7 per cent of the sampled farmers, and by extension, rural farm households in the study area have the age of their household heads (farmers) falling below 60 years. While, 71.7 per cent of the heads of the rural farm households were males and 51.7 per cent of the household heads were married. Majority (64.8 per cent) of the household heads possess some formal education, which is predominantly at the primary level; an appreciable level of illiteracy exists among the respondents. Age of the farmers, household size, years of farming experience, fertilizer quantity used, quantity of pesticides used, quantity of insecticide used and total revenue from plantain are statically significant in determining the level of output of the plantain in the survey area. It is therefore recommended that roads linking the rural

communities where plantain is being produced should be made motorable to enhance prompt movement of goods from the farms to the market.

Keywords: Plantain, Rural, Communities, Profitability, Households

1. Introduction

The nutritional value of Plantain, without doubt is of crucial value which makes it one of the healthiest food in the world in terms of nutrients contents. Plantain originated from South East Asia and Western pacific region (John and Marshal 2001). It belongs to the family of “*Musaceae*” and of two types “*Musa acuminata*” (genome AA) and “*Musa balbisiana*” (genome BB). It is a perennial herbaceous plant that belongs to a group of shrubs 2 to 9m tall with an underground rhizome or corm. It thrives on a wide range of tropical and sub-tropical climate. Plantain requires an optimum temperature of 3⁰C. Mean monthly rainfall of 100mm, pH of 4.5 to 7.5 and sandy loam soils plantain is an important food crops in the Sub-Sahara Africa, providing more than 25% of the carbohydrate and 10% of the calories of approximately ten million people in the region (Awotide, *et al.* 2004). Plantain plays vital role in the feeding systems of both human beings and farm animals. It has a high nutritional value. It is a source of dietary carbohydrate, vitamins and minerals. Plantains are extremely rich in vitamins A. Also, plantain are staple food crops for many people in developing countries, while in terms of gross value of production, plantain

are one of the most important fruits in the developing world, (FAO 2011).

Plantains are extremely rich in vitamins A. Ogazi (1995), observed that plantain is one of the major staple food in Nigeria. It has the highest In terms of distribution; four main types of plantain are available in Nigeria, which are strictly based on their bunch characteristics (a) Horn type (b) French type (c) False type and (d) French-horn type. (John and Marchal, 2001).

In Nigeria, the false horn type is widely distributed because of its ability to tolerate poor soil conditions than others. It also controls land degradation which occurs with constant use of machinery. Plantain also plays an important role in the structuring of rural landscape throughout the producing areas in the country. In the urban areas, it is normally eaten in convenient forms like “Dodo” (fried ripe pulp), chip (fried unripe pulp) and as plantain flour. This plantain flour has an advantage over other starchy foods because it contains protein, mineral and vitamins. Medicinally, plantain can be used to cure some ailments; like sore throats, tonsillitis, diarrhea and vomiting. Due to its high nutrients, plantain is used in the production of Soyamusa, which can be used in the treatment of kwashiorkor. (Idachaba 1995).

According to Oxford Learners Dictionary, profitability can be defined as the state or condition of yielding a financial gain or profit, because without profit earning a proposed business cannot survive. Profitability is measured with income and expenses. Income is money generated from the activities of the business, while expenses are the cost of resources used up or consumed by the activities of the business. Profitability on the other hand can be defined as either accounting profits or economic profits. Profitability is measured with an “income statement”.

In Nigeria, plantain is produced in large quantities in Edo, Delta, Ogun and Ondo State. Other producing States are Rivers State. Cross River State, Imo, Anambra, Lagos, Kwara, Benue, Plateau, Kogi, Abia and Enugu. Plantain cultivation is not limited to big plantations, but

is often grown in small orchards which sometimes go unnoticed. Relative attention given to plantain is focused on its production technology while little is done on its marketing. It is however obvious that increased production without corresponding increase in marketing may amount to wastage of resources.

Agricultural production in Africa has virtually been dominated by small-scale farmers who are known to produce up to 90 per cent of the food consumed in some countries of the continent (Lambert, 2000). These small-scale farmers make up at least 73 per cent of all rural Africans. Despite the fact that such a high percentage of the population are farmers, food demand cannot be met from this source (Garrison, 1999). The central issue, therefore, is how to accelerate the agricultural production growth rate to meet the food needs of the ever-growing population (Shields *et al.*, 2002) Total world production of banana and plantain is estimated to be over 76 million metric tons (FAO, 1993). An estimated 12 million tonnes are produced in Africa annually, most of which are consumed or traded locally (INIBAP, 2003). About 70 million people in the sub-region are estimated to derive more than one quarter of their food energy requirements from plantain. Plantains have relatively high value products in common with most other horticultural crops. The gross value of their annual production in sub-Saharan Africa exceeds that of many other food crops such as maize, rice, cassava and sweet potato (Ortiz and Vuylsteke, 2001).

In Nigeria, plantain has been an important traditional staple food for both the rural and urban populace. They serve as a source of revenue for small-holders who produce them on compound farms, mixed farms and small-scale sole plantain farms (Baiyeri, 2002). Though plantain are crops that have diverse uses to millions of Nigerians, the level of production of plantain in Nigeria has been inconsistent and low (FOS, 1999). An underlying factor in the study area is that farmers are not making efficient use of existing technology, moreover, the efforts designed to improve efficiency are more cost-effective than introducing new technologies as a means of increasing agricultural output

might be difficult (Akalumbe, 1994). In Nigeria, plantain has become a key source of revenue. To harness the export potential of plantain, the current level of its production must be improved to ensure increased revenue generation by the farmers.

2. Objectives of the Study

The broad objective is to determine the Profitability Analysis of Plantain Production in Yewa Division, Ogun State, Nigeria. The specific objectives are to estimate the costs and return structure of plantain production in the study area; and elicit the factors affecting the income from plantain production.

3. Research Methodology

3.1 Study Area

The study was conducted in Yewa Division of Ogun State with a special focus on plantain farmers in Yewa North Local Government Area and Yewa South Local Government Area. Inhabitants of these Local Government Areas are mainly Yoruba speaking with various dialects like Yewa, Anago, and other ethnic groups also exist in a peaceful atmosphere like Hausas, Igbo, Igedes, etc and the three main religions in this division are Christianity, Islam, and traditionalist. Yewa North Local Government Area has human population of about 2,338,570 (NPC 2006). The Local Government Area is bounded in the West by Republic of Benin, in the South by Abeokuta North Local Government Area and in the North by Oyo State. The headquarters of the Local Government Area is located on Latitude 7°15'N and Longitude 3°3'E in the Derived Savannah Zone of Ogun State.

3.2 Sources and Methods of Data Collection

Both primary and secondary data were used for the research. Under primary data, structured questionnaire were used to collect data on socio-economic characteristics of plantain farmers and other relevant information and oral interviews and discussion were held on some relevant issues such as the problems facing the farmers in

plantain production. While, secondary data were obtained from journals, texts, statistical bulletins and other published documents.

3.3 Sampling Procedure

Multistage sampling technique was employed in this study. The first stage involved the selection of two Local Government Areas (Yewa North and Yewa South Local Government Areas) from the four Local Government Areas in Yewa Division. The second stage was the selection of five communities from the two Local Government Areas earlier selected. The last stage involved the selection of 12 plantain farmers in each community to give a total of 120 respondents sampled.

3.4 Methods of Data Analysis

Both the descriptive and inferential statistics were used for the study. The descriptive statistics like frequency count, mean and percentages were used to describe the socio-economic characteristics of the plantain producers and problems confronting them in course of plantain production. While inferential statistics such as Budgetary Analysis which was used to estimate cost and return structure of the producers and Multiple Regression was used to examine factors affecting income from plantain production. The models for the inferential statistics (budgetary analysis and regression statistics) are stated below.

$$NFI = GFI - TC$$

$$GFI = (P \cdot Q) \cdot Q \text{ and } TC = TVC + TFC$$

Where:

NFI = Net Farm Income (₦)

GFI = Gross Farm Income (₦)

PQ- Price per unit of output (bunch of plantain)

Q- Total Output (in kg)

TC- Total Cost of Production (₦)

VC- Variable Cost (₦)

FC- Fixed Cost (₦)

Thus, the Net Revenue $NR = TR - TC$

Where: $TR = \sum_{t=0}^n P_i Q_i$ and $TC =$

$$\sum_{t=0}^n P_{xi} X_i$$

NR is the Net Return, TR, Total Revenue from sales per bunch of plantain, Pi price per bunch of

plantain, I is the quantity of sales made. TC Total Cost of processing of plantain, Pxi=price of its input and X_i is the input.

The performance and economic worth of the respondents can be determined by the use of the following profitability ratios:

Benefit Cost Ratio(BCR) = TR/TC

Expense Structure Ratio (ESR) = FC/VC

Rate Of Return(ROR) = NR/TC

Gross Ratio(GR) = TC/TR

To obtain the worth of each of the fixed cost items the straight line method of depreciation was used and it was assumed that the salvage value of fixed items used in the business is zero. The formula for depreciation using a straight line method is given as:

$$\text{Depreciation} = \frac{\text{Purchase price (₦)}}{\text{No of years of useful life of the asset}}$$

Regression model

To ascertain the relationship between a dependent variable and numerous independent

variables thus required the use of regression model.

$$Y_i = a_i + b_i X_i + U_i$$

Where: Y_i = Dependent Variable; a_i = Intercept/Constant; b_i = Coefficient of Dependent Variables; X_i = Independent Variables; U_i = Error Term

Where:

- Y = Plantain output (₦)
- X₁ = Age of plantain farmers (years)
- X₂ = Household size (no of person)
- X₃ = Farming experience (years)
- X₄ = Year of education (years)
- X₅ = Farm size (acres)
- X₆ = Number of plantain sucker planted
- X₇ = Labour cost (₦)
- X₈ = Fertilizer quantity (kg)
- X₉ = Pesticides quantity (litre)
- X₁₀ = Insecticide quantity (litre)
- X₁₁ = Revenue (₦)
- U = Error term

4. Results and Discussion

Table 1: Socio-Economics Characteristics of the Respondents

Items	Frequency	Percentage
Age (years)		
≤ 30	5	4.2
31-40	20	16.7
41-50	16	13.3
51-60	33	27.5
Above 60	46	38.3
Sex		
Male	86	71.7
Female	34	28.3
Marital Status		
Married	62	51.7
Widow	33	27.5
Divorced	6	5.0
Separated	8	6.7
Educational Level		
No formal education	41	35.2
Primary school	52	43.3
Secondary school	19	15.8
Tertiary education	8	6.7
Occupation		
Farming	67	55.8
Trading	18	15.0
Artisans	10	8.3
Transporter	25	20.8

Farming Experience		
Below 5 years	43	35.8
11-15 years	11	9.2
16-20 years	25	20.8
Above 20 years	41	34.2
Household Size		
1-3	43	35.8
4-6	20	16.7
7-9	30	25.0
10-12	14	11.7
Above 12	13	10.8
Mode of Acquisition		
Inheritance	50	41.7
Government source	70	58.3
Farm Size		
1-2 Ha	43	35.8
5-6 Ha	13	10.8
7-8 Ha	7	5.8
Above 8 Ha	57	47.5
Source of Fund		
Self-finance	100	83.3
Credit and loan	20	16.7
Problem Encountered		
Poor market and poor road	88	73.3
No market, poor road and poor economy	32	26.7
Total	120	100

Source: Field Survey, 2015

5. Results and Discussion

The age of the respondents is an important factor that affects their level of productivity and overall coping ability within the business. Age is believed to influence the level of physical work. Majority of the farmers (79.5%) are above 40 years. This implies that the older farmers can use their experience to increase their productivity level.

Plantain production, especially with respect to farming practices is generally tedious and energy demanding and as a result is often termed a man's job while the women are left with the processing and sometimes marketing and sales activities. Evidence on Table 1 shows that 71.7 per cent of the heads of the rural farm households were males: This is a reflection of the prevailing custom of the area where most of the farming households are male-headed.

Marital status indicates a condition of being Married (by Law, Religion and/or Tradition) or Unmarried (Single, Widow/Widower, and Divorced). As farming households expand from

being single to married, there will be more people to cater for and feed, which will increase the family labour for the production of plantain and consequently increase farm income.

Education is seen as a social capital that has the ability to impact positively on the ability of the household to take good and well-informed production and nutrition decisions. Education is vital in eradicating ignorance and increases the farmers' exposure and ability to make use of new farming practices and innovation. Meanwhile, while results on Table 1 showed that the majority (43.3 percent) of the household heads possess some formal education, which is predominantly at the primary level; an appreciable level of illiteracy exists among the respondents. And this may limit their ability to take full advantage of extension services, thus affecting their income generation and poverty.

The major occupation of the rural dwellers is farming. However, due to the nature and several challenges associated with rice production, many have had to seek occupational opportunities in several other areas. In the rural

communities, the most common of such jobs include artisan jobs such as carpentry, bricklaying, electrical works, plumbing, welding, transportation, security personnel, and so on; office jobs like secretaries, cleaners, attendants, teaching for those that have some considerable level of formal education and all forms of trading activities all aimed at increasing the income that comes to the home and increases standard of living. It is also worthy of note that most (55.8 per cent) of the households' heads have farming as their main occupation

Farming experience is expected to play vital roles in agricultural practice, decision making and risk management on the farm. An experienced food (crop/animal) farmer would be expected to have a better understanding of his production environment than someone else that is relatively new in the practice. Such an experienced farmer for instance would be able to easily identify causes of loss to his farm enterprise such as pests and disease infestations, erosion, poor performance, poor management/husbandry and such other factors that could contribute to reducing the quality of his produce and quickly nip it in the bud before it leads to a total loss to his farm enterprise. Experience is very important as many farmers rely on past experience (along with current information, methods and techniques) to draw up production plan of work and calendar of operation that will altogether increase their output in quantity terms and yield produce with good quality. The findings showed that farmers having less than five years farming experience constitutes majority (53%) of the respondents

In addition, with better production environment which includes adequate supply/access to machinery, improved crop and breeds that are disease resistant and high viability, fertilizers and other chemicals (herbicides, pesticides and insecticides), better technical know-how and improved farming methods and chiefly, access to funds, food production would increase in quality and quantity terms and this would in turn increase the income level of the farmers. The total household size of the respondents comprises the head of the home, the wives, children as well as all other dependants resident

in the house. Household size and its composition are important factors to consider in analyses of rural farm households, most especially as it determines the availability of labour to household farm economic pursuits. As shown in the table, a typical household in the sample is made up of 1 – 3 members.

The results showed that majority of the farmers 70.0% acquired their farm land from the government. While others through inheritance with farm size above 8 hectares in order to improve production performance. It is evident from the result of the study that majority (83.3%) of the respondents sourced their initial capital through personal saving, about 16.7% source finance through loan credit facilities. Majority of the respondents, 73.3% of the respondents were confronted with the problem of poor market and bad road in the production of plantain in the study area. Lack of access to market, poor road and poor economy also contributed about 26.7% of the problems being encountered by the plantain farmers in the study area. Majority of the plantain farmers suggested provision of good market outlet and construction of good road as a solution to the problems of plantain production in the study area.

5.1 Budgetary Analysis Results:

The estimated costs and return of plantain growers cultivating 1.0 hectare on the average in the zone were ₦32,292.84 and ₦48,105.26 per annum, respectively as shown in Table 2. Among the cost components, cost of labour had the largest share of the total cost (60.3%), followed by cost of consumable farm inputs (26.4%). Revenue from plantain on the average was ₦48,105.26, while the gross margin and net income or returns to management were ₦25,233.47 and ₦15,812.42 respectively. The return per naira outlay was ₦1.3 implies that for every ₦1 invested in plantain production enterprise there is a return of ₦1.3 to the enterprise. The benefit cost ratio and labour efficiency analysis were 2.2 and 3.6, respectively. This shows that output earning per ₦1 expenditure on labour was ₦3.6 showing that labour was well managed. These measures of performance indicate that plantain production in the study area is viable and profitable.

Table 3: Cost and Return Structure of Plantain

Inputs	Mean
Bush Clearing	3978.9474
Planting	8262.6316
Fertilizer Application	1871.2632
Harvesting	2266.8421
Cost of Plantain Sucker	148.9474
Labour Cost	1157.8947
Fertilizer	2868.4211
Pesticides	1063.1579
Insecticides	1,253.6842
Total Variable Cost	22,871.7895
Land Cost	6305.2632
Cutlass	1143.1579
Hoe	715.7895
Digger	1256.8421
Total Fixed Cost	9421.0526
Total Cost	32292.8421
Revenue	48105.2632
Gross Margin	25233.4737
Net Income	15812.4211

Source: Field Survey, 2015

5.2 Linear Regression Analysis Result of Total Output Determinants.

The estimated parameters and the relevant statistical test results obtained from the analysis are presented in Table 3. It had an adjusted R² value of 0.606. This implies that about 60.6% of the variation in supply (Y) is accounted for by the variables (X₁-X₁₁) included in the model, while the remaining 39.4% is as a result of non-inclusion of other explanatory variables in the model. The F-value is positive and statistically significant at the P ≤ 0.01, indicating that the variables included in the model adequately explained the net income in the survey area.

Out of the 11 variables modelled, the coefficient of age of the farmers, years of farming experience, fertilizer quantity used, quantity of pesticides used, quantity of insecticide used and total revenue from plantain are positive and statistically significant in determining the level of output of the plantain in the survey area. While other variables are negative though some are significant, implying that there is over-utilization of the variables and increase in them will decrease the total output of plantain.

Table 3: Linear Regression Analysis Result of Total Output Determinants.

Variables	Reg. Coefficient	T-Value
(Constant)	8949.386	0.969
Age	631.594***	3.666
Household Size	-5695.473***	-6.059
Year of plantain planting experience	1539.760***	5.731
Educational Qualification	-1144.266	-1.015
Farm Size	-260.919	-0.573
Number of Plantain sucker planted	0.112	0.007
Labour Cost	0.035	0.937
Fertilizer	0.282*	1.804
Pesticides	3.148*	1.886
Insecticides	5.649***	2.766
Revenue	0.261*	1.818
F-value	17.611	
R-Square	0.642	
Adjusted R Square	0.606	

Source: Field survey 2015.

1% Significant level = ***, 5% Significant level = ** and 10% Significant level = *

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

The study employed descriptive statistics, and budgetary technique to analyze the characteristics of plantain farms, forecast the trend in farm size and costs and returns to production. All respondents grew more than one varieties of plantain. Budgetary analysis results showed that plantain production in the study area is viable and profitable. Plantain farmers have a great potential to boost local production through increase in the sizes of plantain farms until when equilibrium would be attained. This could be achieved by use of improved suckers, provision of rural infrastructures such as road that will facilitate easy movement of inputs to the farm and output from the farm to markets.

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

- Roads linking the rural communities where plantain is being produced should be made more motor-able to enhance prompt movement of goods from the farms to the market.
- Special vehicle that will reduce quantitative and qualitative losses should be made available to marketers by the government. This will help to reduce post-harvest losses, deterioration in quality and transportation problems facing marketers in the study area.
- Programmes that will improve plantain marketing should be organized for the marketers by relevant government or non-government agencies. The programme should involve marketing strategies, proper recording and fund generation.

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Part Two
Development Studies

Assessment of Influence of Federation of International Football Association (FIFA) Organized Competitions on Eradication of Poverty on the Attainment of the Millennium Development Goals in Nigeria.

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Abstract. The purpose of this study was to appraise the influence of FIFA Organized Competitions on the attainment of Millennium Development Goals in Nigeria. To achieve this purpose, a total of 285 respondents were used for the study. A stratified random sampling technique was used. In this technique; the six (6) geo-political zones in Nigeria were used. Experts in the field of Physical and Health Education vetted the questionnaire in order to determine its face and content validity. The final draft of the questionnaire was administered on the respondents. The data collected were statistically analyzed using Descriptive statistics of frequency, means and standard deviation to determine the average responses of the respondents, one sample t-test was used to determine whether the rated influence is considered statistically significant or not. The findings indicate that FIFA organized competitions have no significant influence on the eradication of poverty and hunger in Nigeria. The Federal Government could exploit FIFA organized competition for promoting peace among ethnic and religious groupings thereby promoting the games in Nigeria. It was recommended that there is a need to develop more infrastructural facilities for FIFA organized competitions in Nigeria as this would pave ways for hosting the games.

1. Introduction

FIFA (Federation International de Football) has been the governing body of world Football since 1904. It has grown from a small European-based organization into a body with a membership of almost 200 nations. The growth and the place of FIFA within the world order of trans-national organizations and worldwide cultural politics have been brought under scrutiny by scholars (Searle, 2008). Drawing from previous facts and observations of the politics of FIFA and its related football confederations, and the unique structure and personalities that run the world most popular game, the aims and importance of organized competitions as it is expressed by most national Federations and multinational organizations is a matter of concern (Fredline & Fawkner, 2002). For instance, stated that in many respects, until the Second World War, there was considerable ambiguity over precisely who ruled the World of Football. When FIFA came into being in 1904, its seven (7) founding members were France, Sweden, Belgium, Denmark, Switzerland, Spain and the Netherlands.

The first official match between representatives of two nations was between [England](#) and [Scotland](#) in 1872 at [Hamilton Crescent](#), Glasgow, finishing in a 0–0 draw. The following

year at [The Oval](#), England enjoyed a 4–2 victory over the travelling Scots. This was followed by the creation of the world's second national football association, the [Scottish Football Association](#) in 1873. Previously [the Football Association](#) of England had been the world's only governing body, though codified football was being played only in the United Kingdom. The sole aim of FIFA organized sports competitions have metamorphosed into FIFA developmental project whose direction as a globally powerful organization sprang up during the period of Dr. Joao Havelange from 1974 to 1998. This development saw FIFA organized competitions throughout the world as a social transformer and its economic impact made it a phenomenal force (Fredline & Fawkner, 2002). According to Blatter (1996) who stated that about 200 million persons were actively involved in football and with an estimated 1.2 billion people directly or indirectly present an annual turnover of 200 billion dollars far higher than some cooperate organizations such as Mitsubishi or General Motors, (Blatter, 1996). It is however important to compare the economic situation of FIFA with that of the institutions. For instance, the goal of Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) is to combat world hunger and provide advice to government on food production, while United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) has the broad aim of forging global educational and cultural links for the purpose of advancing the objectives of international Peace and the common welfare of mankind. From the above mentioned aims, there seems to be some striking similarities between some of these United Nations (UN) and FIFA organized competitions.

However, these developments and similarities among institutions and organs of government made the United Nations, on September 2000 at the millennium summit to establish the Millennium Development Goals (MDGS). The aim of the establishment of the MDGS was to, eradicate or reduce poverty, hunger. Therefore, having known the interdependence of various institutions and organizations and a brief development in football and the similarities in the goal and political agenda of these institutions, it is not very clear whether FIFA

organized competitions had any influence in the attainment of Millennium Development Goals. This study assesses the influence of FIFA Organized competitions in the Attainment of the Millennium Development Goals and if United Nations achieved its Millennium Development Goals in Africa and in Nigeria in particular through FIFA organized competitions as a strategic means. This aims at: reducing half the populations of the people who are living on less than one dollar a day, achieving full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people. Reducing the half the proportion of people who suffer from hunger. FIFA participants, volunteers and coaches acquire transferable life skills which increase their community services and supports through sport-based outreach programs. FIFA Programs and sports equipment production provide jobs and skills development. FIFA can help reduce stigma and increase self-esteem, self-confidence and social skills, leading to increasing employability.

2. Statement of the Problem

Countries and cities spend so much money to participate, host and organize FIFA competitions (Antonakis, 2006). The pride, glory and the opportunity to showcase to the world the host countries culture and cities, there are the perceptions and belief that such events create an economic windfall (Matheson & Baade, 2004), This may be the case for developed nations, the prize for hosting FIFA organized competitions in developing nations is far from being sustainable (Rojek & Dunning 1992; Anotonakis, 2006; Levermore & Baacom, 2008). They further opine that host countries have to shoulder the constructions of modern stadia, hotels, built roads networks and other forms of infrastructure necessary to host global competition. These facilities are not maintained after the sports competitions (Venkateswarlu, 2006).

According to Matheson and Baade (2004), the constructions of these state of the art stadia are not sustainable, as ticket revenues alone are not able to make up for the cost of yearly maintenance during or after competition. Some

of the problems encountered during the implementation of the program include lack of political will from the government, mismanagement of funds, low women participation in the program, lack of transferable skills from the coaches, participants and volunteers and inability to bring about the much desired peace as entrenched in the development goals. (Venkateswarlu, 2006, Matheson and Baade, 2004).

It is not very clear whether such benefit exists in Africa and Nigeria in particular. Although much has been reported about the challenges faced by developing countries in organizing football competition, the case of South Africa and the world cup in 2010 was faced with so many bribery and corruption allegations coming up after the 2010 world cup (Levermore and Beacom, Ogi, 2002; Searle, 2008; Venkateswarlu; 2008). Preuss (2008) listed a number of objectives South Africa had in mind; putting the country on the map, showcasing the region, promoting the political system, creating new trading partners, attracting investment, urban renewal including housing and infrastructure and building a legacy of sport infrastructure. Building a legacy was successful since South Africa won the hosting right of Africa Cup of Nations in 2013.

In view of the fact that FIFA aligned with the achievement of the eight Millennium Development Goals by the year 2015, the researcher was motivated to appraise the Influence of FIFA organized sports competitions on the attainment of Millennium Development Goals in Nigeria.

3. Hypothesis

There is no significant influence of FIFA organized competitions on eradication of poverty and hunger

4. Methodology

Ex-post facto research design was used. Thomas & Nelson, (2007), stated that this method is the best tool to use in descriptive research involving current events or conditions. The population of this study consisted of all staff of Nigeria Football Federation (NFF), State Football Association (FA) Secretaries in the 36 States of the Federation and F.C.T, Abuja. It also included all staff working in the MDGs offices in the 36 states of the federation and F.C.T Abuja on the basis of the study, a total of 285 respondents were used for the study which is shown below:

Table 1: Sample Respondents for the Study

	Organization	Respondents
1	States F.A s	16 officials X 10 states = 160 respondents
2	Nigeria Football Federation (NFF)	25 officials = 25 respondents
3	Millennium Development Goals office	10 officials X 10 States = 100 respondents
	Total	= 285

* NFF = 25 officials, MDGs = 100 Officials and State FAs = 160 officials = 285 Respondents

In order to ensure equal chances for the respondents to be part of the study, a stratified random sampling technique was used. In this technique, the six (6) geo-political zones in Nigeria were used. They are: North Central (NC) North East (NE) North West (NW) South East (SE) South West (SW) South South (SS). The dip, pick, recorded and returned method. The state F.A were written on pieces of papers differently and drop in a box/bag and the research assistants picked one at a time and the researcher will record and will have the pieces of paper refolded and returned into the box/bag

on each occasion a state F.A was picked until the two state F.A.s required for each zone are achieved. This is to keep the same number for all the selection process, (Thomas & Nelson, 2007). Purposive sampling techniques were applied for Nigeria Football Federation (NFF) as such; twenty five (25) officials was purposively selected according to their status. At the State levels sixteen Football Association (FA) officials was purposively sampled from each State. From the Millennium Development Goals offices ten (10) officials would be randomly sampled from each state. The table below is the

summary of how the respondents were sampled. The instrument for this study was the questionnaire which was self-developed by the researcher into the following sections: A: Bio data, B: Key for respondent feelings, C: FIFA organized Competitions and the Eradication of Poverty and Hunger and attainment of MDG in Nigeria, D:FIFA Organized Competitions on the Attainment of Universal Primary Education and attainment of MDG in Nigeria, E: FIFA Organized Competitions and Gender Equality and Empowerment of Women in Nigeria and attainment of MDG in Nigeria, F: FIFA Organized Competitions assist in Combating HIV/AIDS in Nigeria and attainment of MDG in Nigeria, G: FIFA Organized Competitions and reduction of child mortality and attainment of MDG in Nigeria, H: FIFA Organized Competitions and improvement of maternal health and attainment of MDG in Nigeria, I: FIFA Organized Competitions and ensuring environmental sustainability and attainment of MDG in Nigeria and J: FIFA Organized Competitions and Global Partnership for Development and attainment of MDG in Nigeria. The likert 5-point scale of measurement was used, that is, it would have strongly agrees points, agree 4 points, undecided 3 points, disagree 2 points, simply disagree 1point.Was adopted. Thomas & Nelson, (2007), expressed that likert scale of measurement allows the respondents to place themselves along a feeling continuum for each statement in the instrument inventory. In order to determine the face validity and internal consistency, the questionnaire was given to five different professional experts' sports management, within and outside the Department of Human Kinetics and Health Education, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria to serve as jurors by vetting the contents with the sole aim of determining the instruments' suitability and adequacy. On the basis of their inputs a final clean copy of the questionnaire was prepared for the conduct of pilot study.

To establish the reliability of the instrument to be ascertained, two states from the North Central (NC) geopolitical zone was used for the pilot study. The states for the pilot study were selected by the method used in the selection of

the states for the study. Through this method, Plateau and Nasarawa states were selected. The instrument therefore was administered to 26 respondents each selected from Plateau and Nasarawa state FA's and MDG's. The total questionnaires used were therefore 52 respondents. The data collected were coded and subjected to statistical analysis using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS IBM version 20). The Cronbach Alpha, option was selected in line with (Tavakol, 2011) recommendation for interval scaling for establishing the reliability of the instrument and internal consistency of the items within it. The observed reliability obtained for the instrument for the cronbach Alpha was 0.89, The internal consistency index was establish at 0.89 for the average measure intra-class Correlation. The obtained reliability coefficients all indicated that the instrument could be considered reliable and internally consistent for the study. This observation is consistent with Field, (2006) recommendations which states that the reliability coefficient of between 0.5 and 1 is expected to be obtained for an instrument which would imply that it is reliable and internally consistent for a study and studies of similar nature. The researcher with the help of six (6) research assistants, who were trained on how to administer the questionnaire and be deployed to administer the questionnaire within two weeks.

As the purpose of this study is to assess the influence of Federation of International Football Association (FIFA) organized competitions on the attainment of Millennium Development Goals in Nigeria, the statistical package for social science (SPSS) was used to analyze the data. Descriptive statistics of frequency means and standard deviation to determine the average responses of the respondents and to answer the research questions rose in this study, one sample t-test was used for differences among the NFF Staff, State FA's Staff and MDG's Staff in their perceptions of the influence of FIFA organized competition on the attainment of MDG's and All statistical techniques were tested at 0.05 level of significance.

5. Result:

Table 2: Research question mean scores of the responses on FIFA organized competitions’ influence on the eradication of poverty and attainment of MDGs in Nigeria

SN	Eradication of poverty in Nigeria and attainment of Millennium Goals (MDGs)	Mean	S. D.
1	Through Federation of International Football Association (FIFA) organized sports competitions the poverty in Nigeria could be eradicated	2.88	1.577
2	Through Federation of International Football Association (FIFA) through its competitions has alleviated the living standard of many nations	3.00	1.520
3	Through Federation of International Football Association (FIFA) organized sports competitions are only for poverty eradication	2.87	1.504
4	Through Federation of International Football Association (FIFA) organized competitions, many children have become self-employed.	2.83	1.482
5	Federation of International Football Association (FIFA) organized competitions have no economic benefit to Nigeria	2.90	1.507
6	Federation of International Football Association (FIFA) organized competitions could help improved Food storage facilities to Nigeria	2.98	1.391
7	Federation of International Football Association (FIFA) organized competitions could help eliminate hunger in Nigeria.	2.88	1.421
8	Federation of International Football Association (FIFA) organized competitions could help promote free trade in and out of Nations.	2.83	1.478
9	Through Federation of International Football Association (FIFA) organized competitions, Nigeria as a nation could benefit from High Economic growth.	2.89	1.589
10	Federation of International Football Association (FIFA) organized competitions have improve Nigeria’s International trade.	2.96	1.494
Aggregate mean		2.90	0.594

The aggregate mean score of 2.90 with a standard deviation of 0.594 for the table shows that the respondents did not have the positive perception that FIFA organized competitions have significance influence on the eradication of poverty and the attainment of Millennium Development Goals in Nigeria. This is perceived to be non-achievement of self-employment opportunities creation which enhance derived economic benefits from such competitions organized within the county. The respondents were therefore of view that such competitions no adequate resources to completely eradicated poverty in the country. The respondents did not perceive that any of the FIFA organized competitions could be said to be aimed at eradication of poverty and encourage improvement in the standard of living of the people.

This could explain their disagreement with suggestion that FIFA organized competitions have economic benefit to Nigeria and their disagreement with the suggestion that the FIFA organized sports competitions help promote free trade which has economic benefits to Nigeria that in turn enhance the standard of living in the country and improve the economic standard. It could thus be said that the respondents were of the view that FIFA organized competitions have no significance influence on the eradication of poverty and the attainment of Millennium Development Goals in Nigeria.

The opinions of the respondents on the level of influence of FIFA organized competitions on eradication of poverty and hunger in the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals examined in Table .2 is tested in this hypothesis. The mean scores for the items were subjected to a one sample t-test to determine whether the rated influence is considered statistical significant or not. A summary of the test is presented in Table 3.

Hypothesis: There is no significant influence of FIFA organized competitions on eradication of poverty and hunger

Table 3: One sample t-test on influence of FIFA organized competitions on eradication of poverty and hunger in the attainment of MDGs in Nigeria.

Variables	N	Mean	S. D.	S. E	t-value	DF	P-value	Remarks
Eradication of poverty	276	2.90	0.594	0.036	1.715	275	0.070	NS
Test mean	276	3.00	0.000	0.000				

The table showed that the respondents were of the opinion that FIFA Organized Competitions has no significant influence on the eradication of poverty and hunger enshrined in the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals in Nigeria. The observed t-value of 1.715 for the table is higher than the critical value of 1.96 at the 275 degree of freedom (DF). The probability level of significance obtained for the test is 0.070 ($P > 0.05$). With these observations, there is no sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant influence of FIFA organized competitions on the eradication of poverty and hunger in Nigeria.

6. Discussion:

In the test of the hypothesis, the significance of the influence of FIFA organized competitions on the eradication of poverty in the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals in Nigeria was tested. The result showed that the rating of the influence by the respondents was not significant. The null hypothesis was therefore retained. The finding contradicts the report of the former Secretary-General of United Nations Organization Kofi Annan (2005) who stated that developing countries are reducing extreme poverty, extending access to primary education and alleviating disease and hunger in many regions of the world, pursuit of targets set in the year-2000 UN Millennium Declaration.

7. Conclusion

From the findings of this study the following conclusion was drawn:
 FIFA organized competitions have no much influence on the eradication of poverty and hunger through their activities in Nigeria.

8. Recommendation

Based on the conclusion obtained from this study, it is therefore recommended that the

Federal government through the ministry of Sports and Youth Development should put in place to ensure that FIFA organized competitions are encouraged in view of their numerous advantages of providing economic opportunities.

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Empowering employees for self-employment in a depressed economy: Skills development in the Nigerian multinational corporate sector – Challenges and prospects

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Abstract. With the global economic meltdown and consequent negative implications on employment and job security, the economic situation in Nigeria has become more daunting to the extent that many multinational corporate sector operators have not only reduced production, some have shut down completely with hope for improved business climate while some multinational corporations (MNCs) have relocated to neighbouring countries. The net effect of these trends has been increase in the number of the unemployed who have very little hopes of securing employment in the nearest future as the economic situation in Nigeria remains on the downward trend. With this scenario, this paper aims to probe the issue of skills development in the multinational corporate sector. Its central concern is to ascertain the level to which MNCs' training and skills development programmes empower employees to be self-employed beyond the employing organisation and industry. The paper argues that although MNCs are viewed as custodians of skills and technology deployed for production globally, with their many years of business operations in Nigeria, skills shortages abound while unemployment have increased. What are the factors responsible for this situation? The paper situates the discourse on human capital theory. Its findings are based on interviews conducted in three skills development and utilisation agencies – State policy making institutions, multinational corporate sector and organized labour. The paper concludes that concerted efforts are required on the part of

government to ensure that MNCs' skills and training programmes are tailored and implemented in line with Nigeria's national aspirations on human capital formation.

1. Introduction

The “health” status of an economy has a great implication on the social wellbeing of the people. From the Mid 1980s, the buoyant Nigerian economy began a slow decline leading to unemployment that has aggravated over the years with graduates of Universities staying at home for years in search of gainful employment. While the government has adopted various programmes such as the Structural Adjustment, Privatisation and Commercialisation in attempt to revamp the economy, the unemployment situation has remained on an upward trend. According to the National Bureau of Statistics, the number of Nigerians that became unemployed rose from 11.92 million in the first quarter of 2017 to 13.58 million and 15.99 million in the second and third quarters respectively (NBS, 2017). The Manufacturers Association of Nigeria (MAN), from its survey also gave a startling revelation that about 226 companies have either closed shop or downsized between 2015 and 2016 in the country and their employees have been thrown out of jobs (Onuba, 2018). The hope of securing employment becomes deemed with the number of multinational corporate sector organisations folding up, some multinational corporations

(MNCs) reducing their productive capacities and others relocating to other countries out rightly.

Considering the perspective that MNCs are viewed as custodians of technology and with the claim that these companies provide trainings to their employees to make them acquire skills relevant for entrepreneurship among other objectives, unemployment becomes a serious concern in Nigeria. MNCs operating in Nigeria employ many Nigerians, yet unemployment has increased. Some of the MNCs in Nigeria have operated for several years. To this extent, this paper probes into the activities of the multinational corporate sector with the intent of examining the training and skills development programmes imparted to employees. The objective is to ascertain the extent to which MNCs training and skills development programmes empower the employees to be self-employed and to be productively relevant in the larger economy beyond the employing industry where training was imparted. Specifically, the paper attempts to examine the following issues: What types of trainings go on in MNCs? What are the challenges to ensuring that the training provided by MNCs empower the workers?

2. Skills Development in Nigeria: Challenges and Prospects

Nigeria is the most populous country in Africa, and is endowed with an abundance of natural and human resources. Nigeria had an estimated population of 173.62 million people in 2013 (World Development Report, 2014), which ideally could trigger industrial production and also provide a large workforce for economic development, if the workforce were appropriately skilled. However, the country lags behind in economic and social progress. For instance, the 2014 United Nations Development Programme Human Development Index Report

ranked Nigeria at 152nd and 118th respectively out of 187 countries surveyed. Over 62% of Nigeria’s population still lives below the poverty line (less than one dollar a day) (CIA Fact book, 2014; Ajibola, 2013).

Some analysts have argued that national industrial skills development is of utmost importance to Nigeria’s quest for industrial development (Ogundele and Abiola, 2012). Inadequate skilled human resource has remained a perennial problem in many sectors, notwithstanding Nigeria’s efforts at ensuring skills and human resource development for the nation. For instance, shortly after independence from Britain in 1960, Nigerian leaders formulated a comprehensive plan for overall development encapsulated in national development plans: 1962-1968, 1970-1974, 1975-1980 and 1980-1985. The first plan led specifically to establishment of the National Universities Commission (NUC) and the National Manpower Board (NMB) in 1962. These were to act as think tanks for government in the area of developing relevant skills for national development. Other institutions have also been established for the training of human resource for different sectors of the economy.

Demographically, the country has a huge young population, with 63 percent under the age of 24 years (NBS, 2014). This has impacted on the limited opportunities available for education, training and skills development. From about 15, 000 applications to tertiary institutions in the 1970s, 1.7 million applied for admission to tertiary institutions for acquisition of high level skills provided by tertiary institutions in 2014 (Ademola, Ogundipe and Babatunde 2014: 56). Despite over stressed facilities, table 1.1 below presents the number of applicants who applied to acquire high level skills over a five year period (2010 - 2014).

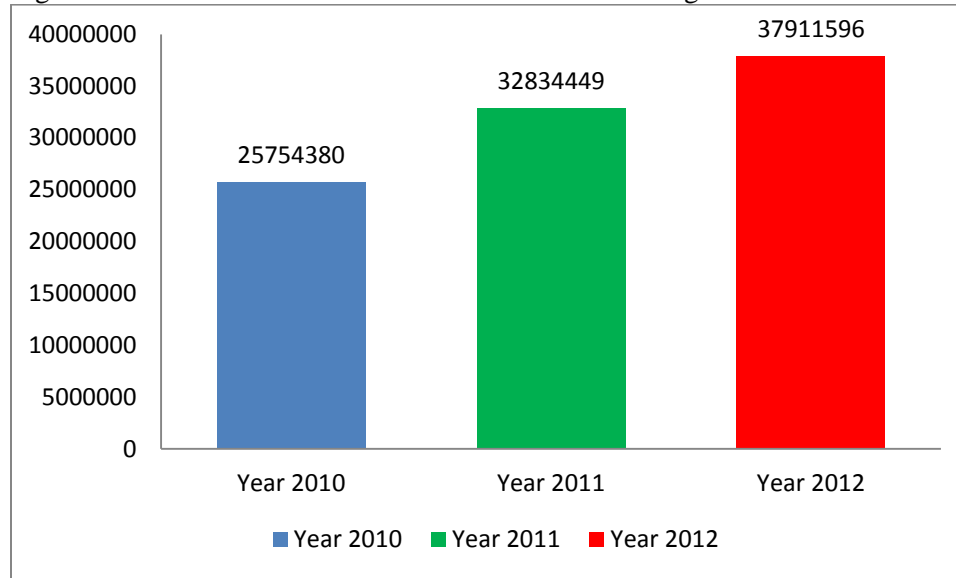
Table 1.1: UMTE Applicants and Tertiary Admission 2010 - 2014

Year	No of Applicants	No Admitted	% of applicants admitted
2010	1, 182,381	148,000	12.5
2011	1,375,652	360,000	26.2
2012	1,493,604	400, 000	26.8
2013	1,503,889	500,000	33.3
2014	1,670,833	520,000	31.1

Source: World Educational Services. An NGO, available at wenr.wes.org

While the data presented above were provided by a Non-Governmental Organisation, based in the United States, The Nigeria Bureau of Statistics (NBS, 2015) revealed the increasing enrolment of Nigerians for education and skills acquisition despite inadequate funding between 2010 and 2012. The number of students enrolled in the formal education sector in Nigeria in 2010 stood at 25,754,380 which increased by 27.49% to 32,834,449 and by 15.46% to 37,911,596 in 2011 and 2012 respectively, showing an average growth rate of 24.48% for the period (NBS, 2015),

Figure 1.1: Total Formal School Student Enrolment in Nigeria 2010-2012



Source: Nigerian Formal Education Sector Report 2010-2012. National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), 2015.

As the figure 1.1 illustrates, just as the number of enrolments have increased, the number of tertiary institutions have also increased. From one University College in 1948 and few technical schools for the development of medium and high level human resource, the number of tertiary institutions in the country stood at 549 comprising of federal, state and private institutions in 2014. Table 1.2 shows the number of schools and proprietors:

Table 1.2: Institutions and promoters or Owners

INSTITUTIONS	FEDERAL	STATE	PRIVATE	TOTAL
Universities	40	39	59	138
Polytechnics	21	38	25	84
Colleges of Education	22	46	14	82
Colleges of Agriculture	17	19	-	36
Monotechnics/Specialised Institutions	23	02	02	27
College of Health Technology/Allied Institutions	09	40	01	50
Technical Colleges	19	110	03	132
Total	151	294	104	549

Source: Compiled in 2014 from the official websites of NUC, NABTE and NCCE.

With the increase in population and high demand for education and skills, the number of institutions has also risen over the years. However, while Nigerians crave for education and high level skills, the increase in number of schools has not witnessed a commensurate level of funding to ensure appropriate

development of medium and high level human resource. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) recommends that at least 26% of annual country's budget should be devoted to education. Regrettably, Nigeria is far from attaining this recommendation. This is revealed in the table 1.3 below, showing the percentage of national budgetary allocation to the Nigerian public educational system by the federal government for five years.

Table 1.3: Percentage of budgetary allocation to public education (2010- 2014)

YEAR	PERCENTAGE OF NATIONAL BUDGET
2010	7.32
2011	9.32
2012	9.86
2013	10.21
2014	10.63

Source: www.statistense.com

Considering the low percentage of budgetary allocation given to the education sector and the existence of poorly funded human capacity building institutions, how can the products of poorly funded human capacity developing institutions compete favourably within the global economy in a knowledge, technology and skills driven age? Indeed, the ripple effects of dimly low budgetary allocation to the education sector in Nigeria are: Inadequate and dilapidated physical infrastructure; insufficient and outdated instructional materials; and irregular payment of teachers' salaries culminating in low morale and attendant negative values (see Adedipe, 2013). Arguably, this scenario contributes to the skills mismatch and skills shortage experienced within the Nigerian economy and perhaps heightens the desire of government to look outwards for FDI through MNCs.

Governments have become conscious of the potential contributions of FDI to economic development. Indeed, FDI is now widely recognised as an alternative source of acquiring funds due to declining concessional aid to developing countries (Muogbo and Kayar, 2012:1). Foreign direct investments through MNCs potentially boosts the growth of a country by crowding in other investments with an overall increase in total investments, as well as hopefully creating positive 'spill-over effects' from the transfer of technology, knowledge and skills to domestic firms (Dulupçu and Demirel, 2009). It could also stimulate economic growth by spurring competition, innovation within the

economy. The indirect impacts of FDI through MNCs on the domestic economy, particularly in the area of developing local skills, are the main reasons for the intense political focus on MNCs in Nigeria and this may well account for the unprecedented levels of public subsidies, diplomatic shuttles and promotional activities to attract investors, especially after the return to democracy rule in 1999. Among the incentives are tax holidays, tariff protection, accelerated depreciation allowances and import duty relief for imported inputs (Aniekan, 2011:182).

Notwithstanding that these laudable programmes and incentives exist, and despite the fact that a large number of graduates from the universities have remained unemployed, numerous expatriates are still found within the various MNCs. In reality, local technologies are yet to be developed and the anticipated technologies are not yet transferred despite the institutional frameworks put in place to achieve this objective. These challenges persist despite several years of profitable business activities of MNCs in Nigeria. These are critical issues of concern in this paper.

The skills development discourses in Nigeria reflect the need for technology transfer, domestication of technology, skills portability or adaptability, employment generating skills and, above all, development of indigenous skills. To this extent, therefore, several questions can be raised about the activities of MNCs in Nigeria considering their several years of operation in the country. For instance, what are MNCs'

training and skills development strategies and how do they impact on indigenous Nigerians? What kinds of skills are developed? What skills do MNCs impart? What factors informed their skills programmes? Are they in line with national objectives? If not, what factors account for this? Since the Nigerian government has signed Memoranda of Understanding between certain countries, as well as bilateral and multilateral agreements, what are the activities of the various government regulatory institutions towards ensuring that the country derives maximum benefits from multinational business activities in Nigeria? These questions constitute the problematic of this paper.

3. Theoretical Framework of analysis

3.1 Human Capital Theory

The fundamental role of human capital for socio-economic transformation is well espoused in the literature (Becker, 1964; Schultz, 1961; Friedman, 1962; Sweetland, 1996; Xiao, 1999). Conceptually, the foundation of human capital is based on knowledge and skills acquired by an individual through education, vocational training or other learning activities (OECD, 2009a: 2). Human capital therefore implies investments that are made in people or that people make in themselves to improve their creative potentials or skills, empower themselves in the labour market and by extension increase productivity (Rosen, 1999). In effect, training and capacity building invested in people (employees) for better productivity are all embodiments of human capital. Frank and Bernanke (2007:355) explain that human capital is “an amalgam of factors such as education, experience, training, intelligence, energy, work habits, trustworthiness, and initiative that affect the value of a worker's marginal product”. According to Sheffrin (2003), human capital is “the stock of skills and knowledge embodied in the ability of labour to produce economic value”. To Rodriguez and Loomis (2007), human capital is “the knowledge, skills, competencies and attributes in individuals that facilitate the creation of personal, social and economic well-being”. To this extent, therefore, investment in human capital plays an important

role in a country's economic development. This assertion is corroborated by Barro's (1991) empirical evidence from 98 countries. In a study covering the period 1960-1985, Barro found a positive relationship between initial human capital and the growth rate of real per capita GDP. In essence, this means that when all other factors are controlled, countries with higher human capital may have higher economic growth. A higher level of human capital has a correlation with a nation's productivity which is considered a very important source of social and economic transformation.

In a comparative study of Western and developing countries, Todaro (1986) concluded that the economic growth and transformation of Western countries were clear indicators of their investment in the improvement in skills or human capital as the leading source of their economic growth and development. As Schultz (1992:6) asserts, competent and skilled manpower is not only important in the quest for development but empirical evidence reveals that it was the “secret” for the quick recovery of Western Europe and Japan after the devastating effects of the Second World War which almost led to the total ruin of this axis of the world. This perhaps explains the high level of Western countries' investment in education for human development. The fast-growing Asian economies such as Taiwan, Hong Kong, South Korea and Singapore are remarkable models of the vital role of human capital to economic growth and transformation. Despite the fact that these countries were not rich in natural resources and minerals, they have managed to grow faster than many other countries, because they have had high quality and highly skilled human capital (Becker, 1993). The success of the Asian Tigers through investment in human capital perhaps added momentum to the quest for skills development in Nigeria. The government has established skills development institutions to facilitate development of human capital in the country. However, the skills challenge still persists in Nigeria due to factors which could be attributable to inadequate funding and capacity development of skills development institutions, among other endogenous factors.

Bryman (2001) observes that since the 1950s, social scientists have applied the concept of human capital in different ways. Schultz (1961, 1971) assisted in streamlining the concept of human capital into two – formal education and learning, and informal learning and training – all geared towards enhancing human capital and ensuring greater productivity. Although the concept of human capital has been used in different perspectives and is subject to diverse interpretations and applications, the focus in this study is on Gary S. Becker's (1964) perspective. Becker (1992) analysed the concept of human capital within the context of the labour market, and viewed employees to be of prime importance in wealth creation, economic prosperity and the survival of society. Emphasising the core importance of human capital, Becker (1992) concludes that to discuss social and economic growth and development outside the concept of human capital would be as paradoxical as to discuss the former Soviet Union without the doctrine of Karl Marx. This emphasises the centrality of human capital to economic transformation of any country. Human capital is similar to what Marxists refer to as the infrastructure of society upon which the other superstructures rest (Marx, 1890). It serves as the foundation for societal transformation. In Nigeria, the quest for social and economic transformation has not been accelerated due to inadequate investment in the development of human capital. The effect has been the dearth of essential skills necessary for development.

More importantly, the vital role of human capital in development discourse is corroborated by Schultz (1961:1) who observes that even though it is obvious that people acquire useful skills and knowledge, many are not conscious that these skills and knowledge are a form of capital. He emphasises that this capital is a substantial part of a product of deliberate investment that has helped the growth of Western societies at a much faster rate than conventional (non-human) capital, and that its growth may well be the most distinguishing feature of the Western economic system. For developing countries, therefore, Schultz (1961:1) advocates investment in human capital as a way of enhancing the quality of human efforts for improvement in productivity.

According to Schultz (1961:2), for a long time economists have known that people are an important part of the wealth of nations which is measured by what labour contributes to output: the productive capacity of human beings is now vastly larger than all other forms of wealth taken together. Labourers, he asserts, have been transformed into owners of capital not from a diffusion of ownership of corporation stocks, but from the acquisition of knowledge and skills that have economic value. This knowledge and skills, in great part, is the product of human investment and accounts predominantly for the productive superiority of technically advanced countries.

Both Becker (1964) and Schultz (1961) agree that investment in education, training and skills development generate externalities for firms and conclude that it remains the most distinguishing feature of the modern economic system. Without training and improvement in skills, there would only be manual work and many, except for those who have inherited property, would be poor. As Schultz (1960:16) asserts "the man without skills and knowledge is leaning terrifically against nothing". Becker (1962:11) notes also that many workers increase their productivity by learning new skills and perfecting old ones while on the job. For instance, the apprentice usually learns a completely new skill while the intern develops skills acquired in school, but both are more productive afterwards. On-the-job training, therefore, is a process that raises future productivity (Becker, 1964:21). Skills acquisition is another form of job security, and Becker (1964) observes that employees with specific training have less incentive to quit, and firms have less incentive to retrench them, than employees without specific skills or general training, which implies that quit and layoff rates are directly related to the level of training and skills acquired.

In essence, acquisition of skills has multiplier effects on the trained employees beyond efficiency on the job. On the flip side, lack of skills portends grave consequences for the society. This arguably, accounts for poverty, unemployment and associated criminal activities in the Nigerian society such as the Niger Delta.

The Boko Haram Terrorism ravaging the North East of the country that is accredited to be the poorest region in Nigeria could also be the aftermath of lack of skills, unemployment and poverty. Development of skills especially of the youth might be a sustainable approach to a lasting peace necessary for development in Nigeria. Human capital is seen by Ghalandarzahi and Safdarie (2012:164) as a prerequisite for development because the extent of growth and rate of development depends on the quality and quantity of an efficient workforce. Human capital provides potential and a springboard for change and improvement, optimises the use of physical and tangible capital, increases the efficiency of production, and accelerates the rate of economic growth (Ghalandarzahi and Safdarie, 2012:164).

It could thus be deduced that the most important factor for growth and development of any country is an educated, well-trained and skilled labour force which is used according to the needs of each country and the global community through migration. The modern knowledge-driven society has shown that wealth of each nation goes beyond underground mineral sources, mining or financial investment. Wealth now emanates through each nation's share of knowledge that has become the 'global currency'. Thus, developing countries such as Nigeria have to key into this development paradigm in order to achieve the needed transformation through identification of talents of human capital for optimum use and development. A nation's educational system has a significant role to play towards the realisation of this objective. In addition, it is important to produce new knowledge and technology or transfer it from developed countries and to learn how to use the new technology in different areas. These account for liberal incentives by developing countries like Nigeria to attract FDI through the MNCs to facilitate development of skills that will aid technology transfer, domiciliation and domestication. Developed and skilled manpower can reduce technological gap and reduce comparative costs. In other words, knowledge and skills are key factors in economic growth. Therefore, developing

countries need to devote a considerable share of resources annually on educating their citizens.

Human capital is regarded as an essential part of the infrastructure of all economies and a source of permanent development of all countries (Ghalandarzahi and Safdarie, 2012:171). As can be inferred from the foregoing analysis, for instance, MNCs are very much aware of the importance of the human capital, they offer relatively good salaries and allowances to their employees in order to retain them and invest enormously in their training, skills development and capacity building, which enable these companies to maintain a competitive advantage. In sum, the human capital theory is useful in providing explanations of why and how MNCs train their employees and develop their skills for more advantage to the organisation. In Nigeria, the numerous MNCs operating in Nigeria have the potential that could facilitate training and skills development which Nigerians and by extension Nigeria could tap to aid national development aspirations if the enabling institutional framework is provided. This argument reiterates the fact that purposeful leadership with the required political will is essential in achieving this objective.

The Human Capital Theory is useful because of its strength in analysing issues on training and skills development in the socio-economic transformation of any country. In this study, human capital theory is useful as an analytical tool for understanding Nigeria's skills situation as well as efforts of the government to address the skills challenge through the establishment of the skills development institutions. Moreover, conscious of the importance of skills, organised private sector and other stakeholders in the Nigerian economy have also been enabled through appropriate legislation to establish skills development institutions to facilitate human capital development in the country. However, the theory does not interrogate the type of training and skills development imparted on employees in the host countries of MNCs. This fundamental underlying agenda impact on skills development and human capital formation in host countries and remains a challenge for socio-

economic transformation especially in the developing world.

4. Methodology

This paper is an extract from a longer study that examined the training and skills development programmes and strategies in the Nigerian multinational corporate sector. The study enables the paper to reflect on the question of whether the MNCs' skills development programmes are relevant to the employees' empowerment and job creation in the event of employees' downsizing, rationalizing or rightsizing as the case may be. The empirical data used in the paper were obtained using a qualitative research methodology and were collected over a five-month period (February and June, 2013).

Primary data were collected by means of key informant interviews and in-depth semi-structured interviews. A review of the relevant literature also provided useful secondary data. Five Key informant interviews were held with relevant officials in the office of the Federal Ministry of Labour and Productivity, and Centre for Management Development. The key informants provided information on the federal government's skills development aspirations and agenda. Furthermore, a number of in-depth interviews were held with a purposive sample of shop stewards union officials in the selected multinational companies.

The three multinational companies that served as case studies were purposively selected. They are: Lafarge Cement Wapco Nigeria Plc, the pioneer and leading cement producer; Unilever Nigeria Plc has been a leading producer of household care products since the colonial times and; MTN Nigeria is the pioneer and biggest mobile telecommunication network in Nigeria. Besides, each of the companies has a large labour force and remains very attractive to job seekers. Research participants in these organisations, apart from the union members, were senior officials whose responsibilities were central to skills development and utilisation within the companies.

For the purposes of this paper, the skills development establishments, the multinational companies, and organised labour constitute different "discourse constituencies" vis-à-vis skills development and human capital formation. The Federal Ministry of Labour and Productivity and the Centre for Management Development are vital government agencies through which skills development programmes and strategies in Nigeria are articulated. They serve as a platform for the enactment of the policy framework within which the other discourse constituencies operate, or are expected to operate. In other words, the environment created helps the multinational companies to do business, while organised labour provides the manpower to make these organisations function. It should be noted that the multinational corporate sector is only a subset of the broader organised private sector in the country.

Interviews conducted in the national skills agencies were aimed at ascertaining their involvement, if any, in multinationals' skills development programmes. The objective was to ascertain how the dominant human capital discourses in the different "constituencies" intersect with the trainings and skills development programmes of the MNCs in Nigeria. While the data analysis focused on a number of important themes, such as: skills for empowerment; skills for employment and job mobility (portability of skills); and skills for entrepreneurship among others, the focus of the analysis in this paper is on skills for empowerment and employment generation.

5. Findings

5.1 Skills development for empowerment and employment generation in Nigeria - State aspiration and focus

There is increasing recognition that citizen empowerment has implications on economic development and poverty alleviation which are issues of serious concern to the Nigerian government, organisations and individuals (Anyadike et al., 2012). With high levels of unemployment, especially among the youth, it has become an issue of serious concern for

government for people to have skills that not only empowers them economically, but also for entrepreneurship development and employment generation such that the people with skills can create jobs and become employers rather than job seekers (Anyadike et al., 2012; see also Siyanbola, et al 2012). This aspiration to develop skills for empowerment and employment generation informed the introduction of a “6:3:3:4” system of education in 1982. This was a system in which a learner received six years of schooling at the primary level, three years at junior secondary, three years at senior secondary, and four years at university level. However, the educational policy failed to achieve the desired objective before it was scrapped in 2010 due to inadequate funding, shortage of technical teachers, inadequate infrastructure among others (Paul-Sewa, 2012). Nevertheless, the government has not relented in the pursuit of empowerment and employment generation programmes. A senior official of the Federal Ministry of Employment and Productivity underscored the same point during the interview:

The idea of establishing the various industrial skills centres in different parts of the country is to create wider avenues for many Nigerians to acquire vocational skills, craft or trades to empower themselves and make them productive. Gone are the days when government has to provide jobs. A person trained in carpentry, autotronics, auto-mechanics, automobile repairs or plumbing is competent to set up his own business and even employ others. The craft centres are also into training hair dressers and tie and dye making which last for about three months after which the trainees get into business. Abeokuta is known for tie and dye business; if you quantify how much they are making from the business in a year, if we can get the statistics, you will be shocked to find out that most of them over there doing tie and dye are not poor.

A similar line of thinking was picked up at the ITF during an interview with a senior official:

Through the training at the industrial skills centres, the trainees are empowered. Not only

that, the Centre in collaboration with the Nigerian Employers’ Consultative Association (NECA) has a programme known as ‘Start Your Own Business Plan’. Under this programme, the trainees will be required to write their own business plans. These plans will be scrutinised and the trainees with the business plans that are considered viable are supported with the basic requirements to start their own businesses. In this way, it is not only imparting skills for empowerment but also assisting the trainees to be self-employed and even generating employment for others, possibly.

The theme of empowerment, entrepreneurship and employability was also evident in the response of an official of the Federal Ministry of Trade and Investment who earlier spoke about digital set-top boxes: “Part of the contract for the digitalisation of communication would be to manufacture the digital boxes locally and train Nigerians on the installation and repair of these digital boxes”.

The approach of the Federal Ministry of Trade and Investment, as the senior official informed the researcher, would undoubtedly lead to empowerment, income generation and employment generation within the country with multiplier effects on the wider society. The officials from the government establishments were essentially highlighting government’s interest in ensuring that Nigerians are trained and empowered to be self-sustaining and generating employment.

5.2 Skills development in Nigeria for empowerment and employment generation: Aspirations of the Organised Labour

For organised labour, skills development for empowerment and employment generation was equally an important issue in the human capital formation discourse in Nigeria. According to interviewees in this ‘discourse constituency’, in the phase of high population, it was becoming increasingly clear that government alone could not provide jobs for the teeming population, hence there was an urgent need to coordinate the efforts of all institutions concerned with developing skills, to empower Nigerians so that

they could generate wealth and become employers rather than remain job seekers. The labour movements viewed the MNCs as harbingers of skills whose potential could be garnered for the realisation of this objective, in an enabling environment and within a functional institutional framework. A senior official of the NLC further elaborated:

Well, developing skills of employees has many benefits to all – the company, the employees and most especially the Nigerian state. The problem is the right political, legal and economic environment to get things done. So many opportunities are open for a skilled person – he has the enablement to get a new and better job; he can negotiate employment terms and conditions better because of his skills and acquired expertise; he values himself more and he is respected and highly prized in the labour market. Then, if the skill is something he could utilise on his own, he can decide to be an entrepreneur by setting up his own business venture. For instance, paint production in this country, paint is the cheapest thing people produce even in their homes today. In those days, we used to hear of Berger Paints, President Paints, but the situation has changed; paints are everywhere now with different names that you can ever imagine today. What happened? In the Sango Ota axis, where you have many companies like Gin Distilleries Company, we had many of them then; during the economic crunch, most of these companies closed down and all of them went into their various rooms and started producing. So what you just need is to get the chemicals, you know the processing formula with which to mix them together and you start producing. Many People are now producing paints of different brands. Painters produce paints for their use at work. So, what it then means is that you are well off even if the company collapses. You get a better job; you tell them that you can do it; and if you are tested and you can actually do it, you become an entrepreneur and even employ others.

A senior official of the TUC suggested that MNCs could develop the skills of the local employees even as these companies were concerned primarily with profit making:

I am not against multinationals making profit, but I also expect that as they make their profits, they also have the moral and legal responsibility to impact on the lives of the people most especially those who help them to generate their profits. Something that will make their lives permanently better, for instance, good skills. Well, that is under a normal setting where the institutions are strong. This is a major challenge that is faced by the labour organisations but we are engaging all the stakeholders so that the companies do not just use our people, dump them and relocate to another place. I know some multinationals have been able to train people and that have also enabled them to move out of poverty level. I know people who are technicians and artisans as a result of the skills they were able to acquire through working for multinational companies and this has changed their live-styles. You know, ordinarily, they may not be paid like the expatriates, but of course, their salaries are better than they used to be and of course they could as well move to some other companies. And so, that has helped their lives. But what I am talking about is: how many? What is the percentage of the multinationals that are doing this? There are some that are doing that. I will also say I am a beneficiary of some of those skills while I also worked with them (multinationals companies). You know, that has also changed my life and the lives of those around. It has also affected my family, because we live well. In Nigeria now, ‘Abc’ family, we live well.

Key issues which could be gleaned from the responses of the various interviewees on the issue of skills development vis-à-vis empowerment, entrepreneurship development, and employment generation revolve around the following issues: the need for various government and private institutions concerned with skills development to be strengthened to achieve this purpose; the need for effective coordination of programmes on skills development; the role of MNCs in developing skills; and the need to harness the skills development potential of MNCs through appropriate institutional and policy frameworks. It was important to also listen to the views of

respondents in the MNC sector, as it represented a distinct ‘discourse constituency’.

5.3 Skills development in Nigeria for empowerment and employment generation: Lessons from the MNCs’

For the MNCs, skills development and training of employees was an important objective and critical to the functioning of the companies. It was a significant part of corporate citizenship. The MNCs claimed enormous involvement and credit for developing skills of their employees. A manager in Lafarge Cement Wapco pointed out:

Here in Lafarge, our workers are multi-skilled as they work in different sections of the factory and that is how uninterrupted production is ensured. And beyond the company, some of these skills could be put into practice at micro level. An electrical technician can still work in small scale organisations as a consultant or set up his own technical services. Many are also encouraged to join the organisation in marketing our products which they have been doing. Indeed knowledge acquired from the training school is very relevant beyond Lafarge.

Lafarge’s idea of empowerment echoed that of Unilever, which, according to one Manager, went thus:

In the Nigerian environment, Unilever is called a training school because of the high number of people that have passed through the company to other companies. For example, I know of a man that worked here before and he had to leave; but I don’t know the circumstance that led him to leave the company; he started his own small manufacturing company and he produces some of our products for us. So, we contracted part of our own arm of production to him; he produces some of our own products. So, for example, if we can’t meet market demand, we contract him to supplement. Apart from that, the skills acquired in Unilever, as I have given you an example, if put together by an individual, that individual can actually stand on his/her own and become an entrepreneur. You work in the factory and you know the process of soap

making and all, you can work on your own. You can be a small scale manufacturer, which is what many are.

The managerial official of MTN indicated the type of empowerment which the company had engendered in Nigeria. He stated that:

Quite a number of people who have worked in the company, having obtained knowledge and skills about the workings of the company have left to start their own businesses of becoming service providers to end users. They operate as individual outlets of MTN especially in the marketing of MTN products and services. That is why we have the slogan “everywhere you go”. We have empowered people directly and indirectly throughout the nook and crannies of Nigeria, generating income and providing jobs.

The discourse among the MNCs painted the picture of a multinational corporate sector that places a high premium on training and skills development agenda and that encouraged entrepreneurship and employment generation in Nigeria.

6. Discussion and Conclusion

The respondents in the three identified discourse constituencies (state, organised labour and MNCs) were unanimous on the importance of developing skills that will empower and facilitate employment generation or self-employment as the case may be. However, theory and practice most often are not the same as the pursuit of common aspiration of self-employment generation might not be with the same zeal due to individual corporate objectives. While the state established a number of institutions to facilitate development of skills for employment generation, are these skills development centres well-staffed and adequately equipped to actualise the state aspirations in this respect judging by the paltry less than 10% allocation to education despite increase in population and against the UNESCO recommendation of 26% budgetary recommendation?

In addition, the organised labour has also chided the government on its inability to ensure

adequate and realistic formulation of policies as well as ineffectiveness in the implementation of laudable ideas especially in relation to the operations of MNCs in the country. This lapse culminates in the companies doing just what they like contrary to what they publicly proclaim. Bakan (2004) cautions that MNCs will do just what they feel like doing in order to maximise profit and secure corporate interest. For instance, an interviewee from Lafarge (one of the companies where the study was conducted) spoke about rotation of employees in different units of production which make them multi-skilled and thus ensure uninterrupted production. The question to ask is: Will such an organisational policy calculated to ensure uninterrupted production facilitate specialisation and professionalisation of vocational and technical skills of employees such that they could be self-employed or generate employment in this age of specialisation? In addition, Unilever's policy of sub-contracting employees after productive live with the company may not really facilitate employment generation per say as the company keeps such employees with potentials for employment generation within its fold. All these are pointers to what the MNCs proclaim and what are subtly practised as revealed by the respondents. Realising this aspiration of self-employment and employment generation would therefore require the concerted efforts of the government to ensure that agreements, rules and operational procedure are adhered to. Otherwise, MNCs will continue to make their profits without the necessary spill-over effect of developing employees' skills that will make them self-employed, not to talk of generating employment for others.

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Unemployment: A Menace to National Economy

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Abstract. The rate at which unemployment in Nigeria increases in this 21st century is alarming. The rates keep on increasing with less effort to cushion the effects on the part of all. Hence, this paper examines the menace of unemployment on the national economy and its social implications. The study employed a descriptive survey research design. The population of the study comprised of all unemployed Nigerian graduates in all the six states of southwest geo-political zones of Nigeria Tertiary Institutions, namely: Ekiti, Lagos, Ogun, Ondo, Osun and Oyo states. A Uniform number of one hundred and eighty (180) respondents were selected from the three strata of the population namely the University, Polytechnics and colleges of education unemployed graduates using reasonable stratified random sampling technique. Each stratum having a number of one hundred and eighty (180) respondents gave a total of five hundred and forty (540) respondents for this study. Questionnaire was the research tool used for this study. Two Research questions were generated for the study. A structured questionnaire based on 4-point Likert-type rating scale was used to gather data from the respondents. The research questions were analyzed with mean ratings and standard deviation. Findings revealed that unemployment has a great effect on national economy. The study therefore, recommends urgent intervention of all stake holders in the sensitive sectors of the economy.

Keywords: Unemployment; National-Economic;

1. Introduction

Nigeria is endowed with diverse and infinite resources, both human and material. However, years of neglect, negligence and adverse policies have led to the under-utilization of these resources. These resources have not been effectively utilized in order to yield maximum economic benefits and this has become one of the primary causes of unemployment and poverty in Nigeria. Unemployment is a hot issue in Nigeria, and many people are frustrated with widespread joblessness; it is a problem that is yet to get a solution. Students at tertiary educational institutions often graduate into joblessness and this situation is one of the major root causes of social vices among youths in Nigeria. International labour organization (2009) defined unemployment as a state of joblessness which occurs when people are without job and they have actively sought work within the past for the five weeks. Jhingan (2001) posited that unemployment can be conceived as the number of people who are unemployed in an economy of given as a percentage of the labour force.

Unemployment denotes a condition of joblessness or lack of employment. In other words, anyone who is fit and available to work but fails to get one may be considered as being unemployed for the concerned period. A person is to be considered unemployed if he/she is without work, i.e., not in paid employment or self-employment as specified by the international definition and or seeking work, i.e., had taken specific steps in a specified recent

period to seek paid employment or self-employment. Unemployment is therefore an economic condition where an individual or individuals seeking jobs cannot manage to get themselves economically employed. Olotu, Salami and Akeremale (2015) in Ajakaye, Afeikhena, David, and Olufunke (2016) view

the phenomenon as a result of an inability to fully utilize available factors of production. The study on Nigeria argues that jobless growth is increasing as a result of the very high number of graduates produced every year, and the country's incapacity to absorb them.

1.1 Nigeria Unemployment Rate

The unemployment rate across Nigeria has been very high since the beginning of this century. Unemployment rate in Nigeria increased to 23.10 per cent in the third quarter of 2018 from 22.70 per cent in the second quarter of 2018. Unemployment rate in Nigeria averaged 12.31 per cent from 2016 until 2018, reaching an all time high of 23.10 per cent in the third quarter of 2018 and a record low of 5.10 per cent in the fourth quarter of 2010.



SOURCE: TRADINGECONOMICS.COM | NATIONAL BUREAU OF STATISTICS, NIGERIA

1.2 Causes of Unemployment

Many university, polytechnic, and colleges of education graduates are all over the streets, looking for white collar jobs which no longer exist. Nigeria, which is the biggest black nation in the world, ought to have a very strong economy capable of employing almost all employable citizens. But unfortunately, the unemployment rate in Nigeria is alarming, and below are 5 of the causes of unemployment in the country.

1.2.1 Epileptic Electric Power Supply

Lack of regular electric power supply is the biggest cause of unemployment in

Nigeria. Talking of how lack of electricity has caused unemployment in Nigeria, the matter is multi-faceted.

Many foreign companies that would have come to invest in this country (considering the big marketing vista in Nigeria) and which would have provided many employment opportunities to Nigerians to reduced unemployment, have changed direction to other neighbouring countries with constant electricity supply in order to avoid operating at loss with 24-hours running of generators (which) is now becoming the tradition in Nigeria.

The same problem has affected many local companies which could not cope with the high

cost of running electric plants/generators all the time, and were thus forced to fold up and throw their employees into the labour market.

1.2.2 Poor Quality of Education

There is a great challenge in Nigeria educational system. Many Nigerian graduates did not learn good skills during their studies. They were made to be busy with theories without knowing the applications of what they read. Many graduates come out of the school with little or nothing to contribute to the society. According to the National Bureau of Statistics, more than 200,000 students graduate from Nigerian institutions every year, but only very few can secure employment after years of graduation because they could not meet up with the world of work probably because of the quality of education they received.

1.2.3 Corruption

Corruption can be defined as immoral action which could involve bribery, embezzlement or misappropriation of public funds for personal use. A corrupt government can be said to be a government which makes use of public funds for their (the government officials') personal and selfish use.

Corruption is a cause of unemployment Nigeria because when those in government who are to use public money for building more industries are busy embezzling the funds for their selfish use, the result is massive increase in unemployment rate.

1.2.4 Non availability of vibrant industries to absorb graduates

This obstacle is caused by an infrastructural deficit and a debilitating structural adjustment program (SAP) implemented by Nigeria in the 1980s, which led to the closure of many industries and from which the country is yet to fully recover.

1.2.5 Inadequate Information

As reported by Asaju et al., (2014) and Iwayemi, (2014), employment data are very hard to obtain,

even from statutory institutions and agencies established for gathering socio-economic data. Where unemployment registers exist at all, they are limited to urban areas, and, in fact, not all those searching for employment attempt to register.

1.2.6 Non-acquisition of practical skill by the students

For many years now, most Nigerian youths have disdained acquisition of skills, thinking that the time spent on acquisition of skill, through entrepreneurship programme in the school is a waste of time, money and instead, they opt for white-collar jobs and easy ways of making money. With such mentality, such graduates will grow into middle or senior age without acquiring any skill to fall back to thus becoming liabilities to themselves and others.

2. Statement of the Problem

When someone loses a job, a family is affected. When many people lose their jobs, eventually the whole nation is affected. Workers lose income, while the country loses production and consumer spending. With such a strong impact, the unemployment rate is a key way to measure the state of the economy.

The claim that Nigeria is endowed with huge human and material resources is at variance with the rising acute unemployment, and under-employment challenges that confront the country. While there are various factors attributed to this intractable development, observers have continued to point at poor leadership, lack of vision, corruption, and mismanagement of resources as key factors. Young graduates are being abused on daily basis, especially the women folks who are forced in to all kinds of exploitation in the name of getting them jobs, which they hardly get not even after they have fulfilled their own side of the bargain; the jobs are simply not there for a growing economy that is battling to survive, yet turning out graduates in hundreds of thousand annually. The government has not been able to meet with the demands and yet to put in place policies that will enhance job creation or a conducive environment that will lessen the

hardship of the teeming youths roaming the streets. The enormity of the psychological impact of such frustrations by young graduates and loss to the Nigerian economy as a whole is appalling. These challenges have given rise to youth restiveness and other social vices in the country and discouraging foreign investment.

3. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research work is mainly to investigate **‘UNEMPLOYMENT: A MENACE TO NATIONAL ECONOMY’**. Specifically, the study sought to:

- find out the effect of Nigerian Graduates Unemployment to the Nigerian Economic situation
- determine whether employability skills possessed by graduates’ influences Job creation or business initiatives

4. Research Questions

- Of what effect is Nigerian Graduates’ Unemployment to the Nigerian Economic situation?
- Will employability skills possessed by graduates’ influence employment generation for economy improvement?

5. Significance of the Study

The study would provide greater insight into the degree of adverse effects of persistent unemployment syndrome in Nigeria and give clearer direction on the necessary steps to avert or eradicate the menace to a minimum level.

7. Data Interpretation

Research Question 1: Of what effect is Nigerian Graduates’ Unemployment to the Nigerian Economic situation?

Table 1: Mean response of the effects of Nigerian Graduates Unemployment to the Nigerian Economic Situation

S/N	Items	A	A		D	ean	D	Remark
1	ower standard of living	63	14	9	0	387	707	Agreed
2	Wastage of available human resources	96	47	1	2	.344	886	Agreed
3	Causes brain drain of young graduates	69	21	92	4	.789	989	Agreed
4	Brings about social vices	72	41	9	4	.256	896	Agreed

6. Methodology

The research design adopted for this study is the descriptive survey research design.

The target population of this study consisted of all unemployed Nigerian graduates in all the six states of southwest geo-political zones of Nigeria, namely: Ekiti, Lagos, Ogun, Ondo, Osun and Oyo states. Random sampling technique was used for the study.

A Uniform number of one hundred and eighty (180) respondents were selected from the three strata of the population namely the University, Polytechnics and colleges of education unemployed graduates using reasonable stratified random sampling technique. Each stratum having a number of one hundred and eighty (180) respondents gave a total of five hundred and forty (540) respondents for this study. Questionnaire was the research tool used for this study. The researchers designed the questionnaire on the basis of the earlier formed research questions for the study. The questionnaire was divided into two sections namely A and B. Section A requested for the demographic data of the respondents while Sections B of the questionnaire consisted of items that addressed the phenomena under investigation and was rated on a four-point Likert Rating Scale of Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A) Disagree (D) and Strongly disagree (SD). The data collected for this study based on the earlier formed two (2) research questions were analyzed using descriptive statistics of mean, standard deviation and Chi-square at 0.05 level of significance.

Table 2 revealed the means and standard deviation responses of the respondents’ opinion on the effects of Nigerian Graduates’ Unemployment to the Nigerian Economic Situation. The Table illustrated that all items (1-4) are with mean score above 2.50 cut off point. From their responses, it could be deduced that majority of the respondents believed that unemployment will lower standard of living (3.387), causes wastage of human resources (3.344), brain drain (2.789) and bring about social vices (3.256). However, lower standard of living was highly rated as the major factor with a mean score of 3.387 and standard deviation of 0.707.

Table 2: Chi-Square value of the effects of Nigerian Graduates’ Unemployment to the Nigerian Economic situation?

	alue	f	symp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.473E2 ^a		.000
Likelihood Ratio	37.782		.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	8.748		.000
N of Valid Cases	104		

Table 3 presents the result of chi-square test on the effects of economic recession on employment situations. Chi-square value obtained in the test was significant because the p-value is greater than 0.05 ($\chi^2 = 2.473$, $P < 0.05$). It can therefore be concluded that Unemployment has significant effects on the country’s economic situation.

Research Question 2: Will employability skills possessed by graduates’ influences Job creation/employment for economy improvement?

Table 3: mean response of the influence of employability skills on job creation/employment for economy improvement

S/N	Items	SA	A	D	SD	Mean	SD	Remark
1	Provides commercial awareness	143	266	66	51	2.952	.885	Agreed
2	Provides communication skills	108	229	109	80	2.693	.963	Agreed
3	Provides leadership potentials	220	248	49	9	3.290	.704	Agreed
4	Provides organizational skills	220	198	65	43	3.131	.923	Agreed
5	Provides perseverance and motivation	136	237	114	39	2.893	.872	Agreed
6	Ability to work under pressure	124	234	108	60	2.802	.927	Agreed
7	Allows building of self-confidence	216	278	32	0	3.349	.591	Agreed
8	Provides problem-solving ability	250	232	40	4	3.384	.659	Agreed

Table 4 revealed the means and standard deviation responses of the respondents’ opinion on the influence of employability skills on job creation. The Table illustrated that all the 8 items (1-8) are with mean score above 2.50 cut off point. From their responses, it could be deduced that majority of the respondents believed that employability skills possessed will provide commercial awareness (2.952), communication skills (2.693), leadership potentials (3.290), organizational skills (3.131), perseverance and motivation (2.893), ability to work under pressure (2.802), building of self-confidence (3.349) and problem-solving ability (3.384). However, lower problem-solving ability was highly rated as the major factor with a mean score of 3.387 and standard deviation of 0.707. To determine the significance influence of employability skills on job creation/employment, the values above were subjected to chi-square analysis as shown in Table 5.

Table 4: Chi-Square value of the influence of employability skills on job creation/employment

	Value	f	symp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.043E2 ^a	1	.000
Likelihood Ratio	52.732	1	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	8.995		.000
N of Valid Cases	208		

Table 4 presents the result of chi-square test on the influence of employability skills on job creation. Chi-square value obtained in the test was significant because the p-value is greater than 0.05 ($\chi^2 = 4.043$, $P < 0.05$). It can therefore be concluded that employability skills have significant effects on job creation/employment.

8. Discussions of Findings

Unemployment as a menace has become so serious to the extent that many homes now bear the brunt. In the course of this study, however, summarized findings are discussed in relation to other similar works.

Findings of the Research Question1 which examined the significant effect of Nigerian Graduates’ Unemployment to the Nigerian Economic Situation showed that unemployment will lower standard of living, cause unemployment, bring about brain drain and social vices. Corroborating this finding, Asaju et al (2014) in his research study on the rising rate of unemployment in Nigeria: the socio-economic and political implications revealed that unemployment situation in Nigeria has eventually become a cankerworm creating

headache both for government and the people as more than 95% of our graduates roam the streets without an iota of light at the end of the tunnel.

Finding on Research Question 2 on the influence of employability skills possessed by graduates on job creation revealed that employability skills provide commercial awareness, communication skill and above all, problem solving ability. This finding is in line with Greatbalt and Lewis (2017) who stated that the labour market is intensively competitive and that employers in private, public and the third sector are looking for people who are flexible, take the initiative and have the ability to undertake a variety of tasks in different organization.

9. Conclusions

No doubt, many efforts have been geared towards the reduction of unemployment menace in the country but these efforts have proved to be ineffective due to some lapses in the implementation of the policies. The study established the fact that economic situation of any nation is closely associated with unemployment which invariably brings about

lower standard of living, brain drains and social vices. It is expedient on the part of the government to be dispassionate on policies' implementations. In the same vein, education is expected to give an all-round development to the child to make the child useful to him or herself as well as the society where he lives.

10. Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations are hereby proffered:

Government Policy

There is need for government to formulate policies tailored towards developing the informal sector of the economy so as to ensure entrepreneurship development which may likely reduce unemployment and improve the welfare and living standards of people.

Encouragement and Empowerment Creativity and Self-Discovery

There are many creative youths in Nigeria but the problem is that they do not know they are creative. When seminars are organized for the youths on what is built in them that they have not discovered, those inbuilt talents in them will "erupt". The seminars are to be sponsored by either governments or citizens that are up-and-doing or even both. The creative attitude in many Nigerians can be developed through mentoring. People especially the youths should have mentors who will direct them in certain things about life.

Seminars on Change of Mindset

All graduates should disabuse their minds of the availability of white-collar jobs in the country. There are no more office jobs for graduates except graduates that can start something with their intellectual initiatives. There are a lot of people in tertiary institutions that are not versatile, and they have the mindset that the only place they will work are in offices that are furnished with air-conditions and other good things that help life. Others have the mindset that the places they will work are those that only

relates to the area of their study. When the mindsets of many are changed through seminars to acquire some other important skills apart from their area of specialization, the unemployment rate in my country, Nigeria, will be reduced.

Skill Acquisition:

Graduates while in school, should develop interest in one or two skills and look seek for more training from artisans who have practical and theoretical knowledge in the profession.

Parental Guidance:

Parents should watch and encourage special interests exhibited by their children during childhood and have positive attitude towards entrepreneurial development of their children.

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Modernization Theory and African Development in the 21st Century

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Abstract. The issue of development in Africa has called for the interrogation and explication of development theories to be able to explore and situate properly the nature and condition of African development in the 21st century. Continents like Asia and Latin America who were at one point or the other at the same level of development with Africa have overtaken the continent. The dependency theory is of the view that African underdevelopment is traceable to its contact with other continents like North American and Europe in the form of slave trade, imperialism, colonialism and neocolonialism. While these factors cannot be completely ignored as responsible for Africa's underdevelopment, this paper thinks differently in the sense that in the 21st century, the above mentioned factors can no longer be tenable as factors responsible for the underdevelopment of Africa. It is against this backdrop that the modernization theory is interrogated to find out its utility in understanding African development. Data for the study were obtained through secondary means which include textbooks, journals, magazines and newspapers. Historical and analytical methods were adopted as the analytical tools for the study and also the political economy theory was adopted as the theoretical framework. This paper found out that there are many internal factors in Africa that hinder her development. This paper recommends amongst others that there should be effective

leadership in Africa and also efforts should be made to fight corruption and adhere to the principles of rule of law.

Keywords: Development, Underdevelopment, Colonialism, Neo-colonialism, Imperialism.

1. Introduction

The issue of development in Africa in the 21st century has become a source of major concern not just for Africans but the rest of the world. This becomes necessary because of the interconnectedness of the countries of the world in this era of increased globalization to the extent that what happens in one part of the world one way or the other affects the rest of the world. This explains why Offiong cited in Oddih (2009:190) defined globalization as the "aggravation of global interconnectedness". It is very obvious that issues of terrorism, HIV/AIDS, Ebola virus infection, democracy, human rights, etc., have become worldwide phenomena and of global concern. While European countries, America, and Asian countries have been working so hard to make life of their citizens much better by investing heavily in education, health, agriculture, technology, etc., same cannot be said of most African countries.

In the 21st century, Africa still lags behind in virtually all indices of development. This situation has made it difficult if not impossible for most African countries to be given the needed attention, recognition and respect in the comity of nations. This condition also invariably contributes further to the underdevelopment of Africa. That Africa is underdeveloped or developing is not in doubt, the cause of Africa's underdevelopment is what has generated intense debate between the dependency and modernization schools of thought. The dependency school of thought is of the view that the underdevelopment of Africa was caused by Africa's contact with Europe and America through slave trade, imperialism, colonialism and new-colonialism. The major proponents of this perspective are Andre Gunder Frank (1976, 1981) Samir Amin (1976), Rodney (1972), Ake (1981), and Offiong (1980). According to Dos Santos (1970) cited in Jack etal (2016:206), dependency is:

“an historical condition which shapes certain structure of the world economy such that it favours some countries to the detriment of others and limits the development possibilities of the subordinate economies.....a situation in which the economy of a certain group of countries is conditioned by the development and expansion of another economy, to which either their own is subjected”.

In a similar vein, Ezeibe (2015:255) opines that *“majority of the literature on development argues that Africa's underdevelopment is caused by European colonization. Hence, the integration of the African economy into global capitalism driven by Adam Smith's free market ideology created the framework for the exploitations and exploration of Africa and their resources”.*

To the modernization school, the underdevelopment of Africa is as a result of factors inherent in Africa. This school is of the view that Africans underdeveloped Africa. This paper seeks to interrogate modernization theory with a view to using it as a point of departure for understanding African development in the 21st century.

2. Conceptual Clarification

At this juncture, attempt would be made to clarify certain concepts in this paper. This becomes necessary in order to have a lucid understanding of the subject matter. In this vein, the concepts to be so clarified are “modernization theory” and “development”.

As we have noted earlier, modernization theory is one of the theories of development which is useful in the explanation of African development in the 21st century as well as how development can be achieved in Africa. According to Ekpe (2013:31), “the first classical economic development theory that emerged from the ruins of World War II was the modernization theory”. According to Offiong (1980:14), “those who espouse the theory of modernization can be identified by their almost tenacious addiction to the concept of ‘modern’ and its permutations and by categories such as ‘institutional differentiation’, ‘development’, ‘nation-building’, ‘economic growth’, ‘advanced industrial societies’, ‘westernized’, ‘backward’, ‘primitive’, ‘tribal’, ‘detribalized’, and many more”.

The major point of departure of the modernization theory is that the factors that either promote or hinder development are present in the countries in question and this means that the modernization theory does not believe that external forces are responsible for the underdevelopment of Africa. Modernization theory can be said to be an eye opener to the effect that for Africa to develop it has to look inward and put serious effort to achieve development instead of expecting Europe and America to help them to develop. According to Naanen (2015:61), “the assumptions of neo-classical development analysts that was prevalent at the time was that lack of economic development in much of the non-western world was attributable to the continuous dominance of traditional structures and attitudes which hindered the penetration of market forces that are so critical to economic development. These countries were poor because of the inadequate development of the market, lack of savings and investment, scarcity of entrepreneurial capacity

and the prevalence of attitudes which emphasized consumption and redistribution instead of thrift, investment and production". This view represents the position of the modernization theory which believes that the underdevelopment of Africa and indeed the rest of the third world countries is a result of internal factors and that the only way they can develop is to understand and follow the footsteps of the developed countries. According to Tipps (1976), "Western Europe and the United States are seen as the models of development and if the other parts of the world that are traditional, local, backward and underdeveloped must develop, they must follow the footsteps of the west." This explains why Ezeibe (2016:243) opines that "modernization therefore refers to the process of Europeanization or Americanization".

The major theorists of modernization are Walt Whitman Rostow, David McClelland, Everett Hagen- status withdrawal, B.F. Hoselitz- assignment and reward and Piero Gheddo- the four revolutions (differences in wealth of nation equate difference in experience of nations with major revolutions). Rostow (1960) in his book "stages of economic growth" identified five stages of economic growth which are- traditional society, pre-condition for take-off, the take-off stage, the drive to maturity, and high mass consumption society. According to Offiong cited in Ezeibe (2016:245), "Rostow argued that traditional societies have pre-Newtonian science and technology. Such societies are Peasant based, custom bound, hierarchical, authoritarian and unproductive. Pre-condition for take-off witnessed the emergence of new elites who consider economic modernization as desirable and possible. These new elites were also willing to mobilized savings and take economic risks. This leads to rise in capital accumulation. At the take-off stage, resistance to steady growth is destroyed and growth becomes an integral part of society. It lasts for only about 20 years after which the stage of drive to maturity which lasts for another 20 years sets in. At this stage, the economy demonstrates that it has the capacity to produce whatever it chooses to produce. At this stage, the economy invests, on a regular basis, between 10% and 20% of its national income, and its output continues to outstrip the increase in population. Another significant indicator at

this stage is the decline in the relative economic importance of agriculture. Thirdly, there is a growth in the urban population in terms of skilled and semi-skilled workers. This stage is followed by high mass consumption when leading sectors shift to production of durable consumer goods and services. At this stage, income for feeding, clothing and shelter ceases to be major concerns of the worker".

McClelland (1961) developed the need for achievement (n-arc) theory to explain development. To him, nations that possess more citizens with high level of need for achievement will produce micro-energetic entrepreneurs who will in turn produce rapid economic development. He also argued that class, religion, family upbringing, societal ethos and values affect achievement motivation. It therefore means that the developed countries are developed because they possess more citizens with high level of need for achievement while the Third World countries Africa inclusive are underdeveloped because they do not possess enough citizens with high level of need for achievement. Ezeibe (2016:246-247)

Piero Gheddo in his book, why is the third world poor? Offers an explanation for the development of the rich Western (North America included) nations and the poor third world countries of Africa, Asia, and Latin America. His answer according to Offiong (1980:44-46) is that the west has undergone four crucial revolutions while the third world countries have not.

The first revolution is on the plane of ideas. This is the revolution that ignited the concepts of the equality of all man and the dignity of each individual person. According to Piero Gheddo , the west was radically transformed by the Judaeo-Christian religion which taught man that he was created in the image of God; that man was the king of creation, and with an end superior to that of any other creature; and that man was free to determine and shape his own destiny. To Gheddo in the undeveloped countries, the idea that man is centre of creation is not accepted or known.

The second revolution is that of the idea of progress. This second aspect of Gheddo's four revolutions is of the view that if man is the king of creation, if man is made in the image of God; he ought to dominate nature and make it serve his needs. He contended that the west developed because at a certain point in time discovered "the sovereign dignity of man over all creation, the fundamental equality of all men, and the messianic vision of a better world to be constructed with his own hands and the help of others. This idea of progress has given western culture an ideal, has broken down psychological barriers and created a dynamic tension towards the future" Offiong (1980:46). To Gheddo, what keeps the third world underdeveloped or static, is because they lack the "progressive mentality" that characterizes the western man.

The third revolution is that of population growth. Man created in the image of God became the centre of experimentation to improve the conditions of, and to prolong his life. Medicine assured man better health and in addition upset the economic balance of mere subsistence which characterized the traditional society. In western societies, population increased in situations conducive to efforts towards a better organization of its productive forces, thus unleashing a series of powerful causes and effects in the area of economics and it is this process that has brought about material progress to their society. But in the third world, population growth has not led to productivity or greater social justice, and the reason for this is that these men are unaware of their dignity and equality.

The fourth and final revolution concerns science and technology which have made possible western economic development. Like in the development of medical science and all other sciences focusing on man, the fourth revolution derived its impetus from the first two revolutions. In the West, science and technology are fairly recent phenomena whose occurrence was planned but both were "the product of a whole culture that was headed in that direction". According to Gheddo, the transplantation of technology and science in the underdeveloped countries cannot succeed because of the

differences in culture. Gheddo cited in Offiong (1980:471) states that "*one of the fundamental differences between the western world and the third world is precisely this; on one side are societies that have had a long cultural preparation, culminating in modern progress, on the other side are those who are unprepared for the break with the whole cultural past that would result from the introduction of new revolutionary ideas and new technology*".

According to Moore cited in Ezeibe (2016:243), "modernization is a process whereby societies move from traditional or less developed to developed or modern, hence modernization. In order to modernize the third world countries must overcome their traditionalism. Modernization and development are intertwined".

Having examined the concept of modernization theory, next to be examined and clarified is development. What is development? Development is one of the concepts in the social sciences that have attracted the attention of many scholars across the globe as well as world governance institutions such as United Nations and World Bank. This explains why there exists a plethora of definitions by different scholars. According to Rodney (1972:1), "development in human society is a many-sided process. At the level of the individual, it implies increased skill and capacity, greater freedom, creativity, self-discipline, responsibility and material well-being". He went further to assert that development means that an economy must register advances which in turn will promote further progress. Rodney viewed development principally from the perspective of economic growth and development which to him will bring about the development of other spheres of human endeavour. Naanen (2015:48) sees development as the "incremental improvement in the quality of life". According to Abraham (2010:128), in the context of the contemporary millennium development goals issued by the United Nations, "development may be conceptualized as an increasing reduction or elimination of poverty and hunger; educating all children; ensuring gender equality, control or eradication of infant and maternal mortality and

disease, using environment wisely and implementation of the ideals of global links or working together for development globally”.

Modernization theorists according to Ezeibe (2016:244) define development as “a condition of improved social, political and economic amenities of the society”. Thus, modernization divides development in these three perspectives. At the social level, development is concerned with institutionalization of western values, culture and religion. It asserts that modern societies are better educated and highly urbanized and better welfare packages for citizens. (Smelser cited in Ezeibe, 2016:244).

Developed political systems have a higher capacity to deal with the function of national identity, legitimacy, penetration, participation, and distribution than traditional political systems. At the economic level, development refers to economic growth, high level of industrialization and capital formation. This shows that development is a concept that is multi-dimensional. The dimensions of development include but not limited to economic, social, political, environmental and cultural. On this note, Sen cited in Afeikhena (2004:207) opines that “while economic and social progress and the elimination of poverty are key objectives of development, the development well-being also encompasses freedom from fear and arbitrary arrest, free speech, free association, and the right to run for and hold political office”. To Stightz cited in Afeikhena (2004:207), “development is now seen as a transformation of the society, a move from the old ways of thinking, and old forms of social and economic organization to new ones”.

3. Theoretical Framework

This paper adopts political economy as a theoretical framework. Political economy exposes the relationship between politics and economics. Scholars associated with political economy are Karl Marx, Fredrick Engels, V.I. Lenin, Samir Amin, Claude Ake, Eme Ekekwe, Bade Onimode, Frantz Fanon, David Ricardo etc.

Political economy as a theoretical framework enables us to understand the society because it exposes how government of every country conducts their affairs in order to bring about development of the state and economy and how the level of development of the state and economy also influence governance. According to Aja (1998:16), “an outstanding feature of political economy is its methodology of analysis, which is based on dialectical materialism otherwise known as economic determinism”. The theory of dialectical materialism was propounded by Karl Max. Dialectical materialism gives primacy to material or economic conditions of a society.

We believe that political economy is very relevant in the explanation of the topic under study “modernization theory and African development in the 21st century” where issues of leadership, politics and economy etc. are major issues of discussion. We believe that development in Africa is a consequence of the nature of leadership. It is the continent leadership that determines the development of Africa.

4. Relevance of Modernization Theory to African Development

From the foregoing, development is a condition that every state desires to achieve. The continent of Africa to a very large extent is underdeveloped in comparison with European countries and America. Having recognised this fact, it is obvious that Africa is indeed in search of development. No doubt, over the years series of efforts have been made in Africa to bring about the development of the continent but yet, the continent is still far behind in terms of development. The reasons for this would be addressed in the subsequent section of this paper.

Our task in this section of the paper is to examine how the modernization theory can be of help in bringing about African development in the 21st century. It is very obvious that criticisms have trailed the modernization theory and these criticisms emanate from Africa and other third

world countries, despite these criticisms, the usefulness and relevance of the modernization theory to African development cannot be overemphasized. This is because, the modernization theory offers useful explanation as regards reasons for Africa's underdevelopment as well as other third world countries and not only that, it also provides suggestions as regards what should be done to enhance Africa and other third world countries development. It therefore means that critical attention should be paid to the modernization theory in order to extract what is useful for Africa development.

According to Naanen (2015:61), "Western Social Scientists bemoaned and debated the absence in Africa of the "economic man" who was driven by economic forces. Development in these countries was hindered by lack of liberal democracy and the prevalence of dictatorships marked by military and revolutionary governments which precluded political pluralism. To develop therefore, these societies had to forsake traditional values and embrace modernization". This can be said to be the summary or the basic thrust of the modernization theory. This theory is of the view that instead of Africa and other underdeveloped countries of the third world to blame external forces for their underdevelopment, it is better they look inward because by so doing they would find out those things in them that retard their development. This is necessary because solutions to problems presuppose that the problems are well known.

It is not in doubt that the political and economic condition of Africa in the 21st century is not palatable and this is so because of bad leadership. This explains why Achebe cited in Ogbeyi (2012:3) opined that "the trouble with Nigeria is simply and squarely a failure of leadership. There is nothing basically wrong with the Nigerian land, climate, water, air, or anything else. The Nigerian problem is the unwillingness or inability of its leaders to rise to their responsibility, to the challenge of personal example which is the hallmarks of true leadership". Most countries of Africa still have the problem of leadership. According to Naanen

(2015:48), "persisting underdevelopment in Africa is not just a matter of economics but it is located at the intersection of the trinity of economics, politics and culture. Certain cultural values which celebrate ill-gotten wealth (not questioning it), leading to the prevalence of corruption cannot be conducive to development".

According to Naanen, "Daron Acemoglu and James Robinson have reminded us in their best seller, "Why Nations Fail", that what makes the critical difference between prosperity and poverty, between great nations and lesser nations, is the development of inclusive political and economic institutions that allow free competition of ideas and actions, encourage popular participation in economic opportunities, and rewards enterprise and innovation". If the political space is opened for people to participate freely in politics and structures put in place to recognise and reward hardwork, it can lead a country to development.

We can regard the modernization theory as a theory that explains the factors that are present in Africa and other third world countries that inhibit their development and what can be done for them to be developed. As a result of this, scholars as well as governments in African countries should have to study and understand the nitty-gritty of the modernization theory to be able to apply the knowledge gained to be able to transform positively their various countries in order to achieve development.

5. Challenges to Development in Africa in the 21st Century

The post-colonial Africa is still grappling with the crisis of development. This condition has made it impossible for Africa to be given reasonable attention and respect in the comity of Nations. There are a plethora of factors that constitute great challenge to development in Africa. These factors include:

Bad Leadership:- The place of leadership in a country's development cannot be over emphasized. Many countries in Africa have not been so lucky to have good leadership that

would help them to achieve development. According to Abubakar (2004:154), “leadership, in other words, is an essential element in the process of nation-building and reconstruction. The tragedy of most post-colonial African states, however, is that they lack visionary political leaders who will transcend personalist and primordial interest to transform the state into a viable vehicle that could address the basic needs of the citizenry through the provision of adequate health facilities, qualitative education, shelter, food, and security of lives and property. Post-independence leaders in Africa not only personalized power, but also privatized the state for the purpose of primitive accumulation”. He went further to state that “instead of using the state for initiating development, African leaders utilized it as a vehicle for terrorizing the citizenry, thereby leading to the disengagement of the populace from the public realm”. This situation cannot be conducive for development.

Corruption:- This is another factor that poses very serious challenge to African development in the 21st century. Corruption in all its ramifications has pervaded and permeated virtually all sectors in Africa, this condition has made development in Africa very difficult. In the words of Ezeibe (2016:256), “notably, the problem of corruption has become intractable in Africa. In September, 2002 for instance, Africa Union estimated that corruption costs African economies more than \$148 billion annually. Similarly, the President of World Bank in 2006 estimated that corrupt Nigerian politicians have stolen over \$300 billion since 1960”. With these, it is obvious that monies meant for executing developmental programmes and projects end up in private pockets.

Problems of sit-tight leaders in Africa:- In different parts of Africa, we have leaders that have spent more than 20 years in office and yet are not willing to quit. This situation has serious implications for development, this is because such leaders would not allow popular participation in the political process and this is done using the instruments of the state to silence opposition elements. According to Oyewo (2011:21), “there has been massive economic decadence and under-development of an

unyielding measure in those countries, while serious mis-rule and discomfort have become the order of the day because the leaders loath to quit their offices as at when due but intended to stay put permanently and forever”. According to Ehindero (2013:54-55), “African rulers who were overtime affected by the sit-tight syndrome are Felix Houphouet Boigny of Cote D’Ivoire who died in office after thirty-four years as President, Sekou Toure of Guinea after twenty-six years; Abdul Nasser of Egypt after sixteen years, both Jomo Kenyatta of Kenya and Sir Seretse Khama of Botswana after fifteen years; Mobutu Sese Soko of Zaire (Congo Leopoldville), Sir Dauda Jawara of the Gambia, Lebuja Jonathan of Lesothos, Hamana Diori of Niger, and Kwame Nkrumah of Ghana were in office for thirty-two, twenty-nine, twenty, fourteen, and ten years respectively, before being overthrown in military coups or armed revolts and Kamuzu Banda of Malawi and Kenneth Kaunda of Zambia for twenty-nine and twenty-seven years respectively before they were voted out in a multi-party democratic election. Habab Bourguiba of Tunisia was dismissed after thirty-two years in office on the ground of senility certified by a group of medical doctors. Julius Nyerere of Tanzania voluntarily retired after twenty-seven years”.

Lack of Technology:- The place of technology in the development of any nation cannot be overemphasized. This explains why Ajibade (1986:41) opined that “the future is not bright unless there are fundamental changes in the current approach of developing countries particularly Africa, to the acquisition of technical know-how”. The availability of technology is one of the pre-requisite for development. The low level of development in Africa is partly attributable to lack of technology.

Do or die attitude to politics by the political class in Africa:- The post-colonial state of Africa is characterised by a political class that sees politics with a do or die mentality. This is because of the high premium placed on politics in Africa and the tendency to use power for accumulation. This situation generates an atmosphere of political crisis and instability

which is not favourable to development. This explains why Ake (1996:16) opined that “in postcolonial Africa, the premium on power is exceptionally high, and the institutional mechanisms for moderating political competition are lacking. As a result, political competition tends to assume the character of warfare. So absorbing is the struggle for power that everything else, including the quest for development, is marginalized”.

6. Prospects for African Development in the 21st Century

It is very obvious that Africa is underdeveloped in comparison with Europe and America. According to Aja (1981:171), “as a concept and condition, underdevelopment presupposes that in a comparative sense, there exists an advanced economy which is structurally advanced in international division of labour and less developed economy which is structurally disoriented, disarticulated and disadvantaged in international division of labour”. From the foregoing, it is very obvious that Africa is not developed in comparison with Europe and America and as such, efforts should be made to ensure the development of Africa in the 21st century and beyond. The following can help in bringing about development in Africa.

Diversification of the Economy:- It is obvious that many African countries depend mainly on one product as a source of revenue, for example a country like Nigeria has crude oil as a major source of revenue and as such whenever there is fall in price in the international market, the country would be adversely affected. For instance, the administration of President Muhammadu Buhari attributed the economic recession that engulfed Nigeria partly to the fall in price of crude oil in the international market. Assuming the economy was diversified, there would be several sources of revenue which would be used to run the state and economy. In doing this, different African countries should identify and concentrate on production in areas where they have comparative advantage. On this note, Toyo (2997:39) asserted that “it was thought that all countries would gain best if each country specialized in producing a commodity

using a larger proportion of the resources she was rich in. The resources were natural resources, capital, and workforce. Since the west was capital-rich and other areas were relatively capital poor but land-rich and labour-rich, it would pay all countries best if the west concentrated on exporting manufactures which used proportionally more of capital, while other areas concentrated on agricultural and forest exports which used proportionally more of land and labour power”.

Good and effective leadership:- It is very difficult if not impossible for any country to get developed without good and effective leadership. Good and effective leadership is central to any country’s development. It was Lee Kuan Yew who turned Singapore from third world to first. Therefore, if Africa is to be developed there should be the presence of good and effective leadership.

Adherence to the principles of rule of law:- According to Egugbo (2014:23), “when the principles of rule of law are adopted and applied in any given society, the tendency of achieving peace, stability and above all overall societal development is high”. This explains why late President Yar’Adua submitted that “respect for the Rule of Law is the basis for civilization”. The United Nations Security Council cited in Bjornlund (2914:5) defines the rule of law as “when all persons, institutions and entities, public and private including the state itself, are accountable to laws that are publicly promulgated, equally enforced and independently adjudicated, and which are consistent with international human rights norms and standards”. Most crisis and wars in different parts of Africa can partly be attributed to non-adherence to the principles of rule of law, the crisis and wars have made development to be a distant dream in countries where they occur. Therefore to ensure development, governments and the citizens must ensure the respect and adherence to the principles of rule of law.

Improvement in Technology:- It is very difficult to achieve development without the availability of appropriate technology. It is on this note we suggest that government of African

countries should try as much as possible to ensure the improvement in technology.

Vigorous and effective anti-corruption crusade:- It has been observed that corruption is prevalent and pervasive in virtually all countries of the world but the level of destructiveness is very high in Africa. Corruption has led to the weakening of development in Africa. According to the United Nations office on Drugs and Crimes (2005), “despite the prevalence of anti-graft commission in Africa, corruption continues to eat deep into the roots of most African economies. Africa has lost over \$400 billion to corruption and illicit transfers to foreign countries. It is on this note that we suggest that for development to take place in Africa, efforts should be made to strengthen the fight against corruption.

7. Conclusion

In an effort to bring about development in Africa, it is very pertinent for Africa to look inwards to identify the factors in Africa that hinder and inhibit development with the hope of changing them for the purpose of development. It is obvious that if Africa does not make effort to get developed no other continent can devote time, resources and efforts to develop Africa. In the 21st century, we feel it is not proper to continue to attribute the underdevelopment of Africa to slave trade, imperialism, colonialism, and neo-colonialism. This explains why we decided to interrogate the modernization theory as it relates to the nature of development in Africa. We came to the conclusion that Africa should do away with those factors inherent in Africa that inhibit development and put more effort in doing those things that can bring about development. Some of these things have been identified in this paper.

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Corruption, Governance and National Question in Nigeria

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Abstract. Nigeria is richly endowed with qualitative human and natural resources but yet to find an appropriate and rightful place among the community of nations in the world. One major reason that is responsible for this socio-economic stagnation is attributable to corruption and all effort geared at stemming the tide appears to be unsuccessful. Economically, corruption leads to the depletion of national wealth. Nigeria sits on some of the largest oil reserves in the world, which has been fuelling corruption since independence. Between 2000 and 2008 alone, it earned roughly 370 billion United States dollars in oil and gas export. In spite of this, the average life expectancy stands at 48 years and over half of Nigerians do not have access to clean water. The paper examines the effect of corruption on governance (i.e. infrastructural development) and its impact on national unity in Nigeria. It used quantitative qualitative analysis to draw conclusion. Structural Functionalism theory is the guide of the paper. Nigeria is plugging deeper into the mire of corruption with each passing year. This was recently affirmed by corruption perception index released by Transparency International. The paper concludes that corruption in Nigeria has completely undermined government's socio-economic development strategies. Nonetheless, corruption continues to hamper government's policies and initiatives at development. It also affects national unity and worsens the national question. The paper recommends restructuring of the legal framework of anti-corruption agencies in Nigeria.

Keywords: Corruption, Governance, National Question, Infrastructural Development, Nigeria.

1. Introduction

The state of infrastructure in Nigeria is worrisome, and attempts made to improve the state of infrastructure by successive administrations in Nigeria became problem due to negligence and corruption. This results to cases of infrastructural deficiencies ranging from irregular and inadequate supply of electricity and pipe-borne water. Others are bad roads, unreliable health care services, unstable educational institutions, malfunctioning ports and erratic telecommunication services. The state of infrastructure in Nigeria has remained a matter of great concern given the significance of the sector to the economic growth and development as well as the wellbeing of the people. This is as a result of political corruption that is rampant in the state, which worsens the national question. The agitation for secession by some ethnic groups and zones in Nigeria is as a result of infrastructural decay which made some parts of the country backward and the only solution for those parts is the good governance which has been paralysed by the political corruption. This is what led to national question of rotational government, resource control and restructuring. The paper seeks to examine the effect political corruption on governance (infrastructural development) and national question in Nigeria.

2. Conceptual Perspectives

2.1 Corruption

Rousseau once pointed out that the legitimacy of the national public power comes from the people. The government is the executor of the sovereign. Its power comes from the people's trust. When the use of public power deviate from the original track, being abused, corruption problems arise, it accords with the definition of "the abuse of public office for private benefit". This definition is also the most widely used by the scholars on the concept of corruption (Liu, 2016).

There is no unified definition of "corruption". It is usually defined as the corruption of public officials in the state, organs use power in the hands for bribery, corruption, extortion, fraud and other acts. But this term includes many aspects of economy, politics, culture, morality, law and so on. In recent years, the extension of corruption has continued to expand. The main body of corruption is no longer confined to the national institution. More subjects are included. For example "academic corruption" refers to the corruption in universities and research institutions. The forms of corruption include not only public officials' personal gain behaviour but also interest exchange process, such as nepotism, nonfeasance and disposal of public resources (Liu, 2016).

Thus, corruption can be seen as a conscious and well planned act by a person or group of persons to appropriate by unlawful means the wealth of another person or group of persons. It can also be seen as the act of turning power and authority to ready cash (Philips and Akpokighe, 2014).

In recent years, however, corruption has been measured at the regional, national and global level, mostly using perception surveys as the leading method to collect data. Indicators have proved very useful in raising awareness, making cross-country comparisons and conducting statistical analysis, helping establish correlations between corruption and a wide range of variables (U4 - Anti-Corruption Resource Center

2009). These two institutions methodology and the findings are the guide used to establish the existence of corruption in Nigeria in this paper. The next is the concept of governance and how to measure it.

2.2 Governance

Governance refers to the exercise of political and administrative authority at all levels to manage a country's affairs. It comprises the mechanisms, processes and institutions, through which citizens and groups articulate their interests, exercise their legal rights, meet their obligations and mediate their differences. Specific reference is made to democratic governance as "a process of creating and sustaining an environment for inclusive and responsive political processes and settlements." The institutional and human capacities for governance determine the way in which the effectiveness of public policies and strategies is attained, especially in service delivery. In other words governance is a government's ability to make and enforce rules, and to deliver services, regardless of whether that government is democratic or not (Fukuyama, 2013).

According to the academic approach, the generic understanding of governance is the management of resources and policy-making by means of exercising authority (power). Thus, it entails all instruments through which different policy stakeholders exercise legal rights with the aim to achieve political, economic, cultural and social objectives. In this sense, the term "governance" appears to be more and more used in order to denote a complex set of structures and processes (at the public as well as at the private level), which are generally associated with national administration. However, its definitions offer a rather broad horizon of interpretation: wherever we can find this term, its definition varies slightly. For instance, in the Report of the Commission on Global Governance "Our Global Neighbourhood" (1995) governance is defined as:

The sum of the many ways individuals and institutions, public and private, manage their common affairs. It is a continuing process

through which conflicting or diverse interests may be accommodated and co-operative action may be taken. It includes formal institutions and regimes empowered to enforce compliance, as well as informal arrangements that people and institutions either have agreed to or perceive to be in their interest.

Much discussion about the definition of good governance has centered on what makes institutions and rules more effective and efficient, in order to achieve equity, transparency, participation, responsiveness, accountability, and the rule of law. These aspects are crucial for human development and the eradication of poverty since ineffective institutions usually result in the greatest harm to those who are poor and vulnerable.

Without reference to a universal standard for governance, the notion of what is good is thus defined by the desired outcome, which varies from one situation to another. Nonetheless, two broad governance issues can be discerned. The first pertains to institutions of governance, including public administration and public services connected, in particular, with the sound management of resources, delivery of and equitable access to public services, responsiveness to the views of citizens and their participation in decisions that concern them. Strategies adopted in response including better personnel management, transparency in public finance, a curb on corruption, citizen participation and enhanced accountability have since become common currency in public administration dialogue (Fukuyama, 2013).

The second broad governance issue is concerned with concepts of democracy and the rule of law, including with rights-based claims to equality before the law, judicial independence, participation in the conduct of public affairs, electoral integrity, political plurality, freedom of expression and media independence. These claims include demands for gender equality and the inclusion of youth and marginalized groups. Integral to effective implementation is an informed and empowered citizenry engaged in transparent and accountable governance processes. Free and pluralistic media are

considered essential to such ends as is the right to freely access information held by public bodies.

To measure the concept of governance there are at least four broad approaches to evaluating the quality of governance: procedural measures, input measures, output measures, and measures of bureaucratic autonomy:

2.2.1 Procedural Measures

The most classic effort to define governance in terms of procedures was Max Weber's famous characterization of modern bureaucracy in *Economy and Society*. We continue to use the term "Weberian bureaucracy" as an ideal type to which we hope highly corrupt, neo-patrimonial states will eventually conform. It might be useful to review Weber's conditions here:

1. Bureaucrats personally free and subject to authority only within a defined area;
2. They are organized into a clearly defined hierarchy of offices;
3. Each office has a defined sphere of competence;
4. Offices are filled by free contractual relationship;
5. Candidates selected on basis of technical qualifications;
6. Bureaucrats are remunerated by fixed salaries;
7. The office treated as the sole occupation of the incumbent;
8. The office constitutes a career;
9. There is a separation between ownership and management;
10. Officials subject to strict discipline and control.

Conditions 1-5 and 9 are probably at the core of what people think of when they talk about "modern bureaucracy": they clearly delineate such an organization from the kinds of venal or patrimonial office that existed in Europe under the Old Regime, or that exist in contemporary neo-patrimonial developing countries today. However, characteristics 6, 7, 8, and 10 are more problematic. Condition 6, fixed salaries, is not compatible with the kinds of incentives often offered bureaucrats under New Public Management. Conditions 7 and 8 are not true of

many mid-level officials in contemporary America, in both the public and private sectors. One could say that the US fails to live up to the Weberian ideal, but it does not seem likely that the quality of bureaucracy in the US would improve if it were impossible for talented individuals from the private sector or the academy to serve in government for periods of time. And condition 10 is incompatible with civil service protection, which during the Progressive Era was seen as a hallmark of the modern bureaucracy that was replacing the patronage system. More importantly, condition 10 suggests that bureaucrats are simply robotic agents whose only purpose is to do the bidding of principals. The idea of bureaucratic autonomy-the notion that bureaucrats themselves can shape goals and define tasks independently of the wishes of the principals-is not possible under the Weberian definition (Fukuyama, 2013).

Nonetheless, certain procedural measures would remain at the core of any measure of quality of governance. One would want to know whether bureaucrats are recruited and promoted on the basis of merit or political patronage, what level of technical expertise they are required to possess, and the overall level of formality in bureaucratic procedure.

2.2.2 Capacity Measures

The problem with all procedural definitions of bureaucracy is that the procedures, however defined, may not actually correlate with the positive outcomes expected from governments. We assume that a Weberian bureaucracy will produce better services than one that is highly discretionary and patrimonial; yet there may be circumstances where the latter's lack of rules result in faster and better tailored responses. Enforcement power is not part of Weber's definition; it is possible to have an impersonal, merit-based bureaucracy that nonetheless is extremely poor at getting things done. To say that a bureaucrat is selected on the basis of "merit" does not define merit, nor does it explain whether the official's skills will be renewed in light of changing conditions or technology (Fukuyama, 2013).

The most commonly used measure of capacity is extractive capacity, measured in terms of tax extraction. Tax extraction measures capacity in two ways: first, it takes capacity, however generated, in order to extract taxes; second, successful tax extraction provides resources that enable the government to operate in other domains. Tax extraction rates can be measured both by the percentage of taxes to GDP, as well as by the nature of taxation-i.e., whether it is based on income or wealth, or indirect taxation (since income and wealth taxes are much more difficult to extract than indirect taxes) (Fukuyama, 2013).

2.2.3 Output Measures

Good procedures and strong capacity are not ends in themselves. We want governments to do things like provide schooling and public health, public security and national defense. This suggests an alternative measure of government quality, a measure of final output. One could look at literacy, primary and secondary education test scores, or various measures of health to get some idea as to how governments are performing (Fukuyama, 2013).

2.2.4 Bureaucratic Autonomy

A final measure of the quality of government is the degree of bureaucratic autonomy possessed by the different components of the state. Samuel Huntington makes autonomy one of his four criteria of institutionalization; highly institutionalized political systems have bureaucracies with high autonomy. The opposite of autonomy in Huntington's terminology is subordination. The sub heading below discusses the concept of national question in order to understand the subject matter of the paper.

3. National Question

3.1 Nation

A nation refers to a naturally or historically constituted human community which shares a sense of oneness or identity by virtues of having inter-alia, common origin (mythical or real), language, culture, economy and as a rule, territory (Hertz 1944, Deutsch 1954, Emerson

1960, Rustow 1967 etc.). In essence, nation is a community, state is an association, membership of the nation is a matter of sentiment, depending on common experience and history, while membership of state is matter of legal status. Having explained the generic concept of a nation, the meaning of its derivative; the national question is not far-fetched. Generally; the 'question' of any issue refers to the problems or controversies surrounding that issue. It connotes a problematic and un-resolved issue which begs for solutions. It is in this sense that we talk of the 'national question', 'land question', 'peasant question', 'minorities question' and the likes. The national question from the liberal perspective, refers fundamentally to the multi-dimensional problematic that confront or tend to impede a sovereign polity or state attain the status of a nation as explained above. The problems could be social, economic and political which logically vary between and even within countries over time (Garba, 1994).

There is a tendency to equate the national question with the 'nationalities question' where a nationality is taken to mean an ethno-linguistic or tribal group. By the nationalities question, therefore, is meant, the conflicts or antagonisms that often characterize inter-ethnic relations in a plural and fractious society. The national question as explained, however, has a more encompassing meaning - transcending the problems of 'ethnicity' or 'ethnicism' (i.e. ethnic conflict or rivalry) within a multi-ethnic nation-state.

Broadly, the national question refers to the gamut of problems that militate against the creation and overall development of a nation-state as well as how such problems could be resolved or at least minimized. More specifically, it refers to the dialectic problematic of reconciling conflict and consensus regards to the sovereignty, social Integration, stability and overall development of a nation-state. In a nutshell, it boils down to the problematic of nation building (Garba, 1994).

The concept of the national question on the other hand, is popularly used by Marxists in a radically different sense from what has been

stated earlier (liberal view). It owes its extended elaboration more to Lenin and his contemporary like minds who contributed to the subject in a specially prepared document; 'Theses on the National and Colonial Questions' presented and adopted at the Second Congress of the Communist International held in 1920.

The important point to note as earlier stated is that what constitutes the national question varies between countries, sometime social groups within a country and overtime. In a colonial state for instance, the primary national question refers to the struggles for the liberation or emancipation of the colonized peoples from external domination or rule. On the other hand in a country afflicted with the problem of 'neo-colonialism' whose 'essence' according to late Nkrumah (1965: ix) is that the:

State which is subject to it is in theory independent and has all the outward trappings of international sovereignty. In reality (however), its economic system and thus its political policy is directed from outside. The national question refers fundamentally to how the country could break-off, 'de-link' or 'dis-engage' from the apron strings of external manipulating forces (Garba, 1994).

Generally, however, in a sovereign nation-state, it includes the following fundamental problematic issues and possible panaceas for overcoming or minimizing them viz (i) external domination and manipulation in all spheres-social, economic, political, technological etc, (ii) all forms and dimensions of social cleavages, differentiation, inequalities, oppression marginalization and consequent conflicts, antagonism or hostilities; (iii) defective political structures and processes leading to various forms of crisis in particular; 'systematic' disunity and instability and (iv) socio-economic developmental lag manifested by poor or low level of human living standard.

The national question, therefore, is a broad concept - refers to the promotion of the encompassing issues of sovereignty, democracy, freedom, equality, unity, human rights, system's effectiveness and overall development of a nation-state. It transcends the issues of

‘conflicts’ and ‘disunity’ arising from the social ‘plurality’ of a nation state as it is commonly conceived and used.

With reference to contemporary Nigeria for instance, the national question refer to the unresolved problematic arising from the country’s relationship with the world imperialism on the one hand and relationships between the various nationalities, some classes and politico-administrative units (over material resources and power sharing) have historically characterized the country on the other (Toyo, Mustapha 1978, 81-95). In a nutshell, it refers to the constitutive socio-economic, political, technological impediments (external and internal) to national consensus building and development in their ramifications (Garba, 1994). Infrastructure and its nature is treated in the heading below.

3.2 Infrastructure

Infrastructure has been defined as “the basic structures and facilities necessary for a country or an organization to function efficiently, e.g. buildings, transport, water and energy resources, and administrative systems.” In general terms, it refers to the economic and social facilities which are provided by the government, or by private sector operators, for the social and economic development of the individual and the society at large. In other words, Infrastructure is the fundamental facilities and systems serving a country, city, or other area, including the services and facilities necessary for its economy to function. Infrastructure is composed of public and private physical improvementsn such as roads, bridges, tunnels, water supply, sewers, electrical grids, telecommunications (including Internet connectivity and broadband speeds). In general, it has also been defined as “the physical components of interrelated systems providing commodities and services essential to enable, sustain, or enhance societal living conditions”.

3.3 The Nature of Infrastructures in Nigeria

Infrastructure development is one of the bases of assessing the achievements of democratic

leaders and it is the foundation of good democratic governance. Agitation for infrastructural development is higher in democratic government than in military dictatorship or compared to developed countries. This is because the resources for provision of infrastructure are always scarce. Ethnic-interest agitation and lobbying are common things in democratic governance in developing countries. The Infrastructural report of Nigeria just like any third world country is nothing to write home about. The housing situation is in a sorry state both quantitatively and qualitatively (Oyedele, 2012). Most infrastructures are now decayed and need repair, rehabilitation or replacement. The following traced the origin of Nigeria, geographical location and population.

4. Nigeria

4.1 Independence

Nigeria gained full independence in October 1960, as a federation of three regions (northern, western, and eastern) under a constitution that provided for a parliamentary form of government. Under the constitution, each of the three regions retained a substantial measure of self-government. The federal government was given exclusive powers in defence and security, foreign relations, and commercial and fiscal policies. In October 1963, Nigeria altered its relationship with the United Kingdom by proclaiming itself a federal republic and promulgating a new constitution. From 1979 to date the country is practicing presidential system of government.

4.2 Geography

Nigeria is the most populous country in Africa and accounts for over half of West Africa’s population. It borders the Gulf of Guinea, and is located between Benin and Cameroon. Capital City: Abuja (pop. est. 1.6 million) Natural Resources: petroleum, natural gas, tin, iron ore, coal, limestone, niobium, lead, zinc, arable land. Natural Hazards: periodic droughts; flooding.

4.3 Society

Population: 168 + million, Ethnic Groups: Nigeria has 250 ethnic groups. The most populous and politically influential include:

Hausa and Fulani 29%, Yoruba 21%, Igbo (Ibo) 18%, Ijaw 10%, Kanuri 4%, Ibibio 3.5%, Tiv 2.5%. Languages: English (official), Hausa, Yoruba, Igbo (Ibo), Fulani, and over 500 additional indigenous languages. The dominant ethnic group in the northern two-thirds of the country is the Hausa-Fulani, most of whom are Muslim. Other major ethnic groups of the north are the Nupe, Tiv, and Kanuri. The Yoruba people are predominant in the southwest. The Igbo (Ibo) are predominant in the southeast. Religion: The population is between Muslims and Christians with a small minority of those who practice indigenous beliefs. The sub heading below presents the theoretical framework that was used as a guide of this paper.

5. Research Methodology

The paper used quantitative qualitative analysis i.e. data/ information from text books, journals and reports from government agencies such as, National Bureau of Statistics (N B S) were used for analysis from which conclusion was drawn. The following sub heading treats conceptual perspectives of the key words of the paper.

6. Theoretical Framework

The paper is anchored on the Structural Functionalism theory:

Structural Functionalism theory

Structural Functionalism theory propounded by Talcott Parson in the late 1930s. One of the assumptions of this theory is that certain functional requirements must be satisfied if a society is to survive. Put differently, there should be existence of functional subsystems to ensure the survivability of the society. The subsystems are expected to perform their functions credibly. The society is therefore, composed of certain arrangement of parts (structures) or subsystems which undertake various responsibilities (functions) in a

coordinated and independent manner so as to achieve societal goals and objectives (Ugwuja, 2016). Structural functional theory has been one of the theoretical explanation aimed at ensuring deeper understanding of the societal process which invariably leads to societal progress and sustainability.

The theory is relevant to this paper in the sense that, Nigeria is a state with structures charged with the responsibilities in order to enhance the survival of the country. Among them is the executive arm that is charged with the day-to-day activities of government i.e. provision of infrastructure. The following is the data/ information used for analysis and conclusion of this paper.

7. Political Corruption in Nigeria

7.1 Public officials in Nigeria show little hesitation in asking for a bribe

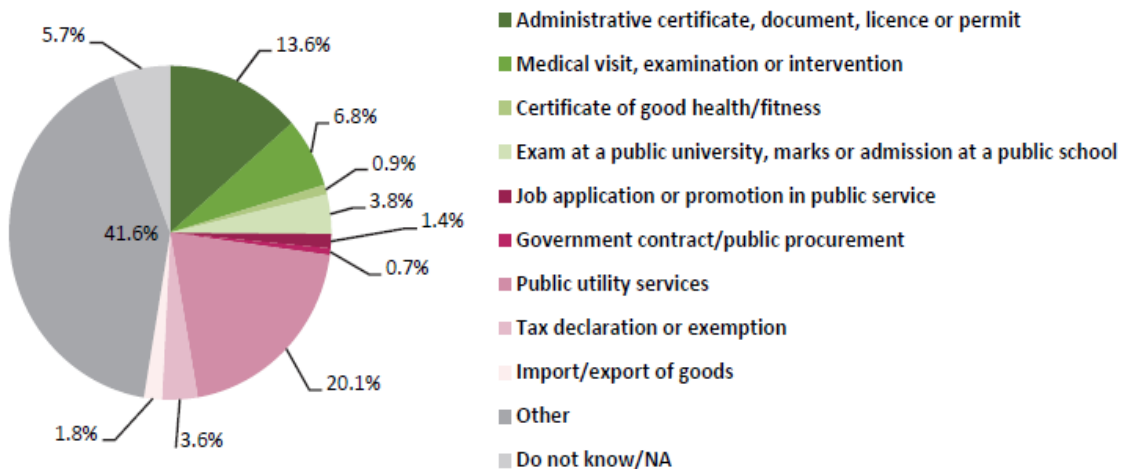
The vast majority of bribery episodes in Nigeria are initiated either directly or indirectly by public officials (85.3%) and almost 70% of bribes are paid before a service is rendered. With such a large portion of public officials initiating bribes, which are paid up front, it seems that many public officials show little hesitation in asking for a kickback to carry out their duty and that bribery is an established part of the administrative procedure in Nigeria (NBS, 2017).

While money is by far the most important form of bribe payment in Nigeria, the survey shows that other forms of bribe payment, such as the provision of food and drink, the handing over of valuables or the exchange of another service or favour, also exist. Qualitative research shows that such exchanges may sometimes include sexual services, although the actual extent of that particular form of bribe payment is unknown (NBS, 2017).

7.2 Public Services and Bribery

When Nigerians paid bribes for a specific service, the most frequently mentioned services for which bribes were paid (20.1%) were related to the provision of public utility services (electricity, water, sanitation). A further 13.6% were directly related to receiving administrative documents (administrative licences and permits: 8.2%; administrative certificates and documents: 5.4%). Other areas where bribes were paid relatively frequently include medical services, medical examinations and interventions (6.8%), dealing with tax authorities or obtaining tax exemptions (3.6%), and passing exams at public universities or school admissions (3.8%).¹⁶ In 41.6% of cases in which a bribe was paid, the payment was associated with no specific service (for example, when stopped by the police) (NBS, 2017). The Chart below presents these percentages i.e. on the distribution of bribes paid to public officials in Nigeria.

Percentage distribution of bribes paid to public officials, by service sought at the time of payment, Nigeria, 2016



7.3 Relationship between Corruption and Infrastructural Development

Sohail and Cavill (nd) asserts that the public sector has long been identified as a cause of corruption. This takes different forms. For instance, utilities may be obliged to supply political favours in the form of excess employment, depressing of tariffs and distribution of contracts on political bases. *The scholars observe the effect of corruption in infrastructure can be measured through both its direct and indirect impact.* Directly, corruption increases the cost of public services, lowers their quality and or restricts the poor from accessing such essential services such as water and sanitation. Indirectly, corruption diverts public

resources away from social sectors and the poor thereby limiting development, growth and poverty reduction. The scholars identify weak or non-existence of checks and balances, restricted access to information, lack of public participation, high tolerance for corrupt activities and poor enforcement of sanctions as some of the causes of corruption in infrastructural services provision (Cited in Musa and Shehu, 2016).

In an empirical study conducted by, Ubi and Effiom (2014) it was discovered that it was not absolute lack of funds that has caused infrastructural decay in Nigeria but corruption. Oyedele (2012) and Kenny (2007) argues that corruption has not only raised the cost of

infrastructure but has also reduced the quality of, and economic returns from infrastructural investment. Kenny (2007) using world average cost of \$33.2 per square metre for upgrading a two-lane road with a bitumen surface is below the average in countries with CPI of 3.0 and above the average for countries with a CPI of 2.4 and below. Kenny (2007) laments that bribe to regulators lead to the provision of low-quality services or over-generous contract terms. Corruption-related permitting has also been observed to be very prone to corruption with consequent high human cost (Cited in Musa et al. 2016).

7.4 Effect of Political Corruption on Governance (Infrastructural Development) in Nigeria

Corruption is a by-product of underdevelopment. In Nigeria, funds that are allocated to the development of the country after the installation of democratic governance in 1999 are mismanaged by political office holders. For instance, the Minister of Finance bemoaned the absence of physical development in most states of the federation despite the huge federal allocation to these states. According to Ngwube and Okoli (2013) corruption leads to the use of resources to finance elephant projects at the expense of infrastructural development such as schools, hospitals, roads, water supply and electricity supply. Osoba (1996) cited in Alemika (2012) posits that financial corruption dent a nation's capacity to provide the basic necessity of life for the populace. Political corruption is the main factor responsible for Nigeria underdevelopment in all sectors (Egharevba and Chiazor, 2012). "This is significantly so because the greatest challenge to Nigeria's development are Nigerians themselves as represented by the political leaders who should be held responsible for the present pathetic state of underdevelopment in the country" (Falola, 2005). Since democracy berth in Nigeria in 1999, corruption has constituted a major hindrance to development in the country. For the past 15 years, budgetary allocations for infrastructure development have not yielded any positive achievement. For instance, billions of

dollars were allocated for the Turn Around Maintenance (TAM) of the four refineries, yet the refineries are not working to full capacity. The health and the power sectors are in comatose due to corruption. Furthermore, the majority of the federal roads are dead traps because funds that are allocated for the maintenance of these roads are mismanaged. The former governor of Abia State, Uzor Kalu once accused the former Minister of Works Tony Anenih of the embezzlement of ₦3 billion that was meant for the maintenance of federal roads. Corruption in Nigeria has been blamed for the high-rate of poverty in the country, for example, the official released of the poverty profile of Nigeria by the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) revealed that 112 million Nigerians live in relative poverty. This data was supported by the confirmation of the United Nations Development Programmes (UNDP) representative in Nigeria that said 100 million Nigerians live in destitution. Just of recent, the World Bank named Nigeria as the third country in the world with a large number of poor people. Poverty is a by-product of insecurity.

The security challenges that are facing Nigeria have been blamed on the high level of corruption and poverty in the country. The hypothesis is that corruption breeds poverty and poverty breeds insecurity. Despite the government effort through the two anti-corruption agencies to curtail corruption, the menace still continues unabated. The EFCC has been accused of not doing enough to prosecute corrupt politicians. The president has also been accused of using the EFCC to go after political opponents. Former United State Secretary of State, Hilary Clinton accused the EFCC under the leadership of Farida Waziri of inept. Nigeria has always remained at the bottom of the (TI) corruption index ranking because of the high-degree of corruption in the country (Adesote and Abimbola (2012). Protagonists of the corruption lead to underdevelopment (Nageri et al. 2013; Agbibo, 2012; Maunro, 2007; Obayelu, 2007; Sachs, 2005; Smith 2007). According to Adesote and Abimbola (2012), "there is a correlation between financial corruption and

national development in Nigeria. The essence of financial corruption is bribery and illegal and greedy acquisition of public funds into private pockets, which otherwise would have been invested for the public good. Financial corruption undermines democracy and the legitimate of the state, reduces the potential for economic growth, and threatens the freedom and security of citizens, altogether constitutes hindrances to national development". Oladayo (2014) gave a summary of how political corruption hinders development in the new democratic dispensation in Nigeria:

- Poor social welfare
- Loss of public trust and legitimacy by the government
- Increase insecurity
- Increased poverty and unemployment
- Low investment

Aside all these, one main area that corruption has hinders is the decay in infrastructure. For instance, health services, water supply, power supply, good roads, sound education are a mirage in the fourth republic, despite the promised made to Nigerians during election campaigns that all these areas will be addressed by the new democratic government. Fifteen years after, the story remains the same or even getting worse and this is one of the reasons Nigerians have turn India to their medical tourism because of inadequate medical facilities and manpower at the government hospitals.

8. Dimensions of the National Question

Ethnic tensions in Nigeria are the resultant effect of improper distribution of resources. In the early days, Awolowo cautioned that:

in any country where there are divergences of language and of nationality -particularly of language – a unitary constitution is always a source of bitterness and hostility on the part of linguistic or national minority groups. On the other hand, as soon as a federal constitution is introduced in which each linguistic or national group is recognized and accorded regional autonomy, any bitterness and hostility against the constitutional arrangements as such disappear. If the linguistic or national groups

concerned are backward or too weak vis-à-vis the majority group or groups, their bitterness or hostility may be dormant or suppressed. But as soon as they become enlightened and politically conscious, and/or courageous leadership emerges amongst them, the bitterness and hostility come into the open, and remain sustained with all possible venom and rancour until home rule is achieved (Norbert, 2016: 32).

Democracy in plural societies also provide vent for frustration if negotiated agreements are not ignored. In his contribution to the development of the Relative Deprivation; Frustration - Agression theory, Gurr reasoned that frustrations arising from expectations and denials predispose men to rebellion. The contemporary dimensions of the national question in Nigeria are indicative of the plausibility of Gurr's conjecture. The Kano riots of 1953, the 1962 – 1965 Western Regional crisis, even the Nigeria civil war and the Maitatsine uprising of 1981 and the "Ogoni 9" disaster of 1995 are now history. But the fundamental underlying forces are similar to those that throw up such groups as Movement for the Emancipation of Niger Delta (MEND), Movement for the Actualisation of the Sovereign State of Biafra (MASSOB), Odua People's Congress (OPC) and Boko Haram, to mention a few. These violent groups represent the current dimensions of the national question in Nigeria (Norbert, 2016).

Similarly, the OPC's advertised mission is to mobilize the Yoruba - the dominant ethnic group in Lagos and the western part of the country "by any means necessary" to break away from Nigeria and establish a new state named after Oduduwa, the mythical progenitor of the ethnic group. MASSOB's stated goal on the other hand is the peaceful dissolution of Nigeria and a re-emergence of a new sovereign state in the eastern part of the country to be known as the United States of Biafra. The modus operandi of MASSOB however is not in tandem with this stated strategy of non-violence as it is evident that any time MASSOB expresses an opinion or engages in direct action against government, it leaves violence and destruction in its trail. Armed struggle in the Niger Delta is constantly in a state of flux. But the Movement for the

Emancipation of the Niger Delta has come, of recent to symbolise its essence. The group hopes to compel government to allow the Niger Delta states to control the oil wealth generated from their area, and if this is not possible to ultimately break away from the country and establish their own nation (Norbert, 2016).

The violence of these separatist groups has become worrisome because normalcy and common law and order which many of us take for granted is simply not available to the people living under their influence. They have made the country extremely difficult to govern. People live under tension, government is under tension, there is tension in the land and the continued long - term existence of Nigeria is tentative, to say the least. This state of affairs calls for a “final solution”. That final solution consists in the determination of the Nigerian government and people to accept that people of the diverse ethnic, cultural, linguistic and religious groups in Nigeria desperately need a breath of fresh air and that the panacea is the attitudinal restructuring of the Nigerians in order to achieve the benefits of federalism under a democratic government (Norbert, 2016).

9. Conclusion

Corruption in Nigeria completely undermined government’s socio-economic development strategies. Nonetheless, corruption continues to hamper government’s policies and initiatives at development. It has bastardized many sectors, institutions and ministries such as, power sector, judiciary and the Ministry of Works to mention but few. In other words, the high level of corruption has been responsible for the poor state of infrastructural development in Nigeria. The embezzlement of the public funds is made possible by corruptly over invoicing of public contracts on infrastructural provision. These “acts” lead to increased government expenditure on infrastructure as the government strives to build reliable infrastructures in Nigeria. Edame et al. (2011) revealed in their study that in spite of the increasing trend in public expenditure on infrastructure in Nigeria, the reality on ground appears bad and that expenditure on

infrastructure is higher in democratic regime than in the military.

However, this has left many parts of the country backward in terms of infrastructural development. In other words, there is unequal development in Nigeria, which leads to national question of rotational government, resource control and restructuring. Finally, political corruption seriously affects the unity of Nigeria as a federal state.

10. Recommendation

In line with the conclusion of this paper, the paper recommends restructuring of legal framework of anti- graphic agencies in Nigeria in order to properly checkmate corrupt practices in Nigeria.

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Analysis of Federal Government Budgetary Allocation for Staff Ratio between Teaching and Support Staff of Federal Universities in North-Central Nigeria

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Abstract. The purpose of this study was to analyse the influence of federal government budgetary allocation for staff ratio between teaching and support staff in federal universities in North-Central Zone of Nigeria. This is because there are limited and unstructured data that show pattern and extend of use of universities funds for the ratio between teaching and support staff. The study specifically examined the adequacy of federal government budgetary allocation to universities and its influence on the ratio of teaching staff and support staff in universities in North-Central Zone of Nigeria. Apart from extracting relevant Documents relating to budgetary allocations from the sampled universities, a descriptive research design was employed and data was collected from 5 out of 7 university Vice-Chancellors, 101 out of 254 bursary staff, 437 out of 2,912 lecturers and 50 out of 84,304 students from the five sampled federal universities. Both qualitative and quantitative research approaches were adopted in this study. The research instruments employed for data collection were questionnaires for bursary staff and lecturers, interview guide for university Vice-Chancellors, and Focus Group Discussion Guide for university students. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were employed to analyze the data. They were subjected to reliability and validity tests and found to be valid and reliable for the study. The findings from the field and documents showed that as a result of inadequate funding to universities, the

ratio between support and teaching staff was low, with the universities having an average ratio of 2:1. This implies that teaching staff are not adequately supported with negative consequences on their performance. The implication of this finding on the study is that Nigerian universities will not only be able to achieve their developmental priorities, they will also not be able to assist the Nigerian government achieve the Vision 20:2020 development plan. The study recommended among others that budgetary allocations to universities should be increased by government so that university administrators can utilize it for the recruitment of teaching and support staff. This will enhance a healthy ratio between teaching and support staff in universities.

1. Introduction

Budgetary allocation to the education sector is carried by governments globally to their educational institutions. Globally, public universities receive their budgetary allocation from their governments annually (World Bank, 2011). These allocations are expected to be used by these universities for their developmental priorities in various areas which include the enhancement of a healthy ratio between teaching and support staff.

In a study conducted on school employees who don't teach by Richmond (2014) in universities in the United States of America (U.SA), it was

established that support staff accounted for 41 percent of all staff in their universities in 2010. That they serve in a support capacity in the categories of administrative support, library support and other support services in universities generally. Richmond further asserted that by 2014, as a result of adequacy of budgetary allocations to universities in the USA. The number of support staff in the United States grew by 130 percent. This implies that support staff constitute more than half of the public university workforce in the U.S.A. Their salaries and other benefits absorb more than one-quarter of their recurrent expenditure. This means that the ratio of support staff to academic staff is in favour of support staff in universities in United States of America. They complement academic staff in their responsibilities.

In Nigeria, the Government, through the Tertiary Trust Fund (TETFund) and the National Universities Commission (NUC) disburses millions of naira for infrastructural and human capital development to universities annually. This is because funding of universities has been identified as a strategy for manpower development of the society (Ajayi & Ekundayo, 2008). However, these funds seem to be inadequate in running federal universities in Nigeria (National Universities Commission, 2013). Earlier on, Hinchiffe (2002) had disclosed that in 2002, budgetary allocations to the education sector by the Nigerian federal government showed that 35 percent was allocated to primary education, 29 percent to secondary education, while tertiary education (comprising of universities, polytechnics and colleges of education) received only 36 percent.

The funding problem of Nigerian universities prevents them from having a healthy ratio of teaching to support staff in Nigerian universities. It may also prevent them from achieving universities' mandate of providing teaching, community service, research and training. The shortfall in funding may also affect Nigeria achieve its target of being among the 20 most developed countries by the year 2020, which is encapsulated in the government's Vision 20:2020 development plan.

This study therefore filled the gap created by limited data and information on the ratio between teaching and support staff in Nigerian universities. The study also proffered some practical solutions to achieve the priorities set by Federal universities in North- Central Nigeria in the area of ratio between teaching and support staff.

1.1 Objective of the Study

The objective of this study was to analyse the influence of federal government budgetary allocation to universities on the provision of staff ratios between teaching and support staff in federal universities in North-Central zone of Nigeria.

1.2 Research Question

To achieve this objective, the study was guided by the following research question:

How does federal government budgetary allocation to universities affect ratios of teaching staff and support staff in federal universities of North-Central Nigeria?

2. Review of Related Literature

A study by Jump (2015) on academics in the United Kingdom (UK) revealed that, academics are in the minority at more than two-thirds of UK universities. The survey revealed that in 2013/2014 academic session, support staff were the majority at 111 out of 157 higher institutions in the UK. That they made up 60 percent or more of all staff in 27 higher institutions. For instance, universities of Bradford and Wolverhampton had 63 percent and 62 percent support staff respectively. This means that they had 37 percent and 38 percent teaching staff respectively complemented by the support staff for high productivity.

A study conducted by Ginsberg (2011) on the rise of universities administrators in the USA established that between 1998 and 2008, United States of America's private colleges and universities increased spending on instruction by 22 percent while increasing spending on administration and staff support by 36 percent.

That over the past four decades, the number of full time professors in America's colleges and universities increased slightly by more than 50 percent. That percentage is comparable to the growth in student enrolments during the same period. But that the number of administrators and administrative staffers employed by those schools increased by an astonishing 85 percent and 240 percent respectively. Explanations often adduced for this sharp growth in the number of university administrators over the past four decades according to the study is that apart from record keeping demands, there have been new sorts of demand for administrative services that require more managers per student or academic staff than was the case in the past. This implies that teaching staff are adequately supported in universities in the USA.

In South Africa, data on Statistics on Post-School Education and Training in South Africa by Higher Education & Training (2013) showed that in 2011, Higher education institutions in South Africa employed close to 17,000 academic staff, and over 30,000 support staff. On average therefore, there was one academic staff to about two support staff in higher education institutions in South Africa in 2011. Furthermore, in 2011, while university of South Africa had 1515 academic staff and 3,149 support staff, University of Pretoria had 1,281 academic staff and 1,908 support staff (Higher Education & Training). This shows that support staff are more than academic staff in the sampled universities but the ratios differ. Since there are few lecturers, it means that there is pressure on the quality of teaching in those universities.

In a study on funding challenges in African universities using Mozambique as a case study, Macuacua (2008) revealed that Eduardo Mondlane University Maputo in 2006 had 1,170 academic staff and 2,367 support staff with a budget of \$39,125. The number of support staff is more than twice the number of academic staff in the university, with a ratio of about 1:2, implying that academic staff do not have adequate support. The report did not breakdown the budget according to capital and recurrent allocations, making it difficult to know how

much of the budget is for academic and support staff of the university.

A study conducted by Odebiyi and Aina (1999) on alternative modes of financing higher education in Nigeria and implications for university governance revealed that the ratio of academic staff to other support staff is found to be about 1:3 in Nigerian universities. The study generalized all universities in Nigeria. In Kano university of Technology, a university owned by the Kano state government in Nigeria, Bennell, Dandago & Sagagi (2007) reported that, between 2005 and 2006, the university had 143 academic staff and 198 support staff. The report only showed the number of staff without indicating their budgetary allocations. This implies that there is a shortfall of academic staff in Nigerian universities with a negative consequence on their productivity.

3. Research Design

The study adopted a descriptive survey research design which ensures that data are gathered from relatively large number of issues. John and James (2003) confirmed that descriptive survey entails gathering data and inferring from a study of sample group carefully selected from the total population. This study assessed the adequacy of federal government's budgetary allocations on the provision of academic staff office accommodation in North-Central zone of Nigeria. This design was used by Ogbogu (2011) to examine the modes of funding Nigerian universities and its implications on performance. This is similar to this present study in the area of budgetary allocations to federal universities and how they are developed in the area of infrastructural development.

3.1 Target Population

The target population of this study comprised of all the Vice-Chancellors, academic staff, bursary staff and students of federal universities in North-Central zone of Nigeria. The target population of the study was therefore made up of all the 7 Vice-chancellors in the federal universities, 254 bursary staff, 84,304 students and 2,912 lecturers of these universities. Kombo

and Tromp (2006) observed that population refers to entire group of persons or elements that have at least one thing in common.

This study also comprised of documents related to budgetary allocations as they influence provisions of academic staff offices of federal universities in North Central Nigeria. The budgetary allocations of the sampled universities were evaluated on the basis of each of the items listed above, with a view of analyzing and making conclusions.

3.2 Sample Size and Sampling Techniques

A total of 5 federal universities were selected using a simple random sampling strategy out of 7 in the North-Central zone of Nigeria, implying that 71.4 percent of the study population were sampled for this study. The study employed the purposive sampling technique. Kasomo (2006) posited that purposive sampling allows the researcher to select respondents who would give relevant information pertaining to the phenomenon under study, ensure proper presentation of targeted population, and intensify study of selected items besides increasing accuracy of results.

The sample size for Vice-Chancellors and Bursary staff was 71.4 percent and 39.8 percent respectively. The researchers purposively sampled 15 percent of lecturers for the study. Therefore, a sample of 593 participants constituted the sample for this study. This comprised 5 vice chancellors, 437 Lecturers, 50

students and 101 bursary staff from the universities. In this study, the researcher selected 10 students for the FGD from each of the universities. The sample therefore comprised of 50 students from the 5 sampled universities.

3.3 Research Instruments

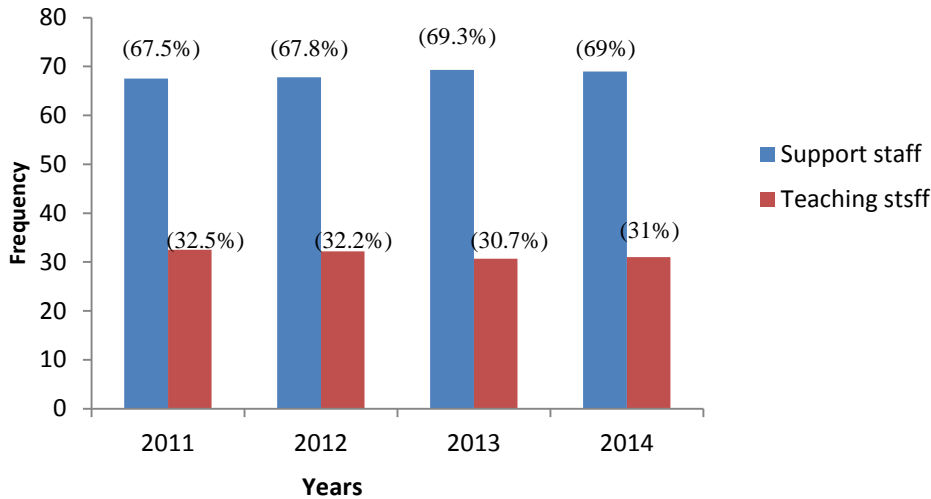
The research used a mixed methods approach. Mixed methods approach as the name suggests is where quantitative and qualitative methodologies are combined in carrying out a study to accomplish the research goals, which require diverse information from diverse stakeholders (Greene, Benjamin, & Goodyear, 2001).

The research instruments that were employed in this study included interview guide for university Vice-Chancellors, questionnaires for bursary staff and academic staff, focus group discussion for students, observation schedule and documents containing figures on budgetary allocations to universities.

4. Results

Research question: How does federal government budgetary allocation to universities affect ratios of teaching staff and support staff in federal universities in North-Central Nigeria?

Relevant data relating to the number of support and teaching staff were extracted from the sampled universities documents. The data are as presented in figure 1.



Scale: Vertical axis 10cm= 1000 Staff

Figure 1 Number of teaching staff and support staff (2011-2014)
Source: University documents from the five sampled universities

The data in Figure 1 show that in 2011, budgetary allocations for recurrent expenditure were ₦11,806,392,585.48 while personnel expenditure got ₦11,361,102,175.72 from that year’s recurrent allocations, representing 96.2 percent. Though these personnel allocations were for both support and teaching staff salaries, they are not enough. This is because the ratio between support and teaching staff is low as seen in Figure 4.13. For example, in 2012, the number of support staff was 6,255 compared to only 2,968 teaching staff, leading to a ratio of about 2:1 (67.8 percent support staff and 32.2 percent teaching staff). This was corroborated by university Vice-Chancellors and bursary staff who disclosed that the ratio between support and teaching staff is low, with university Vice-Chancellors disclosing that

the ratio between support and teaching staff in universities is 2:1, which implies that academic staff are overworked and not properly supported. This was attributed to inadequate budgetary allocations by the Vice-Chancellors. This is in line with Chao (2014) who revealed that universities should have at least a ratio of 5:1 support to teaching staff ratios.

The data collected from university bursary staff also aided in furnishing a response for research question. A simple frequency count of the percentage of respondents viewpoints were captured in a tabular form. Table 1 shows the views of university bursary staff on how budgetary allocations influence the ratio of teaching and support staff in universities.

Table 1 Distribution of percentage of respondents’ views on influence of budgetary allocations on ratio of teaching and support staff

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
Support staff are given more priority than teaching staff through budgetary allocations in this university	45.5	41.6	6.9	5	1
Budgetary allocations do not influence the ratio between teaching and support staff	34.2	32.6	2.7	19.4	11.1
Budgetary allocations are adequate for teaching and support staff	42.3	29.9	3.1	17.8	6.9
Budgetary allocations influence the working relationship between teaching and support staff	21.5	37.8	2.2	23.6	14.9

N=101

Table 1 indicates that of the 101 bursary staff who responded to this questionnaire, 87.1 percent of the respondents disagreed that support staff are given more priority than teaching staff in universities. Moreover, 66.8 percent also disagreed that budgetary allocations do not influence the ratio between teaching and support staff. In responding on how adequacy of budgetary allocations affect ratios of teaching and support staff in universities, the university Vice-Chancellors reported that budgetary allocations to universities are not adequate for teaching and support staff.

It was evident that 72.2 percent disagreed that budgetary allocations are adequate for teaching and support staff in universities. Furthermore, 59.3 percent of the bursary staff disagreed that budgetary allocations influence the working relationship between teaching and support staff in universities. On the whole, the direction for all the indicators for adequacy of budgetary allocations tilted towards disagreement as against agreement thus indicating that budgetary allocations for the provision of ratios between teaching and support staff in universities are not adequate.

The data collected from university lecturers also aided in furnishing a response for research question four. A simple frequency count of the percentage of respondents viewpoints were captured in a tabular form. Table 2 shows the views of university lecturers on how budgetary allocations influence the ratio of teaching and support staff in universities.

Table 2 Distribution of percentage of respondents' views on influence of budgetary allocations on ratio of teaching and support staff

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
The quality of teaching and support staff is high in this university	21.3	32.3	6.7	22.5	17.2
Budgetary allocations do not influence the ratio between teaching and support staff	22.4	36.6	5.8	24.1	11.1
Budgetary allocations are adequate for teaching and support staff	24.5	38.6	4.5	18.8	13.6
Budgetary allocations influence the working relationship between teaching and support staff	23.6	30.2	2.5	27.7	16

N=437

Table 2 indicates that of the 437 lecturers who responded to this questionnaire, 53.6 percent of the respondents disagreed that the quality of teaching and support staff is high in universities. Moreover, 59 percent also disagreed that budgetary allocations do not influence the ratio between teaching and support staff.

It was evident that 63.1 percent disagreed that budgetary allocations are adequate for teaching and support staff in universities. Furthermore, 53.8 percent of the bursary staff disagreed that budgetary allocations influence the working

relationship between teaching and support staff in universities. On the whole, the direction for all the indicators for adequacy of budgetary allocations tilted towards disagreement as against agreement thus indicating that budgetary allocations for the provision of ratios between teaching and support staff in universities are not adequate.

The University Vice-Chancellors also reported that budgetary allocations influence the ratio between teaching and support staff in universities. The University Vice-Chancellors

further reported that budgetary allocations influence the working relationship between teaching and support staff. On whether support staff are given more priority than teaching staff through budgetary allocations, the university Vice-Chancellors disclosed that budgetary allocations give more priority to teaching staff than support staff in universities.

University students were asked in a focus group discussion on the adequacy of their departmental support staff in relation to their lecturers. Most of them reported that both teaching and support staff were not adequate in their department. This is how one university student puts it:

“We don’t have enough support staff in our department. Because, most times, when you go for certain clarifications from the departmental support staff, they usually tell us that they are busy, that we should come next time, when you come next time the oga (sir) will shout at you, telling you that he does not have your time because of his tight schedule. We want more lecturers and support staff to be employed so that our problems can be attended to as at when due.”

This comment, together with other comments from the university students and Vice-Chancellors suggest that budgetary allocations to universities are not adequate for a healthy ratio between teaching and support staff in universities. Some of the students however disclosed that some of the support staff assist them whenever they needed clarifications on certain issues in their department.

Discussion of findings

The thrust of the research question was to examine the influence of budgetary allocation to universities and how it affects ratios of teaching staff and support staff in federal universities in North-Central zone of Nigeria. The key data issues under adequacy of budgetary allocations and its influence on the ratio between teaching and support staff include the fact that budgetary allocations have a positive relationship with the ratios of teaching and support staff. This means that, if budgetary allocations are increased for teaching and support staff, the ratio between support and teaching staff will be enhanced and

vice-versa. This finding concurs with Omole (2009) who confirmed that it is adequate funding of tertiary education, particularly the university education that would solve other problems in the system as well as other sectors of the economy. Omole further revealed that more funding for teaching and support staff will enhance their ratios in universities. Similarly, Miroiu and Aligica (2002) revealed that some universities in Romania distribute funds to their universities according to the number of academic and support staff positions. This enhances their ratios in Romanian universities.

In this present study, it was established that budgetary allocations to universities for teaching and support staff are inadequate. Furthermore, the findings of this study point to what Tilak (2009) reported that inadequate funding of universities results in poor supply of human capital and the effect shows in inadequacy of teaching and support staff in universities. Furthermore, Majoni (2014) revealed in a survey that universities were facing financial challenges, which has resulted to loss of qualified and experienced teaching and support staff in the system.

The next issue from these data relates to the fact that through budgetary allocations, teaching staff are given more priority than support staff in universities. This concurs with Conway, (2012) who disclosed that most universities give more priority to teaching staff than support staff in their budgetary allocations. Similarly, in Spain, each Spanish university’s budget range between 53 to 58 percent for academic staff. Support staff allocation is lower, ranging between 42 to 47 percent (Caballero, Galache, Gomez, Molina & Torrico, 2003). This is done basically to meet teaching staff requirements.

Another issue raised in the data is that the quality of teaching and support staff in universities is not high. This can be attributed to inadequate budgetary allocations to universities. This is because poor funding of universities does not attract quality personnel to the system. This is in line with Akintoye (2008) who revealed that paucity of quality university personnel is affected by inadequate budgetary allocations to

the system. Similarly, Okowa (2011) disclosed that universities are measured by the quality of their academic and non-academic staff. Okowa further revealed that apart from the quality, universities have to provide and maintain good ratios between their academic and non-academic staff. That without proper funding, the quality and ratio of teaching and support staff is affected.

It was also established in this study that the working relationship between teaching and support staff is not influenced by budgetary allocations to universities. This agrees with Conway (2012) who reported that the relationship between teaching and support staff is generally positive, that though they may have their differences, budgetary allocations to universities do not influence their working relationship. In the same vein, McMaster (2003) explored how deans and faculty managers work together, and identified different types of relationships that develop between the two roles in faculties. It was discovered that a higher degree of interdependence exists at this level, with more trust and understanding between them irrespective of budgetary allocations to the university.

5. Summary of Key Research Finding

The key research finding of this study is that budgetary allocations to universities are not adequate for the ratio of support to teaching staff. The ratio was found to be 2:1, meaning that few non-teaching staff support teaching staff in federal universities in North-Central zone of Nigeria.

6. Conclusion

On the basis of the findings of this study, the following conclusions were reached. It was discovered that budgetary allocations influence the ratio between teaching and support staff in universities. Due to its inadequacy, the ratio of support to teaching staff in universities is low. This is because the documents show that between 2011 and 2014 the ratio was 2:1. The implication of this to the university system is

that academic staff are overworked, with negative consequence on their productivity.

7. Recommendations

Considering the findings and conclusions of the study, the following recommendations are proposed:

- There is the need for the federal government to create time to facilitate the revision of its policies on university human capital development so as to provide clear guidelines in human capital development in the areas of academic and support staff recruitment, as well as avoiding the delays which are experienced in the award of contracts for infrastructural development.
- As far as possible, there is the need for an increase in budgetary allocations by government in order to support human capital development in the area of recruitment of staff in federal universities. This is because from the universities Vice-Chancellors responses on adequacy of budgetary allocations to universities, it was clear that the funds currently allocated by the government are not sufficient for a healthy ratio of teaching to support s

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Local Government Autonomy as a Strategy for Socio-Economic Development of Rural Communities in Nigeria

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Abstract. The main thrust of this paper is to explain local government autonomy as a strategy for effective rural development in Nigeria. The study sees local government as the government with basic responsibility of transforming the rural communities in Nigeria. Although the local government is found wanting due to the meddling of other tiers of government on its activities, hence, the desirability for local government autonomy for its effective functioning. The study used primary and secondary data to achieve its objective. 400 copies of the questionnaires were administered to two local governments each of the four selected states in Nigeria. 390 copies of the questionnaires were retrieved without error and used for the study. The data were presented in tabular and percentage frequency. Sustainable development theory was adopted as the theoretical framework to discuss the relevance of durable socio economic development of the rural people and the areas without compromising the future of the rural people. The findings indicates that political, financial and administrative autonomy of the 774 local governments is needed to enable the local governments achieve its objective for effective and durable rural communities' development in Nigeria.

Keywords: Local government autonomy, socio economic development , rural community, rural development, sustainable development .

1. Introduction

The importance of local government autonomy in Nigeria is predicated on its justification for socio economic development of the rural areas, culminating to socio economic development in Nigeria. As a tier of government in a federating state, it is basically created with the principal aim of improving the living standard of the rural people and transforming the rural areas in Nigeria. This drive motivates Jamo (2018) to see local government as a government fundamentally established to bring service to the rural areas and governance closer to the rural people in Nigeria. It is a government needed by all due to its relevance in the development of the people and their rural communities. According to Ahamba (2017) "local government is something that we need in this country, if we really say democracy is government of the people, by the people and for the people" The local government is needed to provide the platform for democratic participation of the rural people and creating the enabling ground for choosing who governs them through necessary political process in Nigeria.

The good thing in Nigeria is that every citizen is from a local government and is residing in a local government including foreign nationals, and the local government becomes the nearest and easily accessible government to the people, with the powers to provide the needed basic facilities for survival. Mgbachi, Ebiziem & Obi (2014) explained local government within the context of a political subdivision of a state

established by law with necessary powers to control the affairs of the local people and providing necessary opportunities for their development. This explanation is amplified by FGN (1976) as it states that local government is a government at local levels empower by law to exercise specific powers in a define area. The law empowers the local government with statutory powers to function within its jurisdiction, with the cardinal objective of developing the rural people and areas in Nigeria.

The British government laid the foundation for Nigerian local government and modelled it after the British Whitehall Model, with the design to administer and development the local areas. In 1950, the Eastern region local government ordinance of 1950 was established to allow the Eastern region administer its local people; the Western region local government law of 1952; and Native Authority law of 1954 allowing the Northern Nigerian to administer its people. These wide range of laws were reforms to empower the regions to operate effectively and socio economically develop the rural areas during the colonial period. Upon political independence in 1960, the local government enjoyed more reforms with powers to function autonomously as a tier of government in Nigeria. In 1967, the concept of native authority was replaced with a new one – local government. Significantly, this reform reduced the powers of the traditional rulers on the local government and positioned it for autonomous operations (Okoni, 2016). In 1976, the local government was formally recognized a third tier of government in Nigeria, with basic powers to function, thereby creating more opportunities autonomous powers for the government. The 1979, 1989, and 1999 constitutions of the Federal Republic of Nigeria recognized local government as the third tier of government with autonomous powers to function in the federating state. Ever since, it has been one reform or the other to enable the local government attain its height of efficiency in rural development. Similarly, Wilson (2013) states that the local government system has undergone several reforms in its structure, personnel, finances and operational focus in Nigeria, all aimed at

empowering the local government as an autonomous and functional government.

Financially, the local government was provided with powers to generate its funds internally and to statutorily receive certain percentage of the funds from the federation allocation on monthly basis. The funding from federation allocation to the local government was 10% of the total federation allocation in 1989, improved to 15% in 1992; and 20.60% in 2008 till date. This is aimed at empowering the local government financially to function effectively and autonomously for rural development. Structurally and service wise, the 1988 reforms brought civil service reforms to the local government service with relevant departments and personnel to carry out its service objectives to the people with the aim of improving rural development.

Notwithstanding the numerous administrative, financial, structural and legal reforms enjoined by the local government system in Nigeria to attain autonomous status for effective socio economic development of the rural communities, it appears the local government still suffer undue control by other tiers of government in Nigeria, resulting to inability of the local government to attain its development objectives on transformation of the rural areas. Such unwarranted control and deprivation of autonomous powers are noted in financial control by the state government, administrative and political control by the state house of assembly, and service control by the state owned local government service commission through the making and implementing human resource management policies for the local government service among others. This places the local government as mere documented tier of government without adequate operational powers to control its affairs, thereby leading to inability of the local government to adequately achieve its development objectives for the rural areas. Similarly, Akpan & Ekanem (2013) hold that the inability of the local government to function autonomously in Nigerian federating state accounts for the local government poor performance in its socio-economic development agenda for the rural areas and the people therein.

Then, if local government must function effectively and achieve long term development for the rural areas as its prime objective, the local government in Nigeria must exercise autonomy in its powers and operation in political and administrative activities, financial, structural and policy making and implantation procedure. It is therefore the thrust of this study to prosecute local government autonomy as a desired strategy for the local government effectiveness in socio economic development of the rural people and areas in Nigeria.

1.2 Research Questions

In view of the issues raised above, our study presents the following research questions to guide the study:

- Could financial autonomy of the local governments be a strategy for effective socioeconomic development of rural communities in Nigeria?
- Will political and administrative autonomy of the local governments have significant impacts on socio-economic development of rural communities in Nigeria?

1.3 Research Objective

This study is basically aimed at examining political, administrative, financial and service autonomy of the local governments as strategies for effective socio economic development of rural communities in Nigeria.

2. Conceptual Discourse

2.1 Local Government Autonomy in Nigeria.

The quest for local government autonomy in Nigeria dates back to the colonial era, when during the intensive demand for the development of the rural people, and subsequent desire of the colonial master to strengthen federalism leading to creation of the regional governments with powers and authority to develop the rural areas. Ever since, the local government system has received several reforms aimed at supporting the functions and powers of

the local governments in Nigeria (Wilson, 2013). Among other reforms, the 1976 reforms clearly and formally identified the local governments as the third tier of government in Nigeria, and today Nigeria has 774 local governments with the main objective of bringing government closer the people and developing the rural areas and people therein. In his view, Okoli (2009) stated that the development of local government autonomy in Nigerian local government system started in 1984, when Dansuki report was adopted to address issues of freedom in the finances and administrative functions of the local governments. Nwachuku (2000) sees local government autonomy as the degree of freedom, authority and powers or command which a local authority can exercise in the management of its own affairs without interference of the state or federal government. The above explains local government autonomy from the perspective of degree of freedom of local government in making and implementing policy decisions concerning its affairs. The local government desire freedom in the management of its programmes and projects without recourse to other tiers of government. Agunyai, Ebirim & Odeyemi (2013) opined that local government autonomy connotes the power of freedom to the local government to exercise its authority within the confine of the law or constitution. The scholars further argued that autonomy of the local government is subject to the provisions of the law or constitution. However, the scholars could not explain which law or constitution should the local government derive its powers. Is it the law or constitution of the state government or federal republic of Nigeria. This gap leaves both scholars and practitioners of local government administration with unclear operational direction on local government autonomy in Nigeria. Uketor (2009):339) states that local government autonomy implies the degree of power accorded the third tier of government with regard to legal, administrative and financial independence within the limit of the constitution. The autonomy becomes imperative in such areas as legal, administrative and financial operations if the local governments in Nigeria must function.

On the contrary, Akpan & Ekanem (2013) argues that the law or constitution where the local government ought derive its autonomy is practically strangulating the local government and depriving its autonomy. This is demonstrated in section 7 of the 1999 constitution, which empowers the State House of Assembly to legislate on administrative policies and operations of the local government areas within the state. Also, section 162 of the 1999 constitution empowers the existence of state and local government Joint Account and Allocation Committee (JAAC), under which cover, the state government operate to control and exploit local government finances leading to loss financial and administrative autonomy. However, several attempts by the National Assembly to amend the relevant sections of the 1999 to enhance local government autonomy have met brick wall.

In his view, Ogunna (2014:45) identified local government autonomy from two perspectives namely, “the resources available to local government as a determinant of its autonomy ; and ability to have control over these resources in terms of legal, political and administrative powers to harness and apply the said resources”. The capacity of available resources at the disposal of the local government and its ability to control same for the socio-economic development of the rural areas determine its autonomy. On that vein, Ebiziem & Obi (2015) corroborated with the above view, as they see financial autonomy as the basis for local government autonomy in Nigeria. The scholars further noted that as attempt to achieve financial autonomy for local government, the federal government increased the financial allocations to local government from 10% in 1986 to 15% in 1992 and 20.60% in 2008 till date. This argument is inadequate as it could not acknowledge relevance of other sectors such as the administrative, political and legal autonomy in development of the rural areas.

In another perspective, Akpan & Ekanem (2013) opined that various reforms carried out in local government were aimed at granting the local governments its needed autonomy in Nigeria for effective functioning, as observed in the 1976 reforms, the provisions 1979, 1989 and

1999 constitutions. However, Akindele, Olaopa & Obi (2002), Ammani (2012), and Jamo (2018) argued that the various reforms and provisions of the constitutions were inadequate to achieve effective local government in Nigeria, as the Local Government still suffers unnecessary interference from other tiers of the government, thereby creating administrative, political and financial setback for the local governments. Awofeso (2004) supports the above view and opined that despite the efforts made by previous administrations, the local governments still remain non-autonomous in practical terms. President Buhari Mohammed in Jamo (2018) attribute the failure of local government in development of the rural areas to non-operational autonomy of the local government, thereby giving opportunity for unwarranted state government interference on local government affairs, leading to poor performance of the local government in rural development in Nigeria. Then, local government autonomy is needed for effective rural development in Nigeria.

3. Theoretical Discourse

Sustainable development theory is adopted as the theoretical framework for this research. As a theory, sustainable development was popularized in 1987 by the Bruntland Commission of United Nations in its report tagged “Our Common Future”. According to United Nations (1987:43) sustainable development implies “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of the future generation to meet their own needs”. The theory is centered on sustainability of resources for today and tomorrow use, and considers the environment as the principal issue to protect in the process of utilizing the resources. This prompts Wilson (2011) to state that sustainable development has become a key issue in socio-economic development and environmental resources management of the society. Sustainability no doubt is the goal of the mankind to ensure that there is a balance between resource consumption and continuity in the ecosystem (Shaker, 2015). Barbier (1987) stated that the basic concerns in sustainable development are the concern on basic needs considering the poor; and the

concern that real development cannot be achieved without bringing into consideration the environmental, social and cultural values of the people, particularly the rural people. The choice of sustainable development theory is to address the needed rural development that will improve the social and economic condition of living of the rural people and their environment for today and tomorrow, which can be obtainable through the operation of autonomous local government system in Nigeria. The rural areas are characterize with poverty and development challenges arising from perceive neglect and deprivation of the powers of local government to function effectively, hence, local government autonomy is discussed as strategy to strengthen the local government for better and effective functioning for effective rural sustainable development in Nigeria. This implies the use of local government to improve the socio-economic life of the rural people without compromising the future of the rural people. The study argues that sustainable rural development is achievable through the application of political, financial, and administrative autonomy of the 774 local governments in Nigeria.

4. Study Methodology

The study is on local government autonomy and socio economic development of the rural communities in Nigeria. Primary and secondary data were collected to achieve the objective of the study. The primary data were collected from questionnaire items and interview on the subject matter. We used sixteen (16) questionnaire items and administered 400 copies of the questionnaire to two (2) local governments each of the four (4) selected states, namely, Rivers, Bayelsa, Abia and Enugu States. A total of three hundred and ninety (390) copies of the questionnaire were retrieved successfully without error and used for the study. The questionnaire was divided into 3 sections. Section 1 contains the questionnaire distributions figure, section 2 and 3 have 16 items on local government autonomy and socio economic development of the rural communities in Nigeria. The respondents’ responses were presented and analysed in a tabular and percentage frequency in tables 2 and 3. The secondary data were collected from documented evidence on the subject matter and content analysis used as a tool to analyse the data.

5. Data Presentation and Discussion of Findings

Table 1: Questionnaire Distribution

S/N	4 selected states	2 selected Local Governments	Number of Questionnaire Administered	Number of Questionnaire retrieved without error.
1	Rivers	Obio/Akpo LGA, & Eleme LGA	100 Copies	98 copies
2	Bayelsa	Odi LGA, & Kaiyama LGA	100 copies	96 copies
3	Enugu	Nsukka LGA, & Udenu LGA	100 copies	100 copies
4	Abia	Ukwa West LGA, & Ukwa East LGA	100 copies	98 copies
TOTAL			400 copies	390 copies

Source: Field Work, 2018

Table 1 above proves that the research selected and sampled four states with two local governments each, and 100 copies of the questionnaires were evenly administered, totaling 400 copies. Although the total number retrieved varied. 98 copies were retrieved from Rivers, 96 copies from Bayelsa, 100 copies from Enugu, and 98 copies from Abia State, totaling 390 copies successfully retrieved and validly used for the study.

Research Question 1: Could financial autonomy of the local governments be a strategy for effective socio economic development of rural communities in Nigeria?

To answer research question 1, data were generated from the respondents’ responses on the subject matter of local government financial autonomy and socio economic development of rural communities in Nigeria.

Table 2: Respondents’ Perceptions on local governments’ financial autonomy and socio economic development of rural communities in Nigeria.

S/N	Local governments’ financial autonomy and socio economic development of rural areas in Nigeria	Frequency of Responses	Percentage of Responses
1	Scrapping of JAAC and direct funding of local government from federation account	70	17.9%
2	Return of local government internally generated revenue sources back to local governments	55	14.2%
3	Stoppage of illegal deductions and diversion of local government funds to other agencies	60	15.4%
4	Mobilisation of local government funds for empowerment and rural development	50	12.8%
5	Joint projects involving local government and other tiers of government to be clearly defined on terms of funding.	52	13.3%
6	Local governments representatives’ in FAAC	58	14.9%
7	The financial operations of the local governments to be determined by local government laws inline with the constitution of Federal Republic of Nigeria	45	11.5%
	TOTAL	390	100%

Source: Field Work, 2018

Table 2 above has seven (7) questionnaire items on the subject matter, and were noted on account of the frequency of the respondents’ responses with different degree of percentages on each as discussed below.

Scrapping of JAAC and direct funding of local governments’ from federation account has 17.9% of the total respondents’ responses on the subject matter, indicating that the operation of JAAC should be stopped and local government funded directly from the federation accounts as a means of achieving local government autonomy to enhance the local government financial capability to carry out rural development activities for today and tomorrow in Nigeria.

Return of local government internally generated revenue (IGR) sources back to local governments’ accounts for 14.2% of the responses on the subject matter. This response is due the fact that the state governments have hijacked the internally generated revenue sources of local governments within its domain, thereby starving the local governments of funds to develop the rural areas. When the IGR is returned, it marks local government financial autonomy to enhance its revenue base for development projects.

Stoppage of illegal deductions and diversion of local government funds to other agencies has 15.4% of the total respondents’ responses on the matter, proving that there are several illegal deductions made by the state government from local government funds through JAAC. These deductions are made on directive of the governor in favour of the ruling political party and other agencies, and sometimes to attend to some state projects. The study shows that such deductions do not prove that local is in control of its fund and therefore is undemocratic; hence its stoppage becomes a means of improving local government funds for rural development.

Mobilization of local government funds for empowerment and rural development has 12.8% of the total respondents’ responses on the subject matter, showing that most of local government funds are mobilized by other tires of government for non-empowerment and rural development purpose due to non-financial autonomy of the local government, and when the reverse is achieved, local government funds would be adequately used for the empowerment of the rural people and development of the areas.

Joint projects involving local government and other tiers of government to be clearly defined on terms of funding, accounts for 13.3% of the responses and proves that in some joint projects involving the local government and other tiers, particularly, the state government, the local government funds is used to fund the entire project in name of joint project, thereby depriving local governments the needed funds for rural development in such state. Hence, autonomy will address this inadequacy.

Local governments representatives' in FAAC has 14.9% of the responses, which implies that as means to achieve local government financial autonomy, the local governments in Nigeria need to have representatives in the federation allocation and accounts committee (FAAC) to argue for adequate funding of local governments for socio economic development of the rural communities.

The financial operations of the local governments to be determined by local government laws in line with the constitution of Federal Republic of Nigeria has 11.5% of the total responses on the subject matter, proving that the local governments in Nigeria needs financial autonomy through relevant laws to be contained in the constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. This will enhance local government capacity to operate financial systems that will grantee its achievement of the desired rural development capacity in Nigeria.

In view of the above respondents' perceptions on financial autonomy and socio economic development of the rural areas, it is obvious that financial autonomy is a significant strategy in achievement of effective rural development in Nigeria.

Research Question 2. Will political and administrative autonomy of the local governments have significant impact on socio-economic development of the rural communities in Nigeria?

Table 3: Respondents' Perceptions on political and administrative autonomy of local governments and its impact on socio-economic development in Nigeria.

S/N	Political and administrative autonomy of local governments and its impact on socio-economic development in Nigeria	Frequency of Responses	Percentage of Responses
1	Establish a reform local government service commission to be controlled by the council of local governments of the state.	46	11.5%
2	Non-interference of other tiers of government on administrative, development and political activities of the local government	43	11.1%
3	Local government workers to enjoy the same service status and autonomy like their counterparts in other tiers of government.	52	13.3%
4	The administrative structure and powers of the local government to be defined and determined only by the constitution of Federal Republic of Nigeria.	45	11.5%
5	Appointment, promotion, posting and retirement of staff to be carried out by the reform local government service commission	40	10.3%
7	Local governments to be headed by only democratically elected chairmen on defined tenure established by the constitution of Nigeria	34	8.7%
8	Elected chairmen of local governments to be included in membership of the Council of State.	38	9.7%
9	The federal electoral agency to conduct all elections of the political functionaries in the local governments	50	12.8%
	TOTAL	390	100%

Source: Field Work , 2018

The table 3 above presents nine (9) questionnaire items on political and administrative autonomy of local governments and its impact on socio-economic development

in Nigeria. The respondents' responses were noted based on the frequency of responses and degree of percentages on each response as stated below.

The item on establish of a reform local government service commission to be controlled by the council of local governments of the state has 11.5%, indicating that as a strategy for effective local government autonomy in Nigeria, there is need for an independent local government service commission. Such commission should be appointed and controlled by the local government governments to management human resource policies of the councils. This strategy will improve the local government staff capacity for service delivery on rural development.

Non-interference of other tiers of government on administrative, development and political activities of the local government has 11.1% of the total responses on the matter, proving that local government autonomy requires non-interference from both state and federal government on internal programmes and activities of the local governments. This non-interference will strengthen the local government to concentrate on its objective of durable rural development.

Local government workers to enjoy the same service status and autonomy like their counterparts in other tiers of government has 13.3% of the responses. This proves that currently, there is disparity in condition of service between the federal, state and local government workers in terms of benefits and jobs security. Local government autonomy will bring to an end to this disparity, insecurity and undue control to enable the local government be productive in their service to the rural people.

The administrative structure and powers of the local government to be defined and determined only by the constitution of Federal Republic of Nigeria has 11.5% of the total responses. It shows that the local government autonomy demands that the constitution of Federal Republic of Nigeria should define the powers and functions of the local government and withdraw the powers of the state government from making laws for the local government to enable the local government exercise its powers on effective development of the rural areas.

Appointment, promotion, posting and retirement of staff to be carried out by the reform local government service commission has 10.3% of the responses representing the fact that effective local government autonomy requires that the appointment, promotion, posting and retirement of local government staff should be sole responsibility of the commission under the control of the local governments and not the state government. This will enhance effective human resource management of local government workers and better productivity in rural development.

Local governments to be headed by only democratically elected chairmen on defined tenure established by the constitution of Nigeria accounts for 8.7% of the responses on the subject matter. This means that autonomy requires only elected chairmen and councilors to administer the affairs of the councils, and their tenure to be defined by the constitution of Nigeria only. This will enable the political leadership of the council to function on define uninterrupted tenure and concentrate on delivering its mandate on development of the rural areas.

Elected chairmen of local governments to be included in membership of the Council of States has 9.7% of the responses. This implies that the autonomy requires the inclusion of the local government chairmen at least on representative capacity in the council of state to decide on vital development issues concerning the country. The inclusion of the council chairmen in the council of states will enhance local government autonomous status of agitating for more powers and empowerment for the development ifs areas. The federal electoral agency to conduct all elections of the political functionaries in the local governments accounts for 12.8% of the total respondents response on the subject matter, and indicates that as a requirement for local government autonomy, all elections for political offices in the local government must be conducted by the federal electoral body to ensure equity and fairness in the electoral process. This will stop the state government from manipulating the electoral system through it electoral agency to its favour based on the

interest of the ruling political party in the state. This independence in electoral system will give opportunity to all parties to contest freely and a more credible candidate to emerge for effective administrative capacity in the area, leading to effective rural development in the communities.

6. Conclusion

In conclusion, it is imperative to state that local government autonomy is eminent for effective rural development in Nigeria, hence the need for financial, political and administrative autonomy of the local government. The quest for local government autonomy is consequent upon the perceived inadequacies in local government financial resources and management, poor human resource management policies and practice, ineffective programme and project management, and inadequate powers to carry out its functions in transformation of the rural areas. These challenges identified the current local government as a tier of government without adequate powers to achieve its objective, and therefore, it is characterized as dependent government on other tiers to function. As a tier of government, the local government ought to be a partner to other tiers and not to be dependent on other tiers for its operations. It is worthy to note that the desirability for local government autonomy cannot be overemphasized as a strategy to empower local government to carry out its functions effectively for rural development in Nigeria.

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Part Three

Human Rights & Gender Studies

Religious and Ethno-regional Identity in the Context of Human Right Protection in Nigeria

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Abstract. The religious and ethno-regional consciousness of Nigerian citizens has generated a lot of human right issues in contemporary times. The different faith-based and socio-cultural organizations in Nigeria have continued to protest human rights violations on the basis of religious and ethno-regional identity. Therefore, this essay aimed at exploring the religious and ethno-regional consciousness of Nigerian citizens in public life and its implications for human right protection in the Nigerian state. Data for the study which was essentially generated from existing literature and careful observation of the state of the nation was subjected to historical, critical and constructive analysis. The paper reveals that the deep religious and ethno-regional consciousness and fears generated by the existing structures that promote unequal access to power and resources are being exploited by some unpatriotic individuals for sectarian and egocentric goals. This condition has indeed led to cases of unprecedented human right violations and protest in the Nigerian public sphere. The authors therefore, recommend that Nigerians should learn to accommodate the multiple identities of religion and ethnicity in the country and respect the right of their fellow citizens on issues of faith and ethnic origin. The government should be religiously and ethnically neutral in the implementation of state policies and also take proactive measures in promoting

and protecting the fundamental human right objectives of the state.

Keywords: Religious and Ethno-regional consciousness, Identity, Human Right Protection, Citizens, Nigeria

1. Introduction

Group Identity and human right issues has become attractive subject of debate both at the national and international levels in contemporary times because of the preponderant increase in the demand for human right protection by different socio-religious and ethno-regional associations. The Nigerian federation being a multi-religious, multi-ethnic and multi-linguistic polity where religious, ethnic and linguistic divisions and identities are very strong, various interest groups have continued to advocate for human right under the banner of religious and ethno-regional identities. The nature and composition of the Nigerian State is such that there are multiplicity of religious traditions and ethnic nationalities. Basically, there are three major religions; Christianity, Islam and African Traditional Religion in Nigeria. Apart from these three aforementioned religious belief systems, there are several other smaller faith traditions such as Baha'i Faith, Hare Krishna, Sat Guru Maharaji, Grail Message, Echkankar, among others competing for relevance and

recognition in Nigeria (Atoi and Ogunrinade 2017). In a related manner, there are three major ethnic nationalities in the country's geographical space; Hausa/Fulani, Yoruba and Igbo, and numerous minority ethnic nationalities or ethno-linguistic groups who are constantly campaigning for recognition and inclusion in the major scheme of things at different levels of Nigeria's public life. Succinctly, to understand the nature of the Nigerian State is to understand the nature of religion and ethnicity in the country. Paden (2008) opines that Nigeria is clearly a prototype state in accommodating ethnic and religious fault-lines.

It is imperative to state that Nigeria is not only a plural society with numerous religious and ethno-regional groups, but also one where religious and ethnic margins overlap. The intersection of religious and ethno-regional borderlines in Nigeria made the northern region largely Muslims and the southern region mainly Christians. This ethno-regional and religious nexus affixes disturbing twist to the configuration of the Nigerian federation. The religious structure of the country underpins the struggle for ascendancy to the seat of governance between the dominant religious and ethno-regional groups, and the marginalization of minority groups within the federation. Thus, the ethnic and religious minority groups who feel that they are being treated as second-class citizens by the major ethnic and religious groups and that their fundamental human rights are not adequately protected are pushed to adopt both constitutional and extra-constitutional means to challenge the hegemony of the major groups (Kwaja 2009). The Niger-Delta militancy quagmire and some religion motivated violence being experienced in some parts of the country are good cases in point. This issue has continued to assume a more worrisome dimension because the major players in the Nigerian public sphere have ethnicised and religionised the various government institutions and agencies within the nation-state. Little wonder, Jinadu contends that: *The state and its institutions are ethnicised and immersed in clientelist ethnic and religious networks and in ethnic/religious based struggle to implant and entrench ethnic or religious 'gatekeepers' in critical key positions in the bureaucracy and educational institutions, and in*

other public sector institutions and even in the private sector, which in many African countries relies heavily on the public sector (Jinadu 2007:11).

There is no gainsaying that religious and ethno-regional sectarianism have found fertile ground to flourish in the Nigerian social space, since it is crystal clear that many Nigerians do not have strong desire for national consensus or a binding ideology that will promote national unity and common identity (Maier 2000; Idike and Eme 2015). In Nigeria today, important national issues are linked to citizenship within the context of group identities and interests, which is rooted in the politics of inclusion and/or exclusion and this has continued to create human right crisis among various interest groups in the country (Ibrahim 2000). There have been series of accusations from various quarters of the Nigerian state that the government of the day has been very partial in the issues of human right protection on the basis of religion and ethno-regional identity. This indeed has continued to have serious implications for inter-religious and inter-ethnic relations among the diverse ethnic and religious groups in Nigeria. As it is with all social cleavages; fault lines within societies formed along religious and ethno-regional identities create opposing interests. These differences of interest, in turn, offer themselves to potential or occasional violent conflict among the different groups agitating for one form of human right or the other (Thomson 2007; Idike and Eme 2015).

In the light of the foregoing, this essay explored the religious and ethno-regional consciousness of Nigerian citizens in public life and its implications for human right protection in the country. Data for the study which was essentially generated from existing literature and careful observation of the state of the nation was subjected to historical, critical and constructive analysis. Aside from this introductory segment, the remaining part of the paper is divided into four sub-headings. These include the notion of identity and human right, religious and ethno-regional consciousness in Nigeria's public sphere, religious and ethno-regional identity

issues and human right protection in Nigeria, and concluding remarks.

2. The Notion of Identity and Human Right

Identity as a social concept has attracted tremendous attention in modern and post-modern intellectual engagements in the humanities and social sciences. From a broad sense, it is delineated as any group attribute that provides recognition or definition, reference, affinity, coherence and meaning for individual members of a group, acting individually or collectively. As a socio-political ideology, 'identity' has both an individualist and a collective meaning (Osaghae and Suberu 2005; Idike and Eme 2015). According to Elebeke (2010), identity is a process located in the core of the individual and in the core of his communal culture. Erickson (1968) says identity is "a person's sense of belonging to a group if it influences his political behaviour." Identity is not only about individuality and self-awareness, but also about identification with, and commitment to shared values, interests and beliefs in a social collectivity into which a person belongs (Idike and Eme 2015). Pye articulates that "those who share an interest share an identity; the interest of each requires the collaboration of all". Thus, ordinarily, identities serve as rallying and organizing principles of social action within the civil society, and in state-civil society relations (Pye 1962).

Moreover, identity is said to be always anchored both in "physiological givens" and in "social roles." According to Idike and Eme (2015), the attributes of identity comprise "commitment to a cause", "love and trust for a group", "emotional tie to a group", as well as "obligations and responsibilities" relating to membership of a group with which a person identifies. Such physiological givens as gender and age, and sociological characteristics such as ethnicity, nationality, religion, kinship relations, or even workplace affiliations can, and often do create a basis for identity which shapes association and antagonism in many human societies, especially the modern world. In the competition or struggle over societal resources, collective demands tend

to be predicated and organized on shared interests, which in turn hinged on either physiological 'givens' or, as is more often the case, on shared socio-cultural identities (Idike and Eme 2015). Little wonder, Huntington (1996) argues that in the new world, cultural identity is the central factor shaping a country's associations and antagonisms. Larsh and Friedman are of the opinion that the formation or construction of identity space is the dynamic operator linking economic and cultural processes in modern societies (Larsh and Friedman (1992).

Furthermore, some scholars have argued that some forms of identities are stronger than others. Lewis and Bratton (2000) contend that religious and ethnic identities are more fully formed, more holistic and more strongly felt than social class identities. This is evidenced in the fact that whereas those who identify with religious and ethnic communities are almost universally proud of their group identities; those who see themselves as members of a social class are somewhat more equivocal about their pride.

Howbeit, other 'primordial' identities have gained wide currency and greater socio-cultural and socio-political significance, especially in contestations over citizenship. These include 'indigenes' and 'non-indigenes', 'migrants', and 'settlers'. These forms of identities have ethnic, religious, communal, and regional origins. They have evolved from an entrenched system of discriminatory practices in which non-indigenes, migrants and settlers are shunted out or denied equal access to the resources, rights and privileges of a locality, community, town or state, to which 'sons and daughters of the soil' have first or exclusionary access (Osaghae and Suberu 2005). It is imperative to note that contestation over resources and opportunities have created a nexus between group identity and human right in most pluralistic polity the world over.

Let us at this point explore the concept of human right. It is pertinent to state that human right ideology has gained enormous attention in the global socio-political and cultural arena. Its emergence in socio-political development discourse can be traced to the ancient Greek

philosophical thought. Ojo cited in Ozoigbo (2017) traces the origin of the concept of human rights to the stoic's school of philosophy in ancient Athens. Zeno who was the founder of the stoic school of thought propounded the theory of natural law under which human beings were supposed to have natural rights. Dada (2012) observes that today, human rights issues have not only become a global concern but remarkable interest aimed at protecting and promoting universal respect for, and observance of human rights at the international, regional and national levels. Although the concept of human right has a global colouration, nevertheless, providing a universally acclaimed definition of the concept will be a difficult task to accomplish because there has never been a generally acceptable definition of human rights among scholars, human right agencies and social commentators. However, the different definitions given by various scholars and human right agencies points to the fact that human rights are rights that are meant to be enjoyed by everybody in the world unconditionally and unalterably, and they are to be guaranteed irrespective of one's nationality, place of residence, ethnic and religious identity, sex, race, colour, language, and others. Ozoigbo (2017) quoting Aduba explains that human rights are those rights that are the very nature of every human person; hence, they define and affirm the humanity of all persons. Therefore, they exist to ensure that human rights remain sacred and guarantee that inhumanity and injustice are prevented or reduced. According to Equality and Human Rights Commission (EHRC), human rights are the basic rights and freedoms that belong to every person in the world, from birth until death. They apply regardless of where you are from, what you believe or how you choose to live your life. They can never be taken away, although they can sometimes be restricted- for example if a person breaks the law, or in the interests of national security. In a related manner, United Nations Human Rights Council (UNHRC) maintains that human rights are rights inherent in all human beings, whatever our nationality, place of residence, sex, national or ethnic origin, colour, religion, language, or any other status (Ozoigbo 2017).

The rights guaranteed under prominent international human right documents such as the Universal Declaration of Human Right and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights 1966 documents are as follows: right to life, right to dignity of the human person, right to personal liberty, and right to fair hearing. Others are right to private and family life, right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion, right to freedom of expression and the press, right to peaceful assembly and association, right to freedom of movement, right to freedom from discrimination, among others (Dada 2012). These international human rights instruments contain and convey the universal character of human rights. It is pertinent to state that the aforementioned international human right documents are domesticated in the national constitutions of many countries of the world.

3. Religious and Ethno-regional Consciousness in Nigeria's Public Sphere

The cornerstone of religious and ethno-regional consciousness in Nigeria's public sphere was laid by the colonial masters. It is pertinent to state that Nigeria as a political entity was a British creation. The process commenced with the annexation of Lagos as a crown colony by the British in 1861. The amalgamation policy of 1914 which entails the joining together of the northern and southern protectorates as a political constituent gave rise to the notion of one Nigeria (Anyaele 2004). The emergence of religious and ethno-regional consciousness in the country's socio-political landscape can be traced to the introduction of the colonial policy of "divide and rule"; commonly known as the "indirect rule" system by the British colonial administrators. Nolte et al, maintain that a significant factor that shaped religious and ethno-regional consciousness in Nigeria was the traditions of governance adopted by the colonial rulers (Nolte et al. 2009). In the northern region, the religiously empowered Emirs were placed in charge of local government administration. This is due to the presence of Islamic ideology of political administration already in existence among the people. The Islamic legal philosophy (the shari'a) which existed before colonial rule

was integrated into the colonial government of the protectorate of northern Nigeria. The shari'a and the emirate system constituted the basis of administration in the region (Nolte et al. 2009). Thus, Agbaje (1990) contends that the colonial administrators 'underwrote Islam in the northern region of colonial Nigeria, and used it as the basis of political authority in local government administration. Due to political expediency, the colonial masters did everything within their power to prevent the Christian missionaries from evangelizing in the core Hausa/Fulani northern part of Nigeria. On the other hand, Christian missionaries had overwhelming presence and influence in the southern region with their liberal religious doctrines. The substantial presence of the Christian missionary activities in southern Nigeria explains the reason for the partial success of indirect rule policy in some parts of that region (south west) and a total failure in some (south east).

The aforementioned colonial style of administration in the country imprinted in the consciousness of Nigerian citizens the idea of Muslims dominated region and Christians dominated region and eventually form the basis of ethno-regional antagonism. Prior to the departure of the British colonialists, the Nigerian nationalists cultivated and nurtured the idea of religious and ethno-regional consciousness. There is no gainsaying that religious and ethno-regional division and dichotomy have always existed in Nigeria from the colonial period to the contemporary times. This is because its footprint cannot be easily erased from the history of Nigeria as a multi-religious and multi-ethnic society. As a matter of fact, religious and ethno-regional fault lines played out in some crucial national decisions that Nigerian Nationalists took at critical times in the history of the country. The first of its kind was in 1953 when Anthony Enahoro, a Southern Christian legislator moved the motion for self-government at the floor of Nigerian parliament. The motion was vehemently opposed by northern Muslim parliamentarians in the federal legislative chamber. This issue prevented Nigeria from gaining self-government in 1956 as earlier agreed by the British government and the Nigerian nationalists. The resultant effect of this

controversy was the granting of self-government to the two regions separately by the British colonial masters. The southern region was granted self-government in 1957, northern region 1959, and the country eventually got political independence in 1960 (Anyaele 2004). It is imperative to state that at the early years of Nigeria as a sovereign state, ethno-regional consciousness was more pronounced in public life than religious consciousness. According to Singh, in the first few decades after decolonization, it was ethnic and regional rather than religious-based movements that was prominent. It was only in the early 1980s, with the 'crisis of governance', that political mobilizations along religious identities became serious in the national space (Singh 2011).

Conventionally, religious and ethnic identities in Nigeria have been classified into two broad categories of majority and minority groups. It is imperative to state that out of the three major religious groups in Nigeria (African traditional religion, Islam and Christianity), African traditional religious worshippers are the least active in public life. Christian and Muslim identities have been the mainstay of religious differentiation, with Nigerian Muslims much more likely to evince or articulate a religious identity than Christians in the country's socio-political and economic sphere. This is because Islamic adherents have well-articulated political and economic oriented doctrines enshrined in their sacred traditions than Christians (Lewis and Bratton 2000; Osaghae and Suberu 2005; Atoi and Ogunrinade 2017).

Moreover, there are three major ethnic groups with regional formation in Nigeria—Hausa/Fulani in the North, Igbo in the East and Yoruba in the West. It is pertinent to state here that the southerners, especially the Yoruba are considerably more prone to define themselves in the public sphere ethnically than the northern Hausa-Fulani who would rather opt for Islamic religious identity (Lewis and Bratton 2000). According to Osaghae and Suberu, in parts of the north commonly referred to as the 'core' or 'Hausa-Fulani north', which is roughly coterminous with those states that adopted Islamic legal philosophy (the shari'a law) in the

fourth republic, religious identity is more critical than ethnic identity and in fact serves to activate ethnicity (Osaghae and Suberu 2005).

It is imperative to reiterate that ethno-religious identity has often been used for regional distinction in Nigeria. It has been utilized to differentiate the predominantly Muslim north from the largely Christian south. Ethno-religious identity has equally been used to differentiate the dominant Muslim group in the north from the non-Muslim minorities in the region. Indeed, unlike the south where majority groups are distinguished from minority groups on the basis of ethnicity, majority-minority differentiations in the north have been more religious than ethnic. Thus, Osaghae and Suberu assert:

...a member of the Hausa/Fulani majority group in the north who is a Christian is as much a minority in the overall scheme of things as say an Idoma or Igala, (both of which are northern minority groups) and is actually likely to enjoy lesser privileges than an ethnic minority person who is Muslim. Ethno-religious categories have been more frequently used to describe conflicts that involve an intersection of ethnic and religious identities (Osaghae and Suberu 2005:7).

The trend ethno-regional consciousness is taking in contemporary Nigeria has since been demonstrated by Umaru Dikko in his 2004 *Daily Sun* interview where he declared thus:

Let everybody know that if any tribe in Nigeria, and I make no limit, any tribe in Nigeria thinks it can fight the Hausa/Fulani; it is wasting its time. Because our tribe is not only in Nigeria, we extend right from Sudan, Cameroon, up to Gambia. If we blow our horns and call on our tribes' men, they will descend on Nigerian and take it over... (Onyemizu, 2009:25).

Ethno-regional consciousness in the Nigerian state has led to the formation of ethnic militia groups in the various regions of the country. These include among others the *Odua* People's Congress (OPC) in the south western region, the *Arewa* Peoples' Congress (APC) in the northern region, and the *Igbo* Peoples' Congress (IPC), the *Bakassi* Boys (BO), the Movement for the Actualization of the Sovereign State of *Biafra*

(MASSOB), and the Indigenous People of Biafra (IPOB) in the south eastern region. We also have the *Ijaw* National Congress (INC), the *Egbesu* Boys of Africa (EBA), the Niger Delta Avengers (NDA) in the south southern region. These various ethno-regional groups are becoming increasingly militant as a result of the strong agitation for protection of their group interest and human right in the Nigeria's public sphere.

4. Religious and Ethno-regional Identity Issues and Human Right Protection in Nigeria

It is a social reality that the Nigerian state is a deeply divided society where major issues in public life such as human right protection dispute are energetically and violently contested along complex religious, ethnic, and regional fault lines. There are insinuations from various quarters of the Nigerian federation that the deep religious and ethno-regional fears generated by in-built structures that promote unequal access to power and resources are being exploited by some unpatriotic individuals for sectarian and egocentric goals at the expense of national unity, peace and progress (Osaghae and Suberu 2005; Osimen, Balogun and Adenegan 2013). Some scholars have argued that the various religious and ethno-regional clashes being experienced in the Nigerian state are connected to citizenship in the context of identity, which is mostly rooted in the politics of inclusion or exclusion. It was further contended that these clashes are basically tied to claims and counter-claims over identity as a basis for determining who is included or excluded from state policy decision making, and access to the various opportunities within the nation state under the 'we' versus 'them' cliché (Ibrahim 2000; Kwaja, 2008).

In recent time, a new dimension of fear has dominated the Nigerian public sphere. This is not the physical fear of ethno-regional violence but the fear of not getting one's fare shares of the national cake, one's fare wages or just reward. Under this situation, different stakeholders identified themselves with religious and ethno-regional groups in order to protect their rights and interests. Some scholars contend

that the level of corruption aggravated by harsh socio-economic conditions and the skewing of the spoils of office for only those in the corridors of power made many people move back to the mosques, churches and ethno-regional associations as alternative modes of economic survival and socio-political expression of opposition and protest against human right violations (Ibrahim, 2003; Idike and Eme 2015).

Religious and ethno-regional identities became so problematic in the Nigerian state because they have been associated with perceptions of marginalization, discrimination, injustice, social unrest and inability of some groups to exercise certain rights and civil liberties. The main issues have been the control of political power, the armed forces, the judiciary and the bureaucracy. Moreover, there is the struggle for the control of economic power and state resources (Ibrahim, 2003; Idike and Eme 2015). It must be stated that group identity in itself is not a problem in plural societies. However, it becomes a problem when it is mobilized negatively and used as a platform on which unjust socio-political actions, discriminatory practices and organized violent clashes are carried out (Ibrahim 2003; Idike and Eme 2015). In the struggle for the acquisition of state power and the control of resources, especially in the period of economic crisis, identity politics become intensified and tend to assume primacy. The ruling party tends to resort to politics of identity for legitimizing its power, while those who felt they have been excluded from the scheme of things also resort to identity politics to contest their exclusion (Jega, 2000 cited in Idike and Eme 2015).

One major issue that has continued to generate human right dispute in Nigeria is the sharia enigma. While Muslims contend that the re-introduction of the *shari'a* in the 12 core northern states from 1999 is an exercise of the fundamental human right of Muslims and one of the dividends of democracy, Christians see it as an accompanied effort by Muslims to curtail the religious freedom and citizenship rights of non-Muslims (Singh 2011). Some Christian scholars argued that the re-emergence of the sharia in the Nigerian socio-political sphere is an attempt to maintain a pure state of Islam which has

knowingly or unknowingly violated the rights and freedom of other citizens (Achunike 2008).

Another disturbing episode of human right issue that is attracting attention in the Nigerian social space is the right over farmland and grazing opportunities. This has continued to generate serious controversies between the nomadic Fulani herdsmen and sedentary farming populations across the length and breadth of the country, especially in the north central geo-political zone. In recent times, the issue of land and the right to possess it has become so problematic. Different ethnic nationalities have continued to reinforce their sacred attachment to ethno-regional boundaries. The Hausa/Fulani ethnic group has been accused in various times of not only demonstrating the unwillingness to integrate into societies outside the local environment where they inhabit but also of exhibiting territorial and expansionist tendencies. In most cases, the Hausa/Fulani cultivate the habit of renaming the environment where they stay outside their home town for the purpose of business transactions in cattle and other livestock "Garki" which implies settlement in Hausa language (Osaghae and Suberu 2005; Onyemaizu 2009; Idike and Eme 2015). This issue has generated numerous violent clashes in various communities in the Nigerian federation, leading to destruction of lives and property and violation of the fundamental human rights of innocent and helpless citizens who are constantly crying out to the governing authorities to protect them from human right violation.

Let us at this juncture state categorically that one of the objectives of the post-independence Nigerian Constitutions is the protection and promotion of human rights. It is imperative to note that the heterogeneous nature of the Nigerian state is one of the major factors that led to the inclusion of the tenets of human rights in the country's constitutions. From the 1960 constitution to the 1999 constitution, due attention has always been given to human right issues. In fact, some provisions were specifically made for human right protection. The preamble to the 1999 Constitution was essentially dedicated to the promotion of "good government

and welfare of all persons on the principles of freedom, equality and Justice". Besides the preamble, chapters two and four of the 1999 Constitution extensively deal with issues of human right. While chapter two is captioned, "Fundamental Objectives and Directive Principles of State Policy", chapter four is entitled, "Fundamental Rights" (1999 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria). Fundamental rights as enshrined in the 1999 Constitution of the federal republic of Nigeria include right to life, right to dignity of human person, right to personal liberty and many others. Moreover, chapter two, section 13 of the 1999 constitution of the federal republic of Nigeria states that it shall be the duty and responsibility of all organs of government, and of all authorities and persons exercising legislative, executive or judicial powers, to conform to, observe and apply the provisions of the "Fundamental Objectives and Directive Principles of State Policy" (1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria).

From the foregoing, it is crystal clear that the government is charged with the primary duty of protecting the fundamental human right of all its citizens irrespective of one's religious and ethno-regional identity. Unfortunately, since the inception of Nigeria's fourth republic, the government and its agencies have been accused of human right abuses. According to Ozoigbo: *Nigerians will not forget in a hurry what has been termed the 'Odi Massacre'. Odi is a town in Bayelsa state in the South South region of Nigeria where the inhabitants were agitating the way the Federal Government of Nigeria was going about the exploration of oil there which left their habitat inhabitable as a result of oil pollution. The Federal Government, democratically elected, led by Olusegun Obasabjo ordered the military to descend on the town on the 20th November 1999, which left about 2,500 civilians dead as reported by Human Rights Watch. Here the fundamental right of life has been violated by a government that supposed to protect it. Not long after the seeming holocaust at Odi community, the Nigerian military once again ferociously descended on a town in Benue state called Zaki Biam on the 22nd October 2001. In this military*

display of brutality, about 100 civilians were killed from the Tiv ethnic community (Ozoigbo 2017:29).

There are number of cases which have ethno-regional and religious colouration currently trending in the news media, which prominent human right activists have tagged cases of human right abuses. Prominent among them are the clashes between the Nigerian security agents and the Indigenous People of Biafra (IPOB) in the south eastern region, and the clashes between the Nigerian military and the Islamic Movement in Nigeria (the Shiite Muslim group). Nigerian security forces were accused of killing at least 40 members of the Indigenous People of Biafra (IPOB) and Movement for the Actualization of the Sovereign State of Biafra (MASSOB) in February and May 2016 with impunity (Ozoigbo 2017). This was followed by the popular operation python dance two which led to the destruction of Nnamdi Kanu's father's royal palace in Afara-ukwu, Umuahia, Abia state on 14 September, 2017. On the 28 October, 2018, there were series of news report alleging that the Nigerian security forces brutalized and killed some members of Shiite Muslim group who were on a peaceful protest for the release of their spiritual leader, Ibrahim El-zakzaky who was allegedly detained unlawfully by the Department of State Security Service since 2016. Femi Falana, a prominent Nigerian human right activist while responding to questions during the sunrise daily programme of channel's television on the 6 November, 2018, alleged that about 492 Shiite members have been killed by Nigerian security agents in the last three years. Falana vehemently contends that such act is illegal and a gross violation of the fundamental rights of the Shiite Muslim group in Nigeria. Recent human right abuses in most parts of Nigeria, especially in Benue, Plateau, Kaduna, and Taraba states have been attributed to religious and ethnic bigotry and sentiments. It is pertinent to state that these various issues of human right violation contradict the principles of democracy and social justice.

5. Concluding Remarks

Having explored religious and ethno-regional identity issues in the context of human right protection in Nigeria, this paper confirmed that human rights are not adequately protected in the country. There are strong allegations of human right abuses on the basis of group identity with some elements of truth currently making news headlines in the Nigerian public sphere. The inability of the government to effectively address the unabated loss of human lives and property resulting from Boko Haram insurgency, and the nomadic Fulani Herdsmen and sedentary farmers' clashes have added a troubling twist to the issues of group identity and human right protection in Nigeria. The rumors of partiality and ethno-regional bias on the part of the governing authorities have further compounded the problem. If the allegations labeled against the government are true, then, there is the urgent need for the federal and state governments and all its agencies directly or indirectly involved in public policy execution to demonstrate genuine and unpretentious attitude of repentance by coming up with good policy measures and strong political will to salvage the situation and save the country from total collapse.

In a multi-religious and multicultural polity such as Nigeria, it is absolutely necessary that the governing authorities remain impartial for or against any religious or non-religious groups, or else its relevance and value will continue to be crucified at the altar of religious and ethno-regional bigotry. It is only a secular state that is religiously, culturally, ethnically and philosophically neutral that can guarantee the equal rights of every individual to freedom of thought, association, conscience and belief (Bujra, 2006; Tar and Shettima 2010). The governing authorities at both the state and federal levels must exhibit a great sense of fair play and justice at the level of governance, putting into considerations all that is required to pilot the affairs of a multi-religious and multi-cultural polity. We totally agree with the articulation of Tar and Shettima that:

...public policies have to be religiously justified and key appointments to the armed forces, police, judiciary and various political offices have to be balanced in terms of ethnic, regional and religious composition. ...Employment in

federal, state and local government must reflect the "federal", "state" and "local" outlook in terms of geographic spread, ethnic and religious composition (Tar and Shettima 2010: 12).

It is imperative to state that the decision and compromise that was arrived at by the Nigerian nationalists prior to independence from the British colonial masters in 1960 to become the Federal Republic of Nigeria, requires that the various ethnic, religious and other interest groups within the nation state accepted to integrate in all areas of public life with one another without any form of molestation, intimidation and marginalization (Osimen, Balogun and Adenegan 2013). Therefore, Nigerians from all walks of life must recognize and respect the right and dignity of their fellow citizens and all persons legally permitted to live in any part of the Nigerian state. The government and all its concern agencies must do everything within their power to promote and protect the fundamental human right objectives of the state.

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Gender Mainstreaming in Peace Building and Conflict Resolution in Nigeria: North East in Focus

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Abstract. Peace building is a bulwark against the occurrence of conflicts in the first place. It is the sine qua non for growth and development in any human habitat. Man is intrinsically hedonistic and hence, his unending search for a blissful environment that is free from threat and insecurity. It is against this background that states around the globe earnestly embark on peace building project. Every state owes its citizens a social responsibility to avert crisis and insecurity. This paper espouses women mainstreaming in the peace building project with focus on the North Eastern Nigeria. It observes that they are more vulnerable, compare to men, in situation of conflict as being widowed, internally displayed, sexually abused and more prone to HIV/AIDS. It avers that women are stakeholders in both conflict and post conflict situations as actors who disrupt and work toward peace and security. Their roles are therefore put on the map. This paper utilizes 'Feminist Peace and Conflict Theory' as its analytical framework and heavily relies on secondary sources of data collection. It finds that turning a blind eye to the roles of women who constitute half of world population leaves much to be desired in the process of peace building and conflict resolution. Thus, it concludes that women know better how to handle gender (female) related issues as they bear on insecurity and peace. It recommends that the participation of women in peace building invigorates the possibility of a long-lasting peace.

Keywords: Conflict Resolution, Gender Mainstreaming, Peace Building, Victimizers, Victims etc.

1. Introduction

Human beings are social animals who cannot live in isolation. If they do, they lose the basic natural characteristic that makes them humans. As they lived together through the ages, they developed some patterns of relationships which sequentially engendered situation of peace and conflict. Humans have from time to time oscillated between peace and conflict. As humans are intrinsically hedonistic, they cannot survive in a crisis prone atmospheric condition because it is not congenial to their very nature; they unceasingly continue to search for peace in the period of conflicts, insecurity, and wars. In recognition of the quintessential of peace (absence of conflicts) for human progress on the one hand, and the preponderance of conflicts and wars on the other hands, states are intensifying efforts to promote peace through the duo concepts of peace building and conflict resolution.

It is important to note that the shrinking distance among states living within the global circumferences as well as advancement made in science and technology has some telling effects on the ways of doing things in the 21st century.

Crises, political/religious violence, terroristic acts, along with there accompanying thunderous threats and sophisticated dimensions - especially in the modern time - cannot be any longer ignored nor tolerated. This in turn makes peace building and conflict resolution a herculean task. Conflicts in the world, and particularly in Nigeria, which were hitherto considered the domain of men due to their strength and aggressiveness have come to be identified with women as both actors and victims. In the Boko Haram crisis that engulfed the North East Nigeria which ranks and files is acclaimed to be “technically defeated”, women engage in acts of terrorism as volunteers convinced of the ideology. Others are forcefully co-opted or hypnotized to commit suicide. This implies that women are victims as well as victimizers in the ugly security challenge that Nigeria’s state has been battling with. Thus, a need for mainstreaming them in peace building and conflict resolution process. Women’s roles in addressing conflict, violence and extremism have been highlighted in a number of studies. Women are not only victims of violence and conflict; they also play important roles in international peace and security efforts, including conflict resolution and peace-building. They are also targeted as audience and potential partners in countering violent extremism and de-radicalization (Fink & Barakaat, 2013: 4).

2. Definition of Concepts

2.1 Peace Building

Peacebuilding is difficult to define and even more difficult to achieve in practice. But there is a need for some definitions which will guide stakeholders in achieving peace in practical terms. Lambourne (2004:3) defines peacebuilding as “strategies designed to promote a secure and stable lasting peace in which the basic human needs of the population are met and violent conflicts do not recur. This definition, explains Lambourne, takes a long-term focus and incorporates the goals of both ‘negative peace’ and ‘positive peace’. Galtung distinguished between negative peace as the outcome of efforts to stop physical or personal violence (direct violence), and positive peace as

the goal of efforts to end indirect structural and cultural violence (indirect violence) that threaten the economic, social and cultural well-being and identity of individual human beings and groups. Porter (2007) further elucidates that the understandings of *peace* have expanded from negative peace as merely the absence of war, armed conflict or violence, to positive peace, which requires the resolution of root causes of conflicts and the maintenance of sustainable peace.

Peacebuilding is, in the words of Boutros-Ghali (1992: 8), ‘rebuilding the institutions and infrastructures of nations torn by civil war and strife; and building bonds of peaceful mutual benefit among nations formally at war’. Brahimi (2000: 2-3) defines peacebuilding as ‘activities undertaken on the far side of conflict to reassemble the foundations of peace and provide the tools for building on those foundations something that is more than just the absence of war’. It should be understood that peacebuilding is objectively focused on the prevention of conflicts to the bearest minimum to the extent of ensuring *stable peace* which Boulding (1978: 13) describes as ‘a situation in which the probability of war is so small that it does not really enter into the calculations of any of the people involved’. Building a culture of peace implies trying to put in place the universal values of respect for life, liberty, justice, solidarity , human right, and equality between men and women.

2.2 Conflict Resolution

This concept has a direct link to the concept of peacebuilding. It is a truism that peace cannot be appreciated until the devastating consequences of conflict are witnessed in an erstwhile peaceful society. Conflict is one of the consequent features of human interaction and cannot be eliminated but can be minimised when properly managed. Its proper management and transformation are essential for peace and progress in human society (Omilusi, 2003). When conflict does occur, the state, along with other stakeholders, swings into action to get to its root cause with the intent of resolving it. Conflict should not be confused with dispute. Illuminating on the subtle difference between

the two concepts, Burton posits that though the terms are used interchangeably, as are settlement and resolution. In the emerging literature on conflict resolution these terms have distinctive meanings. ‘disputes’, he explained, involve negotiable interest, while ‘conflicts’ are concerned with issues that are not negotiable, issues that are related to ontological human needs that cannot be compromised. Accordingly, settlement refers to negotiated outcomes of disputes, while resolution refers to outcomes of conflict situation that must satisfy the inherent needs of all. In view of this, we have dispute settlement and conflict resolution.

2.3 Gender mainstreaming

According to the European Community (1995–2005), gender mainstreaming involves not restricting efforts to promote equality to the implementation of specific measures to help women, but mobilizing all general policies and measures specifically for the purpose of achieving equality by actively and openly taking into account at the planning stage their possible effects on the respective situation of men and women (gender perspective). In her 1996 submission, the Commission re-defines it as the systematic integration of the respective situations, priorities and needs of women and men in all policies and with a view to promoting equality between women and men and mobilizing all general policies and measures specifically for the purpose of achieving equality by actively and openly taking into account, at the planning stage, their effects on the respective situation of women and men in implementation, monitoring and evaluation. (Commission of the European Communities 1996: 2) The concept of gender mainstreaming has been defined by the United Nations as

The process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in any area and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women’s as well as men’s concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres, so that women

and men benefit equally, and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal of mainstreaming is to achieve gender equality (United Nations, 1997).

The concept of gender mainstreaming calls for the systematic incorporation of gender issues throughout all governmental institutions and policies. It effectively entered the mainstream of international public policy in September 1995, when it featured in the Platform for Action of the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing, which defined the term broadly and committed the institutions of the UN system to the systematic incorporation of a gender perspective into policy-making. Before then it featured in the EC parlance in 1991, when it appeared as a relatively small but innovative element in the Third Action Programme on Equal Opportunities, though the concept remained unrealized during the Third Programme itself (1991–6). As Pollack & Hafner-Burton (2000: 434) rightly put it;

Gender mainstreaming is a potentially revolutionary concept, which promises to bring a gender dimension into all EU policies. Yet, gender mainstreaming is also an extraordinarily demanding concept, which requires the adoption of a gender perspective by all the central actors in the policy process – some of whom may have little experience or interest in gender issues.

Braunmühl (2014: 7) posits that gender mainstreaming is explicitly a top-down strategy which in principle obliges the management of an organisation to do whatever is required to fully accommodate gender equality – over time renamed ‘gender justice’ – in its activities. From the above elaboration of the concept, it can be argued that gender mainstreaming is the interweaving of gender perspectives in all walks of life as this enhances efficient management of diversity in every aspect of policy-making.

3. Theoretical Framework

Gender mainstreaming is indeed a new and evolving concept in the literature on peace building and conflict resolution. Most literature

in this area are basically androcentric. With the changes in the dimensions and complexity of the causes, nature and management of conflicts in the rapidly complicating world which has seen women becoming more visible in the arena of conflicts both as victims and victimizers, researchers are turning attention to gender perspectives. Toeing this line of thought, 'Feminist Peace and Conflict Theory' (FPCT) is adopted as the analytical lens to bring to the fore the under-utilized women utility in the process of peacebuilding and conflict resolution. This theory presupposes the need of visibility of women in conflicts and a broader understanding of security issues. FPCT introduced the interconnectedness of all forms of violence: domestic, societal, state based and inter-state and its gendered dimension. It critically discussed the collaboration of the 'Beautiful Soul', as Jean Bethke Elshtain (1987) choose to label women, in the machinery of violence (Weber, 2006). The moral argument of men as makers of war and women as victims of war was the dominant analysis in FPCT until the late nineteen-eighties. 'Her-story', a feminist coinage from the early nineteen-seventies stressed the absence of women from 'His-story' in conventional historiography. It is also argued on the basis of their inherent peacefulness enacted by motherhood and caring that women are embodiment of peace. Hence war is not only affecting women disproportionately, it is the ultimate attack on 'feminine' non-violent ideals (ibid).

However, Weber elucidates that the experience of female fighters in Nicaragua (Margaret Randall 1994), Vietnam (Olivia Bennett 1995) and elsewhere made a deep impact in the feminist peace discourse. In the wake of acknowledging women's experiences in war, both as active fighters as well as victims, the question of inherent peacefulness and maternal thinking were shattered. Aggression and submission as gendered adjectives conditioning men and women were reflected anew (Weber, 2006). Similarly, the unfolding scenarios of wars across the globe, crises and conflict situations in the North East's experience of Nigeria's Boko Haram crisis espouses the changing notion and roles of women. They are becoming historical figures to be reckon with. Now they make

history as active bomb carriers and peace builders and makers; this essentially makes them victims, victimizers and peace ambassadors. Be that as it may, women make a vital contribution to maintaining peace because they are mostly affected by crises. The non-violent potential of 'feminine virtues' can be utilized to create a peaceful world.

4. Legal Framework in Support of Women in Peacebuilding and Conflict Resolution

Advocacy for women mainstreaming in the topic under discussion is not without legal basis. Chapter 14 (2) (b) of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria states that 'The security and welfare of the people shall be the primary purpose of government'. It also states in Chapter 17 (2) (a) that 'In furtherance of the social order, every citizen shall have equality of rights, obligations and opportunities before the law'. These are the constitutional basis for women's and girls' equal participation in public life, including in matters that have to do with peace and security. It is also a universal principle that the primary responsibility for providing security and ensuring human rights lies with national governments. In addition to the universal principles of non-discrimination and that the state bears primary responsibility for the security and human rights of its citizens; Nigeria is a state party to major human rights instruments. These include both the UN Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination against Women and the African Charter on Human and People's Rights and its Protocol on the Rights of the African Woman, although neither has yet been domesticated. (Nwadinobi & Maguire, 2013: 13).

International recognition and acceptance of women's inclusion in peacebuilding activities has increased globally, bolstered by the development of a policy framework on women, peace and security that began with the adoption of United Nations Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325 in 2000, followed by a further six resolutions on women and peacebuilding. This was the first resolution to recognize the gendered impact of war and conflict on communities. It highlights the importance of

including women in peace processes and stabilization efforts. It was followed by six additional resolutions (1820, 1888, 1889, 1960, 2106 and 2122) that call for the full and equal participation of women at all levels of peacebuilding, from early conflict prevention to post-conflict reconstruction (International IDEA, 2015: 12)

5. Women and Peace Building in North Eastern Nigeria

The impacts of women in peace building and conflict resolution have not been well felt in Nigeria and particularly in the North East. This accounts for their perpetual marginalization in all stages of decision making on far reaching issues with have direct bearing on them. In her findings on the role of women in building community resilience in the North East, Hamman-Obels (2017: 59-60) submits that women are disadvantaged and marginalized in comparison to men across many socio-developmental indices, such as family and domestic matters, inheritance, education, ownership rights, business, labour market and earnings, etc. The socio-economic development indicators for women in the North East are among the lowest in the country. There has been a decline in the educational index between 2010 and 2013, from 0.6 to .55, in comparison to other zones, in addition to having the lowest life expectancy index for the same period (NBS, 2013).

From the above depiction of the status of women in the North East, not much will be expected of them because of their marginalized status. However, despite being pushed to the lower rung of the societal ladder, there are few women who broke the marble ceiling and pushed their ways to the public domain. They have in no small measure contributed to the peace building process aimed at bringing an end to a decade long crises in the North East. A foremost youth-centered vigilante group called Civilian Joint Task Force (CJTF) has been very instrumental in curtailing the advances of Boko Haram insurgency in the North-East. The CJTF, which originated in Maiduguri was later to spread her operations to other states of the North-East. They work with various security agencies to clip

the terrorists' wings. Conversely, what is seldomly mentioned about the CJTF operations is the roles of women who make up its rank and file members. The success of CJTF has been highly gendered in favour of male members of the group while the contributions of women have been negligently overlooked. Hamman-Obels (2017: 74-75) gives an instance of the crucial roles played by women members of the group in providing protection to IDP camps by carrying out body searches on women. This exposes them to direct attacks of suicide bombers; risking their lives in a bid to enthrone peace and dethrone violence. These young female CJTF members similarly provide security and protection in many LGAs that the CJTF covers, including protection to LGA offices besides the community.

Let us now mention some brave women whose adventures in installing peace in the face of violent terrorism deserve commendation. Most notable is Barr. Aisha Wakili (also known as mama Boko Haram) who in 2016 was declared wanted by the military over her relationship with Boko Haram. She is a resident of Maiduguri and an erstwhile member of the Committee on Dialogue and Peaceful Resolution of Security Challenges in the North set up by Jonathan's Administration (Nwosu & Ukaegbu, 2016). Interestingly, a 67 year old woman by the name Hajiya Zara is among the first women in Borno State dedicated to fighting against the Boko Haram insurgency. She was pushed to take up arms against the terrorists (daring the societal assigned gender role) after the killing of her husband and children by the insurgents. Her bravery accorded her the rear privillage to achieve many feats, the most stunning of all was her ability to apprehend a female bomb carrier on a *Sallah* (festival) day and handed her over to the military JTF. Her dogged determination to ensure that outlaws are apprehended and peace reigned in her crisis-torn-apart community earned her the popular name 'Zara JTF' (Chinade & Bivan, 2015).

6. Impediments to Women's Mainstreaming in Peace Building Process

While a consensus among international actors has been built around the need to involve women in peace processes more proactively, it is remarkable that after the adoption of UNSCR 1325, women's agency and their contributions to peace and democratization processes have been severely restricted (Nwadinobi & Maguire, 2013: 13). Where women have taken part in peace negotiations and peace agreements including gender-sensitive provisions, their experiences in both peace and conflict remain largely unnoticed. This consequently denies them the opportunity to put to valuable use their experiences and knowledge of conflict on the one hand and participation in the process of peace building on the other hand. A research conducted by Nigeria Stability and Reconciliation Programme (NSRP) in 2013 found gender-based discrimination to be institutional across the security sector- a most prominent sectorial stakeholder in installing peace in conflict situations. Some of the impediments to women visibility in peace building are adumbrated below:

7. Discriminatory Social Norms

While the specifics of social norms (expressed as cultural, traditional or religious) vary across Nigeria, the marginalisation of women and girls is the single common factor and it influences all other obstacles. North-East is not an exemption.

7.1 Colonialism

This has been identified as one of the historical contradictions that denigrated the status of women in Nigeria during the colonial era. Some of the changes brought by European rule, argues Falola, affected gender relations in a way that favored men at the expense of women. Colonial institutions were male dominated. Europeans brought with them the idea that men were more important than women, the Victorian belief that the place of women was in the home to cook and look after their children, the idea that economic and political changes were shaped and controlled by men. (Falola, 2002: 291).

7.2 Representation in the media

Print and electronic media either under-report, black out or relegate women-led initiatives to back pages, small print or fashion inserts. Peace initiatives are not generally reported except where there is a sensationalist element for example 'women in a peace march half naked'. Women have generally had less capacity to cultivate media relations. Added to these are the general shortcomings in news reporting such as lack of community radio.

7.3 Tokenism

Generally, women are not engaged in high level peace initiatives. However, when they are invited to such initiatives they are often assigned auxiliary and subsidiary roles. Thus, with the exception of cases where women are called upon to address 'women, peace and security' issues, women's involvement in mainstream peace and security events is still often relegated to domestic, logistical or nurturing roles, rather than as mediators, panellists or negotiators.

7.4 Gender-Based Violence

Violent conflict often involves or results in the use or threat of gender-based violence against women and girls. This comes in form of sexual violence by armed forces or groups; and for this and similar reasons, women and girls are prevented from going outside their homes for fear of violence. This accordingly militates against women playing any meaningful role in conflict resolution. Thus, they hardly speak out nor stand against the violence.

7.5 Religion

Religious interpretations are often used to justify women's secondary position and their exclusion from public life. Both Christian and Muslim conservatives are ideologically against women visibility in the public realm. This notional conception of women creates an environment where women are expected to behave in certain ways which do not include adopting leadership roles.

7.6 The Nature of Conflict

When conflict takes a violent turn, it constitutes an obstacle to women's participation. In the North East, women's civil society organisations that have worked on sectoral development issues are finding it increasingly difficult to meet, let alone form strategies for peace-building. At the same time, women who speak out about violent conflict risk being targeted either personally or through their families.

8. Conclusion

This paper argues that mainstreaming women in peacebuilding and conflict resolution is a positive step in the right direction. Women's participation in peace processes strengthens the possibility of long-lasting peace agreements, offers new insights and provides important lessons for promoting peace and averting conflict. This in part is due to their peculiar experiences in conflict and post conflict situation and because they are more vulnerable than men. Similarly, at the heart of peacebuilding is the idea of meeting needs for security and order, reasonable standard of living, and recognition of identity and worth. Gender mainstreaming is tantamount to recognizing women identity and worth. It concludes that women know better how to handle gender (female) related issues as they bear on insecurity and peace. While it is true that men sympathize with female victims of violent terrorism experienced in the North East, they cannot empathize as women do.

9. Recommendations

- Women should be engaged in peace building process as this invigorates the possibility of a long-lasting peace.
- Women's roles in peace building should be applauded and given proper reportage in order to encourage other active fellows in aspiring to be ambassador of peace.
- Religious scholars should be incorporated in orienting womenfolk to appreciate their relevance in promoting peace and assisting, especially, female victims of conflict. This is paramount because religion has been used

interpretively to bar women from the public realm.

- The Women's Peace and Security Agenda of the UN Resolution 1325 should be adopted and perhaps adapted to improve protection of girls and women.
- Government should invest massively in girl's child and women education. This is hinged on the firm belief that education by its very nature helps in jettisoning some of the cultural beliefs that stand in the way of actualizing women potentials in virtual endeavours such as paece building.

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Inclusive Education and the Girl child in Contemporary Nigerian Society: Counselling Implications

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Abstract. The study investigated inclusive education and the girl child in contemporary Nigerian society, counselling implications. Three research questions and hypotheses were raised as a guide to the study by using survey design. An instrument titled “Questionnaire for Inclusive Education and the Girl Child in Contemporary Nigerian Society (QIEGCCNS)” was designed and used to obtain appropriate results for this study. 100 female students from 20 public secondary schools in Jos metropolis were sampled using simple random sampling technique. The research questions were answered using simple percentages while t-test was using to test the hypotheses. The population of the study comprised of 1,200 respondents. The result showed that the inclusive education helps in increasing the girl child’s self-esteem and self-confidence if properly implemented. Also, it showed the differences in scores on factors militating against inclusive education in Nigeria. The study therefore made some recommendations, such as provision of adequate and effective use of technical equipment. Counselling strategies such as, modeling, cognitive restructuring, collaborative learning, transactional analysis and individualized counselling are found to be very useful in inclusive education.

Keywords: Inclusive Education, Girl Child, Contemporary Nigerian Society, Counselling.

1. Introduction

Education is generally seen as an experience acquired during one’s life time. This experience can either be in formal or informal way. Adeniyi (1992) in Fakayode and Osundina (2010) described education as an investment in man, that is, provision that determines the existence and continuity of man and his activities for as long as the universe remains. Based on this premise, an individual in the society, regardless of his other condition should be educated. Hence, the need for inclusive education and the girl child in contemporary Nigerian society.

In recent years, considerable interest has been generated worldwide on the effort to bridge the gap of educational inequality between the boy child and the girl child. Records have shown that the girl child is unnecessarily discriminated against in all works of life, including education. According to Bankole and Ebioyehi (2003), it has led to organizing different international conferences, such as the world summit for children, New York, 1990; world conference on education for all (EFA) 1990; the Pan-African conference on the education of girls, Ouagadougou 1993, among others. The major areas of these conferences were to eliminate all gender discriminations, improving access and quality of girl child education. Despite all these efforts, the girl child still faces discrimination, ranging from early marriage to access to quality education.

In Nigeria today, investigation affirms that a significant proportion of the girl child still lacks access to primary education either because they dropped out of the system or they were never enrolled in schools. Bankole and Ebioyehi (2003) opined that 46.6% of all pupils who withdrew from school are girls. Since education is a right of an individual the above group should be exposed to education system which will suit their respective purpose, hence the issue of inclusive education.

The issue of inclusive education started in June 1994 when representatives of 92 government and 25 internal organizations organized the world conference on special needs education (SNE) held in Salamanca, Spain. The conference agreed on a dynamic new statement on the education of all children with special needs. The conference adopted a new frame work for action with 14 guiding principles that the regular school accommodates the special needs child regardless of his or her ability. Thus Salamanca proclamation states that:

Those with special educational needs must have access to regular school, which should accommodate them within a child-centered pedagogy capable of meeting these needs. That the regular schools with this inclusive orientation are the most effective means of combating discriminating attitudes, creating welcoming communities, building an inclusive society and achieving education for all. (UNESCO 1995 p.g).

Girls with disabilities are among the world's most marginalized groups of society, resulting from social norms and cultural bias around gender and disability. Those agencies committed to gender equity in education overlook the specific situation of and added barriers faced by girls and women with disabilities, and those who are committed to disability inclusion and equity fail to apply a gender perspective. As a result, girls with disabilities have limited educational opportunities.

Dictionaries have defined inclusive education as a learning environment that promotes the full personal, academic and professional development of all learners irrespective of race, class, colour, gender, disability, sexual

preference, learning styles and language. Inclusive education means that all students attend and are welcomed by their neighborhood schools in ah-appropriate, regular classes and are supported to learn, contribute and participate in all aspects of the life of the school. Inclusive education is therefore about how we develop and design our schools, classroom, programs and activities so that all students learn and participate together. It happens when children with and without disabilities participate and learn together I the same classes. Research shows that when a child with disabilities attends classes alongside peers who do not have disabilities, good things, such as social interaction, development of self-confidence and esteem happen.

Aims and objectives of inclusive education as outlined by Okyere and Adams (2004) include:

- Education for all.
- Protection of rights.
- Identification of skills.
- Development of social consciousness.
- To prepare for new challenges.
- Development of brotherhood.
- Top improve quality of education.

The NPE (2004) sections B and C state that:

Education of children with special needs shall be free at all levels and all necessary facilities that would ensure easy access to education shall be provided e.g. inclusive education or integration of special classes and units into ordinary/ public classes and units into /public schools under the UBE.

From the above statement, it is clear that contemporary Nigerian society accepts this new approach to education for the special need children. This is also in line with the aim of inclusive education (Adeniyi and Egunjobi, 2003).

Challenges of inclusive quality education for a girl child in Nigeria as identified by UNICEF in Bankole and Ebioyehi (2003) and Isola and Osundina (2016) are:

- i. Traditional attitude towards the girl child.
- ii. Poverty and economic issue.
- iii. Early marriage and teenage pregnancy.
- iv. Culture and religious biases.

- v. Gender bias in content and teaching process.
- vi. Poor qualified teacher
- vii. Geographical isolation, and
- viii. Gender-based violence.

It should be realized that education is the bedrock of any human endeavor in the present life. The positive desire to [provide adequate and equal educational opportunities to the special needs individuals would go a long way to determining the nature of job, position in the work place, wages and shape their lives to the right direction.

Importance of inclusive education to the girl child includes building of self-esteem and confidence, development of friendship, acquisition of important academic skills, among others. The importance of inclusive education to the girl child cannot be over emphasized. For a girl child to be empowered to participate in decision making process when the need arises, she has to be given quality education. This paper therefore, seeks to elucidate that if obstacles that prevent a girl child from fundamental right to education are removed, she will have access to information related to her rights economically, health wise, socially, politically and in other ramifications. According to UNICEF (2007) in Isola and Osundina (2016) girl's education does not only bring the immediate benefits of empowering girls, but it is seen as the best investment in a country's development. Consequently, educating a girl child is fundamental for development, particularly in developing countries like Nigeria, is to ring about political and economic development. It is against this background that this paper investigated inclusive education and the girl child in contemporary Nigerian society.

2. Objectives of the Study

This study determined the:

- Meaning of inclusive education.
- Causes of inclusive education.
- Benefits of inclusive education for the girl child
- Challenges of inclusive education for the girl child

3. Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study:

- What are the causes of inclusive education for the girl child in contemporary Nigerian society?
- What are the benefits of inclusive education of the girl child?
- What are the challenges of inclusive education for the girl child?

4. Research Hypothesis

The following hypotheses were tested in the study:

- There is no significant difference between the male and female students on the cause of inclusive education of the girl child in contemporary Nigerian society.
- There is no significant difference between the mean scores of males and females on the benefits of inclusive education of the girl child.
- There is no significant difference between the mean scores of males and females on the challenge of inclusive education for the girl child.

5. Research Methodology

This study employed a descriptive survey design in determining inclusive education and the girl child in contemporary Nigerian society. It was considered appropriate because it involved the use of questionnaire and it focused on the perception and description of the existing situation among a large number of respondents. The population of the study comprised of 1,200 respondents. 120 female and male students from 20 public secondary schools in Jos metropolis were sampled using simple random sampling technique. Three research questions and hypotheses were raised as a guide to the study. An instrument titled "Questionnaire for Inclusive Education and the Girl Child in Contemporary Nigerian Society (QIEGCCNS)" was designed and used to obtain appropriate results for this study. It was a 35-item instrument on a two-point scale of "Agree" and "Disagree" the questionnaire was validated by two experts

in special education and educational psychology. The instrument's reliability was also established. Data collected were analyzed using simple

percentages and t-test at 0.05 level of significance.

6. Findings

Research Question One: What are the causes of inclusive education for the girl child in contemporary Nigerian society?

Table 1: Percentage scores of Causes of Inclusive Education

S/N	Items	N	Male	Female	%
1	Combating discrimination attitudes	120	40	60	83.3%
2	Creating welcoming communities	120	35	60	79.1%
3	Building an inclusive society	120	45	55	83.3%
4	Achieving education for all	120	60	60	100%
5	It is a favoured approach to responding to the needs of special needs students in the ordinary schools	120	60	60	100%
6	To address gender disparity issues	120	35	60	79.1%
7	Increased access for underserved groups	120	50	60	91.7%
8	Increasing awareness for women education	120	38	60	81.7%
9	To avoid their separation from homes and families	120	60	60	100%
10	To be prepared early to adapt to the realities of life	120	60	60	100%

Table 1 show that the respondents, both males and females agreed that the causes of inclusive education for the girl child are achieving education for all, to avoid their separation from homes and families, and to be prepared early to adapt to the realities of life, all were rated 100%. Other highly rated item was increased access for underserved groups, 91.77%, while combating discriminatory attitudes and building an inclusive society were rated 83.3% respectively.

Research Question Two: What are the benefits of inclusive education for the girl child?

Table 2: Percentage Scores of Benefits of Inclusive Education.

S/N	Items	N	Male	Female	%
11	Academic achievement	120	45	59	86.7%
12	Increase in social interaction	120	38	60	81.7%
13	Maintenance of adequate self-esteem	120	50	57	89.1%
14	Building of self confidence	120	52	59	92.5%
15	Friendship develop	120	50	58	90-%
16	Deve3lopment of individual strengths	120	35	55	75%
17	Acceptance of individual differences	120	55	59	95%
18	Enhanced skill acquisition	120	48	56	80%
19	Increased social initiations	120	57	60	97.5%
20	Increased parent participation	120	54	58	93.3%
21	Important academic skills are learnt	120	58	60	98.3%
22	Appreciation of diversity	120	36	56	76.7%
23	Families are more integrated into community	120	51	58	90.8%
24	Learning of behavioral skill	120	48	57	87.5%
25	Families visions of a typical life for their children can come true	120	52	56	90%

Table 2 indicates respondents' percentage scores on benefits of inclusive education to the girl child. 98.3% of the respondents agreed to learning of important academic skills. This was closely followed by increased social initiations with 97.5%. Acceptance of individual differences had 95%; increased parent participation, 93.3%, and building of self-confidence, 92.5%. While others, such as families' integration into community, 90.8%; friendship develop; and families' visions of a typical life for their children can come true, had 90% each.

Research Question Three: What are the challenges of inclusive education for the girl child?

Table 3: Percentage Scores of Males and Females on Challenges of Inclusive Education for the Girl Child.

S/N	Items	N	Male	Female	%
26	Traditional attitude towards the girl child	120	32	58	75%
27	Poverty (i.e. economic issue)	120	48	60	90%
28	Early marriage	120	55	60	95.8%
29	Teenage pregnancy	120	45	56	84.1%
30	Culture biases	120	43	59	85%
31	Religious issues	120	35	60	79.1%
32	Gender disparity	120	58	60	98.3%
33	Geographical location	120	50	58	90%
34	Gender-based violence	120	52	60	93.3%
35	Child labour	120	50	60	91.7%

Table 3 reveals that the respondents agreed with all the items as challenges of inclusive education for the girl child. The highest rated item was gender disparity, 98.3%. early marriage, 95.8%; gender-based violence,93.3%;and child labour, 91.7%. While poverty and geographical location were rated respectively.

Table 4: t-test analysis showing responses among the male and female students on the causes of inclusive education of the girl child in contemporary Nigerian society.

Variable	N	Mean	SD	DF	T-cal	T-crit
Male	60	50.21	4.11	118	2.01	1.96
Female	60	53.72	7.53			

Table 4 shows a calculated t-value of 2.01 and a critical t-value of 1.96. Since the calculated t-value is greater than the critical t-value, the hypothesis is therefore rejected. This means there is a significant difference in the responses among male and female students on the causes of inclusive education of the girl child.

Table 5: t-test on the Difference between Male and Female Students on the Benefits of Inclusive Education of the Girl Child.

Variable	N	Mean	SD	DF	T-cal	T-crit
Male	60	38.4	2.76	118	2.55	1.96
Female	60	48.2	6.64			

Table 5 reveals that there is significant difference between the responses of male and female on the benefits of inclusive education of the girl child, because the t-calculated is greater than the t-critical. Hence the null hypothesis is hereby rejected.

Table 6: t-test statistics on the difference between responses of Male and Female on the Challenges of Inclusive Education for the Girl Child.

Variable	N	Mean	SD	DF	T-cal	T-crit
Male	60	50.1	4.9	118	2.00	1.96
Female	60	58.6	8.2			

Table 6 indicates the difference between male and female responses on the challenges of inclusive education of the girl child. The t-calculated of 2.00 is greater than the t-critical of 1.96. Therefore, the null

hypothesis six is also rejected. This signifies that there is significant difference in the rating of male and female on challenges of inclusive education of the girl child.

7. Discussions on Findings

The study investigated inclusive education and the girl in contemporary Nigerian society, counseling implications. Findings of the study revealed that the causes of inclusive education for the girl child include achieving education for all, to avoid their separation from homes and families, and to be prepared early to adapt to the realities of life. Also to increase access to education for underserved groups. This finding is in line with that of Odom, Buyese, and Soukakou (2011) who gave the history concerning the formation of inclusion of special needs students. They also opined that this was with the hope that inclusion would mean more than placing children with special needs in the regular education classrooms, including a sense of belonging, social relationships, and academic development, improvement and learning.

This result also confirms the finding of Bankole and Eboiyehi (2003) who found out that the major areas of the many international conferences were eliminating all gender stereotyping, improving access and quality of girl-child education. This also us in line with the Salamanca (1994) proclamation, the aim of inclusive education in the NPE (2004) section B and C; ad Adeniyi and Egunjobi (2003) who stated that it is to make the school day experience for the persons with special needs to be as similar as possible to that experienced by typical students as both progress in regular classrooms.

Findings of the study also showed that the benefits of inclusive education for the girl child include academic achievement, behavior modification of the special need student with psychological disorder, individual difference, increased social interactions and building of self-confidence. This is in consonance with the findings of Ntshangase, Mdikana and Cronk (2008) that have shown a positive result of the effects of inclusion classes on the academic achievement and social interaction for students with special needs. They also noted the effect of

inclusion on the self-esteem of the special needs students: self-esteem being the spring board for appropriate social interactions. This result is very encouraging, according to Lamport, Grawes and Ward (2012), for schools promoting inclusive practices.

Lamport, Grawes and Ward (2012) found out that special needs students' do not indicate low self-esteem than non-disabled students in their findings. Calabrese, Patterson, Liu, Godvin, and Hummel (2008) also found out that inclusion help was an increase in social interaction both in and outside the classroom. Contributing to the debate on academic progress of the special needs student in an inclusive classroom is the study of Dessemonet, Bless, and Morin (2012). The study found out that the student's inclusion classroom did perform better than those in special schools.

The result of the study also revealed that gender disparity, early marriage, gender-based violence and child labour are the major challenges of inclusive education for the girl child. Other includes poverty and geographical isolation. The findings corroborates the work of Isola and Osundina (2016) who posited that the implication of discrimination on inclusive quality education for the girl child will breed undereducated women, which invariably will result into high risk poverty, maternal mortality, child mortality, less skilled women population, all culminate to affect the political, social and economic development of their communities. As a result, their work has identified certain challenges confronting strong establishment of quality inclusive education attitude, religion, poverty, early marriage, pregnancy and geographical isolation.

This finding supports the positions of Bankole and Eboiyehi (2003); Abimiku (2006) and Oniye (2010) who reported that girls with disabilities are among the world's most marginalized groups of society, resulting from social norms and cultural bias around gender and disability. Those agencies committed to gender equity in education overlook the specific situation of and

added barriers faced by girls and women with disabilities, and those who are committed to disability inclusion and equity fail to apply a gender perspective. As a result, girls with disabilities have limited educational opportunities. Oniye (2010) while contributing to this problem is of the opinion that tradition is a constraint on the girl child education. Furthermore, Adella (2014) observed early pregnancy as another key factor mitigating against the girl child education.

8. Counselling Implications

Counselling is a process of assisting individuals to understand themselves and their environment better. The following counselling strategies are found to be useful in inclusive education, such as, life-skills therapy, cognitive restructuring technique, peer tutoring technique, modeling technique, collaborative learning technique, transitional analysis therapy and individualized counselling technique. Through these counselling strategies, the counselor can help his students in identifying specific thinking skills to enable them become aware of themselves in order to attain their potentials. The students can also be taught how to develop positive self-perception and positive relationships. Group discussion, collaboration and interaction among students can be encouraged. Students can be encouraged to learn through dramatization. One-to-one counselling, and career talks technique where students are equipped with career information can be used to help the students.

9. Conclusion

Based on the findings of the study, it can be concluded that inclusive education is very beneficiary to the girl child since it exposes her to friend ships, social and behavioural skills, skill acquisition and increased self-esteem and confidence. Furthermore, academic skills are learnt. The aim of this research was also to provide a synthesis of the understanding of barriers to education for girls with disabilities and make some useful suggestions that will address these barriers. Counselors as trained professionals in collaboration with teachers and the school authority can effectively help the

students in inclusive education through life-skills therapy, collaborative learning technique, peer tutoring, modeling, cognitive restructuring technique and career talks.

10. Recommendations

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

- Inclusive education teachers should learn management techniques for emotional and behavioural disorders so that they are able to spend less time on discipline and more time in instruction.
- Gender disparity, which has limited the enrollment of girl child to quality education in Nigeria should be discouraged.
- There should be more massive awareness programs especially in the rural areas that would sensitize people on the need to send their special needs children to school.

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Part Four
Educational Psychology

Homework Type, Parental Occupational Status and Academic Performance of Primary School Pupils in English and Mathematics in Ijebu North Local Government, Ogun State, Nigeria

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Abstract. The practice of giving home work to students has become common. However, there have been several controversial submissions on the influence of homework on the academic performance of primary school pupils. This study examined homework type, parental occupational status and academic performance of primary school pupils in English and Mathematics. A sample of 200 pupils was randomly selected from primary schools in Ijebu North local government in Ogun State Nigeria. Data were collected using Homework type questionnaire (HWTQ) and Parental occupational status Questionnaire (POSQ) and School Achievement Records (SAR). Simple Linear Regression indicated that homework type has significant influence on pupils' academic performance in English and Mathematics which accounted for 21.0% of variance in the academic performance of primary school pupils. Also, parental occupational status did not significantly determine pupils' academic performance. This result is at variance with assumptions, results from interviews and researches indicate that parent's occupational status should affect pupils' academic performance. It was recommended that there is the need for parents to be alive to their responsibilities on their wards and children and see to it that they ensure that home works given to children are all done and done promptly.

Keywords: Homework Type, Parental Occupational Status, Academic Performance.

1. Introduction

In this era of globalization and technological revolution, education is considered very significant for every human development. It plays a vital role in the development of human capital and is linked with an individual's well-being and opportunities for better living (Battle & Lewis, 2002). It ensures the acquisition of knowledge and skills that enable individuals to increase their productivity and improve their quality of life. This increase in productivity also leads towards new sources of earning which enhances the economic growth of a country (Saxton, 2000). The quality of pupils' academic performance remains at top priority for educators. It is meant for making a difference locally, regionally, nationally and globally. Educators, trainers, and researchers have long been interested in exploring variables contributing effectively to pupils' academic performance.

According to Adesemowo (2005), poor academic performance has been observed in school subjects especially Mathematics and English Language among Primary school pupils. Aremu (2000) stresses that academic failure is not only frustrating to the pupils and the parents, its effects are equally grave on the society in terms of dearth of manpower in all spheres of the economy and politics. Poor academic performance is a performance that is adjudged by the examinee/testee and some other significant as falling below an expected standard (Aremu & Sokan, 2003)

Butler (1987) has also found homework to be a correlate of academic performance. He stated that homework bore a positive relationship with learning outcomes when it is relevant to learning objectives, assigned regularly in reasonable amounts, well explained, motivational and collected and reviewed during class time and used as an occasion for feedback to students. Most educators believe that homework can be an important supplement to in-school academic activities (Henderson, 2009). Homework is seen as any task assigned by school teachers intended for students to carry out during non-school hours (Cooper, 2009).

Homework assignments rarely reflect a single purpose. The purposes of homework assignments can be divided into instructional and non-instructional objectives (Epstein & Van Voorhis 2010). The most common instructional purpose of homework is to provide the pupils with an opportunity to practice or review material that has already been presented in class (Becker & Epstein, 2010).

Resse (2005) opined that homework has other purposes in addition to enhancing instruction. It can be used to: establish communication between parent and child; fulfil directives from school administrators; and punish students. To this list might be added the public relations objective of simply informing parents about what is going on in school.

Despite the ubiquity of homework assignments in schools, their value has been questioned and debated over many decades in the Western world, and has prompted the educationists to conduct a meta-analysis of the Educational Research Literature (2009). Equally, the Ministry of Education recently saw the need to provide clear policy guidelines on homework to primary school teachers.

Variations in homework can be classified according to its amount, skill area, purpose, degree of choice for the student, completion deadline, degree of individualization, and social context, (Resse, 2005). Variations in the amount of homework can appear as differences in both the frequency and length of individual

assignments. Assignments can range over all the skill areas taught in school.

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The degree of choice afforded a student refers to whether the homework assignment is compulsory or voluntary. Related to the degree of choice, completion deadlines can vary from short term, meant to be completed overnight or for the next class meeting, to long term, with pupils' given days or weeks to complete the task, (Epstein, 2001).

The influence of parents on children school achievement is well documented in numerous studies. Gadsden (2003) says greater parental involvement at early stage in children's learning, positively affects the child's school performance including higher academic achievement. Harderves (1998) revealed that family whose children are doing well in school exhibit the following characters:

- Establish a daily family routine by providing time and a quiet place to study with the children and assigning responsibility for household chores.
- Monitor out-of-school activities, for example setting limits on television watching, reduce time of playing, monitor the groups of friends the pupils walk with.
- Encourage children's development and progress in school; that is maintaining a warm and supportive home, showing interest in children's progress at school, helping him or her with homework, discussing the value of a good education and future career with children.

Parental occupation is thus considered to guarantee or determine access to learning opportunities and resources that play significant role in learning outcomes (Akinsanya, Ajayi & Salomi 2011). In the same studies, it was

concluded that students that usually attain high academic achievement often come from families with high occupational status. The Canadian PISA report (2006) also shows that parents' occupation appear to influence the level and direction of children's academic achievement (OECD,2006). However, parents of low occupation status and low income level tend to lay little emphasis on the provision of facilities in the homes for children's learning and they tend to lay relatively less emphasis on organized learning activities (Laurean 2003)

However, homework is often a source of friction between home and school. Accounts of conflicts between parents and educators appear often in the popular press (Loveless, 2003). Parents protest that assignments are too long or too short, too hard or too easy or too ambiguous. Teachers complain about a lack of support from parents, a lack of training in how to construct good assignments, and a lack of time to prepare effective assignments. Pupils protest about the time that homework takes away from leisure activities (Coutts, 2004). To this extent, the researcher intends to investigate homework type and parental occupational status on academic performance of Primary School pupils in Ijebu North Local Government, Ogun State.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The differential scholastic achievement of pupils in Nigeria has been and is still a source of concern and research interest to educators, government and parents. Researchers have observed that there is poor academic performance in school subjects especially Mathematics and English language among primary school pupils. It is against this constraint that the researcher sees the subject matter as an empirical problem worthy of investigation.

1.3 Hypotheses

H₀1: Homework type does not have significant influence on academic performance of primary school pupils in Ijebu North Local Government, Ogun State.

H₀2: Parental occupational status does not have significant influence on academic performance of primary school pupils in Ijebu North Local Government, Ogun State.

2. Methodology

A descriptive research design was employed in this study. The population for this study consists of all the primary School pupils in Ijebu North Local Government Area of Ogun State. A sample of two hundred (200) respondents was drawn from ten (10) primary schools through multistage sampling procedure and simple random sampling technique. Five (5) schools out of the ten were government owned schools while the remaining five (5) were private schools. Twenty (20) pupils were randomly selected from each of the schools that make up the study area.

2.1 Instrumentation

Two questionnaires were used to collect data from the pupils. The questionnaires are: Homework Type Questionnaire (HTQ) was developed by the researcher for this study with ten (10) items. The items are measured on a likert type scale from Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2), Agree (3) and Strongly Agree (4). HWTQ has validity of crombach alpha value of 0.91.

Parental Occupational Status Questionnaire (POSQ) was a self-developed instrument. POSQ is an instrument with twelve (12) items. The items are measured on a likert type scale from Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2), Agree (3) and Strongly Agree (4). It has validity of crombach alpha value of 0.86.

The quality of pupils' academic performance was measured by their scores in the previous term examination in core subjects (Mathematics and English language).

2.2 Data Analysis

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

3. Results

Hypothesis 1: Homework type does not have significant influence on academic performance of primary school pupils in Ijebu North Local Government, Ogun State.

Table 1: Model summary of regression analysis of the influence of homework type on academic performance of primary school pupils in Ijebu North Local Government, Ogun State.

REGRESSION		ANOVA				
Model	Source	Sum Of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
R = .459 ^a	Regression	5110.506	1	5110.506	52.491	.000 ^a
R ² = .210	Residual	19179.906	197	97.473		
Adj. R ² = .206	Total	24290.412	198			

Predictor variable: Homework type.
 Dependent variable: academic performance.

The result in Table 1 shows a significant outcome ($R = .459$; $R^2 = .210$; $F_{(1, 197)} = 52.491$; $P < .05$). Homework type accounted for 21.0% of the variance in the academic performance of primary school pupils in the area of study. Therefore, the null Hypothesis which states that homework type does not have significant influence on academic performance of primary school pupils in Ijebu North Local Government, Ogun State is hereby rejected.

Hypothesis 2: Parental occupational status does not have significant influence on academic performance of primary school pupils in Ijebu North Local Government, Ogun State.

Table 2: Model summary of Regression analysis of the influence of Parental occupational status on academic performance of primary school pupils in Ijebu North Local Government, Ogun State.

REGRESSION		ANOVA				
Model	Source	Sum Of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
R = .059 ^a	Regression	85.421	1	85.421	0.695	.405 ^a
R ² = .004	Residual	24204.992	197	122.115		
Adj. R ² = .002	Total	24290.412	198			

Predictor variable: Parental occupational status.
 Dependent variable: academic performance.

As shown in Table 2 above, Parental occupational status did not significantly influence academic performance of primary school pupils in Ijebu North Local Government, Ogun State ($R = .059$; $R^2 = .004$; $F_{(1, 197)} = 0.695$; $P < .05$). Parental occupational status accounted for 0.4% of the variance in the academic performance of primary school pupils in the area of study. The null Hypothesis which states that Parental occupational status does not have significant influence on academic performance of primary school pupils in Ijebu North Local Government, Ogun State was hereby accepted.

3.1 Summary of Findings

Homework type has significant influence on pupils' Academic Performance. Parental occupational Status does not significantly determine pupils' academic performance.

4. Discussion

Result of the first hypothesis indicated that homework type contributes for 21.0% to

academic performance of primary school pupils. The findings revealed that homework type determined academic performance. This implied that the type of homework given to pupils to a large extent influence their academic performance. The study also revealed that completion of work method seems to produce more result when compared to inquiry based type and project type. The finding disagreed with the conclusion of Buell (2004) where he pointed out that while students who do homework may receive better grades and higher class test scores; this does not translate to long-term retention or student learning.

The second hypothesis appraised the influence of parental occupational status pupils' academic performance. The result indicated that parental occupational status accounted for 0.4% pupils' academic performance. It is expected that parental occupation should influence pupils' academic performance because it is often said that parents who are teachers tend to affect their pupils' performance positively. The study findings showed that parental occupational status did not significantly determine pupils' academic performance. This is in deference to the expectation. This implied that it is not in all cases that parental occupational status determined students' academic performance. This accorded with the submission of Hill (2004) where he opined that socio-economic status of parents do not affect the academic performance but makes it possible for children from low background to compete with their counterparts from high socio-economic background under the same academic environment.

5. Conclusion

The key aspect for the educators in primary schools is to educate their pupils effectively so that they may be able to show quality performance in their academics. To achieve this objective, it is necessary for the educators to understand better, the factors that may contribute to the academic success of the pupils. On the basis of the findings of this research, the researcher is of the opinion that the academic performance of primary school pupils in Ijebu

North Local Government, Ogun State may be alleviated when the government begins to find ways and means of increasing teacher-effectiveness through giving qualitative homework to pupils.

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Organizational Climate and Teachers Characteristics as Predictors of Secondary Schools' Productivity

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Abstract. The productivity of secondary schools has come under attack over time as been under productive. The study investigated the extent to which organizational climate and teachers' characteristics predict secondary school productivity in Ogun State. The Study adopted descriptive survey design with population comprising of 675 teachers in public senior secondary school in Ijebu division of Ogun State. While simple random sampling technique was used to select 148 subject teachers. Four (4) validated research instruments were used for this study which are Organizational Climate Survey Questionnaire (OCSQ, $\alpha=0.75$), Teachers' Information Questionnaire (TIQ), Sports Productivity Rating Scale (SPRC, $\alpha= 0.74$) and Socio-cultural Productivity Rating Scale (SCRRS, $\alpha=0.71$) as measures of School Productivity Questionnaire (SPQ). The result of the study revealed Organizational Climate and Teachers' Characteristics jointly predicts secondary school productivity ($F = 42.274, P < .05$). It also shows that independently, teacher characteristics and organizational Climate significantly predicts secondary school productivity in Ogun State. The study concludes that school productivity can be influenced by both organizational climate and Teacher characteristics in secondary schools and also recommends that teachers should be valued and motivated.

Keywords: Teachers; School productivity; Organizational Climate; Teacher Characteristics.

1. Introduction

Education is critical to the development of any nation both economically and technologically. It is seen as an important factor in human endeavors and as a means of enlightenment to basic human right and meaningful contribution to natural development. Enumenu (2011) posits that Nigeria and other developing countries of the world have come to consider education as the magic vehicle of progress in the latter part of the twentieth century and more importantly in this millennium. It is obvious from the above that, the expectation from education is so great, hence the need to ensure high productivity in all its facets will go a long way in determining the achievement of its objectives. Despite the attention paid to a broad definition of outcomes (productivity), however, academic performance remains central. The measurement of productivity continues to be a controversial topic among policy makers, test and measurement experts and educators (McGrew, 2005). Measuring academic performance can occur at multiple levels and serves multiple purposes. It is essentially important to measure how well an organisation converts its resources in goods and services to productivity. Saari (2006) opines that productivity typically measures as ratio of output to input. Therefore, productivity can be viewed as the instrument for continuous progress, and of constant improvement of activities. There is need for the school system to be productive for it must adhere to its set

objectives. The reason is not far-fetched from the fact that the school management has overall control over the utilization of their staff. Through interaction with teachers, school management forms its impressions on the productivity level of its teachers. If teachers are productive, it will affect the input and output systems positively, thereby making scholars look into the variables that could influence the school productivity (Olulube, 2015 & Oviawe 2016).

However, researchers have long debated whether or not Nigerian schools are productive when measured in terms of academic achievement, Socio-cultural adjustment and Sports output (Amanchukwu & Obujuru, 2013). Productivity can be defined as achieving the maximum output of a process with the use of minimum input. Productivity can be measured in the school in terms of students' performance. Maximum productivity is achieved when the resources is prepared, aligned and used for its intended purpose with learners. However, school productivity does not necessarily mean high test score because Senior Secondary School Examination (SSCE) results sometimes is a biased indicator for making judgment about the productivity of individual schools. Therefore, school productivity is a variable which covers schools output at the cognitive, affective and psychomotor levels. Monk (1996) in Oyenuga (2015) posits that productivity can be viewed as the relationship between the output generated by a service and the output generated by a service system and the input made to create it. School productivity can also be measured in terms of sporting activities of various types such as running or athletics, football, basketball and table-tennis among others. According to Bajah (2009), sport fields are essential in the teaching and learning of physical and health subjects. It has now been observed that sport equipments and field are not well planned in some of the secondary schools. The ones found are not adequate, not properly located while some are not available at all. Such may not enhance effective sporting activities thereby impeding the sports productivity and will not allow the students to participate in the various competitions going on around them. Students

participating in inter-class and school debates, both within and outside the school. Similarly, Bosschera, De Knopa, and Vertonghena (2016) not only linked sports output to students psychomotor development but sees it as a major indicator of productivity in school which produces academic and physically balanced students. In another dimension, Edinyang, Tandu and Gimba (2015) Socio-cultural adjustment of students in a multi-ethnic and heterogeneous society is strong yardstick in measuring school productivity. Hence, sporting activities and socio cultural adjustment are the indices of school productivity in this study. In the study conducted by Kareem and Oyeromi (2011) citing Ajayi (1996), it was submitted that teachers are chief determinants of school productivity whose academic qualifications, working experience, among others are most significant determinants of the school productivity. Confirming the importance of teachers on school productivity, Lloyd, (2000) remarked that teachers have important impact on students' achievements in the academic, sports and Socio-cultural areas and they also play a crucial role in educational attainment.

Teacher's characteristics according to Adeoti and Olufunke (2016) are those qualities that can be measured with test or derived from their academic or professional records. Their effectiveness is perhaps the most vital function affecting the future development of education process. The quality of education depends on the quality of teaching staff and a school without human resource may not be able to achieve the goals and objectives of the educational system. Teachers are the major indicators and determinants of quality education. Every education system depends heavily on the quality and productivity of its teachers for improving and maintaining standards and quality. The level of efficiency, productivity and the ability of educational system to achieve its set goals depend on the teachers. This is reflected on performing their defined roles because teachers are the fulcra upon which the whole educational system revolves (Eduese, 1996). Highly professional teachers, who are dedicated, are needed in schools. It has been established that there is high correlation between what teachers

know and what they teach. Thus, the ability to teach effectively depends on the teachers' knowledge and knowledge occurs in various forms. These characteristics, as identified by Mise, Odera and Mary (2013) included qualities of teachers that are viewed as personal, such as mental ability, age, gender, sex, qualification, teaching experience and educational background. There is a consensus that teachers' characteristics have significant effect on students learning out comes (Oviawe, 2016). Amachukwu and Ololube (2015) observed that both the teachers' teaching experience and educational qualifications are positively correlated to students' achievement. However, they observed that such factors as age, attitudes toward teaching, sex, socio-economic status and job satisfaction have been of some importance in some studies but not consistently cross validated. Kurgat and Gordon (2008) concluded that teachers' age, teaching qualifications and teachers experience on the whole appears to be correlated to academic success with marginal effect on Socio-cultural adjustment and sports output. Thus, the correlation between teachers' characteristics and school productivity are inconclusive especially as they relate to Socio-cultural and sports activities which call for further researches. Oni (1995), in Adeyemi and Peleyeju (2006) found that the qualification of teachers affects the school productivity.

Organizational climate provides the indispensable foundation of knowledge that is absolutely essential if one hopes to achieve success in students' performance. Since schools productivity is contextual in nature, it is expected that school productivity is dependent on climate of the organization. Given this awareness, when students' performance depends upon other people and requires certain social skills performance, then results can be more unexpected as they depend upon communication and coordination with other individuals. Gregersen and Black (2006) posited that work process would enhance a sense of felt responsibility that leads to an increase in school productivity. The study of Spector (2007) found that organizational climate is a correlate to schools' productivity Mitchell (2001), indicated that teams contribute to better outcomes due to teachers' commitment to the organization. Angle

and Perry (2001) posit that proper leadership and motivation influence teachers commitment and would result in schools' productivity. Faced with new training demands and new competitive challenges, many institutions need to undertake profound changes in terms of governance, organizational structure, organizational climate, and modes of operation. The success of an institution is based on a teacher who is teaching in the school. Experience has also shown that teachers also tend to lose the ability to attain or establish effective teaching in the overcrowded class than small class and this challenge of large class size in primary schools has been attributed to several factors, such as the introduction of too many subjects on primary school time-table coupled with the shortage of qualified teaching personnel to teach these subjects. The success of any institution is based on a teacher who is teaching in the school. It is recognized that a happy worker is a better worker because only happy and healthy teachers are productive. In making teaching productive, organizational climate counts as a key factor that affects school productivity. It should be noted that in terms of organizational climate, concentration is placed on three five dimensions, which are leadership, motivation, communication, decision making and job satisfaction as they determine the school productivity

However, despite that literature tilt in the direction of relationship between organizational climate and teachers characteristics affecting school productivity independently, studies have not combined the two variables to see how they affect school productivity. Thus, the objective of this study was to use organizational climate and teachers characteristics to predict secondary schools productivity (sporting activities and socio cultural dimension) in Ogun state.

2. Hypotheses

- There is no significant combined contributions of teachers' characteristics, and organizational climate to secondary schools' productivity in Ogun State, Nigeria.
- There is no significant relative contribution of teachers' characteristics to secondary

schools' productivity in Ogun State, Nigeria.

- There is no significant relative contribution of organizational climate to secondary schools productivity in Ogun State, Nigeria.

3. Methodology

This study adopted descriptive research design. This is because the researcher did not manipulate any of the variables; teachers' characteristics, and organizational climate but measured them as they exist and determined their contributions to the equally existing standard of school productivity. The population for the study comprised all 675 teachers in public senior secondary schools in Ijebu division of Ogun state. These include all the Vice Principals (Administration), Sport

Masters/Mistress, Socio-cultural teachers and subject teachers. The sample consists of 236 teachers-respondents drawn from 22 secondary schools. Purposive sampling technique was used to select 22 Vice principals (Administration), 44 Sport Masters and 22 Socio Cultural teachers. While simple random sampling technique was used to select 148 subject teachers. Four (4) research instruments were used for this study which are Organizational Climate Survey Questionnaire (OCSQ, $\alpha=0.75$), adapted from work of Blowers and Seashore (1966), Teachers' Information Questionnaire (TIQ), Sports Productivity Rating Scale (SPRC, $\alpha=0.74$) and Socio-cultural Productivity Rating Scale (SCRRS, $\alpha=0.71$) as measures of School Productivity Questionnaire (SPQ) by Gbadamosi (1999). The instruments were revalidated to make sure they are valid and reliable.

4. Data analysis and Results

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of Respondents

Years of experience	Frequency	Percentage
5-10	77	33
11-14	93	39
15-20	45	19
21-Above	21	09
Total	236	100
Academic Qualification		
NCE/PGDE	103	44
B.ED	84	36
MASTERS	49	20
Total	236	100

Table1 shows that 77 (33%) of the respondents poses between 5-10 years of experience, it also shows that 93 (39%) of them possess experience range of 11-14, while 45 (19%) have experience range of 15-20 and 21 (09%) of the respondents possess experience Of 20 years and above. This implies that majority of the respondents possess experience range of 11-14. The table also shows that 103 (44%) of the respondents have either NCE/ PDGE, 84 (36%) have are B.Ed holders while the remaining 49 (20%) are master's degree holders.

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant combined contributions of teachers' characteristics, and organizational climate to secondary schools' productivity in Ogun State.

Table 2:Regression of impact of teachers' characteristics, and organisational climate to secondary schools' productivity in Ogun State

Model summary

R. .491, R Square .241, Ad.R Square .235, Std Error, 13.780

Model	Sum of squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Regression	4023.387	1	4023.387	42.274	.000
Residual	12658.213	233	95.175		
Total	16681.600	234			

* indicate significant F at $\alpha = .05$

Table 2 reveals a significant outcome ($F = 42.274, P < .05$). This implies that the predictor variable, teachers' characteristics and organizational climate significantly predict secondary school productivity in Ogun State. The result further reveals that the predictor variables contributed 24% ($R^2 = .241, R = .491$) of the variance of school productivity. Meaning that other factors not accounted for in this study predicts the remaining 76%. As a result, teachers' characteristics, and organizational climate significantly predicts school productivity. Thus, hypothesis one is rejected.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant contribution of teachers' characteristics to secondary schools' productivity in Ogun State, Nigeria

Table 2: Regression of teachers' characteristics to secondary schools' productivity in Ogun State

Model summary

R. .060, R Square .004, Ad.R Square -.004, Std Error.11.179

Model	Sum of squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Regression	60.047	1	60.047	.480	.002
Residual	16621.1553	234	124.974		
Total	16681.600	235			

* indicate significant F at $\alpha = .05$

Table 2 reveals a significant outcome ($F = .480, p < .05$). This implies that the predictor variable, teachers' characteristics significantly predicts secondary school productivity. The result further reveals that teachers characteristics predicted less than 1 % ($R^2 = .004, R = .060$) of the variance of secondary school productivity. As a result, teachers' characteristics significantly predict Secondary School Productivity. Hence, hypothesis two is retained.

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant contribution of organizational climate on secondary school productivity in Ogun State.

Table 3: Regression of organizational climate on secondary school productivity in Ogun State

Model Summary

R. .048, R Square .230, Ad.R Square .007, Std Error.11.197

Model	Sum of squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Regression	6.750	1	6.750	.054	.003
Residual	16674.850	133	125.375		
Total	16681.600	134			

* indicate significant F at $\alpha = .05$

Table 3 reveals a significant outcome ($F = .054, p < .05$). This implies that the predictor variable, organizational climate significantly predicts secondary school productivity in Ogun state. The result further reveals that organizational climate predicted 23% ($R^2 = .230, R = .048$) of the variance of Secondary School Productivity. As a result, organizational climate significantly predicts Secondary Schools Productivity in Ogun state. Thus, hypothesis three is rejected.

5. Discussion of findings

The study shows that organizational climate and teachers' characteristics when combined predict secondary school productivity. This implies that the two variables are good predictors of secondary school productivity. It also suggests that, teachers' teaching in secondary schools in the area of study possesses positive characteristics which thereby enhance school productivity. It also suggests that the school have good organizational climates that can affect school productivity. This research finding supports the study of Millan and Richard (2009) which found positive effects of teachers' characteristics on school productivity. It also

agrees with the report of Khan (2012) who found that employee characteristics (personality) counts on productivity. This also research is in concord with the finding of Mayo (2011) which indicated significant relationship between organizational climate and school productivity. However, the report was different from the report of Sharp (2009) which found negative effects of teacher's characteristics on school academic performance.

The study also finds that teacher characteristics significantly predict secondary school productivity. This implies that only teachers who are qualified should be employed. This was further strengthened by the years of experience of the teachers. The descriptive details of the teachers' years of experience revealed that they possess appreciable years of experience which may have supported their qualification especially in education there by making for this outcome of positive influence of teacher characteristics on secondary schools performance.

The study also finds that organizational climate significantly predicts secondary schools productivity. This suggests that community in which the school is located expects much from the teachers. In addition the kind of relationship that exists between teachers and students can affect their level of commitment as well as attitude towards productivity. Several reasons indicate that there should be a relationship between organizational climate and Socio-cultural productivity of the school. The result of this study agrees with finding of Dufour (2000), Hoy (2001) and Klinger (2000) whose studies found a moderate positive relationship between a healthy organizational climate and students' achievement. Similarly, South, Hoy and Sweetland (2003) found a positive relationship between overall organizational climate and student performance. In Addition, Penndergast (2007) found a weak, positive relationship between students' academic performance on organizational climate. Rutter, Mnaham, Montimore, Quston and Smith (2009), Brown & Medway (2007) found a positive relationship between teacher morale and attendance and students' performance.

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

School productivity is an endless concern of researchers, It is expected that schools should live up to expectation of its establishment. This only becomes when schools are productive in terms of cognitive, affective and psychomotor domain of learning. Hence, this study have found that school productivity in Ogun can be influenced by organizational climate and teacher characteristics when combines and independently. To this extent, it is expected that teachers of secondary schools should be up and doing, in terms of qualification, experience and good management of organizational climate , all in the bid to facilitate school productivity. The study recommends that only qualified teachers should be employed and experienced teachers should be valued and motivated.

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A Sociological Appraisal of Gender Disparity in Enrollment, Retention and Completion Rate of Junior Secondary Level in the Southern Senatorial Zone of Plateau State, Nigeria

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Abstract. The study is a sociological appraisal of gender disparity in enrollment, retention and completion rates of junior secondary students in the Southern Senatorial Zone of Plateau State. The aim of the study was to investigate the extent to which enrollment, retention and completion rates differed among JSS three students between 2012/2013 – 2015/2016 sessions. Three research questions and one hypothesis were generated for the study. The sample for the population comprise of 600 students, out of which 336 were males while 261 were females. Two instruments were used for the study, Statistical Records on Enrollment, Retention and Completion rate of Junior Secondary Students (SRERC JSS) and questionnaire on Gender Bias in Education (QGBEES). The validity of QGBEES was established through a test retest method to ensure its stability and consistency using the Cronbach Alpha method while a reliability index of 0.98 was obtained. The result indicated that Enrollment, Retention and completion rates differ among boys and girls for all the sessions. The hypotheses revealed that no significant difference exist on gender bias and stereotyping practices among junior

secondary school students. The study recommended the need for government support to the girl child education by funding and setting up of policies to stem the tide of gender disparity in education.

Keywords: Sociological Appraisal, gender disparity, enrollment and competition rate

1. Introduction

The importance of education to the survival and development of any society cannot be overemphasized. Durkheim (1961) describes education as a subsystem of society that promotes cohesion and hegemony by socializing members into key cultural values that promotes development. In this regard education can be seen as a tool for promoting equality among members of society and eliminating all forms of societal discrimination. According to Vaughan (2016) education eliminates inequality in society among the underprivileged and marginalized groups and remains one of the social policy areas that serve as a vehicle for breaking down barriers in education and paving way for sustainable development.

It is in view of its importance that the Nigerian government reformed her basic arm of education to a nine year basic education comprising of six years of primary education and three year secondary education in order to strengthen its foundation to meet developmental challenges of global initiatives like Education For All (EFA), Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and presently the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGS) (NERC, 2001). The Junior Secondary Education is the terminal level of Universal Basic Education (UBE) with its focus on both academic and prevocational subjects. (FRN, 2004). The sole aim of junior secondary education is to turn out students equipped with the skills of literacy, numeracy and prevocational skills that would develop them for useful living in society. (NPE 2001). This level of education is instrumental to the development of useful citizens with basic skills to fight society's challenging problems like hunger, poverty and address development.

To achieve these national aims and objectives of junior secondary education implies the removal of gender disparity in education and the opening of equal opportunities to promote development. According to Cheqe, Situn and Fatuma (2014), gender disparity refers to unequal opportunities, justices and treatment of social groups irrespective of gender. Gender disparity in education therefore is related to disadvantages in educational opportunities between boys and girls. Sutherland (2008) observes that in the sub-Saharan region of Africa, gender disparity is reflected in enrollment, retention and completion rates and some studies have confirmed that where gender disparity exist, the girls consistently trail behind the boys in enrollment, retention and completion rates (Sutherland 2000). Socio economic, cultural and religious factors have been identified by British council (2014) as major constraints against the girl child education. These include parental socio-economic status, cultural and religious beliefs that the girl

child should grow up to assume her responsibility in the home and this has made many parents especially in the remote rural areas to give preference to male education above that of the females. Ulic (2017) laments that even at the junior secondary level, gender inequality exist in the form of gender stereotype and bias practices among male and female students and the teachers and authority. Bakari, (2009) also discovered that some teaching materials such as textbooks try to portray gender stereotypes. These stereotype practices regarding female education emanates from the cultural set up of society and is transmitted into the school system.

Gender disparity in education is a setback to both societal and national development. Scholars contend that sustainable development cannot be achieved if all of the country's population of over 170 million which consist of women are underdeveloped (Anadi 2010). Limiting access to the girl child education increase a higher rate of literacy among the female population with attendant effect on poverty, maternal and infant morality, diseases like HIV/AIDs, all which contributes to jeopardize development in society. This study therefore is an appraisal of gender enrolment, rendition and completion rate of junior secondary school students at the Southern Senatorial Zone of Plateau |State.

1.1 Aim and Objectives of the Study

The aim of the study is to find out if gender disparity exist at the junior secondary three level of education in the Southern Senatorial Zone of Plateau State. The specific objectives are to find out if:

- There is disparity in the enrollment rate between boys and girls at the junior secondary schools in the Southern Senatorial Zone of Plateau State
- There is disparity in retention rate between boys and girls at the junior secondary schools in the Southern Senatorial Zone Of Plateau State

- There is disparity in the completion rates between boys and girls at junior secondary schools in the Southern Senatorial Zone of Plateau State.

1.2 Research Questions

The following research questions have been posed for the study

- To what extent did enrolment rate differ among boys and girls at Junior Secondary Three level?
- To what extent did retention rate differ among boys and girls at Junior Secondary Three level?
- To what extent did completion rate differ among boys and girls at Junior Secondary Three level?

1.3 Hypothesis

There is no significant difference in the mean response of gender on bias attitude and stereotype practices among junior secondary three students.

2. Methodology

The study adopted the survey research designs to enable the researcher obtain information on enrollment retention and completion rates among the sexes as well as information on biased and stereotype attitudes and practices affecting gender education at junior secondary schools. The

3. Results and Findings

Research Question One: To what extent did enrollment rate differ among boys and girls at Junior Secondary Three level in the Southern Senatorial Districts of Plateau State?

The result is presented in table 1.

population of the study comprises all the 5946 junior secondary three students in the Southern Senatorial Zone of Plateau State while the sample for the study was 660 respondents; 600 of which were students, 60 of which were parents.

The criteria for selection of the sample were based on Ferguson (1976) suggestion of 10% population as appropriate for a sample size. Out of the 600 students 336 are males while 261 are female and from the parents' population, 29 are males while 31 are females.

Two instruments were used for the study (1) Statistical records of Enrollment, Retention and Completion rate of Junior Secondary School (SRERCJSS) and Questionnaires on Gender Bias in Education (QGBEES). The SRERCJSS included statistical records on enrollment from SUBEB and records of retention and completion of ten selected secondary schools in the region from principals of the schools. The validity of QGBEES was established by experts in Sociology of Education, Measurement and Evaluation and English. The reliability of QGBEES was established through a test-retest method to ensure its stability and consistency using the Cronchbach alpha method while a reliability index of 0.98 was obtained. He results were analyzed using percentages, the mean, which had a criterion of 3 on a 5 point likert scale. The hypothesis was analysed using the t-test.

Table 1: Enrollment Data According to Gender in JS III Between 2012/13-2015/2016 Sessions in the Southern Senatorial Districts of Plateau state

SN	LGA	2012 - 2013					2013 – 2014					2014 - 2015					2015 - 2016				
		Total	Males	%	Females	%	Total	Males	%	Females	%	Total	Males	%	Females	%	Total	Males	%	Females	%
1.	Langtang North	1331	715	54	616	46	1387	720	52	667	48	142	729	51	703	49	1684	852	51	832	49
2.	Langtang South	870	469	54	401	46	902	459	51	443	49	925	462	50	463	50	1054	535	51	519	49
3.	Wase	894	594	66	300	34	974	588	60	386	40	754	516	68	238	32	860	557	65	303	35
4.	Mikang	572	318	56	254	44	595	339	57	256	43	453	256	57	197	43	571	321	56	250	44
5.	Quanpa'an	1050	612	58	438	42	1121	677	60	444	40	1145	684	60	461	40	1199	680	57	519	43
	Total	4717	2708	57%	2009	43%	4979	2783	56%	2196	44%	4699	2637	56%	2062	44%	5368	2945	55%	2423	45%

Source: SUBEB 2017

Table one shows that in the Six Southern Senatorial Zone of Plateau State, the enrollment for students between 2012/2013 session to 2015/2016 session stood at 57% (2708 students) boys and 43% (2009 students) for girls. In 2013/2014 session, the enrolment percentages for boys and girls remain 56% (2783) and 44% (2196) respectively. Between 2014/2015 and 2015/2016 sessions, the enrolment percentages for boys and girls were 56% (2637), 44% (2062). 55% (2945) and 45% (2423) respectively for the two sessions.

The differences in gender percentage ratio obtained consistently over the four sessions indicated that disparity in enrollment exist among boys and girls at the junior secondary existed in the Southern Senatorial Districts of Plateau State.

Research Question Two: To what extent did retention rate differ among boys and girls at the junior secondary level in the Southern Senatorial Districts of Plateau State? The result is presented in table two.

Table II: Enrollment Retention and Completion Data of JS III Students in some Selected Schools in the Southern Senatorial Districts .

Name of School	LGA	Enrollment in JSS I			Drop Out before JS2	No of students in JSS II			Transferred into JSS II	Drop out before JSS III	No. in JSS III			Drop Out Before JSSCE	No Retained to Completion		
		Total	Boys	Girls		Total	Boys	Girls			Total	Boys	Girls		Total	Boys	Girls
J.SS. A	Langtang North	180	110	70	110	70	36	34	39	10	99	55	44	4	95	55	40
J.SS. B	Langtang North	211	100	111	128	83	45	38	26	9	100	55	45	7	93	50	43
J.SS. A	Langtang South	255	111	114	30	195	103	92	6	68	133	68	65	6	127	65	62
J.SS. B	Langtang South	88	48	40	25	63	43	20	5	19	49	27	22	5	44	24	20
J.SS. A	Mikang	113	63	50	20	93	54	39	4	4	89	49	40	4	85	47	38
J.SS. B	Mikang	42	121	21	10	32	15	17	7	10	29	15	14	7	22	11	11
J.SS. A	Quanpaan	187	87	100	10	177	96	81	10	11	176	103	73	10	166	97	69
J.SS. B	Quanpaan	138	79	59	43	95	50	45	27	4	118	63	55	4	114	61	53
J.SS. A	Wase	111	57	54	11	100	78	22	3	60	43	22	21	3	40	20	20
J.SS. B	Wase	50	30	20	10	40	24	16	2	-	42	22	20	2	40	20	20
	Total	1345	706	639	397	948	544	404	128	195	878	479	399	52	826	450	376
	Percentage	100	52%	48%	30%	70%	40%	30%	9%	14%	65%	35%	30%	6%	61%	33%	28%

Field Study

Table two shows the retention rate of boys and girls in ten selected schools in the region. Based on records of transition and drop-out rates obtained from ten selected schools, enrollment shows that more boys 52% (706) got enrolled than girls with 48% (639). Before transition to JSII, there was a dropout incidence of 30% (397). Transition into JS two showed that out of the remaining 70% (948) left to transit 40% (544) were boys while 30% were girls. Before transition to JS III, there was a transfer rate of 9% (128) students and another drop-out rate of 14% (195 students). Both the new transfer and old students that were retained to JS3 constituted 65% (878 students) of the initial number of students who got enrolled from JS one with the boys forming the majority (35%) against the girls (30%). This shows evidence of gender disparity in enrollment.

Research Question Three: To what extent did completion rate differ among boys and girls at the junior secondary level at the Southern Senatorial Zone of Plateau State. The result is presented in table three.

Table 3: Enrollment Retention and Completion Data of JSS III Students in Some Selected Schools in the Southern Senatorial Zone of Plateau State In 2014/2015 Session

Name of School	LGA	Enrollment in JSS I			Drop Out before JS2	No of students in JSS II			Transferred into JSS II	Drop out before JSS III	No. in JSS III			Drop Out Before JSSCE		No Retained to Completion		
		Total	Boys	Girls		Total	Boys	Girls			Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls		
J.SS. A	Langtang North	180	110	70	110	70	36	34	39	10	99	55	44	4	95	55	40	
J.SS. B	Langtang North	211	100	111	128	83	45	38	26	9	100	55	45	7	93	50	43	
J.SS. A	Langtang South	255	111	114	30	195	103	92	6	68	133	68	65	6	127	65	62	
J.SS. B	Langtang South	88	48	40	25	63	43	20	5	19	49	27	22	5	44	24	20	
J.SS. A	Mikang	113	63	50	20	93	54	39	4	4	89	49	40	4	85	47	38	
J.SS. B	Mikang	42	121	21	10	32	15	17	7	10	29	15	14	7	22	11	11	
J.SS. A	Quanpaan	187	87	100	10	177	96	81	10	11	176	103	73	10	166	97	69	
J.SS. B	Quanpaan	138	79	59	43	95	50	45	27	4	118	63	55	4	114	61	53	
J.SS. A	Wase	111	57	54	11	100	78	22	3	60	43	22	21	3	40	20	20	
J.SS. B	Wase	50	30	20	10	40	24	16	2	-	42	22	20	2	40	20	20	
	Total	1345	706	639	397	948	544	404	128	195	878	479	399	52	826	450	376	
	Percentage	100	52%	48%	30%	70%	40%	30%	9%	14%	65%	35%	30%	6%	61%	33%	28%	

Field Study

Table three analysis from enrollment to completion rate among JS three students. Result indicate that transition from JS two to JS three constituted 65% (878 students of the initial number of students who enrolled from JS1 majority of which are boys with 35% while the girls remained at 30% as already noted . Also table three indicates that retention of the number of students was disrupted before the Junior Secondary School Certificate Examination (JSSCE). There was a drop out rate of 6% (52 students). The completion rate to JS three, that is on the completion of the JSSCE, was 61% (826 students) with more boys reaching the completion stage with 33% (450) than girls with 28% (376) of the initial number of enrolment from JSS one. The result indicated a difference in the completion rate among gender.

Hypothesis One: There is no significant difference in the mean responses of gender on bias attitude and stereotyping practices among junior secondary three students.

Table 4: The T-Test Analysis on the Significance Difference On Gender Bias And Stereotyping Practices Among JS III Students.

S/No	Gender	N	Mean	SD	Df	t	P value	Decision
1.	Boys	336	3.33	1.43	598	0.49	0.663	Accepted
2	Girls	264	3.24	1.42				

The result on table 4 indicated that the mean score for boys ($X = 3.33$, $SD = 1.43$) is almost the same with that of girls ($X = 3.24$, $SD = 1.42$), showing no significant difference between the two groups and $t(598) = .49$, $P > 0.05$. Since the P. value (0.66) is greater than 0.05 level of significance, the null hypothesis was accepted; it was concluded that there is no significant difference in the mean responses of gender bias attitude and stereotyping practices in junior secondary education in public schools of southern senatorial zone of Plateau State .

4. Discussion of Findings

The study attempted a sociological appraisal of gender disparity in enrollment, retention and completion rate among junior secondary three students of the Southern Senatorial Zone of Plateau State. The results have been presented according to research questions. The first research question sought to investigate the extent to which disparity in enrollment exist between boys and girls at the junior secondary level. Result of findings reveals that there was disparity between boys and girls in enrollment between 2012/13 to 2015/16 session across the Senatorial Zones of Plateau State. Between 2012/2013 session the enrollment of boys and girls was 57% (2708) and 43% (2009) respectively in 2013/2014 session, the enrollment for boys and girls was 56% (2783

and 44% (2196) respectively between 2014/2015 and 2015/2016 sessions, the enrollment percentages and figures were 56% (2637), 44% (2062), 55% (2945) and 45% (2423) respectively for the two session. The difference in gender ratio obtained consistently over the four session indicted gender disparity rate in enrollment in the Southern Senatorial Zone of Plateau State. This findings is in congruence with Sutherland (2000), Olubunmi, Omoniyi, Oluronbebe (2014) and Eloka (2014) Who observed disparities in enrollment between boys and girls at junior secondary schools.

The second research question was posed to investigate the extent of disparity in retention rates between boys and girls at junior secondary three level in the Southern Senatorial Districts. Result as shown in table 2 indicated that transition to JS two from JS one was higher for boys 40% (544) than girls, 30% (404). This findings supports Martune And Peter (2012) and British Council (2014) who observed low retention rates of girls than boys at junior secondary level.

The third research question was also asked to investigate the extent of difference in completion rates between the boys and the girls at junior secondary level in the Southern Senatorial Zone of Plateau State.

Table 3 revealed that for the remaining 61% (826 students) who retained to JS III 33% (450)

were boys while 28% (376) were girls. This findings further supports Sutherland (2000), UNESCO (2000), Olubunmi, Omoniyi and Olurontebebe (2014) that girls completion rate was lower compared to boys.

On the hypothesis which seeks to investigate if significant difference exist in the mean response of gender on bias attitude and stereotype practice among students, results revealed that the P.value (0.66) is greater than the calculated t-value (0.49) at 0.05 level of confidence. The null hypothesis was therefore accepted. This indicted therefore, that no significant exist in the mean response of gender on bias attitude and stereotype practices among students.

Apart from few findings like Eyer (2015) and Chapman (2015) that supports this findings, most earlier and resent researchers had indicated a noteworthy differences between gender on attitudes and stereotype practices among students (Saghir, 2003; Bakari, 2009; Sharma,2007; British Council, 2014; Ulic 2017). The insignificant difference obtained in this study on gender bias and stereotype has exposed new insight on the extent to which boys and girls including school authorities have continued overtime to socialize and imbibe new ways that work against gender equity. Eyer (2015) has confirmed that overtime, both local and international campaigns and seminars have been targeted on sensitizing community and schools on gender bias and stereotype attitudes that constrain female education.

5. Recommendations

- A strong government approach to legislation, policies, monitoring and public awareness campaign practices should be put in place to promote equality in enrollment
- Monitoring teams should be set up between the government and community to monitor and report on challenges relating to enrollment, retention and completion of girl child education.

- Seminars, at school level to teachers and students to bring awareness or the importance of girl child education should be encouraged.
- Government should give encouragement to girls education by giving financial support to low income families to encourage the girl child enrollment, retention and completion of junior secondary education.
- Schools should engage in generating more data to identify some difficult areas of girl child education.

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A Comparative Study of the Factors Determining Teachers' Job Performance in Urban and Rural Areas of Ijebu-Ode, Ogun State

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Abstract. Recent reports by the Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria (2017) revealed that while the numbers of schools and children in both rural and urban areas are increasing, the numbers of qualified teachers are not increasing proportionately. This is a problem that needs to be addressed because non-performing schools negatively drawback the country's educational standard. While scholars have examined the factors that affect the academic performance of pupils in rural and urban areas, there is much to be done on the factors that determine teachers' job performance in rural and urban centres. It is on this basis that this paper comparatively examined the factors that are responsible for teachers' job performance in rural and urban schools in Ijebu-Ode Local Government area of Ogun State, Nigeria. A descriptive research method was adopted while the target population involved teachers, pupils, and the school based management committee (SBMC) in public primary schools. The sample size consists of 140 respondents. The breakdown of participants is 80 teachers (40 rural teachers and 40 urban teachers); 40 pupils (20 rural pupils and 20 urban pupils); and 20 SBMC (10 rural participants and 10 urban participants). The sample was drawn from 10 public primary schools (5 rural schools and 5 urban schools) out of a total of 42 primary schools in Ijebu Ode LGA. Three instruments were used to collect data from the participants. Independent *t*-Test was used to statistically test the mean score of the dependent variables for the two independent groups. The findings of the study revealed that

teachers in urban public schools outperform teachers' from rural public schools on three indicators (i) quality teaching (ii) coverage of the syllabus and (iii) instructional design; while teachers from rural schools outperform teachers in urban school on two indicators (i) teachers' workload and (ii) evaluation of pupils' assignments. Recommendations were made on how to improve teachers' job performance in both rural and urban areas.

Keywords: Urban, Rural, Teacher, Quality Education, Challenges.

1. Introduction

In Nigeria, the government sees education as an instrument for national development and social change which is compulsory for every individual irrespective of gender, social status, religion, colour, ethnic background (NPA, 2013). However, a comparison of education indicators in rural and urban areas, especially in the domains of Net Enrolment Rate (NER), Gender Parity Index (GPI), Pupil-Teacher Ratio, Transition Rate, Instructional Facilities, and Out-of-School Rate, shows that there exist differences between schools in rural and urban areas. Rural children may experience quality of teaching that is different from what is provided for children in urban areas for a number of reasons. Firstly, parents and teachers' may have lower expectations of what rural children can achieve. Secondly, most of the teachers' in rural areas are not satisfied with the location, and so

may have poor disposition towards their profession. Also, teachers' posted to rural areas may be less likely to receive in-service training, or have the support of inspection or an education support service. One of the recurring patterns is that the rural-urban disparities are not adequately monitored and analyzed (Ogenyi, 2009)

Teachers' job performance, according to Obilade (1999) can be described as "the duties performed by a teacher at a particular period in the school system in achieving organizational goals". In this study, teachers' job performance is defined as the occupational duty of the teacher towards achieving the school goals and implementing national education policy through quality teaching, class attendance, classroom management, instructional delivery, dedication to classroom teaching time, Teacher workload, instructional design, coverage of the syllabus, and evaluation of pupils' assignments. In the definition given, there are nine components whereby teachers' job performance can be measured: (i) Quality teaching (ii) School/Class attendance (iii) Classroom management (iv) Instructional delivery (v) Dedication to classroom teaching time (vi) Instructional design (vii) Teacher workload (viii) Coverage of the syllabus (ix) Evaluation of pupils' assignments.

These aforementioned areas correspond with the suggestions of Arreola, Theall and Aleamoni (2003) who identified five areas (content expertise, instructional design skills, instructional delivery skills, instructional assessment skills and course management skills) where teacher' job performance can be measured. It must be noted that the elements of teachers' job performance is not the same as the method of measuring teachers' job performance as the latter deals with specific source, process and scale by which teachers' job performance is measured. Ronald (2005) identified twelve potential sources by which teachers' job performance can be measured: (a) pupil ratings, (b) peer ratings, (c) self-evaluation, (d) videos, (e) pupil interviews, (f) alumni ratings, (g) employer ratings, (h) administrator ratings, (i) teaching scholarship, (j) teaching awards, (k) learning outcome. Each source or method of

measuring teachers' job performance has its strength and limitations. Emery, Kramer, & Tian, (2003) are of the view that *pupil ratings* is the most influential measure of teachers' job performance; *peer review* is believed to offer more professional information than *pupil ratings* (Berk, Naumann, & Appling, 2004); while Theall and Franklin (2001) is of the opinion that *self-evaluation* provides greater insight into what affects the performance teachers in a particular school. It is logical therefore to make use of pupils' ratings, peer review and self-evaluation in measuring the performance of teachers in this study.

Teachers' job performance is however affected by multiple factors. First, location of school in rural or urban area may affect the motivation of the teacher to perform his/her duties. In Nigeria, most teachers prefer to teach in urban areas. As a result, rural schools may be left with empty posts, or have longer delays in filling posts. Even if posts are filled, rural schools may have fewer qualified teachers, if the better qualified teachers have a greater choice of jobs. Sometimes, the rural schools have less experienced teachers, as the more experienced teachers' finds ways to move to the more desired schools.

Second, teachers in rural schools may teach less than their counterparts in urban areas. Any trip away from the rural area, to visit a doctor, to collect pay, to engage in in-service training, or to visit family may involve long journeys and involve missed school days. In addition, where teachers walk long distances to school, they may tend to start late, and finish early. As transport difficulties often make supervision visits from inspectors less frequent in isolated schools, there is little to prevent a gradual erosion of the school year.

Third, even when teachers are teaching, the quality of their teaching may be of lower quality. Rural teachers often have less access to support services than their urban counterparts, and fewer opportunities to attend in-service courses. In some cases they also have difficulties in accessing books and materials. In addition, because the parents tend in general to be less

educated, they are less likely to monitor the quality of teaching, or to take action if the teaching is of poor quality (Mulkeen, 2005).

School principals often travel to Zonal or State offices to make administrative arrangements. In Nigeria, the head teacher in public schools is responsible for arranging salary increments and adjustments for each teacher. The more remote the school is the longer the head teachers would be away for these purposes, and the less the time spent by the principal on supervising curriculum structuring and planning. Also, it is noted that absenteeism is more frequent in remote schools where the atmosphere is more relaxed and visits by inspectors are less frequent. Moreover, the monitoring of teachers by the local community is often weaker in remote rural areas. The local community may place a lower value on education simply because they are less educated themselves' and so feel less able to challenge the authority of teachers. The absence or inadequate teachers in rural schools is a major setback to the achievement of quality education, and capacity building.

In making a comparative analysis of location factors, Phillips (2011) surmised that provision of education in rural areas is normally fraught with the following difficulties and problems: qualified teachers refuse appointment in isolated villages, villagers refuse to send their children to schools because they are dependent on them for help, parents hesitate to entrust their daughters to male teachers, some villagers have few children for an ordinary primary school, lack of roads or satisfactory means of transportation and communications makes it difficult to get books and teaching materials to the school which place difficulties in the way of organizing school transport among others. Khaanna (2010) conceives job satisfaction as a positive attitude by an employee towards his job as well as his personal life. Hence, work settings have direct and indirect impacts on how an individual live and associate in the environment. This definitely shows that job satisfaction covers activities within and outside the work place.

The problem facing teachers in rural schools has been persistent neglect. Politicians and

professionals educators have focused their attention on urban education, leaving many to assume that all is well in the schools in rural areas. The seeming urgency in addressing problems facing urban schools, such as low achievements test scores, school violence and vandalism, high teacher turnover have repeatedly captured politicians and administrators attention leaving rural schools all forgotten. Raz and Arids, (2010) attribute this apparent neglect to the perceived lack of political will to develop the rural constituency. Some politicians argue that the votes that brought them to power were mostly from the urban areas and not from the rural areas and so they are not accountable to the plight of people living in these areas. At times, school administrators use teachers deployment and posting into rural schools as a means of punishment for teachers that misbehaved.

1.1 Research Objectives

The general aim of this study is to comparatively study the factors determining teachers' job performance in urban and rural areas of Ijebu-Ode, Ogun State. Specifically, the study seeks to compare the mean score of rural teachers and urban teachers on five indicators of (a) quality teaching (b) coverage of the syllabus (c) instructional design (d) teachers' workload and (e) evaluation of pupils' assignments.

1.2 Research Questions

What are the differences in the mean score of rural teachers and urban teachers on five indicators of (a) quality teaching (b) coverage of the syllabus (c) instructional design (d) teachers' workload and (e) evaluation of pupils' assignments?

2. Research Method

A descriptive research method was adopted while the target population involved teachers, pupils, and the school based management committee (SBMC) in public primary schools in Ijebu Ode Local Government Area of Ogun State, Nigeria. Simple random sampling technique was used to select a total of 140

participants. The sample size consists of 80 teachers (40 rural teachers and 40 urban teachers); 40 primary six pupils (20 rural pupils and 20 urban pupils); and 20 SBMC (10 rural participants and 10 urban participants). The sample was drawn from 10 public primary schools (5 rural schools and 5 urban schools) out of a total of 42 primary schools in Ijebu Ode LGA. The criteria for selection were based on the geographic location of school in riverine/rural area and upland/urban area.

Three instruments were used to collect data from the participants. The instruments are (i) Pupils' Rating of Teachers' Performance - PRTP (ii) Teachers' Self-Assessment - TSA (iii) SBMC Rating of Teachers' Performance – SRTP. Each instrument has two sections (A and B). Section A comprises of the demographic data of respondents while Section B consist of 10 items each that measures the teachers' performance in a five Likert type scale: Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neutral (N), Strongly Disagree (SD), and Disagree (D).

Content validity was used to ensure that the items in the instrument reflect the research

objectives and research questions. Furthermore, face validity was carried out on the instruments where experts in the field of Educational Management advised on the instruments. The internal consistency of the instrument was carried out in order ascertain the degree to which all the items in the three instruments agree with each other. Hence, a pilot study was carried out among 20 participants who did not form part of the total sample of respondents. In the pilot study, the participants responded to the items and was analysed using Cronbach Alpha. The result found out that the internal reliability of the instrument PRTP was $r = .82$, TSA was $r = .76$, and SRTP was $r = .84$. Hence, the values of the three instruments for this study were considered good and reliable.

For the administration of questionnaires, the three authors carried out field work in the 10 schools used in the study with 100% retrieval of distributed questionnaires. Independent *t*-Test was used to statistically test the mean score of the dependent variables for the two independent groups of teachers (*urban* and *rural*) in the study.

3. Data Analysis

Research Question: What are the differences in the mean score of rural teachers and urban teachers on five indicators of (a) quality teaching (b) coverage of the syllabus (c) instructional design (d) teachers' workload and (e) evaluation of pupils' assignments?

Figure 1: Differences in Teachers' Job Performance in Rural and Urban Areas

Teachers		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	S.E. Mean
Quality teaching	Urban	70	57.56	22.50	2.69
	Rural	70	31.67	20.82	2.49
Coverage of Syllabus	Urban	70	89.09	10.47	1.25
	Rural	70	63.11	21.47	2.57
Instructional Design	Urban	70	83.40	8.74	1.05
	Rural	70	49.41	26.25	3.14
Teachers' Workload	Urban	70	43.50	7.62	.91
	Rural	70	74.47	18.54	2.22
Evaluation of pupils	Urban	70	47.21	24.60	2.94
	Rural	70	78.79	14.90	1.78

The output for the mean score on teachers’ job performance in urban and rural areas shows that teachers in urban areas scored higher than teachers in rural locations in three major indicators: Quality teaching (urban teachers = 57.56, compared to rural teachers = 31.67); coverage of syllabus (urban teachers = 89.09, compared to rural teachers = 63.11); instructional design (urban teachers = 83.40 compared to rural teachers = 49.41). However, teachers in rural areas scored higher than teachers in urban locations in the following indicators: Teachers’ Workload (rural teachers = 74.47, compared to urban teachers 43.50) and work environment (rural teachers = 78.79, compared to rural teachers = 47.21).

Figure 2: Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Quality teaching	Equal variances assumed	.56	.454	7.06	138.00	.001	25.89	3.66	18.64	33.13
	Equal variances not assumed			7.06	137.18	.001	25.89	3.66	18.64	33.13
Syllabus Coverage	Equal variances assumed	60.27	.000	9.10	138.00	.003	25.97	2.86	20.33	31.62
	Equal variances not assumed			9.10	100.07	.003	25.97	2.86	20.31	31.64
Instructional Design	Equal variances assumed	82.09	.000	10.28	138.00	.002	33.99	3.31	27.45	40.52
	Equal variances not assumed			10.28	84.13	.002	33.99	3.31	27.41	40.56
Workload	Equal variances assumed	45.87	.000	-12.93	138.00	.000	-30.97	2.40	-35.71	-26.23
	Equal variances not assumed			-12.93	91.66	.000	-30.97	2.40	-35.73	-26.21
Evaluation	Equal variances assumed	16.46	.000	-9.18	138.00	.000	-31.57	3.44	-38.37	-24.77
	Equal variances not assumed			-9.18	113.60	.000	-31.57	3.44	-38.38	-24.76

The output from the independent t-Test is as follow:

Variable on Quality Teaching outputs $t(138)=7.06, p=.001$. Since $p < .005$ is less than our chosen significance level $\alpha = 0.05$, there was a significant difference in the teachers’ job performance in rural and urban areas

Variable on Syllabus Coverage outputs $t(138)=9.10, p=.003$. Since $p < .005$ is less than our chosen significance level $\alpha = 0.05$, there was a significant difference in the teachers’ job performance in rural and urban areas

Variable on Instructional design outputs $t(138)=10.8, p=.002$. Since $p < .005$ is less than our chosen significance level $\alpha = 0.05$, there was a significant difference in the teachers’ job performance in rural and urban areas

Variable on Teachers’ Workload outputs $t(138)=12.93, p=.000$. Since $p < .005$ is less than

our chosen significance level $\alpha = 0.05$, there was a significant difference in the teachers’ job performance in rural and urban areas

Variable on Evaluation of Pupils Assignments outputs $t(138)=9.18, p=.000$. Since $p < .005$ is less than our chosen significance level $\alpha = 0.05$, there was a significant difference in the teachers’ job performance in rural and urban areas

4. Discussion of Findings

The findings of the study revealed that teachers in urban public schools outperform teachers’ from rural public schools on three indicators (i) quality teaching (ii) coverage of the syllabus and (iii) instructional design; while teachers from rural schools outperform teachers in urban school on two indicators (i) teachers’ workload and (ii) evaluation of pupils’ assignments. This

is in line with Watford (2009), he observed that teachers with the highest training are posted to cities, and even more noticeably to the city capital. This and more findings abound on the disparity in the quality of teachers in urban schools compared to those in rural areas, which consequently affect pupil academic attainment. Thus, schools cited in rural location, their pattern of school activities are characterized by dilapidated buildings, understaffed and poor working condition for teachers.

5. Conclusion

The knowledge gap between the urban and rural schools are widening and rural children are falling behind their urban counterparts because the schools are in bad shape physically, and there are not enough qualified teachers or enough teachers in general to attend to some subjects and pupils. Rural people need quality education, in the form of literacy and numeracy skills, to become informed participants in the social life of their community and engage in its development, which they are been denied. It is important to ensure an organized collaboration between all the stakeholders, (Ministry of Education, Principals, the community and the teachers) in the provision of teachers for the education sector, especially for the rural areas. This will allow reliable conclusions to be drawn by policymakers and comparison made for improving teachers job performance in urban and rural areas.

6. Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations are made:

- Teachers in the rural areas should be encouraged and be giving inducement to live within the domicile community of the school with their families so as to be regular and punctual in school.
- Exposure to in-service training is necessary for teachers' job performance irrespective of location.
- Support services should be made available to teachers in the rural areas so

as match up with their urban counterparts.

- Necessary machinery should be put in place for effective supervision which is necessary if there is going to be a good job performance by teachers.
- Payment of rural allowance should be made to teachers in the rural areas so as to ensure that they are committed to their jobs.

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Part Five

Educational Management

Collective Bargaining as Correlate of Principals' and Teachers' Job Performance in Secondary Schools' in Lagos State

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Abstract. The study examined the correlation between collective bargaining and principals' job performance in secondary schools in Lagos State. The purpose of the study was to examine the extent of correlation between collective bargaining and principals' job performance with a view to improving educational goals of public secondary schools in Lagos State. The study was done using descriptive method of research. Four hundred teachers drawn from twenty schools in two education districts of Lagos State, responded to structured questionnaires presented to them. Instrument was validated using a test re-test method. Data was analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 16.0 version. The Pearson product r was used to analyze the result. The result was 0.21 and 0.00 which showed strong and positive correlation at a significant level of 0.05. This showed that collective bargaining positively correlates principals' job performance. Implication of the study reveals that unfair labour practices are to be avoided in organization if fairness and consistency of employment policies are to be entrenched.

Keywords: Collective Bargaining, Education, Educational Goals, Employment Policy, Job Performance, Labour Practices, Lagos State, Organization, Principals, Secondary School.

1. Introduction

Collective bargaining has become necessary for conflict and unsatisfactory resolutions in a

school environment and other organizations and social associations. Several situations can cause conflicts and they relate to a number of issues including economic and non-economic or welfare issues. Economic issues ranges from wages, bonuses, allowances, paid and unpaid holidays and allowances. The non-economic or welfare challenges are associated with working conditions, maltreatment of staff, victimization, indiscipline, political reasons and sympathetic strikes.

In a secondary school setting, principals play very vital roles as head of the organizations. They plan, direct, organize and coordinate teaching, learning and other related activities in secondary schools. They are in position to care for their staff, reduce as much as possible stress situations at work including issues related to salaries and remunerations. It is also principals' responsibility to evaluate outcome of goals especially as it affects students' performance in internal and external examinations. Principal's work performance is judged by how well teaching and learning are organized in secondary schools. The management of staff and students needs to be programmed to align to the organizational goals of the schools. Principals need to ensure that their relationship with teachers, Parent Teachers Association (PTA), parents, and community are cordial. As an administrator, the principal utilizes every avenue within his reach to improve the image of the school. Principals need to ensure that their relationship with teachers, Parent Teachers

Association (PTA), parents, and community are cordial.

The Association of Texas Professional Educators (2010) regard collective bargaining as a process by which management and labour (school boards and educators) negotiate to reach an agreement on working conditions such as salaries, working hours and benefits. In education, collective bargaining is a process by which management and labour (school boards and educator) negotiate to reach an agreement on working conditions such as salaries, hours of work and benefits. How well principals get involved in, or manage this process, will ultimately enhance or mar their job performance. The purpose of this study is to examine the correlation of collective bargaining with principals' job performance with a view to improving collective bargaining and job performance of principals in the public secondary schools in Lagos State. The study would specifically try to establish collective bargaining practices as an approach in the administration of secondary schools by principals in Lagos State towards the improvement of their job performance. The study would try to find out if principals' respects to teachers' labour rights, welfare, prospects for educational advancement of staff, quality of academic work and attitude towards collective bargaining when factored into the administration of secondary schools in Lagos State will improve principals' job performance.

The following research questions would be answered in this paper:

Q₁ Is there any significant difference between principals' bargaining strategy and teachers' job performance in Lagos State?

Q₂ To what extent does collective bargaining contribute to principals' job performance in Lagos State?

2. Literature Review

Collective bargaining according to Wikipedia refers to a process of negotiating between employers and a group of employees aimed at reaching agreement that regulates working

conditions. The agreement reached through these negotiations covers wage scales, working hours, training, health and safety, overtime and right to participate in the affairs of the establishment. Trust, confidence, as well as keeping within defined boundaries as set out in the procedural guidelines are vital to reaching successful agreement. These negotiations functions effectively if both parties concerned conduct their affairs in 'good faith'. What then does good faith entail? Good faith simply refers to the intention of the parties involved in bargaining to be honest and helpful. For this reason, good faith cannot be imposed by law, but rather through voluntary and persistent efforts of parties involved (the employee and employer). Recognizing representatives' provision for settlement of disputes as well as ensuring mutually respected rights and responsibilities is vital to the bargaining process. As a matter of fact, the Committee on Collective Bargaining, in its preparatory work for Convention No. 154, affirmed that 'collective bargaining could only function if it was conducted in good faith by both parties' and emphasized that good faith should be achieved voluntarily with persistent efforts of both parties (ILO, 2000).

There are guidelines for employers on the process of bargaining. This starts from the pre-negotiation stage on to agreement on process to adopt, right down to the bargaining stage. This entails that fundamental principles are observed at ensuring good employment relationship between employees and employers. Negotiation is a vital part of collective bargaining. As the term implies, collective bargaining involves collective interest since the interest of several employees are involved. Sometimes, negotiations fail and there may be disruptions of work. Other parties may mediate where there is a statement, and government may intervene to create sanity in the economy. The National Labour Laws in each country play some roles at ensuring that disputes that arise are tackled by bargaining in 'good faith'. Usually, there is need to negotiate and participate actively in deliberations in the bid to find a basis for agreement. For collective bargaining to occur there should be freedom of association,

including the principle of free and voluntary negotiations and the boundary of negotiation agreed.

Peretomode (1995 cited in Obadara 2012) asserts that a school administrator is supposed to be objective in handling issues at all times. These issues could be diverse, so awareness of what makes for leadership effectiveness is important. Principals as leaders' place themselves before the group as they facilitate progress and inspire the group to accomplish organizational goals' (West, Kristine Lamm and Elton Mykerezi. 2011). They are in position to care for their staff, reduce as much as possible stress situations at work including issues relating to salaries and remunerations'.

Labour relations in Nigeria are regulated by the Labour Act, cap L1 LFN 2004. It outlines the following objectives of collective bargaining as:

- Maintaining cordial relations between management and workers
- Settling disputes/conflicts relating to working conditions and wages
- Protecting the interest of workers through collective action
- Ensuring the participation of trade unions
- Resolving the differences between workers and management.

Principals are part of the Nigeria Labour Congress (NLC), they also belong to a body committee of principals known as the All Nigeria Conference of Principals of Secondary Schools (ANCOPSS), other unions that they belong to are Nigerian Union of Teachers' Registration Council (TRC) and Science Teachers Association of Nigeria (STAN). It is obvious that principals need to be able to bargain effectively such as having discussion with their counterparts to review issues of collective agreement, or in the acceptance or refusal of contract terms. They stand in better positions to calm their teachers in times of conflict while still protecting negotiators against victimization to other unfavourable polices especially while agreement is yet to be reached. Principals can affect educational policies by showing their support or otherwise, for example,

to government policy on release of school to owner, or education curriculum.

In Nigeria public secondary schools, bargaining machinery appears weak with some states being able to pay the minimum wage while others bargain and agree on what they claim they can comfortably pay. Principals therefore, find themselves helping to sell policies of the management of either the public or privates sectors as the case may be. There is imbalance in wage between public and private schools. Principals' human relations skill coupled with other logistics factors can help keep teachers in less paying schools while negotiating for better improved condition of service. In conclusion therefore, the review of literature affirms that while collective bargaining covers the public sector and more or less acts as a basis for determining wages, hours of work and other related welfare packages; the Nigerian private sector remains flexible. The principals' job of collective bargaining therefore, depends to a large extent on what sector: public or private he superintends as there is an obvious difference in methods of bargaining between the public and private secondary schools.

3. Methodology

3.1. Research Method and Data Sources

The study adopted descriptive analysis of the quantitative method of research. The public schools in Lagos State are under Nigeria educational system. The schools chosen have been in existence for at least five years and the focus is on teachers and principals who had been in the schools for at least four years. This is to give enough time to determine principals' bargaining strategy in correlation to his job performance.

The population of the study covers the 667 public secondary schools in Lagos State. The 667 secondary schools are made up of 319 Senior Secondary Schools, and 348 Junior Secondary Schools. There are about 25,466 teachers in the State; of this number, 11,038 are in Junior Secondary Schools while 14,428 teachers are in Senior Secondary Schools. The

teachers are drawn from this population-L.S.M.E.-P.P.R.S. (2015).

3.2 Sample and Sample Techniques

The study employ simple random to select four hundred participants from the entire population. Simple random sampling technique was used to select two (2) out of the six (6) educational districts in Lagos State. Simple random sampling technique was also used to select twenty (20) secondary schools out of the two hundred and thirty three (233) in the two (2) selected districts, namely Epe/Ibeju-Lekki/Eti-Osa/Lagos-Island and Ikeja/Mushin/Oshodi/Isolo respectively. Simple random sampling procedure was also used to select four hundred (400) teachers (twenty teachers each) from the twenty (20) selected schools that fall within the sampled population.

3.3 Instrumentation

The instrument for data collection was a structured questionnaire for teachers and principals tagged (TCBQ) Teachers Collective Bargaining Questionnaire. The questions are graded on a 4-point Likert scale: Strongly Agree, Agree, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree.

3.4 Procedure for data Collection

The researcher with two assistants administered the questionnaire personally to all the four hundred (400) respondents in the sampled school.

3.5. Method of Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics showing frequency count, percentages, mean scores and standard deviation were used to evaluate the research questions. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient (Pearson R.) was used to calculate the coefficients. The research questions were tested at 0.05 level of significance using the Statistical Table for Social Sciences.

4. Results

Research Question 1: Is there any significant difference between principals’ bargaining strategy and teachers’ job performance in Lagos State?

The table 1 below shows that the direction of correlation between collective bargaining and teachers’ job performance is strong and positive at 0,022 using the variable of awareness to collective bargaining and perception of principals by teachers. This means that teachers tend to perform better when collective bargaining is effective. It implies that collective bargaining highly influence teachers’ performance.

Table 1
Correlation

		Awareness to collective bargaining	Perception of principal by teachers
Awareness to collective bargaining	Pearson Correlation	1	.115*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.022
	N	400	400
Perception of Principals by teachers	Person Correlation	.115*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.022	
	N	400	400

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

Research Question 2: To what extent does collective bargaining contribute to principals’ job performance in Lagos State?

Table 2 below, shows that the direction of correlation between collective bargaining and teachers’ job performance is very strong (0.000) and positive. It correlates at 0.01. This means that principals tend to perform better when collective bargaining is high. This implies that collective bargaining highly influence teachers’ performance.

Table 2

Correlations			
		Awareness of Staff to collective bargaining	Perception of teachers by principals
Awareness of staff to collective bargaining	Pearson Correlation	1	.836**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	40	40
Perception of teachers by principals	Person Correlation	.836**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	40	40

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

5. Findings and Discussion

The finding of the study showed there is significant relationship between collective bargaining and principals’ job performance. This is supported by Chirchir, et al (2014) who opined that leadership is one of most important contributors to the success of any educational establishment. Good leadership will drive change in a positive direction by setting the vision, rallying the entire institution in a focused direction, motivate and inspire all, and setting the pace by being good role models. The authors submitted that the principal must balance the demands of management as seen in the administrative workload and the need to provide leadership to the team using different approaches of leadership in order to improve school performance in all aspects.

The finding also showed a significant relationship between principals’ bargaining strategy and teachers’ job performance. This finding is corroborated by the work of Brunner (2011) who submitted that when teachers perceive principals’ bargaining strategy to be appropriate they grow in commitment, professional involvement, and willingness to strategize. The result is equally by Anyim (2011) who opined that school principals’

should provide trust and support to teachers to enable them carry out their duties effectively.

It was found that significant correlation or association exists between collective bargaining and teachers’ job performance. This was also corroborated by Akubue (1991) who posits that collective responsibilities for major policies are characterized by openness and free exchange of ideas. Principals’ interact with their staff and that can pave ways for effective bargaining as ‘giving support to the human beings on the other side tends to improve your relationship and increase the likelihood of reaching agreements.

The planning, coordinating, directing and assessing of the educational progress of the child is achieved through the joint effort of the coordinating skills of the teachers and principals. Through collective bargaining, there is the tendency for work to be more proactively done and there will be a basis for comparison of benefits. The findings of this work would assist and improve principals’ level of bargaining in secondary schools. It will afford principals and teachers the opportunity to appreciate the need for collective bargaining in improving job performance in schools. This study highlighted the relevance of collective bargaining which various school inspectors, supervisors, counselors and parents can utilize to ameliorate

the current problem of coordination which teachers and principals face in the course performing their duties. It will enable stakeholders in education (principals, teachers, parents, communities and students) fashion out strategies to improve bargaining in secondary schools. The study would enable educationists confirm how collective bargaining correlates with principals' job performance.

6. Conclusion

Collective bargaining has been seen through the study to correlate principal's job performance. The fact that principals and teachers see collective bargaining as being laudable because it guides on standards, facilitates decision making process regarding wages, provides avenues for redress in case of unfair labour practices, help to promote fairness and consistency of employment policies within various organization in the state. This implies that with time, a better workforce where democracy and fairness are upheld will be seen in Nigeria and Lagos State in particular. Employees acting on their own may not achieve much, but when organized as a body they can wield considerable power to cater for their individual needs and special interests. As a body in the public sector, such as unions or associations, they are better placed to have far reaching and important impact on government policies. Players in the private sector also have their own ways of achieving results; they take part in politics and are often sponsors of parties. So, they indirectly wield some power.

Improvement of standards in schools has been an ongoing trend, and principals as heads of secondary schools run with government policies through the assistance of their teachers and pupils. A principal's performance can be judged by the result achieved by teachers, which in effect is determined by the grades of the students in examinations. The analysis of this study shows collective bargaining correlates Principal's job performance. The ways in which collective bargaining are employed affect schools and there is great correlation between principals' job performance and collective bargaining. The implication of this is that

collective bargaining does affect performance of the workforce as can inferred from the result of this study for principals in secondary schools in Lagos State. This is because the same policy that obtains at the federal level obtains in the states. It is a known fact that collective bargaining ensures that union members or the work force in an organization (including management) conform to the terms of contract/agreement.

The study focus specifically on the public secondary schools in Lagos State, therefore, it may not be easy to generalize results of this to private secondary schools where learning facilities/equipment, conditions of service and learning may be different. The scope of the research should be expanded to include more states of the federation. There may be difference in the acceptable standards of schools in States that are not as metropolitan like Lagos. How collective bargaining impacts principals' performance in Lagos State may therefore be quite different from what obtains in each States. Hence expanding the research over more States could provide a greater insight into how collective bargaining correlates with principals' performance in secondary schools.

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Effective School Plants Maintenance: Issues and Approaches in Nigerian Schools

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Abstract. This paper examined the approaches for effective school maintenance in Nigerian schools. It is observed that most of the schools have been destroyed during the crises which had left most of school plant at varying level of dilapidations and for the fact that government alone cannot shoulder the responsibilities of school plant maintenance and provision. It is based on that that the paper x-rayed the concepts of school plants and the approaches that can be adopted by the educational managers to enhance effective school plant maintenance in their schools in Nigeria. Suggestion was also made for quality maintenance in Nigerian schools.

Keywords: Approaches, School plant maintenance and schools.

1. Introduction

Nigeria is facing a lot of crises in the educational industry and the crises were attributed to inadequate funding, students population explosion, acute scarcity and under-utilization of resources, shortage of school plants and inadequate number of educational facilities and equipment that are needed for effective teaching-learning processes and for educational goal attainment. (Ogundele, 2008)

The current population explosion coupled with the high exodus of teachers, as a result of poor teachers condition of service couples with poor teacher morale and inadequate number of available education facilities and school plants had made the use of the available school plants

to be over stressed. However, the quality of the available school plant is one of the potent indicator for measuring how standard and quality educational activities in the schools and for the fact that provision of education in the country is a joint responsibility of the government and every citizen. Government alone cannot provide all the needed school plants and at the same time maintain them, it has to be complemented by everyone.

In view of this, teaching – learning process is unconducive for both teachers and the pupils. Oyedeki (2013) noted that the total number of school plants and education facilities provided in the school is one of the potent indicator for measuring the quality and standard of education given in a particular school. Poor and inadequate school plants and educational facilities affect the students' academic performance. Unfacilitating school environment; have negative effects on the attainment of educational objectives. School plants are vital in the educational system and are crucial for students' academic performance and for the teacher effectiveness. School plant can be defined as the structure both permanent, non-permanent or semi-permanent, that are used for the students programmes in the school. The school plants are categorized into Building like Classrooms, offices, workshops, hostels, libraries and laboratories. The transit involved the cars, bicycles, buses, the library are the books, Information and Communication Technology (ICT), facilities are instructional aids, recreation, games and sport. While those

unstructured ones are lawns, landscaping, fence and other environmental conditions that makes the schools environment to be attractive for effective teaching and learning processes. This paper therefore discusses in detail the concept and needs for school plants reasons for school plant maintenance and systematic approaches that the educational administrators can adopt in order to enhance effective school plants maintenance in Nigeria Schools. Recommendation and conclusion were made.

The following school plant and facilities are necessary in the school setting. Buildings like classrooms, library complex, hostels, administration offices, recreation centers, dining hall, assembly hall, stores and facilities, bulletin board, instructional materials, furniture, science equipment. Semi-Structures like sport field, and teaching learning facilities like instructional materials, science equipment computer machine, agricultural equipment, library materials. These facilities are very important for effective teaching – learning processes and no teachers; job performance and satisfaction. (Usman 2016)

The Federal Government of Nigeria also recognized the importance of school plant and educational facilities to the teaching – learning process and as such billions of naira were disbursed into capital expenditure during her yearly budgetary allocation and through Educational \trust \funds many buildings have been constructed in all the educational levels in Nigeria. Yet, the school plants is grossly inadequate for the student use. Despite high commitment of the Federal Government to develop school plant, still, to the dismay of educational planners in Nigeria most of the buildings and structures in the various schools are those ones constructed right from the inception of each school and no proper attention is paid to the reconstruction or proper maintenance of those buildings.

These buildings are now surrounded by thick bush with big trees which make them to dysfunctional use and some had been destroyed by burning fire. Most of the school buildings in both the primary and secondary schools are varying level of dilapidation and destruction

many exist without roof and there are inadequate spaces in each of the classroom to accommodate the students’ population Most of the school facilities had been stolen, destructed and vandalized by the students and many windows exist without louver blades etc.

Among the questions that' bothers the mind of current educational planners over the years is what approach can both the schools, parents and the students apply towards effective school plant maintenance and management in Nigeria schools, so as to complete Federal Government efforts.

It should be noted that despite the Federal Government efforts and commitment to improve the quality and standard of Nigerian education, the issue of school plant management is yet to be attended to. Nigerian school plants were not properly managed nor maintained. School managers therefore, need Jo be adopt appropriate strategies in order to enhance effective maintenance culture and proper management of the few available school plants and facilities in interest of Nigerian educational system. Ogundele & Ezeh (2008)

2. Reason for School Plant Maintenance

The school plant can be maintained though the following cultures:

The issue of maintenance culture depends on the situations and the available funds in the school system. However the proper management and maintenance of the school plants is the responsibilities of every member of the society like parent, teachers, students, artisans, philanthropist associations, government and all the members that have a good will to help in the development of educational system.

Effective management and maintenance is very necessary in order to keep or restore every facility - part of the site buildings and contents to an acceptable standard.

Maintenance-is also necessary in order to retain their value, and original status and to keep them in good condition for use and to prevent wastage of those facilities. The maintenance of facilities

are necessary for corrective, preventive and preservative purposes.

The issues of school plant maintenance aid the expansion of educational programme and to accommodate more students in the school system. Also, school plant maintenance aid and effective conducive environment for effective teaching learning process.

Finally school plant maintenance is essential for promoting the integrity of the schools at global level.

Approaches to School Plant Maintenance

The basic strategies that the school managers can adopt in order to enhance effective school plant maintenance in Nigerian schools are:

- Educational planners in the country need introduce school plant maintenance into the school curriculum as a way of making the students at all educational levels in order to embrace good maintenance culture.
- Adequate attention should also be given by educational/planners and officials of the inspectorate divisions of Federal/and State Ministries, teachers, non-teaching staffs and students to be involved in school plant maintenance. Kudos to the Federal Republic of Nigeria for spending billions of naira on the rehabilitation of various classrooms across the state. Within the school setting therefore, the following systematic approach should be adopted by the school managers so as to bring about effective school plant management. (Oparingde (2013). This includes situational approach, committeeship approach, community participation approach, damage preventive approach and utilization of internally generated funds for school plants maintenance approach. Situational Approach can be adopted by the school managers whenever the school or society wants to make use of any of the school buildings or facilities the school can call on such user to repair

or to pay certain reparatory fees for such structure as such immediately after being used the funds paid can be made use of rehabilitate some part of the school building. In this way, such facilities used can be properly maintained for effective teaching learning process without raising any alarm on anybody to come and give aid towards school plant maintenance in Nigerian school. Adeyanju (2004)

Committee System Approach can also be used systematically within and outside the school system works, committee can be constituted. The committee should be charged with the responsibility of funds-raising that can be used for school plant maintenance and rehabilitation. All complaint relating to the damaged infrastructure will be directed to the committee for immediate action. The committee will be responsible for organizing direct labour for the type of the infrastructure that needs to be repaired. The school managers will be responsible for evaluation and collation of the damaged structure and send to the appropriate committee for immediate action this will reduce the rate at which most of the educational infrastructures are put at dysfunctional use. Sanusi (2015).

Another systematic approach that can be used for effective school plant maintenance and management is Community Participatory Approach- those members of the society that are among the parent Teachers Association (P.T.A.) and have professional skill such as carpenters, bricklayers, plumbers, electricians can be co-opted into school plant maintenance committee and the will give professional advice and to assist in keeping the facilities in good order. The school managers can still employ the casual labourers to help in the general cleaning of the school compound so as to, reduce the existence of jungles that is very common in the present day system. Durosaro (2002)

Damaged Preventive Systematic Approach can be adopted fey, the school heads. This is the method of inculcating the spirit to use and handle with the care the schools infrastructural

facilities. The teachers, the students and non-teaching staffs should have respect for the school property and the school head should make provision for dustbin, trash-trays, illumination building, and incinerators. If this approach is adopted, it will be very difficult for the people to steal and vandalize those properties in the school system and since prevention is better than cure and sting in time saves nine. The spirit of preventing damages to the school plants should be inculcated in the mind of the teachers, students and every members of the school community. Ayoku(2005)

Finally, Utilization of the Internally Generated Funds for the School Plant Maintenance Approach can be adopted since school plant needs to be improved both in quantity and quality in order to raise the standard of the schools in Nigeria. Government capital expenditure is not enough for school plant maintenance therefore; the school manager should make use of the internally generated funds to embark on the school plant maintenance. Certain percentage of funds should be made use to embark on the school plant maintenance. The school managers should always raise funds through various sources, the funds raised should be diverted to school plant maintenance in the interest of Nigerian educational system. Suleiman (2002).

3. Suggestions

- There should be appropriate culture of Adhoc, preventive corrective and regular maintenance culture in the school system.
- The school should always clear the jungles and bushes that surround the school environment
- Enough funds should be provided for school facilities maintenance, so as to retain its original status
- There should be community-school relationships who will always be called upon whenever the needs arise in the areas of school plant maintenance and provision.
- There should be training, retiring for the school managers on the areas of school

plant planning management and utilization.

- The students' admission should be based on the available school plant facilities so as not to over-stress the available ones.

4. Conclusion

In conclusion, if all educational processes and policies are to go on smoothly, it is very important for every member of Nigerian society to take part in the management and maintenance of school plant. Since educational development in Nigeria is a joint responsibility of all citizens, since educational can never be free at all levels. it is therefore advisable for the school managers to make use of appropriate systematic approach towards effective maintenance of Nigerian school plants and other educational facilities so that there will be adequacy and effectiveness in the use of available school plants.

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An Evaluation of the Teaching of the Use of English Course to First Year Undergraduate Students of the University of Jos, Nigeria

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Abstract. The paper focused on evaluating the teaching of the Use of in English course to first year undergraduate students of the University of Jos, Nigeria. The paper identified the fact that the Use of English course in the University of Jos is diversified to reflect the various needs for which learners need English. The paper further emphasised that teaching English for no obvious reason (TENOR) which was the earlier practice at the University of Jos, is counterproductive in the classroom. The paper identified several factors that militated against the teaching of the Use of English course in the University of Jos and then went on to discuss how the challenges were surmounted. The paper while not refuting or denying the challenges, posits that challenges to the teaching of the Use of English though real and fierce, can be overcome following the University of Jos experience.

Keywords: Evaluation, Teaching, use of English course and First year undergraduates. Students

1. Introduction

The Use of English is a main and compulsory course taught in the all Nigerian universities and other tertiary institutions as stipulated by the National Universities Commission (NUC). The approach to its teaching in the University of Jos was general and not targeted particularly to any group of students due to the diversity in the students' academic pursuits and their varied language needs. However, recently, the teaching

of the course has been diversified to reflect the various needs for which the students need English in keeping with the maxim of ESP, "tell me what you need English for and I will tell you the English you need".

The course is a two semester (one session) course with the aim of further improving the status of the language and boosting its mastery as a second language. Also, the course is to equip freshers with the requisite language skills needed to undertake higher education and achieve academic excellence. These are among the objectives of teaching the course. Freshers are taught how to take notes, develop the notes they have taken, engage in personal research and undertake independent studies at a higher level. Furthermore, students are taught how to use English language correctly in terms of grammar both in speech and writing. Being an English course, it is taught basically in the English language and in the University of Jos, it is codified GST 101 – Use of English.

In the past, at the end of the academic session when the course was examined, it was usually found out that the performance of students was not commensurate to the travails of teachers in the class as many students either out-rightly failed the course or managed to get border-line scores like 45%, 46%, 47% since the pass mark was (and still is) 45%. Discussions and informal interviews with the Use of English Co-ordinator at the University of Jos, Prof. J. Akosu Adeiyongo, revealed that "over 65% of the

students usually belonged to the border-line score bracket”.

Today, at the University of Jos, the story has changed as the factors responsible for under-performance were not only identified but arrested. The University of Jos experience in the light of how students’ performance in the Use of English gained grounds is therefore the focus of this study.

1.1 English Language in Nigeria

English language in Nigeria is not a new phenomenon given the fact that it is Nigeria's colonial heritage and her unbreakable link with the Western world. Perhaps it is in the area of formal education that English language has played the most significant role. It is basically the medium of classroom communication especially in tertiary institutions where students are required to do a lot of self-study. English language can therefore be said to be a friend of Nigeria politically, socially, educationally. It is the teacher's ally in knowledge impartation and an associate assessor or evaluator in measuring the extent to which classroom learning has taken place (Hoi, 2013).

English language has come to stay in Nigeria having assumed the status of Nigeria's permanent foreign language. With this permanency however, the English language now wears Nigerian colours in use, pronunciation, vocabulary, semantics and even syntactic structures. Giving credence to this, Mitchel (1992) noted that around the world, several millions of people use the queen's mother tongue every day, continually enriching it with imaginative additions and enlightened emendations. Furthermore, Spencer (1971) says:

The point about English in Nigeria is not just that it is different from British or American English. It is rather that there are several varieties of English ranging from something very near Standard English to the patois of the market place. (p.12)

However, Adejare (1995) says that English in Nigeria or Nigerian English is not based on errors nor is it entirely based on interferences.

Enighe (2017) notes that what today may constitute Nigerian English could actually be the consequences of the complexities of the English language. Over ninety percent of Nigerian university students are learners of English as a second language (LESL) or learners of English as a foreign language (LEFL). The remaining less than ten percent would be those children born in Britain or America by Nigerian parents but whose parents decided to 'come home' when the children were all grown up. These children may have English as their L1 but they are still not natives.

English language is an international language widely used in most countries of the world either as a first language (L1), second language (L2), foreign language (FL) or the other language (TOL). However, the language is fast becoming the world's lingua franca despite spirited efforts being made by other languages (like French) to woo the world and also efforts made to preserve local languages with which English has come in contact (Ugwuanyi & Omeje, 2013).

Some countries of the world use English as their native language (NL) while others use it as a second or official language. In Nigeria, English language is a second language and also an official language. As an official language, it is the language of commerce, law, the mass media, administration, classroom communication, etc. English is now the world's most important language and it is estimated that one out of five of the world's population speaks it (Jatau, 2017). This is especially so as it is the language of international commerce (trade), popular culture and the internet. Thus, the language holds an unassailable position among the world's major languages not necessarily with regard to the number of people who speak it but in terms of domain of use and international spread (Ogidi, 2018).

English is spoken as a first language in the United Kingdom, United States of America, Australia, New Zealand, Canada, some parts of Trinidad and Tobago as well as some parts of the Irish Republic and Jamaica (Adetugbo, 2000). Little wonder then that the language is now tagged the 'lingua franca of the world'

(Ugwuanyi & Omeje, 2013), Nigeria inclusive. Because of its place of pride in the global scheme of things, Nigeria cannot afford to be left behind in ensuring the improved learning and teaching of the Use of English. It is in the light of this that a state of emergency was declared in the teaching of Use of English at the University of Jos. The praise-worthy outcome of that declaration of state on emergency has informed this study.

1.2 Use of English at the University of Jos

Even though university students who take the Use of English course have been exposed to English language both in primary and secondary schools, their performance in national examinations in English-related courses, seems to indicate that their earlier exposure did them very little good. For example, WAEC Chief-Examiners Report (2016) shows that only 25% of the candidates that sat for the English exam that year passed. The Editorial of Daily Times (2015) attests to this as follows: "... and those who sat for the English language paper from Nigeria, more than half failed" (p. 1). According to WAEC News (2014), the West African Examination Council records the highest number of failures in English language. WAEC News went on to state that out of a total of 463, 567 candidates who sat for the exam in English in May/June 2005, only 81,153 passed with grades 1 – 8, representing only 17.50%, while 382,414 (82.50%) failed.

A similar situation used to be obtainable in the University of Jos where GST 101 (Use of English) often recorded the highest number of failures. The few students who performed exceptionally well, scoring A's and B's in the course were those whose performances the authors found to be linked to the primary and secondary schools they had attended. Most of these primary and secondary schools were private schools reputed for their high academic standards. This, the authors got from personal discussions with the exceptional performers and from the students' personal data forms domiciled in their various departments. The greater majority of the students are however not opportuned to attend such schools.

According to the Use of English teaching manual, teaching the Use of English course at the University of Jos is based on the communicative approach to language teaching geared towards communicative competence (comcom). The British Council in the 1980's trained teachers in the Use of English using the communicative approach. Ten (10) lecturers were trained and at the end of the training, the curriculum content for the course as well as the course text was developed. A national conference was also organised during which teachers of Use of English all over Nigerian universities discussed the curriculum content and went over the objectives for the course and these were generally adopted. However, most of those 'original' teachers of the course in the University of Jos have either passed on or are too old now but despite the fact that the baton was passed to the next generation of teachers of Use of English, there appeared to be a "yawning gap" in the performance of students in the course after the first, second, third and fourth generations of teachers (Doki, 2017). For the second, third and fourth generations, each under studied the previous generation until a lacuna occurred and the British Council training was jettisoned. Today, however, a return to the "good old days" has occurred and things are now looking up as far as the teaching of the Use of English is concerned.

Presently in the University of Jos, teachers of Use of English have responded to the clarion call to return to the 'ancient paths'. Students are now led to experience and create sentences through creative language exercises. In this way, the language flows and though there may be errors, the teachers' interest is usually the bigger picture of communicativeness.

At the secondary school level, students are taught to PASS English; they do not have enough experience in the four language skills and so their own use of English is limited. To address this, Use of English teachers flood the learners with a lot of extra reading in their own content areas; this helps the learners to acquire vocabulary, note spellings and understand the sentence structure they need to effectively use the English language. Furthermore, the students

are engaged in quizzes, group work, writing, etc and team teaching is encouraged not just to reduce work load but also so that the students can get the best of the teachers based on the teachers' areas of strength.

At the University of Jos as at today, teachers of the Use of English course are Ph.D holders in English who have been exposed to the Use of English developed by the first generation of teachers of the course who were themselves trained by the British Council in the 1980's. These present teachers are often taken through refresher courses both in content and methods. The contents have a lot of reading passages and exercises to engage the class in their own content areas. The lecturers of the course are also ESP practitioners who are trained for the specific purpose of teaching the course. One lecturer each is assigned to each of the twelve (12) faculties as lead lecturer to teach the course according to the needs of the learners. Each of these twelve also goes to take his or her topic of strength round the twelve faculties in a form of team teaching. The twelve faculties are Arts, Agricultural Science, Education, Engineering, Environmental Sciences, Law, Management Sciences, Medical Sciences, Natural Sciences, Pharmaceutical Sciences, Social Sciences and Veterinary medicine.

The first few classes are usually remedial in nature and involve taking the learner through some grammar, spelling, punctuations, oral/aural comprehension drills. This is to establish where the students are, what they need and how to progress in the teaching of the course.

2. Challenges to the teaching of Use of English and how the University of Jos overcame them

Like every other human endeavour or effort, the teaching of Use of English had several challenges. Some of these challenges were also faced or experienced in the teaching of all other courses while some were only peculiar to the teaching of Use of English. Some of these challenges have been identified by several authors such as Adejare (1995), Enighe (2017), Ugwuanyi and Omeje (2013). The challenges

specific to the teaching of the course were identified as follows: lack of experts to teach the course; lack of e-teaching; lack of textbooks; problem of large classes; lack of facilities; time factor, the complex nature of the English language; the crisis-prone nature of the University of Jos.

The paper will now examine each of the identified challenges and state how the University of Jos was able to surmount each.

Lack of Experts to Teach the Course: One of the most pressing concerns of Nigerian education is to reverse the falling standard of education which is obvious in the low level proficiency in the spoken and written English of Nigerian undergraduate students. Concern for improved performance in English language as well as maintenance of standards is however, a worldwide issue and not just a Nigerian concern. Since after the 1980's, the British Council has not engaged in training the Use of English teachers at the University of Jos neither is any native speaker presently involved in the teaching of the course. This was a problem at the University of Jos. According to Lavery (2010), getting students to use English in the classroom is one of the biggest challenges of teaching. Lavery went on to add that to get second language learners to effectively use English, the teacher should always present himself or herself as an English speaker right from the start and should not yield to the temptation to slow down. Lavery went on to suggest activities to encourage the use of English. Some of these activities are that teachers should engage the learners in a lot of speaking activities by asking for the time, date, how to get to places nearby, etc. Teachers should also involve learners in board work by asking a learner to write an explanation on the board and asking another to correct the mistake(s) on the board (if any). Teachers should also avoid asking questions like "do you understand?" instead, the teacher should try to get more comments with questions to check understanding. Asking for explanations will stretch the learners and help them learn better. Furthermore, the teacher should always refer to an English-English dictionary and encourage the learners to do the same. By doing this, the vacuum created by the absence of

experts would be filled by the English-English dictionary.

One of the requirements for the Use of English course at the University of Jos is an English-English dictionary and the earlier submission of Lavery (2010) is nearly exact with the original manual developed for the course. Today, Use of English instructors in the University of Jos are mandatorily required to adhere strictly to the manual and the course Co-ordinator or his/her assistant ensures regular monitoring and supervision of teachers' teaching and learners' learning. This has truly turned things around for the university. In addition, as has been stated earlier, teachers of the course are Ph.D holders in the area of English language teaching. These are people for whom English comes easy. They are certainly not natives, but their mastery and use of the language is not in question.

Lack of e-Teaching: This used to be a big challenge at the University of Jos but not anymore. Students are now encouraged to have a class Whatsapp group as well as submit individual e-mail addresses. General class assignments are posted on the group chat to which the teachers are added. Students do their assignments and submit via their own e-mails. The teacher corrects, scores and sends back. Since the teacher is also on the group chat, he can follow the group discussions, noting errors and mistakes which can be corrected generally on the platform or get to e-mail a student if the error requires the private attention of the teacher. This does not fore-close physical classroom contacts but ensures that students remain "in touch" with the course even after the class ends. The idea is that since students use their phones for recreation, why not for school work too? To fore-stall the problem of lack of funds for data and epileptic power supply, the university authority has dutifully ensured internet connectivity and the availability of a standard power generating set that can serve the teeming student and staff population in order to 'kill' the excuse of lack of e-teaching.

Lack of Textbooks: Because of internet connectivity at the University of Jos, students have access to a myriad of e-books from which they can get whatever information they need

with regard to the Use of English course. Of course text books in the course, written, edited and published by the General Studies (GST) Unit of the University of Jos abound. Contributor/authors of these books are the teachers of Use of English who write on topics of their strengths or interests. All the topics in the manual are covered in the books with each topic forming a chapter. The Use of English Co-ordinator then edits the articles and the GST Unit publishes it. At the point of registering for GST 101 – Use of English, a student is handed a copy of The Use of English. The book is revised biennially and if an author is retired or deceased, whoever replaces him/her makes an addition in the revised edition while allowing the 'original' work to remain. So lack of textbooks as a challenge to the teaching of Use of English at the University of Jos is now a 'historical relic'.

Problem of Large Classes: In the past, a typical Use of English class at the University of Jos would usually have about three thousand students (sometimes a little less or more depending on the total student enrolment for the academic session). According to Warren (2013), anonymity thrives in large classes and learning is usually adversely affected. This used to be the case in the University of Jos where the teacher would shout himself/herself hoarse in an attempt to be heard by each and every student in the large hall, usually, the university's main auditorium.

Recently, though, the music has changed. With the decentralisation of the teaching, each faculty now has its own teacher. In the past, all the one hundred level students gathered in the auditorium for the class with each lecturer coming in to take a different topic at his/her assigned time. The large classes are now manageable and there is no longer a daunting challenge.

Lack of Facilities: The University of Jos was badly hit by lack of facilities, especially structural and instructional facilities as a result of paucity of funds. However, with the federal government's Educational Trust Fund (ETF) intervention, more structures are now available and this has made the decentralisation of the teaching of Use of English possible. Also, the

university has mounted PA systems in the halls where the Use of English is taught. Now, not only are students seated comfortably in classes in manageable numbers, but audibility of the teacher's instruction and interaction is guaranteed.

Time Factor: The Use of English used to hold for two hours once a week. Now, it is held at the same time across the whole university. At the time of the class, no other one hundred level course would be scheduled. It also now holds twice a week. The complaint was rife that two hours a week was insufficient to cover the syllabus as well as address the peculiar needs of the learners for the language (Ugwuanyi & Omeje, 2013). Hoi (2017) further argued that the time when the course is taught determines the outcome of the learning. According to him, if the Use of English is scheduled for the afternoon on the timetable, students will not learn much as their brains would already be tired and their emotions stretched. To address this problem, the course is no longer taught for two hours once a week but is taught for two hours twice a week. This is still insufficient for a thorough job to be done (Jatau, 2017) but the extended classes through e-teaching and learning makes up for the non-classroom hours needed to teach the course effectively.

3. The Complex Nature of the English Language

This problem seemed to tower above other challenges at the University of Jos. The authors will therefore discuss this in more details than other challenges even though it has been ameliorated. In studying the causes of tertiary students' poor performance in the Use of English course in the University of Jos, it is imperative to determine concisely which learner problems are attributable to interference and which to irregularity or ambivalence to rule application in the target or foreign language which in this case is the language of classroom communication (English). For example, in the pluralisation of invariable nouns, certain errors of concord may occur in the syntagmatic axis or sentence chain.

Thus in the phrases:

The sheep is ...

The sheep are...

Morphologically, the noun is still the same and retains the same form, but in the sentence structure, one can determine whether 'sheep' is used as singular or plural. This contradicts the context where the noun changes morphologically to reflect plurality and cause a change in the verb chosen for purposes of concord within the sentence chain e.g

The cat is....

The cats are....

The invariable noun 'sheep' used earlier remains morphologically the same but a few tertiary students who already learnt English regular noun plural formation will consider 'sheep' as only singular. Thus, if the lecturer says,

The six sheep I bought are very costly,

these students would question why the lecturer should use 'are' after 'sheep' because as far as they are concerned, there is no 'plus-s', the morphological indicator of plurality. With this, it does look like English does not possess characteristics of vocabulary and grammar that render it easy of acquisition. The complex nature of the English language was thus, one of the major challenges of the teaching of Use of English at the University of Jos. Also, the distinction between, 'My husband isn't up yet' and 'My husband isn't down yet' seems to be without justification to some of the tertiary students drawing from the idea of 'up' as the antonym of 'down'. If the first means my husband is not awake yet, would the second mean the opposite?

A more confounding issue to freshers taking the Use of English course was the chaotic character of spellings in English and the frequent lack of correlation between spelling and pronunciation. According to Baugh and Cable (1963),

...theoretically, the most adequate system of spelling is that which best combines simplicity with consistency. In alphabetic writing, an ideal system would be one in which the same sound was regularly represented by the same character and a given character always represented the same sound. (p. 102)

This is not the case with English. For example, the English sound in 'believe' is in each case represented by a different spelling. Also, the

symbol /a/ as in 'father', 'hate', 'hat' and many other such words, has a variety of values. English consonants are not left out of this complexity as there are over fourteen spellings for the sound /tʃ/: shoe, sugar, issue, mansion, mission, nation, suspicion, ocean, nauseous, conscious, chaperone, schist, fuchsia, pshaw, inflexion, etc. One cannot therefore tell how to spell an English word by its pronunciation or how to pronounce English words simply by their spellings. This goes to show how far English is from the ideal 'simplicity and consistency' proposed by Baugh and Cable (1963). Similarly, in English language, too many phonemes share common features, for example, Jeno ate foofoo, Jeno ate well

While one can say, 'Foofoo was eaten by Jeno' or 'What Jeno ate was foofoo', one cannot say, 'Well was eaten by Jeno' or 'What Jeno ate was well'. So even though 'well' and 'foofoo' in the two sentences share the same features, they are different syntactically and even semantically.

Another confusion for freshers in the University of Jos was that boa constrictor, which is the name of a certain type of snake, is written as two words rather than one. 'Seaside' is one word while 'sea shore' is two'. 'Despite' is one word while 'in spite' is two. These are further reflections of the internal complexity of the English language.

Also, in the area of synonymy, English language usually presented a complexity that is second to none. For example, calf, baby, fingerling, puppy all overlap in that they represent young and immature. Woman, lioness, hen, bitch, heroine, queen also overlap, representing female. Murder, slaughter, assassinate, execute, all involve the notion of making to cease to exist or to kill. We have the word 'corpse' meaning the body of a dead human being; 'carcass', the body of a dead animal but no similar lexicon for a dead plant.

Mayes in Utoh (2004) sums the complex nature of the English language in a poem he edited, I plus I = I's

What language puts the plural of sheep as still sheep and would rather guard a flock of sheep?

Why then maintain a creep and never a crowd of creep?

Raji-Oyelade (2001) in an article titled, "Language Focus – Let's Face it", clearly concurs with Mayes as he says:

...There is no egg in the eggplant, no ham in the hamburger and neither pine nor apple in the pineapple...

If a vegetarian eats vegetables, what the heck does a humanitarian eat? If people from Poland are called 'Poles' why aren't people from Holland called 'Holes'?... (P.28)

University of Jos Use of English students are mostly Nigerians and in most of their languages, irregularity is not a prominent feature. This is because one spells words as one says them. Each sound of the spoken language has only one orthographic representation with no variants. All that is required is to learn the spelling system of the language in question by noting every sound and its orthographic equivalent. This is, unfortunately, not the case with English language where according to Banjo (1974), "...the spelling of every single word (apart, of course, from compound words), has to be learnt because there is all too often no systematic correspondence between the spoken word and its written form" (p.15). In this area of spelling, the complexity of the English language was identified to stem from four factors according to Banjo and Unoh (1976). These factors are:

Different pronunciation, same spelling (homonyms): for example, lead (verb) and lead (metal).

Same pronunciation, different spelling (homophones): for example, rain and reign; the final syllable in 'receive' and 'perceive' on one hand and 'believe' and 'relieve' on the other.

Different devices for showing long vowel. Representation of so-called 'silent' sounds; for example, bomb, comb, climb, subtle, ballet, plumber, patois, lamb, leopard (the underlined letters are not pronounced and so are silent. If one pronounces them in speech, he is wrong; if they are omitted in spelling, it is also wrong).

The case here is that English language has a lot of complexities that militated against its mastery

in speech and in writing. Overcoming the complex nature of the English language therefore was an uphill task for University of Jos freshers.

University students use the English language to take notes in class during lectures, engage in group discussions or tutorials, listen to lectures, read notices on the notice boards, do assignments and write their semester and sessional examinations. However, according to Enighe (2010), in the freshers' daily use of the English language, phonetico-orthographical divergences occur which can be traced to 'English language as its own problem'.

The complex nature of the English language therefore has serious implications for its teaching, especially to freshers who offer the Use of English as a compulsory course. Firstly, in Nigeria, English has taken a lot of regional forms and so there are as many varieties of the language as there are speakers of it. The onus is now on the teacher of the Use of English course to University of Jos freshers to do the job of 'pick and drop'. This refers to picking out the correct forms in speech or in writing from the potpourri of existing varieties and insisting on this correct form while enforcing the dropping of grammatically unacceptable forms.

A close examination of any good etymological dictionary would reveal that English language has borrowed from other languages such as French, Italian, Latin, Hebrew, Chinese, Hungarian, the aboriginal languages of Brazil and even West Africa. Thus, English language is littered here and there with 'foreign identities' where words in the language are not really of the language. To confirm this, Baugh and Cable (1963) educate us that words such as skunk, hominy, chipmunk, moose, raccoon, etc, are borrowed from American Indian. Also, brandy, golf, wagon, measles, uproar, isinglass are from Dutch. Then balcony, duet, granite, opera, piano, umbrella, volcano are from Italian. From Spanish are words like alligator, stampede, tornado, vanilla, while from Greek (directly or indirectly) we have acrobat, anthology, barometer, chronology, catarrh, elastic, catastrophe, magic, tantalise, tactics, etc. From Russian come rubble,

vodka, steppe, and from Persian we have caravan, shawl, mogul, divan, khaki, paradise, jasmine, chess lemon, check, lilac, turban, etc.

Due to the complex nature of the English language, many University of Jos undergraduates who take the Use of English course used to express or present prepositional misuse, subject-verb incongruence, deviant tenses, confused noun pluralisation and several other grammatical inexactitudes. These were usually not totally the problem of teaching methodology, lack of teacher qualification or even the over-flogged issue of mother-tongue interference. The problem arose from the complex nature of the English language itself which makes the problem somewhat of a "double-tragedy". That is, having to learn a foreign language and that target language being fundamentally 'too complicated'. This, University of Jos freshers have labeled, "double wahala for dead body", a Nigerian pidgin expression which simply means 'double tragedy'.

To overcome the challenges of the complexity of the English language, the University of Jos makes it mandatory for students to possess or at least have access to an English-English dictionary. This, according to Warren (2013) could create an "immersion atmosphere" and give students a chance to share new vocabularies they have learnt and also correct mispronunciations, using the English-English dictionary as a guide. Also, the Use of English Co-ordinator endeavours to assign grammar-related topics to teachers whose classes the students understand and thoroughly enjoy for as Lavery (2010) suggested, if learners enjoy a teacher's lesson, their attitude to speaking English will improve over time and fears about the complexity of the language will be allayed to a large extent.

4. Conclusion

Use of English will always be difficult for non-English speakers irrespective of continent or what the learner needs English for. However, the University of Jos experience has shown that the difficulties can be ameliorated or lessened considerably. A hundred percent success has not

yet been achieved but the journey there is definitely on course. The success so far recorded is hinged on high quality of primary and secondary schooling, the teachers' focus on communicative language teaching, the ability of the teachers to 'simplify' the 'complexity' of the English language and the co-ordination and partnership the university administration accords the teaching of the course.

Since students are 'forced' and made inexcusable to experience the language through listening, speaking and reading, their written work is vastly improved. Today at the University of Jos, the percentage of high scorers in Use of English is often above fifty (50) and the percentage of failure is less than twenty (20). This is really more work on the part of the teachers but the result is so far well worth the effort.

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Effects of Ease of Use and Usefulness of E-Learning Management System among Students of Department of Special Education and Rehabilitation Sciences, University of Jos, Nigeria

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Abstract. In this paper, the researchers seek to find out the awareness, ease of use and usefulness of learning management system among staff/students in the Department of Special Education and Rehabilitation Sciences University of Jos. This study aimed to construct survey questionnaire covering University of Jos on awareness, ease of use and usefulness and possible challenges that might slowed he take off of the E-learning in the university. The researchers gave background information to the study and postulated six research questions and four hypotheses based on the research questions. The methodology used was descriptive survey research, while chi-square was used to analyze the data using statistical package for social sciences (SPSS). The sample consists of 40 students/ lecturers drawn from the Department of Special Education and Rehabilitation Sciences University of Jos. From the findings, it clearly showed that more than 87% expected count more than 5 in the association between Academic level and Ease of usefulness of the Learning Management System. While 96% expected count are more than 5 in the association between Academic level and perceived usefulness. This implies that students-

staff relationship has not improved given the availability of the E-learning management system (LMS) in the University of Jos. Finally, conclusion and recommendation were made.

Keywords: Student Awareness, Perceived usefulness, learning management system.

1. Introduction

Technology presents a new dimension to communication in the world thereby reducing the world to one small but connected village. New technologies present unprecedented access to information, content and data. This is evident in the communication gadgets use in the contemporary society and most especially in the educational sector in Nigeria.

Technologies and their use have made big changes in education, since is changing its paradigms, from a closed model, and teacher-centered classroom to a model more open and student centered, where the teacher moves from one holder of knowledge for a learning mentor, able to manage diverse discourses and performs as well as stimulate the intellectual capacities of

students in the treatment of information and include online learning, hybrid learning and collaborative models (A.P Lopes 2014). It is imperative at this point to define the concept of Learning Management System (E-LMS).

An E-learning management system (E-LMS) is a set of software tools for delivering, tracking and managing online training and education. E-LMS options range from systems for managing training records to more flexible software for distributing courses over the Internet and offering features for online authoring. Through the usage of computer based education, computer based instruction, and computer supported learning, the distance or obstacles in education are not more a limitation to University students (Coldwell, 2008).

This study aimed to construct a survey questionnaire covering the University of Jos E-Learning Management System (E-LMS) awareness, ease of use, perceived usefulness and possible challenges that might have slowed down the proper take –off of the e-learning in the University of Jos. So far, no research has been done in University of Jos to examine the awareness, ease of use, perceived usefulness and possible challenges of e-learning tools in the University of Jos.

The growing interest in E-Learning Management System (E-LMS) seems to be coming from different directions such as corporate and educational sector. The education sector sees learning management system as a tool to save cost in terms of training and travelling to the learning centre. This avails the opportunity to improve the teaching and learning process and to provoke a better communication between the staff and students of the University of Jos.

In this study, University of Jos has been chosen as the ground for information gathering and collection of data. Information to be gathered is to assess the level of awareness the students have towards e-learning tools, ease of usage of the e-learning tools, perceived usefulness of the tools and the possible challenges that might halt the proper take-off of the e-learning in the University of Jos. University of Jos, which is

situated in plateau state, has been established since 1971 which started as a campus of the University of Ibadan. The University of Jos started its activities from Gangare campus and later moved to main campus and currently has some of its courses run at permanent site at Naraguta campus along Bauchi road. Now it has numerous additional home-grown degree courses which have been running for a couple of years now.

University of Jos have made electronic resources (e-resources) as a sign of the modern age which has made learning management system an invaluable tool for teaching, learning and research in the university. Sethi and Panda (2011) notes that the library and information landscape has transformed with the onset of the digital era and today, traditional libraries have changed their role to serve as ‘knowledge centres’ with priority on value added electronic information services. University of Jos is focusing on services which compliment as cutting-edge technology. The institution have changed its contemporary outlook towards the functions, operations and services of the academic libraries. The traditional environment has been rapidly changing to an electronic one and the demand for internet and e-resources among academic and research communities has increased manifold over the years. However, the literature reveals that there is a dearth of studies on the use of e-resources and the internet in the context of academics, researchers and students across the globe (Sethi and Panda, 2011).

According to Sethi and Panda (2011) the revolution in Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs), particularly the internet, is exerting profound effects on information-based services. The proliferation of new technologies gives rise to a number of challenges for teaching, learning and research. Notable, among these are those associated with the adoption and institutionalization of these emerging technologies in teaching, learning and research. As a result, in the last few years, there have been many initiatives to enhance the developed and developing countries capacity to harness this technology in reshaping their educational sectors in ways that are consistent with current

knowledge societies. The internet, therefore, has created the possibility of establishing alternative models for the dissemination of information.

The use of the internet by researchers therefore, is an important area of study in today's information environment. It has become an essential component in academic institutions such as University of Jos as it plays a pivotal role in meeting the information and communication needs of institutions. The internet has made it possible and easier in information dissemination across the globe. Thus, the platform gives the university staff and students/ learners the opportunity to interact closely thereby making it possible to access a wide range of information, such as up-to-date articles, from any part of the world. A global effort is on to allow access to and use of e-resources in academic libraries. University of Jos not an exception in this regard, needs the e-facilities to ease the stress on staff and students of the university.

2. Statement of Problems

E-learning management system is an important development taking advantage of computer technologies and soft wares, communication, to be employed in the teaching and learning of students in the Department of Special Education and Rehabilitation Sciences, University of Jos, where it has become the alternatives in the dissemination of education and learning activities. E-learning management system has enrich the learning and development of teaching and has become a modern teaching and learning method, employing modern communication mechanisms to support the educational process, enrich and improve the quality of education.

The daily development in knowledge requires searching for new formulation of teaching and learning process contributing to keep a pace with educational institutions for innovations in education. However, in order to use E-learning management system effectively, students in Department of Special Education and Rehabilitation Sciences should make the best use of the latest technology and lay to stay informed about the latest development and

transfer what they have learned to a new generation of student. One essential input into research, teaching and decision-making related to learning activities is information and knowledge. Therefore, access to and use of appropriate and up-to-date information and knowledge by researchers, students and policy-makers is vital if they are to carry out their activities successfully. Unfortunately, due to various factors, among them, the reduced funding to libraries, the higher cost of library resources, licensing fees, subscription fees, very few African universities, including University of Jos, can afford such costs. However, with the availability of electronic resources (e-resources) the situation is changing due to the collaboration amongst libraries.

University of Jos, despite the increasing demand in the use of e-learning management system for teaching and learning purposes, the academic libraries do not seem to have embraced the management of e-resources, so that the libraries can ensure access to and full utilisation of these resources. In spite of the potential value of e-resources and huge investments required to make them available through University of Jos, academic library users do not draw optimum benefits from the resources. It is imperative for information and communication technology department to develop policies for e-resource collections to facilitate the awareness, ease of usage, perceived usefulness and possible challenges the might have slowed down the proper take-off of the E-learning management system in the university

It is on the basis of this, that the following Research Questions and hypotheses are formulated for the purpose of this research:

2.1 Research Questions

The study seeks to investigate learning management system awareness, ease of use and usefulness and possible challenges that might slow down the proper take-off of the e-learning in the Department of Special Education and Rehabilitation Sciences, University of Jos. In particular, the following research questions are investigated:

- Do Staff and Students of the University of Jos have sufficient knowledge about the existence of E-learning management system?
- Do staff and students have a better interrelationship as a result of the availability of University of Jos E-Learning Management System?
- What systems are in place to facilitate access to e-resources in the university?
- How effective is the use of e-resources by staff and students of the university?
- What are the possible challenges facing E-learning in the university?
- What strategies can be adopted to enhance E-learning management system awareness, ease of use, and perceived usefulness in the university?

2.2 Research Hypotheses

- There is no significant difference between the ease of use and usefulness on E-learning management system and their level of academics
- There are no beneficial effects between the awareness of students / lecturers in the Department of Special Education and Rehabilitation Sciences on E-learning management system.
- There is no significant mean difference between student’s academic achievement on the accessibility of instructional materials on E-learning management system of the university of Jos and student academic performance.
- There is no significant improvement in the interrelationship between lecturers and student with respect to the

availability of university of Jos E-learning management system.

3. Methodology

The descriptive survey research design is adopted for this study. According to Emaikwu (2006), a survey research is one in which a group of people or items is studied by collecting and analyzing data from a few people or items considered to be representative of the entire group. A survey research design is used to collect and analyze data from sample of a population in order to determine the current status of that population with respect to one or more variables. This design was appropriate for this study because the study generate as well as analyzed information from university staff and students with regards to their awareness, ease of use, perceived usefulness and possible challenges that might have slowed down the proper take-off of the e-learning in the University of Jos.

The study which seeks to gather the opinion of staff or students of the University of Jos has it sample randomly drawn from the Department of Special Education and Rehabilitation Sciences. The sample consists of 40 students/lecturers from University of Jos.

4. Presentation of Data Analysis

After collecting data, responses were grouped into four variables which seek to provide answers to the research questions. A cross tabulation as well as chi-square result was generated using SPSS and this result shows the level of association between the key variables of the research work.

ACADEMIC LEVEL * EASE OF USE
Crosstab

			Ease Of Use (Median)			
			2.00	3.00	4.00	5.00
Academic Level	Undergraduate	Count	0	4	4	0
		Expected Count	.4	1.8	4.6	1.2
	PGD	Count	1	3	3	1
		Expected Count	.4	1.8	4.6	1.2
	Masters	Count	1	0	6	2
		Expected Count	.5	2.0	5.2	1.4
	PhD	Count	0	2	10	3
		Expected Count	.8	3.4	8.6	2.3
Total	Count	2	9	23	6	
	Expected Count	2.0	9.0	23.0	6.0	

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11.578 ^a	9	.238
Likelihood Ratio	14.774	9	.097
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.413	1	.036
N of Valid Cases	40		

a. 14 cells (87.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .40.

ACADEMIC LEVEL * USEFULNESS

Crosstab

			Perceived Usefulness (Median)			
			1.50	2.00	2.50	3.00
Academic Level	Undergraduate	Count	0	0	1	2
		Expected Count	.2	.2	.6	.8
	PGD	Count	1	0	1	2
		Expected Count	.2	.2	.6	.8
	Masters	Count	0	1	0	0
		Expected Count	.2	.2	.7	.9
	PhD	Count	0	0	1	0
		Expected Count	.4	.4	1.1	1.5
Total		Count	1	1	3	4
		Expected Count	1.0	1.0	3.0	4.0

Crosstab

			Perceived Usefulness (Median)			
			3.50	4.00	4.50	5.00
Academic Level	Undergraduate	Count	2	2	1	0
		Expected Count	.8	3.2	1.0	1.2
	PGD	Count	0	2	1	1
		Expected Count	.8	3.2	1.0	1.2
	Masters	Count	1	4	1	2
		Expected Count	.9	3.6	1.1	1.4
	PhD	Count	1	8	2	3
		Expected Count	1.5	6.0	1.9	2.3
Total		Count	4	16	5	6
		Expected Count	4.0	16.0	5.0	6.0

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	20.874 ^a	21	.467
Likelihood Ratio	23.047	21	.341
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.438	1	.035
N of Valid Cases	40		

a. 31 cells (96.9%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .20.

5. Discussion of Findings

From the above result, the researcher investigated the level of association between the variables (Academic Level, Ease of Use and usefulness) in an attempt to establish if there is an interrelationship or association between the staff and student who use of UNIJOS E-Learning Management System. However, the chi-square result above clearly shows that more than 87% expected counts are more than 5 in the association between Academic Level and Ease of use and Usefulness of the E-LMS. While more than 96% expected count are more than 5 in the association between ease of use and Usefulness. This implies that students-staff relationship has not improved given the availability of E-LMS in University of Jos. This is due to the following reasons:

- Regular use and experience of ICT outside the University of Jos.
- Difficulties in using software/hardware.
- The ownership of computer seems to be difficult hence the need for assistance.
- Insufficient access to e-facilities in the university due to poor network or low network coverage.

Other factors include lack of regular trainings and workshop to educate the students/staff on the use of the E-Learning Management System. A lot of students/staff are not ICT expert and thus, need adequate orientation with regards to the workings of the E-Learning Management System.

On the other hand, there is a poor awareness on E-LMS in the Department of Special Education and Rehabilitation Sciences University of Jos. This is clearly seen from the responses gathered in question 7 in the first section of the research question groups, which read, **Getting more conversant with Unijos E-Learning Management System will enhance students-staff relationship**. 40 people responded. 18 agree which 10 strongly agree (*Please refer to appendix I*). Also from the researcher examined the relationship between the academic performances of students as a result of the availability of E-LMS, from the responses gathered in question 1 in the third section of the

research question groups, which read, **Using E-Learning Management System enables me to accomplish my tasks better**. 40 people responded. 15 agree which 11 strongly agree. This implies that, if the LMS is improved upon, learning process will become easier and students' academic performances will witness positive impact.

Having stated the above, it is imperative to accept the null hypothesis which states that there is no improvement in the interrelationship between the staff and student with respect to the availability of University of Jos Learning Management System.

The alpha coefficient for the 29 research questions is 0.839, suggesting that the research questions have relatively high internal consistency. The Cronbach's Alpha reliability test helped us to reject the null hypothesis and accept an alternative hypothesis which states the Learning Management System in University of Jos have been effective for academic staff in creating, delivering and managing their content, as well as monitoring participation and assessing students' performance.

6. Conclusion

With so many different ways to define e-learning and the educational approaches that can be taken in these learning environments, we can therefore conclude that e-learning is an innovative approach to learning. It is a holistic way of teaching and learning that meets the needs of today's digital natives. It is an environment made up of collaboration, choice, and an array of technological resources that supports a successful online learning experience. However, in order for learners to be successful in this learning environment the challenges to e-learning must be overcome with support and best practice solutions. Instructors and learners must embrace the shift away from traditional classroom practices to an e-learning approach to education. Despite the fact that today's learners are digital natives, the use of technology for e-learning can be overwhelming and provide student motivation challenges however, with the proper supports from instructors, learners can be successful within these e-learning environments.

As more and more higher education institutions embrace e-learning, it is critical to identify how an E-LMS can be used to meet today's learners' needs and how it can facilitate learning and teaching. Summarily, E-LMS can enable highly interactive and personalized learner-centric online learning experiences, but as with any other technology, the positive or negative impact of the LMS depends on many factors such as:

Not setting clear goals: What do you need from an LMS? Why do you need an LMS? How is it going to address your online training? Examine thoroughly the motivation behind your purchase.

Not accounting for hidden costs: Besides the overall costs, do factor in vendor charges, licensing fee, additional fee for advanced support upgrades/updates, maintenance, and upkeep fee. All these can add up and overshoot your budget.

Failure to find an implementation team: In most cases, implementing and maintaining an LMS is a group effort. An ineffective team on hand will result in unexpected and costly delays. Conclusively, the E-LMS has also numerous advantages such as

Customized courses and training programs: Here, the University of Jos will make more revenue from offering more courses online and carrying out virtual trainings. Modern and technically E-LMSs provide pre-built templates for content creation, extensions, and customization.

Organizes content in one location: These days cloud-based E-LMSs are offering to store up all your training documents, assessment sheets etc. at one location. This reduces the risk of losing important data and is easier to create your course. This makes E-LMSs a seamless fit for online collaboration.

Easy monitoring of learner performance: An ideal E-Learning Management System will give you the ability to keep track of learner progress and ensure that they are meeting their performance milestones. An E-LMS with excellent reporting and the analytical tool will pinpoint areas of the E-Learning Management System that may be lacking, as well as where it excels.

7. Recommendations

To this end, the researcher put forward the following recommendations:

- Organizing Regular workshops and training for staff and students.
- Ensure wider network coverage within and outside the university community.
- Create an LMS committee: A few things the University of Jos might consider is the establishment of an independent working committee among all stakeholders (IT, communication, Human Resource, legal, procurement, and the employees themselves who must test the environment).

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Causes and Effects of Examination Malpractice on Social Studies Students in Secondary Schools of Apa Local Government Area of Benue State, Nigeria

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Abstract. This paper looks into the causes and effects of examination malpractices on academic performance of Social Studies students in some secondary schools in Jos Metropolis in Plateau State, Nigeria. The background looked into issues of malpractice and degrading standard of Nigeria education. The statement of problem also pinpoint the problems bothering effects examination malpractices can have on students as well. Three research questions were formulated to guide the study which include: causes of malpractice among social studies students among others. The population and samples used for the study consists of 200 students and 50 teachers' randomly selected from the study area. While the method of data analysis applied was descriptive inferential statistics particularly the mean method. The study revealed that lack of professional teachers, teaching materials and emphasis on certification as well as examination have been the only means of evaluation and thus are of the major reasons why students engage in examination malpractice in the study area. Again the researchers further revealed that parents, government, teachers and even the communities are partakers in examination malpractices. The study makes some recommendations to include, qualified social study teachers should be employed, teachers' welfare should be properly taken care of and their remuneration prioritized, government should punish partakers of malpractices when cut among others.

Keywords: Causes and effects, examination malpractice, social studies students and secondary schools

1. Introduction

The standard of education in Nigerian has been degrading and declining in the past decades, this has been adjudged to the decrease in quality of education obtainable in recent times which is seen as substandard and cannot measure up to the quality of education individuals use to have in the past 8 to 9 decades as a country. Hitherto, the standard and quality of Nigeria education is largely cherished within and outside the country where Nigeria students are offered scholarship to study abroad in best Universities across the globe. The decadence and degrading of Nigeria educational value has reflected on the performance of Nigeria students when measured on achievement, this has been a topic of debate to many concern stakeholders and citizens who mean well for the country and its educational system. Simply because, education is the instrument any country or nation uses to change her fortune and develop in all ramifications. Moreso, education is the only thing that can change anything, it then shows that the fall in standard of education in Nigeria can be said to be among the factors affecting the growth and development of the country.

The reasons for drastic fall in standard of education in the Nigeria could be caused by different factors such as teachers attitudes,

parent qualification, socio-economic background, home variables, environmental variables, peer influences, examination malpractices among many others. Nigeria is a developing country and crowded with a lot of problems economically, socially, educationally, and politically. There is indeed no dispute on the fact that, Nigeria requires informed and rational citizens not only with quality education, values, knowledge and skills, but citizens that can also appreciate the nations pathetic problems, citizens who can make concerted, deliberate, and conscious effort to salvage the country from this predicament of social, economic, political, and religious intolerance but also should be able to demonstrate pragmatically high degree of love for their fatherland as against citizens with idiosyncrasy attitudes and disposition. Nigeria therefore cannot afford to neglect the proper development of an all-important subject like social studies education in its developmental endeavours.

Another reason for the poor educational standard in Nigeria is not farfetched from the fact that, emphases are placed on certification and knowledge, appointment, promotion and what a person is granted base on certification and not really by functions and abilities. This has made the citizens and students to go any length in performing different atrocities in their examination since examination happens to be the judge of knowledge in the school system. For instance, many or some students engage in examination malpractices in different forms just to pass their examination at any cost.

The history of examination malpractice has been in existence long ago, the first time examination malpractice was reported in Nigeria was in 1914 when a leakage of Senior Cambridge local examination was revealed. After independence, there was hardly any year when examination malpractice is not recorded and after the civil war youths who were conscripted into the army during the war came back to school to continue their education. These youths who understood the language of the “gun” more than what the teacher was saying were not psycho-emotionally stable and prepared for examination thus, they resorted to alternative means of passing the examination such as direct cheating in

examination, bribing examiners to allow them indulge in cheating, impersonation among others, thus, marking the graduated decrease in morality and hard work by students during examination.

The Examination Malpractice Act (1999) explains examination malpractice as, “any act of omission or commission by a person who in anticipation of, before, during or after any examination fraudulently secure any unfair advantage for himself or any other person in such a manner that contravenes the rules and regulation to the extent of undermining the validity, reliability, authenticity of the examination and ultimately the integrity of the certificates issued”. This means that, examination malpractices involves any action or inaction by an examinee before, during, and after any examination fraudulently secure any unfair advantage for himself or any other person in such a manner that contrivance the rules and regulations to the extent of undermining the validity, reliability, authenticity of the examination and ultimately the integrity of the certificates issued. Students partake in malpractices in different means, like scientific malpractice where technological gadgets and phones are used, impersonation, communication, pipping or jiraffing into some ones work, copying, among other forms.

Ugwuanyi (2006) sees examination malpractices as “any act of wrong-doing or neglect that contravenes the rule of acceptable practices before, during, and after examination by anybody in any way. This implies that when supervisors neglect to perform their duties properly such that students feel free to cheat are equally guilty of malpractice. Oyetunde (2004) further added that examination malpractice as the violation of the established regulations of the conduct of the candidates taking parts in a particular examination. In order words any act exhibited by the students which goes against the stipulated rules at examination is considered a violation.

The purpose of introducing a subject like social studies into Nigeria curriculum was to mitigate all social, political, economic, and numerous

societal problems disturbing Nigeria as a country. It is seen as a panacea to ameliorating these forms of social misconduct that are ground to occur with human existence. In the words of Adeyoyin (1991) summarizes the scope of social studies to include values, attitude, skills and knowledge transmission which are taught to students or learners to bring about holistic as well as reasonable change in them that can make them better informed and rational citizens who can be able to make decisive decisions concerning social, economic, political, bothering on them and the society at large.

Social Studies as a subject emphasizes on patriotic, cross cultural, multi-dimensional citizens who are rational, value laden, efficient critical and patriotic in action. In order words, they can be referred to as social actors because they can take good decisions. In Kissocks in Yunus (2008) submission believes that social studies is a programme of study which the society uses to instill in the learners values, attitude, skills and knowledge they consider relevant for heir survival and association in the society. This presupposes that, social studies is geared towards solving problems facing the ever changing nature of man's society. Students who engage in malpractice are in all indiscipline's and such students are not even portraying what as the subject emphasizes example good character formation which is an aspect of the affective domain or psychological development traits and reflections. In fact there are many instances where social studies students have been caught for examination malpractices and the predicament is currently highly prevalent.

2. Conceptual Perspective of Examination Malpractice

The idea of examination malpractice involves real, intended or an attempted deception or dishonesty in relation to, any academic work in an organized institution of learning. In the Nigerian society it is still regarded as an illegal behavior by a candidate before, during or after the examination so that he or she can attain success easily.

According to Adegoke (2010) every few years, human knowledge doubles. This presupposes that, people are interested in adding knowledge or being referred to as intelligent or brilliant. Every achievement orientation has changed towards preferences acquisition of certificate instead of hardwork. Although the goal of an examination is to access how much an individual learner has learned and also to what extend educational objectives have been achieved and to also predict the future of a nation. Thus, Adegoke (2010) believes it that the spate of "cheating behavior by the school is now a big problem in our people. School authorities are now being called upon to desist from such acts and reduce the high premium attached to paper qualification as a prerequisite for gainful employment.

Maduka Oyetunde defines examination "as a way of ascertaining how much of a subject matter in a particular field of study. In order words it is the formal way of testing an individual knowledge of a particular subject. The gravity of the dilemma is so alarming that many other names are given to it like expo, bullet, omokirikiri e.t.c. Thus, it is clear that this evil known as examination malpractice is aided and abetted by nearly everybody (The tide, 2016). Any nation where examinations are observed in the breach of principles cannot progress educationally. In Nigeria for instance, where the problem is prevalent, students are already developing apathy to learning some hardly even attend classes while some who attend the classes are often times busy playing with their phones or chatting out rightly as Onyedukwu (2016) explains.

According to Lagos books club word press (2013), examination malpractice have consistently remained a bane of Nigeria. Moreso, that the Nigerian National policy on Education recognizes education as an instrument for affecting national development. It goes without saying that whatever compromises the efficiency and credibility of the educational system, must not compromise the quality and competency of its products, (Aliyu, 2018). He further believes that, Examination is the thrust of measurement and Evaluation stage of all formal

education process. It is in fact, the only yardstick for the process of determining how much knowledge and skill a student has acquired. Over time however, the process has been corrupted such that all that matters is paper results gotten by hook or crook.

Again, Argungu (1997) in <https://study> moose (2016) defines Examination Malpractice as “any irregularity which is premeditated and perpetrated by candidates or their agents with the intention of gaining undue advantage over others in an examination. This presupposes that the one cheating or committing any malpractice during an examination is trying to gain scores or grades where in the first instance he/she does not qualify to get. This in itself causes undue advantage over the one who has head and is prepared for the examination.

However, Jega (2006) in <https://study> moose (2016), views examination malpractice “as any form of misbehavior that leads to the alteration of or a tempering with the prescribed ways of conducting examination in any given system”. Thus, implying that an examination malpractice is a punishable offense which is committed during the process of normal and recognized examination. It is a gross violation of the laid down principles of conducting an examination. From all these definitions proffered, examination malpractice is noted as fraud within the school system and does occur at all levels of education irrespective of religious affiliations of stakeholders it is a real monster. According to Aje (2003) the issue of examination malpractice tends to weaken the validity of any examination making the results worthless and unreliable. Consequently, the authors proscribe that examination malpractice produces error scores in the examination with a student earning more marks than the one who had actually read and prepared for the said examination. Hence, producing people earning below their abilities and occupying wrong positions in the economy and employment sectors. While leaving the most qualified individuals unemployed or occupying lower job cadres in the society.

3. Statement of Problem

The system and standard of education in Nigeria is changing day in day out, the worrisome part is that, the standard is falling and degrading drastically. We have graduate in Nigeria that can barely communicate fluently or write fluently, when you come across such graduate one would wonder if they truly went through secondary school and even more higher institutions, the narration is so discomfiting and repugnant to the fact that, there exist many unemployable graduates. The wanton rate of unemployment is another bothering issue this is not far from the fact that, most graduate are unable to secure jobs because they are not qualified and unemployable for such a job. Rather because there are totally no jobs as claimed by most of these unemployed graduates but rather their inability to communicate properly what they claim they know and have certificate at hand to show.

The system of education in Nigeria that lays emphasis on certification can lead many students into examination malpractice because students now do all they can to ensure they pass the examination just because of certification. Another issue is the fact that, those educated are the privileged ones who control the country and most times occupy political offices and such people get to political offices and become rich over night while those who are hardworking artisans for many years have not been able to make much for themselves. Such a situation has prompted and motivated a lot of people to want to acquire certificate by all means. Thus, it could be another possible cause of malpractice. The scourge and effects of these malpractices on students, schools, and the country at large cannot be over emphasize as this may lead to overall collapse and derail in the educational system which would in turn be a doom to Nigeria as a country. To this end, what are the effects of examination malpractices and how can these be curbed?

4. Aim and Objectives of the Study

The aim of this study is to find out the effects of examination malpractice on social studies students in and specifically to objectives are:

- To find out possible cause of malpractices among social studies students.
- To identify aids and supporters of malpractices in social studies.
- To identify how best malpractice can be stopped.

5. Research Questions

The following research questions are put forward for this study:

- What are the effects examination malpractice have on social studies students.
- What are the possible causes of malpractices in social studies.
- Who are the supporters and aids of malpractice in social studies.
- What are the ways of stopping examination malpractice.

6. Methodology

For the purpose of this study the survey research design was adopted to collect data for the study. A survey design is usually used to collect data or information from a representative sample who represent the whole population but from which generalization can be deduced..

6.1 Population and Sample

The population of this study consists of 130 schools generated from both governments, private, and religious bodies, spread across APA Local Government Area of Benue State. That is a total of 49,386 students were selected as

population from the 130 schools in the study area. However, the sample size selected from this population is a total of 200 students and 50 teachers due to time, finance and other factors making a total of 250 respondents. Hence the study generated data from these 250 samples size from which generalization of the result were made consequently. The 250 sample are making up of 200 students and 50 teachers respectively for the study.

6.2 Instrumentation

The instrument used for generating data for this study was a questionnaire tagged questionnaire on examination malpractice amongst social studies students in APA (**QEMASSSA**) and a teacher’s interview schedule requiring their responses to what they equally have observed about the spate of this menace over the years.

7. Analysis of Findings

From the data collected, the analysis was based on two sections, which are section 1 for bio-data of teachers and students respectively, while section 2 contains the research questions and items analysis. The bio-data was analyzed using simple percentage while the research question was analysed using mean method or simple inferentics statistics where items from the questionnaire with mean score of 2.5 and above and positive were accepted. But any item with a lesser mean score than the above was rejected as negative mean score. Responses from the teachers returned and filled interview sheets were properly analyzed too.

Research Question One

Table I: Courses of Malpractices among Social Studies Students? Student Responses

S/N	ITEMS	SA	A	D	SD	MEAN
1.	Lack of qualified teachers	20	27	28	105	1.79
2.	Poor teaching methods by teachers	81	70	18	11	3.23
3.	Emphasis on certification	64	56	34	26	2.88
4.	Examination as test of knowledge	89	59	24	8	3.27

The analysis from the students responses above reveal that, lack of qualified teachers does not really makes students involved in malpractice since it had the mean of 1.79, emphasis on certificate was also agreed as another reason why students engage in examination malpractices, and poor teaching method of teachers contributes to a large extend to malpractices among students. Also emphasis on examination as the only test of knowledge is agreed by the students as reason are major why students involve in

mathematics since some have ability in different field and areas like art, craft, acting and so many other fields but all tested with examination and no one wants to fail at the long run.

Table II: Causes of malpractices among Social Studies Students? Teacher’s Responses

S/N	ITEMS	SA	A	D	SD	MEAN
1.	Corrupt teachers/invigilators	94	49	27	10	3.26
2.	Lack of motivation	77	58	25	20	3.07
3.	Poor evaluation and loose system	94	49	27	10	3.26

From the response of the teachers on research question one it shows that, the causes of examination malpractices as agreed by them are that corrupt teachers who are selected serve as invigilators most times prove to be unethical by allowing students to cheat during examination either for some personal gains, and nepotism or some other sentiments. Again, lack of motivation is equally agreed by them as a cause of examination malpractice because when teachers are not motivated on their job they get attracted to side motivations and most times become partakers in malpractices. And lastly poor evaluation of the system where the examination is being conducted or sometimes the examination may be conducted out of context hence, students may not know what to do but cheat when the examiner has no knowledge of the evaluation process or poor knowledge of examination questions drawn. Again, poor teaching styles and techniques are also among major causes of this great moral menace as the mean scores all reveal from table I and II.

8. Conclusion

From the data collected and analyzed for the study, it has been established that students involvement in malpractices among social studies is dependent on the teaching activities in the learning process ranging from strategies of teaching, instructional materials, social studies teachers competency and evaluation procedure. It was also revealed that, the emphasis on certification in Nigeria system of education is a major cause of examination malpractices amongst students as every students wants to pass his or her examination at all cost. This way, students get involved in various kinds of examination malpractices activities before, during or even after an examination. Through

the analysis of data collected it also unravelled the fact that, examination being the only system of evaluating students in Nigeria is not favourable because it neglects the domain of character, virtues and skills which may not be able to be measured this, giving room and encouraging students in malpractices. Moreso once students pass the examination they would be certified and the one who is so certified by virtue of certification is automatically qualified to seek for job anywhere. The study also revealed that, examination malpractices exists and parents, teachers, invigilators, school heads, and government among many are sources of this menace.

9. Recommendations

After the investigation into the effects of examination malpractice on social studies students performance a detail causes collection of data and analysis of data were adopted to xray the menace appropriately. The necessary suggestion and some recommendations were proffered on how examination malpractices can be curtailed and possibly eradicated. In addition, the following recommendations are made:

- Professionally trained, and more upright teachers should be employed and brought to schools to teach social studies so that the learners will be given quality knowledge that would properly guide them towards learning that is impactful and meaningful.
- Teachers remuneration should be prioritize because when social studies teachers are well paid they cannot be tempted to take bribe or be partakes in examination malpractices. The salaries would be able to take care of their welfare and cover any additional expenses.

They will be able to work and teach the learners well.

- Parents and the society in general should revive the lost values of traditional upbringing where children were taught values of truth, respect, diligent, punctuality, hardwork, fairness among others and were diligently led to imbibe in the learners from home and left for the teachers alone to do in the schools.
- There should be a strong legislation on the issue and culprits and all partakers in such malpractices when caught by the invigilators or supervisor should be allowed to be punished by the unit of education.
- The emphasizes on certification and the myth behind it should be broken and be laid on practical skills acquisition and entrepreneurship and attitude on certification be curtailed or totally eradicated.
- Government should review curriculum and bring it to stand the test of time so that values, attitude and skills would be the benchmark for certification in schools as oppose to the present system of almighty examination placement.
- Schools should also be provided adequate instructional materials and equipment required to teach social studies effectively for both teachers and students'.

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Effects of the Collaborative Approach on Senior Secondary School Students' Achievement in English Composition Writing in Jos South Local Government Area of Plateau State

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Abstract. Writing in general is a very important skill that needs to be properly developed in the students. This study investigated the effects of the collaborative approach in senior secondary school students' achievement in English composition writing in Jos South Local Government Area of Plateau State. The research was provoked by the continuous decline in students' achievement in English composition writing. The study employed the quasi-experimental research design. Two schools were randomly selected from the 20 public schools in the study area, one of the schools used as experimental group and the other as control group. A sample of 78 students was used for the experiment from the entire population of 16,219 students. Four research questions and four hypotheses were formulated to guide the study. Students Composition Writing Assessment Test (SCWAT) developed and validated by the researchers was used to collect research data. The data were analyzed using mean, standard deviation and t-test for independent samples. The results showed that there was a significant difference between the mean score achievements of the experimental and control groups in English composition writing. Based on the findings of the study, it was recommended that

teachers should teach English composition writing using the collaborative approach and school authorities should encourage English teachers to attend workshops and seminars that will expose them to innovative teaching strategies like the collaborative approach amongst others.

Keywords: Collaborative approach, English composition writing, Secondary schools

1. Introduction

Writing in general is a very important skill that needs to be properly developed in the student. English composition writing in particular is an essential component of the educational curriculum of the Nigerian secondary school student, considering that English language is the language of instruction in Nigerian secondary schools. Secondary school students therefore need to master English composition writing skills, especially at the senior secondary school level which is the stage at which students are expected to possess adequate writing skills to help them become confident and independent writers in the course of their higher educational

activities as well as in social communication interactions within the society in general.

According to Enigeh and Afangideh (2001), 'writing is an art, the art of communication, and like other forms, it requires the acquisition of the necessary skills to attain excellence. Whereas, the pianist communicates through music and the sculptor through wood and stone, with chisel, the writer convey his message or feelings through the use of words, pen and paper. The art of writing therefore has its own peculiarity and requires some techniques'.

A good writing composition should include a rich content, proper organization, sentence fluency and mechanical accuracy. The rich content entails the writer generating enough ideas to form the content of his composition. The more ideas discussed in the piece of a written composition, the more conviction the pieces of communication, and the more marks it fetches for the student in the case of a test. Content should also include relevant examples which help to expatiate on the themes, illustrating same.

When talking about proper organization in composition writing, the generated ideas are to be properly organized into paragraphs. The composition should be organized in such a way that the paragraphs follow a proper sequence, with a smooth flow of ideas from one paragraph to the next. According to Ojo (2016) in describing the feature of effective writing, 'the writing must be carefully organized. Organization is the progression, relatedness and completeness of ideas.

Sentence Fluency on the other hand is achieved through the use of clarity of expression in the sentence. The sentences used should not be ambiguous. Also, the English composition writer must ensure that the sentences are syntactically and grammatically well- formed. Unity and coherence can be achieved in a piece of written composition if there is an intra-sentential and inter-sentential connection or links to provide a smooth flow of information. Economy of expression is another quality of sentence fluency. According to Ojo (2016), to meet the requirement of economy of expression,

you have to be concise. That is, you should say what should be said using only necessary words.

Mechanical accuracy in English composition writing is achieved through the proper use of English punctuation markers. Ojo (2016) submits that writing that is well punctuated not only enhances the reader's understanding of the message but also goes a long way in establishing the fluency of expression. Using full stops, commas, colons, semi-colons accurately, for example, indicates a break in transition. This can either be long enough to change the thought pattern or to clarify more of the ideas earlier explained.

The four elements of a good English composition writing as listed here above are the main things that the marker looks out for, while marking a piece of English composition. The standard marking scheme for the West African Examination Council allocates 6 marks for content (ideas) generated, 8 marks for clarity of expression in the sentences, 3 marks for punctuation marks and 3 marks for organization (paragraphs), giving a total of 20 marks.

In view of the foregoing, certain techniques, methods and approaches are employed by teachers of English language to develop English composition skills in students. Odide, (2011) supports this assertion by stating that 'writing as a practical activity is based on certain approaches, methods and techniques which interact with one another to provide direction both of a general and specific nature'. These methods, approaches and strategies form the tools by which the teacher develops English composition writing skills in his students. If English composition is well taught using an effective teaching method, the students of English will be helped to develop their English composition writing skills and go on to become expert and confident writers. The role of the English composition teacher, therefore, cannot be over emphasized.

According to Oyetunde and Muodumogu (1999), 'the big challenge facing teachers is that of motivating students to write. One way of promoting writing among students is to make

writing classes lively and interesting'. It is in an attempt to promote the love of writing among students as encouraged in the foregoing statement that teachers make use of different methods and approaches in teaching English composition writing. It is for the same reason that the researchers conducted this experimental research using the collaborative approach in order to find out its effectiveness and comparative advantage as a tool in helping senior secondary school students become better English composition writers.

The collaborative approach is a student-centred approach of learning in which emphasis is shifted from the teacher to the students. It is a departure from the more traditional methods of teaching in which the teacher is the principal actor in the learning process. Oluikpe (2007) has defined collaborative learning thus: 'collaborative learning is an educational approach to teaching and learning that involves a group of learners working together to solve a problem, complete a task or create a product'. The collaborative approach as the name implies allows for greater contribution and collaboration among learners. Suffice it to say here that the approach is adopted by the researchers for this experimental research by way of trying to address the poor performance of senior secondary school students in English composition writing.

2. Aim and Objectives

The aim of this study is to investigate the effects of the collaborative approach on senior secondary school students' achievement in English composition writing in Jos South Local Government area of Plateau state. The specific objectives of the study are to:

- Determine students' level of achievement in idea generation (content) before and after instruction using the collaborative approach.
- Determine students' level of achievement in sentence construction before and after instruction using the collaborative approach.

- Determine students' level of achievement in paragraph organization before and after instruction using the collaborative approach.
- Determine students' level of achievement in the use of punctuation marks before and after instruction using the collaborative approach.

3. Research Questions

The following research questions were formulated by the researchers to guide the study:

- What is the mean difference between the achievement of students in English composition writing exposed to the collaborative approach and those that were not exposed to the approach in idea generation?
- What is the mean difference between the achievement of students who practiced English composition writing individually and those who practiced it collaboratively in expression?
- What is the mean difference between the achievement of students who were exposed to the collaborative approach and those not exposed to the approach in paragraph organization?
- What is the mean difference between the achievement of students who practiced English composition writing individually and those who practiced it collaboratively in punctuation?

4. Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were raised to guide the study:

H₀₁: There is no significant difference in the post-test mean scores of the experimental and control groups in idea generation (content).

H₀₂: There is no significant difference in the post-test mean scores of the experimental and control group in expression.

H₀₃: There is no significant difference in the post test mean scores of the experimental and control groups in paragraphing.

Ho4: There is no significant difference in the post test mean scores of the experimental and control groups in mechanical accuracy.

5. Method

5.1 Research Design

The quasi experimental research design was used for the study. This design was appropriate as the students were in intact groups and the researchers were not allowed by the school authorities to carry out randomization and random assignment to avoid disruption of the school’s activities.

5.2 Participants

The target population of the study consisted of all SSII students in the 20 public senior secondary schools within Jos South Local Government Area of Plateau state. The Public schools in the area has a population of 16, 219 students. Two schools were randomly selected from the 20 schools in the area. Two intact classes from the two schools comprising 78 students participated in the study. The experimental group was made up of 42 students while the control group had 36 students.

6. Results

The results as presented here are guided by the research questions and hypotheses.

Research Question one: What is the mean difference between the achievement of students in English composition writing exposed to the collaborative approach and those that were not exposed to the approach in idea generation?

Table 1: Mean and Standard Deviations for Answering Research Questions One to Four

Test	Skill	Group	N	Mean	Std. Dev
Post-test	Idea Generation	Experimental	42	3.79	0.98
		Control	36	2.58	3.32
Post-test	Expression	Experimental	42	3.92	0.71
		Control	36	2.81	0.57
Post-test	Paragraphing	experimental	42	3.93	0.71
		Control	36	2.44	0.80
Post-test	Punctuation	Experimental	42	3.71	0.70
		Control	36	2.47	0.91

In order to answer research question one, table one revealed that the experimental group had a higher mean of 3.79 (SD= 0.98) than the control group with a mean of 2.58(SD= 3.32) in idea generation. Hence, the treatment was effective.

5.3 Instrument

The instrument used for this study was tagged: Students’ Composition Writing Achievement Test (SCWAT). The instrument was developed and validated by the researchers. The content validity of the instrument was established by subjecting the instrument to expert judgment and the test-retest reliability to estimate the measure of stability was carried out. Hence the instrument was both valid and reliable for use.

5.4 Procedure

The researchers exposed both the experimental and control groups to four (4) weeks of English composition lectures and then a pre-test was administered. After the pre-test, another period of four (4) weeks were used for the experiment, in which the collaborative approach was used on the experimental group, while the control group was taught using the conventional method. At the end of the treatment, a post-test was administered to both groups to ascertain the effect of the treatment.

After the experiment, the data were analyzed using mean, standard deviation and t-test for independent samples.

Research Question Two: What is the mean difference between the achievement of students who practiced English composition writing individually and those who practiced it collaboratively in expression?

Table 1 also revealed that the mean score of the experimental group in expression was 3.92 (SD= 0.71) was higher than that of the control group with a mean score of 2.81 (SD= 0.57). Therefore, the treatment was effective as the mean performance of the experimental group was higher than that of the control group in Expression.

Research Question Three: What is the mean difference between the achievement of students who were exposed to the collaborative approach and those not exposed to the approach in paragraph organization?

Table 1 also revealed that the mean of the experimental group in paragraphing was higher than that of the control group. This means the treatment given to the experimental group was effective.

Research Question Four: What is the mean difference between the achievement of students who practiced English composition writing individually and those who practiced it collaboratively in punctuation?

Table one also revealed that the experimental group had a higher mean of 3.71 (SD= 0.70) than the control group with a mean of 2.47 (SD= 0.91) in punctuations. Hence, the treatment was effective.

Hypothesis one

There is no significant difference in the post-test mean scores of the experimental and control groups in idea generation (content).

Table two shows that the *p*-value of 0.007 is less than the level of significance of 0.05, therefore, we fail to accept the null hypothesis one. Hence, there is a significant difference in the post-test mean scores of the experimental and control groups in idea generation (content). This shows that the treatment was effective.

Table Two: Table Showing t-test Results for Hypotheses one to four.

Skill	Group	N	Df	Mean	SD	t-value	<i>p</i> -value	Decision
Idea Generation (Content)	Experimental	42	76	3.50	0.69	2.87	0.007	Reject Ho ₁
	Control	36	76	2.85	0.75			
Paragraphing	Experimental	42	76	3.25	0.64	2.33	0.025	Reject Ho ₂
	Control	36	76	2.75	0.72			
Expression	Experimental	42	76	3.55	0.76	3.14	0.003	Reject Ho ₃
	Control	36	76	2.75	0.85			
Mechanical Accuracy	Experimental	42	76	3.50	0.61	4.58	0.000	Reject Ho ₄
	Control	36	76	2.45	0.83			

Hypothesis Two: There is no significant difference in the post-test mean scores of the experimental and control group in expression.

Table two also revealed that the *P*-value of the t-test of 0.003 for expression is less than the level of significance of 0.05, therefore, reject null hypothesis two. Hence, there is a significant difference in the post-test mean scores of the

experimental and control group in expression. This shows that the treatment was effective.

Hypothesis Three: There is no significant difference in the post test mean scores of the experimental and control groups in paragraphing.

From table two, it can be clearly seen that the *p*-value of the t-test analysis for paragraphing of 0.025 is less than the level of significance of

0.05, therefore, hypotheses three was rejected. Hence, there is a significant difference in the post test mean scores of the experimental and control groups in paragraphing.

Hypothesis Four: There is no significant difference in the post test mean scores of the experimental and control groups in mechanical accuracy.

Table two also revealed that the p-value of the t-test analysis for mechanical accuracy of 0.000 is less than the level of significance of 0.05, therefore, reject hypothesis four. Hence, there is a significant difference in the post test mean scores of the experimental and control groups in mechanical accuracy. These shows the treatment in collaborative instruction was effective.

7. Discussion

The main aim of this study was to test the effect of the collaborative approach on senior secondary school students' achievement in English composition writing in Jos South Local Government area of Plateau state.

The results as presented in the result section revealed clearly that the treatment administered on the experimental group was significantly effective on them as against their counterparts in the control group that were not exposed to the treatment. Results from the research questions showed that in all the four skills assessed, that is, idea generation, paragraphing, expression and mechanical accuracy, the experimental group had higher mean score than the control group. Similarly, when the t-test was conducted to test the four hypotheses covering the four skills assessed, it showed clearly that there was a significant difference between the experimental and control groups in the four areas assessed.

8. Recommendations

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

- English language teachers should be encouraged to integrate collaborative approach in their teaching of English composition writing.

- English composition instruction should be learner-centred in such a way that learning materials are designed to encourage learners' active participation and responsibility –taking while the teachers' role is reduced to that of coordinator and guide.
- English language teachers should be encouraged by their school authorities to attend seminars and workshops where new methods and approaches to teaching English composition, such as the collaborative approach, are promoted so as to advance beyond the mere traditional methods of instruction.

9. Conclusion

Based on the findings of the study, it can be concluded that the use of collaborative approach in developing English composition writing of senior secondary school students is effective. This is because the experiment to test the effectiveness of the collaborative approach on senior secondary school students in Jos South local government area of plateau state had a significant effect on the students composition writing skills assessed at the end of the experiment.

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Part Six
Moral Education

Analysis of Forms and Determinants of Abuse of Elder in Six Selected Communities in Kaduna State, Nigeria

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Abstract. The incidence of elder abuse is increasingly becoming a serious public health problem in Nigeria. Despite the steady increase, not very many studies have attempted to investigate this phenomenon, especially in Northern Nigeria. The study specifically examined the various forms of elder abuse common in the study area and also identified the causes. Questionnaire survey was used to elicit information from a sample of male and female respondents aged 65 years and more. Descriptive statistics such as the use frequency distribution and percentages was adopted for data analysis. The study found out that emotional abuse is the most common form of abuse in the area others include financial abuse, sexual abuse, neglect and abandonment. It was also observed that neglect and abandonment was the most widely reported form of abused experienced. In addition, the study also found that caregivers stress, social isolation, unemployment, substance abuse are determinants. Furthermore, the Pearson chi-square test revealed significant association between, age, religious affiliation, marital status, means of livelihood, number of children, living arrangement and all the forms of elder abuse identified. (Physical abuse, emotion abuse, sexual abuse and neglect abuse) On the whole it was concluded that elder abuse thrives in the study area. On the basis of this, it is recommended that public enlightenment varying proportion of the respondents stated that they have personally experience all of these forms of abuse but aimed at informing the public about what action and behaviours constitutes should be

stepped up. In addition social support scheme aimed at catering for the need of the elderly should be put instituted.

1. Introduction

Until recently, only very little attention or response was given to the problem of elder abuse in both developed and developing countries. This problem which was hitherto hidden from public view and mostly regarded as a private matter has now become an important public health issue in different parts of the world. Hildreth , Burke and Glass (2008) define elder abuse (also known as elder mistreatment) as any abuse or neglect of a person aged 60 years or over by a care giver or another person in a relationship involving an expectation of trust that threaten his or her health. In Nigeria, Ekot (2012) suggest that elder abuse may include the mistreatment of the elderly by family members, such as verbal abuse, name calling, and lock up in a room, treatment as a child and not providing food and financial support. It may also consist of beatings, indecent touching, extortion of money, non-visiting, denying access to grandchildren and cases of children declaring their parents witches amongst others. The occurrence of all or some of these forms of elder abuse within the context of the family is essentially the concern of this study.

In the past two or so decades, global reports indicate that the population of older people aged 60 years and above is growing rapidly in many

countries around the world (Okumaga, 2011). Estimates showed that, worldwide there are more than 600 million persons aged 60 years and above and it is expected that this total will double by 2025 (Shaefer, 2005). A large proportion of the aged population are reported to come from developing countries. In sub-Saharan Africa, Nigeria is reported to have the largest number of elderly people over the age of 60 years Omorogbe and Odigie (2015). According to the 2006 population head count, the population of Nigerians aged 60 years and more was about 4.3% of the total population. This suggests that the population of the elderly is slightly more than 6 million as at 2006. The reason for the increase in the population of the aged in Nigeria and in other parts of the world is usually attributed to improvements in the standards of living, improved nutrition, prospects in education and the advances made in the medical science and improved knowledge of basic hygiene (Mudiare, 2013 and Ekot, 2016). Hurme (2002) observed that the rapid increase in the population of older persons around the world including Nigeria, point to an increase potential for elder abuse.

The growth in the aging population has also significantly increased the need for adult children and other relatives to support and care for their aged parents or relatives. The provision of care, protection and other forms of social and material support to a dependent old person by members of his nuclear or extended family constitutes care-giving. Family members are usually expected to provide food, clothing, shelter, drugs and other necessities to the elderly. The elderly particularly the frail largely depend on caregivers both for their daily activities and their physical, emotional and financial needs. This dependence on caregivers tends to increase their vulnerability to abuse (Jones, Kramer and Peterson, 2010).

Traditionally in most societies across the world it is the sole responsibility of children to provide care and support to their parents at old age. Sharing this view Sijuwade (2008) noted that in both developed and developing countries the main providers of care to the elderly are family members and that most elderly persons prefer

that they be taken care of within the family. However, given the economic difficulties experience by most families, coupled with the lack of an institutional framework for the care of the old, it is increasingly becoming difficult for grown up children to cater for their own families as well as their aged parents. This has therefore increased the vulnerability of the elderly to abuse or neglect. Evidence from some studies has shown that older persons are sometimes left to suffer without adequate care and support from their families. For instance, Mudiare (2013) observed that some children who have migrated from their homes in search of employment have been known to totally neglect their parents at home, while, others have accused their parents of witchcraft and have driven them out of their homes leaving them to wander around and eventually die out of lack and neglect. Thus, the failure of caregivers to satisfy the basic need of elder or to protect them from harm has resulted to abuse or mistreatment.

The World Health Organization (WHO) (2008) stated that elder abuse can take many forms such as physical, financial, psychological, sexual abuse and neglect. Others forms of abuse include violation of basic human right, medication abuse, witchcraft accusation and lack of respect among others. The form of abused suffered by the elderly may depend on many factors such as age, level of dependency and culture (Ekot, 2016). Various studies conducted in Nigeria indicate varied prevalence rates of elder abuse. For instance, a study conducted in AkwaIbom State by Akpan and Umobong (2013) reported that neglect was the most popular form of abuse suffered by majority of older persons in the study area. This was closely followed by financial/material exploitation. Similarly Ola and Olalekan's (2012) study in Ado-Ekiti reported that 58.2 % of the 220 who took part in the study indicated that they have experienced abuse. The most reported form of abuse was abandonment and neglect (60.9%). This was closely followed by financial exploitation (41.9%), physical abuse (37.2%) and emotional/sexual abuse (32.1).

Another study of the prevalence of elder abuse in domestic setting conducted by Igbokwe and

Asogwa (2010) in Enugu State however revealed a low prevalence of physical abuse (20.4%) and a moderate prevalence of economic/financial exploitation (50.5%) and emotional/psychological abuse (50.6%), of the elderly in the study area. Sijuwade (2008) in a study in Lagos reported that 14.0% of respondents mentioned neglect and abandonment as the predominant forms of abuse experienced. Similar findings were reported by Yussuf and Baiyewa's (2014) study on elder abuse and neglect in Zaria. Their study revealed that of the 351 respondents who took part in the study no cases of physical, financial and psychological abuse was reported. However, 35.6% of respondents complain of neglect in terms of personal care and hygiene.

Similarly other studies found that socio-demographic variables such as age, gender, income level, place of residence etc. predispose the elderly to the risk of abuse. Several studies on elder abuse revealed that the propensity to abuse women is higher compare to their male counterparts. Biggs, Manthorpe, Tinker, Doyle and Erens (2009) study in Britain found that women were significantly (90.0%) more likely to have been abused than their male counterparts. Other studies have established the existence of relationship between age and abuse. Iborra's (2009) study in Spain discovered that the tendency to abuse older persons increases with age. This was confirmed by Ekot (2016) study in Akwa-Ibom which revealed that age is related with all forms of abuse (physical, emotional, sexual abuse, financial/material abuse, neglect and abandonment).

Socio-economic status or level of income was also found to be associated with elder abuse. In the report presented to the United State Department of Justice Acierno, Henandez-Tejada, Wendy-Muzzy and Kenneth-Steve (2009) revealed that the propensity to experience physical, sexual mistreatment and neglect was higher among low income earners, but income was not a determinant of emotional abuse. Ekot (2016) also found that elders' level of income had significantly influenced all forms of abuses experienced, except financial/material abuse. Marital status was also another variable which

influences elder abuse. Biggs et al (2009) observed that elders abuse tend to vary by marital status. Ekot (2016) found that being a widow/widower increases the risk of abuse, while elders who are married suffer less abuse. Though socio-demographic variables were found to have influenced elder abuse, Teaster, Dugar, Mendiando, Abner and Cecil (2006) however maintained that adherence to misconceptions and negative stereotypes of the elderly as stubborn, touchy, quarrelsome, bossy, meddlesome and infantile tend to motivate the abuse of elders by care-givers.

In spite the fact that elder abuse is increasingly becoming more prevalent and pervasive than what it was in the past only few studies have systematically investigate the nature and magnitude of this problem particularly in Nigeria (Ekot, 2012, Ola and Olalekan ,2012 and Yussuf and Baiyewa's ,2014) . In Kaduna State, the problem of elder abuse still remains hidden from public view because researches on this emerging social phenomenon are almost non-existent. Thus, the extent or magnitude and the form which it takes largely remain obscured in Kaduna State. The dearth of research on elder abuse and the need to generate useful information which would help in the formulation of plausible policies which would address the problem of the elderly motivated the initiation of this study. This study is therefore undertaken to ascertain the prevalence, forms and determinants of elder abuse within the context of family care-giving Kaduna State. Specifically, this study is set out to address the following questions:

- What are the forms of abuse experienced by elders in Kaduna State?
- What are the determinants or cause of elder abuse in Kaduna State?

The purpose of this study therefore is to determine the relationship between selected socio-demographic variables and elder in Kaduna State.

2. Methodology

Location of Study: The study was conducted in Kaduna State which is located at the center of

Northern Nigeria. With an estimated population of 6.1 million, the state has the third largest population in the country (2006 population census). The State shares boundaries with Niger state to the West, Zamfara, Katsina and Kano to the North, Bauchi and Plateau States to the East and FCT and Nasarawa State to the South. The major ethnic groups in the State include Hausa/Fulani, Kurama, Adara, Kurama, Bajju, Gbagyi, Kamuku etc. While the Northern part of the State is inhabited by Muslims, the Southern part is predominantly populated by Christians.

Sampling Method and Sample Size: The population of the study consisted of all male and female elderly persons aged 65 years and above selected from different ethnic and religious groups. Multi-stage sampling technique was adopted to select a sample size of 600 elderly

persons for the study. In the first stage three local government areas each were conveniently selected from the Northern and Southern parts of the State, and used for the study. The LGAs selected from the North include, Ikara, Birnin-Gwari and Igabi, while from the South Kagarko, Zangon-Kataf and Sanga LGAs were selected. At the second stage, the major towns or villages where the study was conducted were selected. However, attention was only paid on large villages or towns with large population. The reason for this choice is that they are likely to have a large concentration of older persons than other less populated towns/villages. Thus, from each of the six LGAs selected, two major villages or towns were selected. The lists of the towns / villages selected from each of the Six LGAs are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: List of LGAs selected from the Northern and Southern parts of the State.

LGAs from the Northern Part of the State			LGAs from the Southern Part of the State		
LGAs	Towns/Villages Selected		LGAs	Towns/Villages Selected	
Birnin-Gwari	Birnin-gwari	Randagi	Kagarko	Kagarko	Kubacha
Ikara	Ikara	Wambai	Zango-Kataf	Zonkwa	Samaru
Giwa	Giwa	Fatika	Sanga	Gwantu	Fadan-karshi

The third stage involved the selection of the respondents who took part in the study. To identify old persons who are 65 years or more the researcher contacted the village heads of the various neighbourhood or communities in each of the selected town or village. After explaining the purpose of the study, the village heads and some of his advisers and palace officials consulted among themselves and provided the names and addresses of elderly persons residing in their respective domain. Using the addresses provided and with the aid of a community member assigned by the village heads to assist the researcher, the elderly population were identified in each town/village. A pre-determined number of twenty-five (25) male and female respondents were picked from each of the 12 selected towns/villages using the convenience or accidental sampling method. On the whole, a total number of 600 respondents consisting of 289 male and 311 female were selected for the study.

2.1 Method of Data Collection

A structured questionnaire was the main instrument used for data collection. The questionnaire contained four main sections. In section one, information on the socio-demographic characteristics of respondents were collected. While section two and three provided information on the prevalence rate and forms of elder abuse and neglect respectively. The fourth section yielded data on the determinants of elder abuse in Kaduna state. The questionnaires were administered to the respondents by the researcher with the help of two research assistance. While some of the respondents complete their questionnaires personally with little or no assistance, for majority of the respondents who are non-literate or physically impaired the questions were read out to them in either Hausa or English language and their responses are ticked or recorded in the appropriate columns provided on the questionnaire. All the questionnaires were completed on the spot and immediately collected by the researcher. The administration of the questionnaire took 4 weeks.

The retrieved questionnaires were thoroughly cleaned, coded and analysed using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 16. Frequency distributions, percentages, cross tabulation and Pearson chi-square test were the statistical tools employed for data analysis.

3. Results

The result obtained from the field is presented and analysed in this section. The presentation is divided into four sections namely, socio-demographic characteristics of respondents, prevalence rate of elder abuse, forms of elder abuse and neglect and the determinants of elder abuse.

Socio-demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Data were collected on age composition, religious affiliation, marital status, and educational attainment, number of children, means of livelihood, living arrangement and number of people living in household. These provide useful insight into the socio-economic conditions of the respondents. It can be observed from the data in Table 1, that a slightly higher proportion of female respondents (51.8%) compared to 48.2% of their male counterparts participated in the study. While a fairly significant proportion of the respondents are between the ages of 65 and 70 years (36.5%), 27.8%, 20.2% and 15.5% are aged between 71-75 years, 76-80 years and 80 years or more respectively. In terms of religious affiliation, it was observed that 50.7% of respondents are adherents of the Islamic faith, 47.8% are

Christians and the remaining 1.5% are traditionalist.

It can also be seen from Table 1, that while 47.3% of the respondents are widowed, 32.5% are stated that they are married; only 14.5% indicated that they have divorced their partners. The data also revealed that a significant proportion of the respondents have acquired some forms of western education. Majority of those educated (27.2%) indicated that they have full primary education or less. This closely followed up by 24.3% who mentioned that they have full secondary education or less. While 19.7% reported that they have acquired more than secondary education, a relatively higher proportion of the respondents (28.8%) indicated that they have no formal education.

The study also revealed that respondents have various numbers of children ranging from 3 to more than 8. It was however observed that those who have more than 8 children are higher (38.6%) than those who have less than 8 children. It was also observed from the data in Table one that majority of the respondents (28.0%) are not engaged in any form of wage employment, 17.5% of those who claimed to have retired from wage employment do not receive pension. While 26.5% indicated that they are engaged in some form of income generating activity and 20.5% said that they are pensioners a marginal 7.5% indicated that they depend solely on their children for their means of livelihood. The data has however shown that though 29.3% and 13.7% are presently living in the same houses with their male and female children respectively, 24.5% maintain that they are living in separate houses with their

Table1: Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Variables/ Characteristics	Male (n=289)		Female (n=311)		Total (N=600)	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
1.Age Composition:						
65-70years	106	36.7	113	36.3	219	36.5
71-75 years	78	27.0	89	28.6	167	27.8
76-80 years	63	21.8	58	18.6	121	20.2
Above 80 years	42	14.5	51	16.4	93	15.5
2.Religious Affiliation:						
Christianity	149	51.6	138	44.4	287	47.8
Islam	131	45.3	173	55.6	304	50.7
Traditional	9	3.1	-	-	9	1.5
3.Marital Status:						
Married	88	30.4	107	34.4	195	32.5
Widowed	135	46.7	149	47.9	284	47.3
Divorced	53	18.3	34	10.9	87	14.5
Never Married	13	4.5	21	6.8	34	5.7
4.Educational Attainment:						
No Formal Education	59	20.4	114	36.7	173	28.8
Full Primary Educ. or Less	96	33.2	67	21.5	163	27.2
Full Secondary Educ. or Less	82	28.4	64	20.6	146	24.3
Post-Secondary Education	52	18.0	66	21.2	118	19.7
5.Number of Children:						
None	25	8.7	18	5.8	43	7.2
3 or less	115	39.8	97	31.2	212	35.3
4 - 7	86	29.8	133	42.8	219	36.5
8 – or more	63	21.8	57	18.3	120	38.6
6.Means of Livelihood:						
Depends solely on children	38	13.1	7	2.1	45	7.5
Retired with pension	82	28.4	41	13.2	123	20.5
Retired without Pension	29	10.0	76	24.4	105	17.5
Depend on self-made income	61	21.1	98	31.5	159	26.5
Not engaged at all	79	27.3	89	28.6	168	28.0
7.Living Arrangement:						
Son’s home	69	23.9	107	34.4	176	29.3
Daughter’s home	34	11.8	48	15.4	82	13.7
My personal home	47	16.3	16	5.1	63	10.5
Extended Family Compound	37	12.8	32	10.2	69	11.5
Home of Other Relatives	44	15.2	21	6.7	65	10.8
House provide by Children	58	20.1	87	28.0	145	24.2
8.Number of People living in the house hold:						
Living all Alone	26	9.0	13	4.2	39	6.5
3 or Less People	98	33.9	145	46.6	243	40.5
4 - 6 People	69	23.9	88	28.3	157	26.2
7 - 9People	41	14.8	29	9.3	70	11.7
More than 9 People	55	19.0	36	11.6	91	3.2

Source Field Survey, 2016

children but that the houses are built for them by their wards. Finally while almost all the respondents indicated that there are various number of people ranging from 1 to more than 9 residing in their respective households only 6.5% of indicated that the live alone in their houses.

4. Forms of Elder Abuse

In order to provide a clearer insight into the nature and forms of elder abuse in the study area, this study sought to find out if respondents are aware of what constitutes elder abuse, the forms of elder abuse common in the study area, the forms of abuse experienced by the respondents and how often respondents experienced such abuses. With regards to awareness the study found out that 62.1% of the respondents indicated that they have ever heard of what is elder abuse. Table 2 presents information on

the common forms of elder abuse prevalent in the study area, respondents experience of elder abuse and the frequency at which respondents experience abuse.

The data in Table 2 revealed that 81.8% of the respondents indicated that they have experienced various forms of elders from caregivers, while 17.5% said they had never been abused. The findings in Table 2 showed that neglect and abandonment is the most widely reported form of abuse experienced by respondents. More than 36.8% of the respondents indicated that they were neglected and abandoned by caregivers. The various forms neglect experienced by respondents include the non-provision of money for up keep(21.1%), neglect of medical needs(28.2%), lack of regular visitation (41.7%)and denial of access to grand-children (13.5%) It can also be observed from the data in Table 2 that 18.8% of the respondents reported that they subjected to emotional/psychology abuse by caregivers. Among those who reported being emotionally abuse, 62.7% indicated that they experienced verbal aggression (which includes abuses such as scolding, yelling, humiliation, name calling among others). Other forms of emotional abuses reported by respondents include witchcraft accusation (15.3%), discrimination in the social environment (11.2%) and being regarded as worn-out or a worthless old fellow.

Table 2: Common forms of elder abuse, respondents’ experience of abuse and how often respondents experienced such abuse

Variables	Frequency	Percentage
Common forms of elder abuse		
Physical abuse	105	17.5
Emotional/psychological abuse	301	50.5
Financial/Economic abuse	91	15.2
Sexual abuse	39	6.5
Neglect and abandonment	64	10.7
Total	600	100
Forms of abuse experience by respondents		
Physical abuse	98	16.3
Emotional/psychological abuse	113	18.8
Financial/Economic abuse	56	9.3
Sexual abuse	3	0.5
Neglect and abandonment	221	36.8
None	109	17.5
How often did respondents experienced abuse		
Very Often	62	10.3
Often	96	16.0
Not very often	148	24.7
Very rarely	185	30.8
Not at all	109	18.2
Total	600	100

Source: Field Survey 2018.

Furthermore, 16.3% of the respondents stated that they were physically abused by care providers. While 51.4% of those who indicated that they were physically abuse stated that they were physically assaulted (pushing, hitting, punching, beating, slapping and so on), 26.% 18.9% and 17.3% indicated that the form of physical abuse experienced varied from pointing accusing fingers at them to throwing objects (such as water, stone wood etc) respectively. Confinement or locking up in the house was another form of physical abuse experienced by

12.4% of the respondents. About 9.5% of the respondents reported that they were financially abused by care givers. Among those who experienced financial or economical abused, 42.8% of them said that other than stealing or extortion, they were tricked by care givers to bring out money as well as other valuable items. Similarly, while 36.5% of the respondents mentioned that they were dispossessed of their land and properties, 20.8% stated care givers sometimes trick them to pay unnecessarily higher prices for some of the goods and services

they require. A marginal proportion (0.5%) of the respondents reported that they were sexually abused. Sexual molestation or harassment, rape and fondling were among the major forms of sexual abuse experienced by respondents who were exposed to this form of abuse. The data in Table 2 also revealed that 17.5% of respondents indicated that they have not previously or currently experience any form of elderly abuse. With regards to the frequency of abuse, the data in Table 2 revealed that majority of the respondents (30.8%) said that they are rarely abused by care givers. Those who claimed that they are not abused very often constitute 24.7% of the respondents. However about 16.0% of the respondents said they are often abused by care givers and only 10.5% are abuse very often.

4.1 Determinants of Elder Abuse

The study also examined the social conditions and factors which motivates the abuse of elders by care givers or family care providers. To identify the factors which influence the abuse of elders’ respondents were asked to state whether

they agree, disagree or are not sure of your stance on the following determinants of elder abuse identified. Among the causes of elder abuse identified, are social isolation, caregiver stress, financial dependence, physical frailty, high rate of employment, and substance abuse.

The data in Table 3 shows that 49.7% of the respondents agreed that social isolation of the elderly significantly contributes to the incidences of elder abuse. However a marginal 17.2% of the respondents do not share this opinion. Another determinant of elder abuse identified is caregiver stress. The data obtained showed that 56.0% of the respondents held the opinion that the dependence of the elderly on caregivers for care and support makes them vulnerable to abuse. However, the responses of 14.8% of the respondents indicated that this factor is not a significant determinant of elder abuse.

Table 3: Determinants of Elder Abuse

Determinants of Elder Abuse	Opinion of Respondents						Total	
	Agree Freq.	%	Disagree Freq.	%	Not Sure Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Social Isolation	298	49.7	103	17.2	199	31.1	600	100
Caregiver stress/Care Dependence	336	56.0	89	14.8	175	29.2	600	100
Financial Dependence	207	34.5	291	48.5	102	17.0	600	100
Physical Frailty	189	31.5	106	17.7	305	50.8	600	100
High Rate of Unemployment	114	19.0	348	58.0	138	23.0	600	100
Substance Abuse	69	11.5	316	52.7	215	35.5	600	100

Source: Field Survey, 2018

Similarly, the results in Table 3 showed that respondents held different views on financial dependence of the older persons on family members or caregivers as a motivation of elder abuse. While financial dependence was cited by 34.5% as a cause of elder abuse, 48.5% of the respondents had a contrary view. Physical frailty was mentioned by 31.5% of respondents as a determinant of elder abuse. While those who opined that physical frailty did not influence the abuse of elders constitute only 17.7% of the respondents. Similarly, the result in Table 3 shows that 19.0% identified high rate of unemployment as a motivation for elder abuse. It was however observed from the result obtained that a significant proportion of the

respondents (58.0%) do not think that this factor is responsible for the abuse of elders. Furthermore, while 11.5% of the respondents agreed that substances abuse is a predictor of elder abuse, a fairly large proportion (52.7%) of the respondents disagrees with this opinion.

Test of Association between Selected Socio-demographic Variables and Forms of Elder Abuse

The study also conducted Pearson chi-square test between some selected socio-demographic variables and the forms of elder abuse experienced by respondents. The essence of the test is to provide more insights into the likely

causes of elder abuse. The results of the chi-square tests are provided in Table 4.

Chi-square (X²) Test of Association for Forms of Elder Abuse and some Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Variables	Physical Abuse	Emotional Abuse	Economic Abuse	Sexual Abuse	Neglect	None	Total	X ² Value	Diff.	P-Value
Age										
65 -70 years	17.8	16.4	5.0	0.4	44.7	15.5	36.5	20.824	10	0.022
71-75 years	17.4	20.1	12.6	1.2	29.3	19.2	27.8			
76-80 years	15.7	16.5	9.1	0.0	34.7	24.8	20.2			
≤ 80 years	11.8	24.7	13.9	0.0	34.4	15.1	15.5			
Total	16.3	18.8	9.3	0.5	36.8	18.2	100			
Religion Affiliation										
Christianity	16.0	16.0	5.9	0.7	45.3	16.0	47.8	31.263	10	0.001
Islam	17.1	20.7	12.8	0.3	28.3	30.7	50.7			
Traditional	0.0	44.4	0.0	0.0	55.6	0.0	1.5			
Total	16.3	18.8	9.3	0.5	36.8	18.2	100			
Marital Status										
Married	18.9	17.4	4.1	0.0	44.1	15.4	32.5	30.421	15	0.010
Widowed	15.5	18.3	11.3	1.1	33.8	20.1	47.3			
Divorced	18.4	18.4	13.8	0.0	27.6	21.8	14.5			
Never Married	2.9	32.1	11.8	0.0	44.1	8.8	5.7			
Total	16.3	18.8	9.3	0.5	36.8	18.2	100			
Educational Attainment										
No. Education	20.2	16.8	4.6	0.0	42.8	15.6	28.8	41.116	15	0.000
Pri. Education	10.4	14.1	8.6	1.2	47.2	18.4	27.2			
Sec.Education	20.5	23.3	13.0	0.6	21.2	21.2	24.3			
Post Sec.Educ	13.6	22.9	12.1	0.0	33.1	17.8	19.7			
Total	16.3	18.8	9.3	0.5	36.8	18.2	100			
Number of Children										
None	36.7	14.3	6.1	0.0	24.5	18.4	8.2	38.845	15	0.001
3 or Less	12.7	16.9	6.1	0.5	48.6	15.1	35.3			
4-7	16.9	19.6	10.9	0.9	30.6	21.0	36.5			
8 or More	13.3	22.5	13.3	0.0	32.5	18.3	20.0			
Total	16.3	18.8	9.3	0.5	36.8	18.2	100			
Living arrangements										
With Son	19.9	17.0	4.5	0.0	42.6	15.9	29.3	53.783	25	0.001
With daughter	12.2	14.6	8.5	1.2	47.6	15.9	13.7			
Personal Home	6.3	12.7	7.9	1.6	50.8	20.6	10.5			
Extended Family	17.4	15.9	10.1	0.0	33.3	23.2	11.5			
Live with Relatives	24.6	30.8	13.8	1.5	13.8	15.4	10.8			
Rented House	14.5	22.1	13.8	0.0	29.7	20.0	24.2			
Total	16.3	18.8	9.3	0.5	36.8	18.2	600			
Means of Livelihood										
Dependent on children	27.8	15.5	11.3	0.0	27.8	19.6	16.2	47.560	20	0.000
On monthly pension	11.7	22.2	5.3	0.0	46.2	14.6	28.5			
Not on pension	10.5	15.2	8.6	1.9	48.6	15.2	17.5			
Self-made income	15.1	18.9	11.9	0.6	32.1	21.4	26.5			
Not employed	23.5	20.6	11.8	0.0	22.1	22.1	11.3			
Total	16.3	18.8	9.3	0.5	36.8	18.2	100			

Level of Significance is set at 0.05% (p<0.05) confidence interval

It was observed from the result of the test of association, that the relationship between age and all the forms of abuses experienced by respondents is significant with observed chi-square (X²) of 20.824 obtained at DF=10 and P-value of 0.022 (P<0.05). Elders aged 65-70

years were found to have experienced all forms of abuse more than those aged 71 years or more. Religion was also found to be a major determinant of elder abuse. The observed chi-square test between religion and all forms of abuse was significant with X²=31.263 at 10

degree of freedom and observed P -value=0.001 ($P<0.05$). It is observed from this results that the forms of elder abuse experienced varied between Christians and Muslims. Muslims were found to have experienced all forms of elder abuse more than their Christian counterparts.

The marital status of respondents was also found to have significantly influenced elder abuse. Widows were found to be particularly vulnerable to neglect/abandonment, emotional/psychological and physical abuses than those who were married, divorced and never married. The observed chi-square between marital status and the forms of elder abuse experienced indicated the existence of a significant relationship (30.421 with a p -value of 0.001 ($p<0.05$) obtained at $Df=10$). The study also found the association between educational attainment and all forms of elderly abuse experienced to be significantly related. It was observed that those without formal education and those with only primary education were tended to have experienced all forms of abuse more than those with secondary and post-secondary education. The test of association between educational attainment and elder abuse was found to be significant. The X^2 was 41.116 at $Df=15$ and p -value was 0.000 ($P<0.05$).

Number of children owned by respondents was another important factor found to have played a significant role in elder abuse. Respondents who do not have children were found to have experienced less abuse compared to those who have children. However respondents with higher number of children suffered more physical abuse and emotional abuse in relation to respondents who had fewer children. The test of association indicated significant association between number of children and the forms of abuses experienced. ($X^2=47.560$, p -value 0.000 at $Df=20$, $p<0.05$). Experience of elder abuse was found to be significantly associated with means of livelihood available to respondents. Respondents who depended on self-made income and their pension experienced more abuses than those who depend on their children and other sources of live hood. The association between means of livelihood and experience of elder abuse was discovered to be significant

($X^2=47.560$, p -value 0.000 at $Df=20$, $p<0.05$). Living arrangement was another factor found to have influenced the all forms of elder abuse experienced. Respondents who lived with their male children experienced all forms of abuse more than those who had alternative living arrangement. It was similarly observed that respondents who lived with their relatives and with their daughters experienced less abuse than those who were living with their male children. The test of association between living arrangement and forms of elder abuse experienced was significant ($X^2=53.783$, p -value 0.001 at $Df=25$, $p<0.05$)

5. Discussions

The findings revealed that there are more female (51.8%) than male (48.2%) in the sample. Similarly, those who are aged 65-70 years constituted the highest proportion (36.5%) of the respondents interviewed. Furthermore, the study also found out that emotional/ psychological abuse was reported by 50.5% of the respondents as the most common form of elder abuse prevalent in the study area. This was followed by physical abuse (17.5%) financial abuse (15.2%), neglect and abandonment (10.7%), while sexual abuse is the least with 6.5%. These findings are similar with that of Ekot (2016) and Ola and Olalekan (2012) who also found that people aged 60 years or more are most likely to report psychological, physical and financial abuse. The finding which indicated that sexual abuse is the least form of abuse in the study area is consistent with that of Ekot (2016) which reported a similar finding. However this finding however differs from that of Sijuwade (2008) and Yusuf and Baiyewu (2016) which found out that neglect and abandonment was the most commonly reported form of abuse.

However a significant variation was observed between the forms of elder abuse common or prevalent in the study area and the forms of elder abuse actually experienced by respondents. The study found out the most common form of abuse experienced by the respondents is neglect and abandonment (36.8%). This finding is in tandem with the study of Yusuf and Baiyewu (2016) which reported that one-third of the respondents

experienced neglect and abandonment. Other forms of abuses experienced by the respondents include emotional/psychological abuse (18.8%); physical abuse (16.3%), Financial abuse (9.3%) and sexual abuse which the least was experienced by only 0.5% of the respondents. The finding which indicates that neglect and abandonment is the most common form of abuse experienced by majority of the respondents (36.6%) can be attributed to the deteriorating economic situation in the country. Consequently, this has not only affected the living conditions of most households in Nigeria but it has also made it increasingly difficult for most families engaged in the public or informal sectors to cater for the needs of their older parents or relatives. To a very large extent this might explain the relatively high level of neglect and abandonment observed in this study. It can similarly be inferred that the low socio-economic status of majority of the respondents interviewed could have been responsible for the neglect and abandonment they experience.

The findings of this study revealed that there are several causes of elder abuse. It was however observed that caregivers stress or dependence was one of the most prominent factors which influenced the abuse of the elderly. This factor was mentioned by 56.0% of the respondents. This was closely followed by social isolation or neglect (49.7%). Others include financial dependence (34.5%), physical frailty (31.5%) high rate of unemployment (19.0%) and the least is substance abuse (11.5%). This finding is however inconsistent with that of Bigala and Ayiga (2014) whom identified disability status of the elderly, place of residence (rural and urban), number of working children and current marital status as causes of elderly abuse in South Africa. The revelation that caregiver stress or dependence is a major determinant of elder abuse is not really surprising. Given that most respondents are from the lower social-economic strata they then to depend on the caregivers for financial and material support. As most of these caregivers are also struggling to meet the various needs of the immediate families they are on the other hand also trying to cater for the needs of their aged parents or relations. This burden which caregivers have to contend with might

likely be responsible for the high incidents of elder abuse caused by the over dependence of the elderly on the caregivers.

Similarly the finding of this study revealed that there is a significant relationship between age and elder abuse in Kaduna State. This finding corroborates with that of Ekot(2016) and Iborra,(2009) who also found a significant relationship between age and abuse. It was also discovered that a significant relationship exist between marital status and all forms of abuse in the study area. This finding is similar to that of Biggs, Manthorpe, Tinker, Doyle and Erens (2009) who found that abuse varied by marital status. This study also found out that the means of livelihood had significant relationship with all the forms of abuse experienced. This finding agrees with Ekot (2016) who that elderly income level was related to abuse or maltreatment. Furthermore religious affiliation was found to be statistically significant when associated with elder abuse. This finding is in tandem with that Ola (2012) which reported significant between religion and abuse. Also, educational attainment, number of children in household and living arrangement were statistical significant when associated with forms of abuse.

From the findings of this study it can be concluded that elder abuse is prevalent in the area and a considerable number of people have experience it. Factors such as caregivers stress, social isolation, financial dependence, physical frailty, high rate of unemployment and substance abuse are some of the determinants of elders in the study area. To address this problem in the study area it is recommended the a social support system which will primarily cater for the needs of the elderly who are facing neglect and abandonment and any form of abuse should be put in place. Similarly, enlightenment campaigns should be carried out to enlighten the public as to what constitutes abuse. This has become necessary because most individuals are not really aware that their actions and behaviours towards the elderly constitute abuse. While government should also be encouraged to introduce social security schemes to provide periodic stipend to the elderly, parents on the other hand should be advice to invest on the

education of their children so that their wards can take care of them when they are old.

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Was Samson a Promiscuous Man (Judges 13-16)? Viewing Samson as a Human Figure in a Theoretical Approach

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Abstract. This paper discusses the character of Samson as an historical figure within Judges 13-16 narratives in the Old Testament Bible. The main aim of this paper is to find out through theoretical inference whether there were circumstances surrounding Samson's sexual behaviour. Drawing from causal theory, the paper argues that there is a possible nexus between Samson's failed marriage and his subsequent relationship with other women. It shows that Samson's problem was not metaphysical but human induced and as such it is causal. It constructs, Samson as human figure in the narrative and analyses the text from the perspective of causal theory and concludes that Samson's failed marriage could be responsible for his subsequent relationship with a Harlot in Gaza and Delilah. In the Narrative, apart from the harlot in Gaza, the ex-wife and Delilah betrayed his love. Within this line of theoretical thought, Samson was seen as a victim of emotional catharsis, human intrigue, insensitivity, naivety and the woman power factor.

Key Words: Samson, Causal theory, Promiscuity, Judges 13-16, Human figure,

1. Introduction

Scholars in the discipline of biblical studies have often approached the study of Samson from a

purely literary point of view thereby treating Samson as a literary figure. One of the problems that might be encountered in seeing Samson as a literary figure is the tendency of considering the genre as a fiction and as such posing the possibility of explaining away the human problems encountered by him. Another possible problem in seeing Samson as a literary figure is the likely presentation of Samson as a Super Human who is above human emotions (feelings), mistakes or errors. Therefore, this paper intends to view Samson as a human figure in the historical narrative in Judges 13-16. This is why this paper argues that there is a possible nexus between Samson's failed marriage and his subsequent relationship with other women. The narrative of Samson's failed marriage is an issue that cannot be ignored. From the narrative, Samson's father-in-law did not allow Samson to have sex with his wife because he had given her in marriage to another man. This is a veritable prove that Samson was sexually deprived. Apart from being sexually deprived, his wife was married by one of his acolytes. This is another prove that shows the possibility of Samson being heart-broken, betrayed and depressed. These possibilities are also shown by Samson's anger and action of vengeance afterwards. Samson's situation is still prevalent in modern human society. Samson's case is therefore relevant to present day human sociological problem. It is obvious to us that Samson's

behaviour was causal on the ground that he was pushed by circumstances because prior to his failed marriage, we never heard of his relationship with women. It was after this incident of his failed marriage that the story of falling in love with the harlot at Gaza and Delilah surfaced. Therefore, this paper submits that there is a nexus between Samson's failed marriage and his subsequent love affairs with other women.

For those viewing Samson's situation from an immoral point and those viewing him as a literary figure, it should be understood that Samson's character in Judges' narratives is multifaceted (Exum 2014:13). The facet chosen by a scholar depends on what line of argument such scholar intends to prove. For Exum, Samson was a fool whenever he loves (Exum 2014:14). It was his attempt to prove his love to his Timnite wife and Delilah that led him to reveal his secret. This made Exum to see him as a foolish hero. Samson's obsession with women was dominantly described in the narrative (Assis 2014:1). Some scholars have also portrayed the character of Samson from a negative point of view. He is being seen as a man who goes from one woman to the other due to sexual lust. Von Rad did not spare Samson when he claims that he was a waster of God's power because he failed to live up to the expectation of a Nazarite—a man of God (von Rad 1962:333-334). Klein (1988:117-118) also thinks in the direction of von Rad when she viewed Samson as a Judge who fails despite the deposit of God's Spirit in him. Klein's (1988:132) analysis compares Samson with other Judges who precedes him and draws a conclusion that despite the weakness of all of them Samson had an edge over the rest due to the Supernatural power bestowed on him which the others did not have. This deepens the disappointment on Samson's failure. It has been agreed by some scholars that the book of Judges emerged from 'extremely varied traditions' and as such, reminds the reader of the religious disunity in the Hebrew Bible' (Bal 1988: 282). If this is correct, it therefore means that a research on this theme is not going to be an easy task.

The above scholars approached the Samson's narrative from the view point of considering Samson as an ethical and a literary figure in Judges 13-16 in Old Testament literature. This may have informed the popular reading of Judges 13-16 in the context of Samson's promiscuity. But how true is this depiction? If the narrative about Samson in Judges 13-16 is viewed from the perspective of a human figure who experienced social and psychological problems of life within time and space, the likelihood of appreciating the sociological and psychological situation of Samson will be visible. Viewing Samson this way will help the reader to situate Samson in a real flesh and blood life situation in Biblical history. Those who see Samson as being promiscuous for visiting a harlot at Gaza and having a relationship with Delilah have ignored or refused to see Samson's failed marriage as a possible problem that may have precipitated his action. The sequence of Samson's action has shown that he was a reactionary person whose emotion can be aggravated by a corresponding action.

Apart from preachers, some scholars have followed the moral and literary line of thought too. Mark Greene for example, has described Samson as a kind of biblical Superman who had just one weakness (Greene 1991:54). It was not clear what Greene meant by 'one weakness' until his parallel analysis between Samson and the former 'Washington's mayor Marion Barry who was lured by a beautiful ex-model into a hotel room lavishly appointed with FBI surveillance equipment and, on his third visit, arrested for cocaine use!' (Greene 1991). But it soon dawned on Greene that 'the timelessness of some of the Samson story's themes and its broad appeal have however, not led to any consensus or even majority view about its meaning' thereby resulting to his submission of ambiguity (Greene 1991). The silence and unexplained suspense in the narrative show some form of ambiguity but in my thinking, this gives the room for theoretical analysis because of the innuendo associated with the narrative. For example, we were told that Samson visited a harlot in Gaza but what he did with her was not recorded. Exum (1983:36) has posed a divergent

argument in her work, 'the theological Dimension of the Samson saga.' Unlike Greene, Exum argues that Judges 13-16 gives a much more positive portrayal of Samson than is found in many sermons that treat the saga from a negative perspective (Exum 1983). Here Samson will be viewed as a human figure who experienced a real flesh and blood human situation in terms of marriage and his relationship with women.

2. Conceptual Argument

What does it mean to be promiscuous? The Encarta (2009) refers to promiscuity as indiscriminate sexual behaviour, that is, behaviour characterized by casual and indiscriminate sexual intercourse, often with many people. One aspect the Encarta did not explain is the time frame or frequency of indiscriminate sexual activities because in Africa where polygyny is accepted as norm and legally accepted in society, one cannot say such person is promiscuous. And in climes where serial marriage is accepted, one cannot say such persons are promiscuous. Whether the many people being referred to by the Encarta are serially or simultaneously, we are not being told. This makes this definition inappropriate especially in climes where polygyny or serial marriage is acceptable. Also, the online Merriam Webster dictionary also defined promiscuity as having or involving many sexual partners. This also did not tell us for how long. Moving further, scientists especially psychologists have thrown more light on the issue of promiscuity. Markey and Markey (2007) present a study that examines the interpersonal meaning of sexual promiscuity by using the Interpersonal Circumplex (IPC) to predict patterns of sexual behaviours and showed that promiscuity is a lifestyle of sexual pleasure in which an individual indulges in multiple sex partners at a time. Can we say that Samson had a multiple sex partners at a time? The narrative shows to us that Samson encountered the Timnath wife, the harlot at Gaza and Delilah at different intervals not simultaneously. Buss and Schmitt (1993) add another dimension to the argument. They added time duration stating that mating whether with a sex or multiple sex partners could be

temporal in terms of days, weeks, months and years. It appears the word promiscuity or promiscuous may not properly describe Samson's relationship with women.

Research has shown that there is a relationship or connections between promiscuity/prostitution and bad upbringing of a child especially child-abuse (victimization) due to poverty. Here promiscuity and prostitution seems to have a thin line demarcating them (Widom and Kuhns, 1996). However, prostitution can be seen as a full blown promiscuity. The Botswana experience as presented by Helle-Valle (2010) has shown that in Botswana there is a large, and increasing, number of women who do not marry but have one or several lovers simultaneously and have gifts from these men as an important part of their income. All of these scholars have given the idea of what promiscuity or being promiscuous means. In the context of our study, promiscuity can mean indiscriminate sex with multiple partners at a time or within a period of time. When Samson is placed in this context, he does not fit into this definition or description because he had relationship with one partner at a time. The story did not tell us if he had sex with them or whether he followed them simultaneously but there are traces of romantic involvement in the passage.

3. Theoretical Framework

Theoretically this study is based on causal theory. This theory states that every action attracts an explanation whether it appeals to reason or not. Salmon (2003:720) discourses causal explanations of human behaviour with the view that it is not all behaviour that appeal to reasons. However, Salmon (2003) shows that 'most discussions of causal explanations of behaviour focus on the problem of whether it makes sense to regard reasons as causes of human behaviour, whether there can be laws connecting reasons with behaviour, and the like.' Child (1996) buttresses this further that 'explaining an action is explaining why something happened, and an explanation of why something happened is always a causal explanation.' This is self-explanatory among Philosophers. From philosophical perspective

for instance, Alvarez (2016) highlights two types of reason for action: 'normative and motivating reasons.' While the normative reason favours or justifies an action, as judged by a well-informed, impartial observer, the motivating refers to reasons the 'agent' (that is, the person acting) takes to favour and justify her action and that guides her in acting (Alvarez, 2016). Causal theory has also been noted in Philosophical domain, that 'there are, in addition, "explanatory" reasons, reasons that explain an action without necessarily justifying it and without being the reasons that motivated the agent' (Alvarez 2016). Modern scholars have also reacted to the philosophical theory of human behaviour. For example, Dancy (2011) rejects the argument for normative and motivating reasons for action or behaviour on the ground that someone can act in ignorance. For Mitova (2016), both motivating and normative reasons are psychological states. For me, both the motivating and normative reasons for actions are based on rationalism. This is simply viewing causal theory from the perspective of logic or syllogism.

Other scholars have also made a lot of inputs on causal theory. They came out with various positions as well. These positions are not without some nuances. This is intended to give some insights into the possible cause of Samson's behaviour. From psychological perspective, LeBuffe (2015), drawing from Pinoza's Psychological Theory, highlights that Spinoza attempts to show 'that human beings follow the order of nature. Human beings, on Spinoza's view, have causal natures similar in kind to other ordinary objects...and that moral concepts, such as the concepts of good and evil, virtue, and perfection, have a basis in human psychology.' Spinoza's explanation implies that 'just as human beings are no different from the rest of nature, so moral concepts are no different from other concepts' (LeBuffe 2015). Drawing from R. G. Collingwood's writing about causation, Wide (2017), shows that there is interconnection between reason and ability to manipulate the world. Based on this interconnection, Wide concludes that (a) causality belongs to the realm of human praxis and that (b) causal analysis proper is well suited

for the social sciences. Also, Diego Fernandez-Duque of the University of Toronto and Mark L. Johnson of the University of Oregon carried out a research on 'cause and effect theories of attention: the role of conceptual metaphors' and their result showed that 'the crucial role of metaphors in cognitive psychology, neuroscience, and the efforts of scientists is to find a resolution to the classic problem of cause versus effect interpretations' (Fernandez-Duque and Johnson 2002:153). They explained further that scientific concepts are defined by metaphors and that these metaphors determine what attention is and what count as adequate explanations of the phenomenon. Before they arrived at the above result, they analyzed these metaphors within 3 types of attention theories: First is cause theories, in which attention is presumed to modulate information processing (e.g., attention as a spotlight; attention as a limited resource); second is effect theories, in which attention is considered to be a by-product of information processing (e.g., the competition metaphor); third is the hybrid theories that combine cause and effect aspects (e.g., biased competition models). This theory informs the cause of attention and as such it is plausible to agree that Samson's cause of erotic disposition calls for scholastic attestation. Mayne (2008:1) suggests that questions of cause and effect are critical to assessing the performance of programmes and projects and as such, there is the need to determine the specific cause-effect question being addressed. This postulation suggests a systematic approach to this type of research. In the same vein, using the theory of cause-effect inference on learning theory, Lopez-Paz, Muandet, Scholkopf, & Tolstikhin (2015) pose causal inference as the problem of learning to classify probability distributions. Also, Khoo, Chan & Niu (2002) presents a broad survey of the cause-effect relation, with particular emphasis on how the relation is expressed in text. Inferring cause-effect relations between events and statements has also been found to be an important part of reading and text comprehension, especially for narrative text. They opined that though, many of the cause-effect relations in text are implied and have to be inferred by the reader, there is also a wide variety of linguistic expressions for explicitly

indicating cause and effect. They added that, it has been found that certain words have ‘causal valence’—they bias the reader to attribute cause in certain ways and as such, cause-effect relations can be divided into different types. Within the context of Exum’s argument and the narrative before us, cause and effect means action that lead to another action. By this understanding, Samson’s action of violence and love were induced by human circumstances.

Based on the argument that there is a nexus between Samson’s failed marriage and his subsequent relationship with other women, the causal theory in this case can suggest how a scholar can find out about the possible cause of Samson’s behaviour. It relates Samson’s subsequent encounter with the Harlot in Gaza and his relationship with Delilah with his failed marriage in the sense that prior to Samson’s marriage, there was no such relationships as could be seen from the entire narrative. This theory in relations to Samson, also help to insinuate that Samson is a victim of circumstance. It is based on the argument that promiscuity may not have been consistent with Samson’s life style because his problem began when he had problems with his marriage. After the failed marriage, he began to look for another woman. After the disappointment, he went to one woman at a time and when he found love he was determined to remain. First he visited a harlot at Gaza and left untimely due to security threat. Second he found Delilah at the Valley of Sorek who eventually betrayed and destroyed him. It should be noted that when he met Delilah, there was no record that he was going after another woman. Moreover, the time frame of the relationship was not even determined in the narrative. This makes it dicey to absolutely conclude that Samson is a promiscuous man. Even though the causal theory helps in determining Samson’s possible reason for his behaviour, it does not justify sexual misdemeanour. Samson could have gone through due and legal process of the time in seeking Delilah’s hand marriage like he did in the case of the Timnath girl. On the other hand, the effect of his failed marriage cannot be totally ruled out as a possible cause of his relationship with harlot in Gaza and Delilah. This is why

causal reality in Africa is explained with the slogan ‘there no smoke without fire.’ This simply means that nothing happens without a cause. By implication behind any smoke there is fire as the root-cause. Though it is basic to human thought, causality is a notion shrouded in mystery, controversy, and caution, because scientists and philosophers have had difficulties defining when one event truly causes another (Epilogue, 2009). This argument between scientist and philosophers pose the question of metaphysics and religious beliefs.

4. Constructing Samson as a Human Figure in the Narratives of Judges 13-16

Constructing Samson’s personality as a human figure is a complex one. It is complex because Samson Manaoha in the Old Testament is very controversial in the sense that the narrative is filled with paradoxes. One of such paradoxes lies between love and hate. Another lies between holiness and decadence. This raises the question of how the profane relate with the holy divine. Another paradox is between the strong and the weak. The Divine is strong and the human is weak. It therefore means that humans cannot be like the Divine. Human nature itself is full of limitations and as such full of human errors. Does it mean human errors should be excused? The answer as far of Samson’s case is concerned is no but the cause of human errors must also be considered in human race so that future occurrence of such mistakes can be corrected. Another reason why it is complex to determine Samson’s promiscuity is the ambiguities in the narrative. In the entire narrative, we were told of Samson’s relationships with women: the anonymous Philistine woman at Timnah (14:1), the anonymous harlot at Gaza and Delilah in the Valley of Sorek (16:4). His relationships with these women were interpreted by some as promiscuity. In the midst of the insinuation of sexual immorality do we absolutely conclude that Samson is promiscuous? Can we also conclude that modern serial marriage is promiscuity? Or can we say modern polygyny is promiscuity? These are very challenging questions. It is challenging because it involves religion, ethics and emotion.

One of the arguments that will help in proving the human figure of Samson within the narrative is to determine his real figure as a person. Samson can be seen from the narrative as a human figure. An attempt to make Samson a purely literary figure in Judges 13-16 will rather make the narrative a fiction and as such water down the real personality of Samson within time and space. Those who argue for this also have valid points. However, reading through the story with the reasoning of causal theory will bring about the human figure in Samson which many have ignored in scholarship for too long. This type of reading gives flesh and blood reality to the story. As such, it makes the narrative a real life situation in Biblical history. The followings are veritable proves that shows that Samson was a real human figure in biblical history.

First is the reality of the birth of Samson. Judges 13 gives the narrative of Samson's birth. He had real parents. He was born as ordained by Yahweh and instructions were given as to how he should live his life. Samson's genealogy is obviously outlined. According to (Beecher 1884:7) it begins with the regular formula: 'And there was a certain man, from Zorah, from the family of the Danite, his name being Manoah, and his wife being barren (but) the name of his wife and the date are omitted.' Even though the mother's name was omitted, at least his genealogy is known in Israel's history. This is why Smith (2005:425) thinks that 'the story of Samson begins with a clear focus on the theme of the family.' Second is the ability to eat food. This is one of the characteristics of living things. The story line captured how Samson killed a young lion while he was going with his parents to marry a Philistine girl who he loved. By the time they were rerunning there was honey in the carcass of the lion which he scooped and ate with his parents. Third is the fact that Samson had emotion. He could be provoked to love or hate. He was a great lover and a great fighter. He was violent when provoked. He falls in love when he sees reasons to. Samson expressed his emotions. He loves and well as hates. Whichever side he exhibited was causal. He expressed love and violence in his actions in reactionary manners. Apart from his mission to deter the Philistines from subjugating Israel, Samson can

be very violent if he is provoked. He also expressed violence to the family of his wife and the entire community when he was provoked by their trickeries and betrayals. Also, when Samson loves a woman, he gives all his heart to her. This is why it is very easy for a woman to take advantage of him. Fourth is sexual need. Why did Samson decide to marry? He decided to get married because as a man he wanted to fulfil his sexual desire. Samson's marriage issue was presented in Judges 14. Samson like any human being has sexual need. Marriage is one of the means through which such desire can be fulfilled. He followed due process in achieving that at Timnath but later failed.

5. Genre of Judges 13-16

The narrative about Samson is found in Judges 13-16. Biblical literatures have been grouped into various genres. In this case, Judges 13-16 falls into the genre of narrative. The entire book falls into the genre of Historical narrative. So Judges 13-16 can be referred to as a narrative within a narrative. It is a narrative because it fits into a style of the time. It is also a tragedy because it gives the narrative of a heroic figure who started very strong but died weak as a result of betrayal and lack of self-discipline. The basic genre of Judges 13-16 is taken as history and this history seem to wear the gab of fiction (Greene 1991:55). The arrangement of the story and its resonance with its themes and meaning is a determinant of its genre. The story appears in segmented fragments showing redaction expertise and segmental disconnects. Marian Broida of Emory University has identified closure with Judges 13-16 narrative (Broida 2010). She drew her meaning from Abbot (2002:156-157) literary analysis of closure which is understood as having several types or levels. Broida buttresses that "much of what creates closure is conformity to expectations in three domains: text, genre, and the reader's real-life experience" (Broida 2010).

The entire narrative is expected to have a coherence between the beginning, middle and end. Judges as an historical book started from Joshua and continued to the books that captured the narrative of the anointing of David. The

renowned Biblical scholar, Willis J. Beecher succinctly puts it thus: “The history of the Judges, as recorded in the Bible, extends up to the time of the anointing of David...the history, as a literary production, passes continuously from the times of the Judges to those of David” (Beecher 1884). By implication, Judges as a book in the historical books of the Old Testament is a continuation of a long standing history transiting to another stage of the entire narrative. The narrative in Judges 13-16 focuses on a deliverer called Samson and how he succeeded and failed. Also, Tanner (1992) has also alluded that the book of Judges is consistent with Hebrew narrative style. Therefore, it is not out of place to situate the Narrative in Judges 13-16 in the context of Hebrew transition history. A history that started from Israel’s deliverance from Egypt, Israel’s conquest of the promised land, Israel’s apostasy and chastisement by Yahweh using other nations like the Philistines and God’s deliverance of Israel from the tyranny of such nation. It continued to the anointing of David and his defeat of the Philistines.

6. Quadripartite Pole Analysis of Judges 13-16 in Relation to Causal Theory

The first pole is the רוח (ruwach) endowment of Samson. The Hebrew רוח is translated as wind, spirit or breath. It was רוח יהוה (the Spirit of God) that always come upon Samson especially at the time of danger. By this breath Samson was an approved man of God, called to carry out an assignment. John Roskoski, a Biblical scholar in St. Peter’s University has given us useful insight into this pole of thought which emphasizes the “Spirit of the Lord” (Roskoski 2017). In the narrative, it is said that Samson was endowed with the “Spirit of the Lord” on four occasions. First, at the camp of Dan (13:25); second, fighting the lion (14:6); third, the settling of the wager (14:19); and fourth, the battle at Ramath-Lehi (15:14). In the latter three instances, the text is exactly the same; the Spirit of the Lord rushed mightily upon him” (Roskoski 2017). This experience indicates God’s approval and empowerment to defend Israel against the powers of the Philistines. In a parallel reading,

David was also seen as receiving such approval by being endowed with the Spirit of Lord (1 Samuel 16:13). In another parallel reading Saul had a similar endowment (1 Samuel 10:6), though it was in connection with prophecy and not battles. We see the exact same construction; the Spirit rushing mightily. The only difference is that Samson’s endowments, or charisma, were transient and irrupted only in crisis. However, juxtaposing the experience of Moses and Samson, God did not show any disapproval in Marrying the women of their choices even though the women were originally not Israelites. The phrase רוח יהוה signifies that God has always led His called servants to make pronouncements or make choices. His choice of wife was said to have a backing from God (14:4). It was all planned out by Yahweh as a strategy to make Israel dominate the Philistines. However, God did not take away the emotional need of Samson, that was why he could still fall in love with a woman of his choice. The spirit of God coming upon Samson was the cause of his heroic performance. It was this same Spirit of God that came upon David when he was anointed by Samuel (I Samuel 16: 1-11). The causal theory is also at work in Samson’s narrative. His power is also causal. The power of the Spirit of Yahweh was the source of his extraordinary powers. This is very clear when his covenant Nazarene hair was cut as a result of Delilah’s persuasion. The power left him until when the hair started growing again. The Spirit of God came on him again and he was able to destroy the Philistine temple where he was tied to do sport.

The second pole is the love relationship of Samson. What could have caused the love relationship of Samson with women? The storyline gives the reader the understanding that Samson had love relationship with three women but got married to the first one from Timnah. But we have observed from the text that the same word was used for the three. The word is אִשָּׁה (ishshah) and it means woman, wife or female (14:2,15,16,20; 15:1,6; 16:1,4). Although, the same word אִשָּׁה was used for woman or harlot, they were distinguished by locations (a woman at Timnath, a harlot at Gaza, a woman in the Valley of Sorek-Delilah). In

Accordance with Biblical account, “Samson’s relations with these women were a means to be revenged upon the Philistines. Nonetheless, the Rabbis use these ties to denounce the attraction to foreign women prevalent at the time” (Kadari 2009). Judging from Kadari’s last sentence here, it appears the Philistine women were very beautiful and attractive. In 15:2, the Hebrew adjective טובה (tō-w-bāh- better, fairer) was used by Samson’s father-in-law to describe the beauty of Samson’s wife’s sister. He did this in order to patronise Samson for what he did to him. The Hebrew טובה is from the stem טוב (tob) that is good. Although, the word יפה (yophi-beauty) was not used, טובה could mean good looking. So, we can say that Samson was attracted by the beauty of the women. Moreover, for seeking to marry the Timnah woman, it means Samson was interested in companionship. Also, for seeking to marry it means Samson was interested in fulfilling his sexual desire. This desire was shown when he wanted to go in to meet with his wife of which he was deprived by his father-in-law (15:1-2). Some have accused Samson of derailment when he married a Philistine lady but nowhere in the narrative where God was angry with him about that. We were even told that it was the will of God for Samson to marry the woman (14:4). In 14:3, Samson’s respond to his parents about the issue was described with the phrase יאה שרה עיני (hī yā-šə-rāh bə-‘ê-nāy) meaning ‘she pleases me well.’ This means that what precipitated Samson’s love for her was beauty. Consequently, Samson said to his father, ‘Get her for me.’ In the text, the name of the woman was not mentioned like that of Delilah. Could this girl be the same as Delilah? Even the name of the harlot at Gaza was not mentioned too. The character of the first girl who Samson married was not different from that of Delilah. Among these so called women, it was the harlot at Gaza that did not betray him. It appears the harlot was not a Philistine. In 14:16, it was the woman at Timnah that mentioned the word אהב (‘ahab) or אהב (‘ahab) in her bit to entice Samson to fall into her prank. The Hebrew word אהב as used in the passage means love (human love for another, family love, and sexual or romantic love). The expression of the Woman of Timnah showed that Samson loved her but she took undue advantage of Samson’s love. Also in

16:4, Samson expressed אהב for Delilah at the Valley of Sorek. The name דלילה (Deliylah) means feeble. According to the Encarta (2009), to be feeble means to be physically or mentally weak, that is, someone lacking physical or mental strength or health. Is the name Delilah a fiction’s figure or a real name of a woman in antiquity? Flavius Josephus mentioned Delilah in Jewish antiquity. In his narrative, Delilah was described as a harlot who had the power of suction. Samson was described as a victim of Delilah’s love antics (Josephus 1824:336-337). In the same vein, Newsom, Ringe and Lapsley (2012:139) agree that Delilah is mentioned in Jewish antiquity in the Talmud and she was associated with prostitution. While the Talmud paints the picture of Delilah getting Samson by sex, Ambrose argues that she did by her tears. Ambrose argument conforms to the Hebrew meaning of Delilah (feeble). This is consistent with Samson because the anonymous woman of Timnah did the same thing. Samson was a man who cannot bear the tears of a woman. Could this just be a different fragment of narratives picturing the same woman? This is topic for another day. On the other hand, if we say Samson had sex or did not have sex with Delilah we cannot substantiate because we were not told in the passage. However, we cannot deny the fact that Samson cannot resist her. On the other hand, it is plausible to assume that Samson was probably yet to have sex with her in the sense that both the woman of Timnah and Delilah could have used the promise of sex to pressurise him. It maybe that Samson could not control his sexual urge but could have been promised that his demand for sex will be met if he reveals his secrete. With this we can draw an inference that Samson was a very emotional person and sexually active. His emotion was controlled by circumstances. This is why his problem resonates with the causal theory.

The third pole is the expression of Anger: This is emotional issue. He was provoked to anger as a result of betrayal. The Hebrew word אף (‘aph) weave the situation in a real man experience. The term אף meaning anger or wrath, expressed how Samson felt when he was betrayed. It was expressed facially and through body language. Samson’s face changed in anger. He was

angered as a result of the betrayal of his wife. He knew it was the doing of his in-laws. John Sunil Manoah summarizes the narrative of Samson's cause of anger, thus:

After Samson got wedlock with a Philistine woman in Timnah, he gave seven days of feast to them as it was customary for a bridegroom in those days, he puts a riddle over them for which the reasons were not clear but assumed to be in three possibilities, (i) To make some profit, (ii) To prove his heroic which was a general quality of mankind, (iii) may be God's plan to create vengeance between Philistines and Samson, in which most of the Christians will stick to the third one. Since the Philistines are unable to find the answer for the riddle they plowed Samson's wife to coax the answer for the riddle putting her and her family in the threat of death, that caused her to press Samson consistently to reveal her the answer in which she finally succeed. This scene discloses the determination of a woman and her tactics in getting things done in her favor and also portraits man's common weakness towards woman. When Philistines gave the answer for the riddle Samson realized, how they managed to get it done, he also understood the general characteristics of women (Manoah 2016).

The first cause of the anger was explained in 14:11-19. Samson returned to his home town in anger. Before he could recover from his previous anger, the worst happened when he returned to take his wife. Still in the act of trickery, his father in law gave his wife to his best *ra'ah*-friend). This second action angered Samson the more. The narrative of the second cause of Samson's anger could be seen in 14:10-15:3. The intensity of Samson's anger was portrayed with the *qal asah* meaning to harm or carry out a harmful action. This he demonstrated in 15: 4-6. Both the woman, her family and the Philistines provoked Samson to anger. These also resonate with the theory of 'cause and effect.'

The fourth pole is the expression of Revenge. He was frustrated by his woman and her family. His expression of revenge shows that he was aggrieved by certain actions carried on him by those he trusted. The main ministry of Samson is to avenge Israel's forty years maltreatment by

the Philistines but this case gave him more reason to be merciless. In 15:7 the Hebrew word *naqam* was used to mean avenge, vengeance, revenge, etc. In 15:8, he carried out an action that made the Philistines to feel the impact of their action. The other instance of provocation that led Samson to seek revenge was the betrayal of Delilah, a supposed lover and the plucking of his eyes and humiliation by the officials of the Philistines (16:4-21). Like the last kick of a dying horse, Samson sought to avenge the ill treatment of the Philistines on him and Israel. He made a last wish from Yahweh when he realized that his *se'ar*-hair) has started to *tsamach*-sprout) and his power gradually gathering momentum (16:22,28). Yahweh granted his prayers for revenge and defeated the Philistines in a historical epoch (16:29-30). It was an outstanding revenge indeed because all the lords and officials of the Philistine died when Samson broke the pillar of their temple. Samson's quest for vengeance was caused by provocation. This also resonates with causal theory.

7. Some Socio-Psychological Implications

There are some socio-psychological implicit issues in the passage. Such issues did not appear at the surface of the text. These issues give the socio-psychological implication of the text. These issues are raised bellow.

7.1 Emotional Catharsis

Samson was a man full of and driven by emotional situation. He loves so much when the situation goes to the direction of love, he gets angry so much when provoked to anger. 14:1-17 shows Samson's love for his fiancée and 14:18-20 shows Samson's anger when he was provoked either by beauty to love or by the negative treatment of those around him. Here he was provoked to anger as a result of the deceit of his in-laws. His riddles were unveiled by falsehood and as such he felt cheated. Is Samson not justified by feeling this way when it is obvious that he was cheated upon by those he respected and trusted?

7.2 Intrigue and Victimization

Samson was a victim of intrigue. The wife he found in Timnah was taken away in falsehood. He reacted to this in anger. All these landed Samson into deeper trouble with the Philistines. He was also a victim of love. All the women he ever loved deceived and destroyed him in one way or the other (14:15-17, 15) except the one at Gaza. Are those blaming Samson in any way saying that he does not have the moral right to love and to be loved? Why should Samson be Judged for this. The woman in Timnah and Delilah from the Valley of Sorek formed alias with Samson's adversaries to destroy him. They got him by playing pranks on him. Being that he trusted his lovers, he confined in them his personal secretes which they eventually took advantage of. First was the answer to his Riddles in Timnah during the marriage rite of his wife; the second was the incident of his wife taken from him and given to his best man by his father-in-law; and third was his betrayal by Delilah. All of these people were loved by him but they turned out to betray him. This is why Samson can be referred to as a victim of intrigue, insincerity and foes.

7.3 Insensitivity and Naivety

Samson was Psychologically insensitive. He was deceived several times almost with the same pattern according to the narrative. First, he was deceived by the woman at Timnah demanding the answer to his riddles and second was Delilah who was also asking for the secret of his powers. Delilah deceived him several times yet he took for granted all the actions of the woman in asking for the secret of his powers. He never took into cognizance how he has been deceived by this woman with a circle of sequences. If we follow the narrative the way it was presented, it implies that Samson was a crazy, stupid, naïve and careless lover. Samson's entire life was lived within the ambit of emotions. His emotions cover his sense of critical reasoning, Philosophical acceleration and good sense of judgments. Can Samson be Judged for this? It is critical to see him here as a true lover. Did he do wrong for loving a woman with true love? Samson's type of love is not easy to find in modern world of today but it was marred with foolishness, insensitivity and naivety. No wonder Exum (2014: 14,30) called Samson a

foolish hero. He was being referred as a foolish hero because he was been seen as a very rash man.

7.4 Insensitivity to Security Threats

Delilah's several moves constitute serious security threat to Samson's life. He was too careless to notice that several failed attempts to hand him over to his adversaries, the Philistines were made by Delilah. Unknown to him, he still went ahead to tell his secret to Delilah. This eventually led to his untimely death. Did Samson do anything wrong for opening his heart to the one he loved. This allude to a parallel reading in the New Testament understanding that "love fears nothing" (1 John 4:18). However, Samson was insensitive to security threat, probably due to overconfidence that he can always rise up and defeat his advisories as usual. No matter how fortified a person or a nation might be, security threat should not be taken for granted.

7.5 The Woman Power factor

Pnina Galpaz-Feller has pointed out the woman factor in two perspectives in relationship to Samson's experience; the mother and wife-lover factor (Galpaz-Feller 2006:25). His mother's influence may have taught him how to respect and listen to a woman. This could have probably made Samson to be easily influenced by a woman. Delilah seemed to have mastered the act of romantic influence on men. The sexuality and romance of a beautiful woman is highly imparting and influencing on a man. It could be used as either tool of development or destruction on the man. Samson was a victim of this scenario. Delilah influence on him was very strong. She knew Samson's emotional needs and was able to satisfy him romantically and sexually hence Samson decided to remain with her. It is obvious that Samson was trying to recover from a heartbreak and Delilah ability suggested to him that she was the right person. In Samson's judgment, Delilah was the type of woman that could help him recover from his emotional predicaments. It was just unfortunate that he was betrayed by the one he loved and trusted. Some have seen this art of Delilah as a mission of revenge because the story of men's betrayal by women was not strange in antiquity.

‘Many commentators refer to three other Hebrew stories which speak of women taking revenge on men: Yael and Sisera, Esther and Haman, and Judith and Holofernes’ (Sasson 1988: 339, note 5). Moreover, in Sasson’s point of view:

the motifs in each differ from each other, let alone from the story of Samson and Delilah. Moreover, while a case can be made that all three share a similar point of view (neutralizing an enemy), these narratives cannot be compared with regard to the perspective that informs our story.

Sasson’s argument still point to the woman power factor playing on Samson’s intelligence and even his personality. Her grip over Samson was so strong that he could not resist her night and day plea for his release of secret. At last Samson bowed to her pressure and the secret was let out of the bag. This cost Samson a lot. What do we call Samson, a fool or a lover? He is both a lover and a fool.

8. Conclusion

Drawing a relationship between Samson’s failed marriage and his subsequent relationships with a harlot in Gaza and Delilah, the paper has shown that Samson’s later relationship with the above two women is causal. Therefore, using Samson’s serial relationship with the harlot in Gaza and Delilah to conclude that Samson was a promiscuous man is tantamount to reading the story disjointedly. One must start from the story of his birth to his death so as to get the complete story. This paper has shown this. Second, the human factor of Samson’s experience cannot also be ignored. Those who blame Samson for visiting a harlot at Gaza and for falling in love with Delilah seem to disconnect Samson human nature from his experience. If one sees Samson as a man with human emotional needs like any other human being, we will see Samson’s dilemma and even appreciate the narrative the more. Samson’s love story has shown that he was a fool whenever he loves (Exum 2014:14) and as such, he often falls victim to the intrigue of the one he loves. He was a victim of multiple betrayals by those he loved and trusted. Although, Samson’s problem could be situated as usual in human domain, he cannot be

completely exonerated from lack of self-control in the sense that he allowed his emotions to becloud his senses whenever he falls in love. Rather than just handling the outcomes of behaviours in human domain, the causes of such behaviours should also be of great concern so as to prevent the reoccurrence of such behaviour in the future.

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Corrupt Practices: Threat to Quality Education in Nigeria

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Abstract. This paper examines how corrupt practices in education serve as threat to the quality of education particularly in Nigeria. It identified the enormous roles quality education play in the personal life of citizens and the development of an entire nation. According to the paper, the development of a nation is predicated on the quality of education offered to its citizenry. This is based on the reason that quality education is responsible for producing the manpower that work in different sectors of the nation's economy. Quality education plays enormous roles in shaping the life of citizenry and the nation at large. The paper argues that corrupt practices have threatened the quality of education offered to her citizenry and has gone a long way in affecting the quality of lives of the citizenry and impairing on the pace of development of the entire nation. To curb these challenges, the paper recommended sensitization of stakeholders through seminar, conferences, workshops and symposium, institutionalization of anti-corruption group that monitors and reports, punishing of offenders to serve as deterrent to others, integrating of religion/religious instructions, guidance and counseling civic education into the curriculum, ensure online financial transactions, strict adherence to due process and complying with the 26% UNESCO recommendations of funding education.

Keywords: Quality education, corrupt practices and threat

1. Introduction

There is no gain saying that quality education is a vehicle for development because it equips people with requisite skills and capacities needed to help them lead meaningful life and also contribute maximally to the development of their immediate society and the nation at large. General development of any nation globally therefore solely depends on the quality of education offered to her citizens. This alludes to the common saying that no nation can rise above the quality of its education. For instance, quality education produces the different manpower that manages all the different sectors of the nation's economy. It also implies that all other sectors of the country's economy rest squarely on the quality of manpower produced from the education sector. Put differently, the nation quality of education can affect the other sectors positively or negatively depending on the state or status of the educational system.

It is in recognition of the above Daluba, (2015) avers that for any nation to make appreciable effort in attainment of development, it has to commit substantial proportion of her resources to the provision of education. This has also informed UNESCO recommendations that nations globally should commit 26% of its resources to the education sector in order to offer quality education to her citizenry. It is worthy of note here that the efficiency of quality education as an instrument of transformation

depends entirely on how all the stakeholders, (students, parents, teachers, proprietors, policymakers, examination council, ministry of education and the government) collaboratively manage, execute and implement policy on education meant for the upliftment of educational sector. In other words, quality education needs an enabling environment to effectively thrive.

Despite the critical role quality education plays in improving individual life and enhancing national development, quality education in Nigeria today is wallowing within the valleys of numerous problems one of which is corrupt practices. Corrupt practices have characterized the education sector. All levels and structures in the education sector are thriving grounds for corrupt practices. This has become so prevalent that all stake holders in the sector practice corruption without any fear as if it is not against the rule / law. Personal experiences have shown that every activity in the education sector provides opportunity for the stakeholders to demonstrate their corrupt tendencies. Consequently, our schools are without walls and roofs, classes without desks, chairs and books, empty laboratories, obsolete teaching materials. poor quality of graduated students speaks volume of the impacts it has on the educational system. Not forgetting underpaid/unpaid teachers, decline in standards, overstaffing, exam malpractice and cultism.

These practices have continuously threatened the quality of education offered to the citizenry besides, affected the realization of the goal of education for all and by extension impaired on the development of the entire nation. There is no gainsaying that corrupt practices increases costs management of the education sector, reduces the efficiency and quality of services, distorts the decision-making process, deny many people their right to access education and undermines social values. The above situation has called for concern from stakeholders and well-meaning Nigerians hence: the need for this paper.

2. Concept of Quality Education

The complex nature of the concept of quality has attracted many definitions from several scholars. It has equally made it difficult to have a

commonly accepted definition. Some scholars due to the complexity have resorted to using indicators in order to describe it. Some scholars refer to quality education as the worth it brings to individual or society at large. For example Asiyai and Oghuvbu (2009) defined quality as a measure of how good or bad the products of higher education institutions in Nigeria are in terms of their academic performance and meeting established standards. These scholars see quality education as the worth of the inputs into education systems, lecturers, instructional facilities and evaluation procedures which translates to the outputs. Quality instructional materials refer to its appropriateness in meeting the desired needs in the education sector. One thing is to make the materials accessible but may not be the appropriate ones that are required to enhance learning in classroom situation. The appropriate materials needed to meet the different expectations of the different levels of education are made accessible and properly utilized for the attainment of the goal of education

Essential resources needed in the education are the human, physical facilities or instructional materials and financial resources. These inputs are very critical in determining the quality of education. For instance, the qualifications of teachers determine to a great extent the skills that will be imparted into the learners. (Subscribing, Frederick, 1973) avers that human resources . . . constitute the ultimate basis for the wealth of nations. Capital and natural resources are passive factors of production; human beings are the active agents who accumulate capital, exploit natural resources, build social, economic and political organizations, and carry forward national development. Clearly, a country which is unable to develop, the skills and knowledge of its people and to utilize them effectively in the national economy will be unable to develop anything else. This has informed the agreement of Harmon, Oosterbeek and Walker [2000], that the more educated countries are developing faster due to the fact that the school enables the labor force to innovate new technologies and to adapt the existing ones to the local production. Similarly, facilities deficiencies in school create harsh learning environment that impair on

effective teaching and learning. Above all, when funds are not made available for procurement of learning materials and motivation of teachers, the system must obviously be negatively affected. For the facilities to impact on the quality of education needs the strong synergy among stakeholders in the sector to create enabling environment through effectively harnessing the financial, material and human resources for the realization of the goal of education.

Other school of thought see quality education from the perspective of the worth of the products or out-put from the sector in term of different skills and knowledge acquired by graduates from the system. Quality education is expected to address critical issues like the dignity of labour, quality leadership and committed citizenship, industrial harmony, political stability, religious tolerance, self-reliance and security. Quality education entails that the products of education should be able to perform according to expected standard and compete favourably with their peers in other countries of the world. This goes on to allude to the fact that all the skilled manpower in society for example engineers, pharmacists, medical doctors, pilots, bankers, business men, teachers, politicians, administrators, security personnel and agriculturalist are all products of education. They affect the society either positively or negatively depending on the state or status of the educational system.

It is in view of the above that Akinpelu, (2000) argued that education without quality can even be more dangerous than no education, stressing that without quality, education has no value. This is because poor educational status trains out unskilled personnel who in-turn go into the market and destroy the economy of the nation and vice visa. Uncertified teachers on the other hand obviously have nothing worthwhile to offer to their learners hence; they produce half-bake or unskilled graduates who cannot contribute anything to themselves and to the development of the society at large. When products from education are worth the inputs or investment, quality is said to have been attained and reverse become the case when the investment out leave

the products. The quality of outputs is known through feedback from employers and the public.

UNICEF (2000).said quality in education' recognizes five dimensions: learners, environment, content, processes, and outcomes, founded on 'the rights of the whole child, and all children, to survival, protection, development and participation. The above are the indices for determining the quality in an education set up.

3. Concept of Corrupt Practices

All attempts to give corrupt practices in the education sector a common and all-embracing definition remained elusive. Hornby (2011) defines corrupt practice as dishonest or illegal behavior, especially of people in authority; it is about people willing to use their power to do dishonest or illegal things in return for money or to get advantage. This means, any action that involves the violation of established rules for personal gain and profit. It is interesting that stakeholders deliberately break the rules in order to achieve their personal desire. This goes on to explain that corrupt practices are deliberate efforts to disobey the rules. A cursory review of corrupt practices in the education will reveal that stakeholders are conscious of the existence of the law or rule but intentionally distort in order to attain selfish desire. One other way to look at corrupt practice is when individuals act negates the moral principle that guides their official responsibilities either in an organization.

Any behavior that does not conform to the rules and regulations or codes of conduct, norms of the society and or rule of law are considered as corrupt practices. Literature and personal experience revealed that almost every school activities provide opportunity for stake holders to demonstrate sharp corrupt practices. (Akinyemi, 2004). Corruption seen from this perspective therefore represents a departure from what the society considers as correct procedures in exchange of goods, services or money on the part of every body that makes up the society. Corruption in education therefore, can be seen as the pervasion of the expected standard of behaviour by those in authority in the

educational system for their own personal gain to the detriments of others and the system in its pursuit of quality manpower and national development. Above all, corrupt practices in education are expressions of a multitude of deviant behaviours by stakeholders in the sector. Hallak and Poisson (2007) extend the definition of corruption in the education sector to “the systematic use of public office for private benefit, whose impact is significant on the availability and quality of educational goods and services, and, as a consequence, on access, quality or equity in education. The above definition is an inclination of someone who uses his position to amass wealth and other advantages for himself at the detriment of the masses, the institution where he works which is against the oath or rules and regulations of the institution he has promised to keep. We can infer from the foregoing that corruption in education includes all forms of irregularities taking place in the academia and which have a direct negative effect on the quality and standard of education. It refers to those behaviours or actions that work towards breaking certain moral or social codes of conduct or administrative rules. In another way, corruption is the inducement or persuasion to influence people to do things that are contrary to laid down rule or norms and values of an organization or society.

Any activity or behavior that makes one to compromise the rules and regulations, norms or ethics and code of conduct for personal gains is therefore referred to as corrupt practices. It is worthy of note again that some civil servants deliberately bend the rules of the school for selfish reasons. For instance when teachers are in desperate need of money, they ask students to contribute for the execution of a particular project however, the ulterior motive behind the project is money. Stakeholders in the school system misappropriate power and resource in such a manner that would benefit their selfish interest. Analytically, the above definition is an inclination of someone who uses his position to amass wealth for his personal use at the detriment of the entire populace.

4. Corrupt Practices and Quality of Education

Corruption in the education industry in form of misappropriation of educational resources terribly creates infrastructural deficits that result in poor instructional delivery that denies many people access to education. For example, Mumuni and Sweeney (2013) report that #3.3 billion (US \$ 21 million) “had been lost in 2005 and 2006 to illegal and unauthorized utilization of funds. Similarly, Okorosaye-Orubite (2008) confirms that a particular State Universal Basic Education Board (SUBEB) in Nigeria criminally and outrageously spent #800 million (Eight hundred million naira only) in executing a one day training workshop for teachers. Consequently, there are facilities deaths and deficiency in schools to the extent that some students sit on floor, under shed of tress, under roof without ceilings or windows while yet teachers stay for many months without salaries.

The importance of instructional facilities in enhancing teaching-learning cannot be overemphasized. We cannot also deny the fact that when the essential facilities to support effective teaching and learning are not available, it creates harsh academic environment that negatively affects the quality of teaching and learning that take place in the school. Inadequate educational facilities in schools and strike actions by teachers may have contributed to the mass failure of students (Ogu, 2016). It also contributes to student’s drop-out of school hence; many people are denied access to education which is one of the fundamental human right.

The goal of education in Nigeria is to inculcate sound moral values, good character, integrity, honesty, hard work, and respect among the students for useful living in the society. The attainment of the above however depends on the positive disposition of students at all levels of education in the course of their academic pursuit. The presence of indiscipline in our schools however, has developed among students such negative disposition that eroded such values as respect, honesty, commitment and hard work or dedication. Indiscipline distracts

students' concentration in the class for effective teaching and learning to take place. Indiscipline manifested in form of cultism and drug abuse sometimes lead to riot and its attendant destruction of school facilities and subsequent closure of the school thereby distorting academic activities like non-coverage of school syllabus. It equally increases cost of managing the school by requiring more funds by administration to put back in place the facilities destroyed in the course of crisis. Owen (2001) says that truancy and absenteeism may lead a child into drug addiction, and in most cases student that absent from school, his or her Intelligent Quotient (IQ) would be going retarded and such students would score below average in his class work because he missed all the normal school lessons and all the academic school training which he is supposed to have acquired.

Corrupt practices in the form of embezzlement, fraud and misappropriation denies teachers basic entitlement like salaries and other indices that contribute to motivation of staff for optimal service delivery. Poor service delivery by teachers eventually manifests among students in form of poor academic performance which denies some candidates the opportunity of meeting up the requirements for admission into institutions of higher learning. This again reduces the number of candidates that seek admission to tertiary level of education.

Corrupt practices in our schools have equally eroded good values among students (learners) thereby giving way to laziness. It is common for students to bribe their teachers to get good grades or pass school examinations which makes them become lazy based on the reason that there are no incentives for them to work as hard as they should. This has eventually influenced student's ability to work hard in order to succeed in their educational career, suppress their talent and influence their academic performance negatively.

Teachers have been recognized as indispensable human resource and more important than the quality of materials: and the level of financing. Personal observations however revealed that due

to favouritism in the recruitment of teachers, unqualified (unprofessional) ones have found their ways into the classroom. This category of teachers lacks the basic requisite skills for effective imparting of knowledge into the learners. In view of the fact that they do not have anything, it follows that they cannot give anything to the learners. Therefore, going by the dictum that 'no educational system may rise above the quality of its teachers' then it is obvious we cannot expect quality education from these teachers. They mislead their students thereby producing half-baked and shallow-knowledge or students who often perform poorly in their examinations and poor application of the acquired skills. Douglas & Chinyere, (2017) pointed out that if one pauses, possibly for casual analytic insights or reflections on the quality of manpower that Nigeria produces under the prevailing circumstances that is dominated by corruption in her education system, one can simply console himself that Nigerian graduates may not effectively compete internationally with their counterparts in other parts of the world and it is here that the tragedy or implications of corruption and other fraudulent sharp practices in education for national development can kick Nigeria on the face because it (Nigeria) has lost its own potential human resources that should have fast tracked her national development to corruption.

Mohamed, (2014), avers that another avenue through which corruption could affect education is through its perverse impact on the volume and the effectiveness of international aid for education. We cannot deny the fact that many developing countries depend largely on international aid to support their education sector in improving access to education and enhancing equity and quality of educational services. But in countries where corruption has characterized the education sector, it would be quite challenging to make an efficient use of aid flows since a large part of international aid targeted at education is usually shifted away from its intended purposes. The aforementioned activity also discourages the international donor community to offer any further aid, resulting in limited external assistance and hence reduced resources available for education. During the last

few years, aid ineffectiveness due to corrupt practices seems to imply that “it makes little sense, for instance, to channel resources through national budgets in countries where egregious corruption is known to exist” (UNESCO, 2009).

Teachers practices of corruption in form of lateness to work and absenteeism impairs on the educational system. For example, Teacher absenteeism from the foregoing affects educational quality and eventually impacts student achievement negatively. Corroborating the above position, Porres, (2016) in his research work on the impacts of teachers’ absenteeism on academic achievement concluded that teachers’ absenteeism has a direct negative impact on student learning. Statistical evidence shows that students whose teachers miss more days of class have lower scores on state achievement tests. Raegen Miller looked at the impact of teacher absences on fourth-grade test scores in a large, urban school district and found that ten teacher absences within a school year causes a significant loss in math Finlayson, (2009). It is also worthy of note that these activities also affect the effective administration of the educational system. Bruno (2002) purports that “when there is a high teacher absence, it tends to lower the morale of remaining teachers resulting in high teacher turnover”. Other teachers tend to feel more burdened because they may have to plan for the teacher who is absent. In addition to teacher morale, urban teachers tend to become frustrated with poor resource allocations in their schools and tend to desire to disconnect from the inner city campus with high rates of minority children whose families are labeled as low-income

One of the cardinal goals of Universal Basic Education is to reduce the incidences of drop-out by providing basic relevant and qualitative education for every Nigerian child. Regrettably, corrupt practices at all levels of education have rather contributed to increasing the number of drop-out from school. For example, facility deficiencies in school, poor management system and extortion of students through unofficial charges of fees make some of the learners to drop out of school. Sergio, (2005) noted that illegal enrolment fees may easily hinder

academic opportunities of children from economically disadvantaged families since they simply cannot afford to make these illegal payments to continue their education. Available information revealed that Nigeria has more than thirteen (13) million children that are out-of-school which accounts for 47% of the out-of-school population in the world (Abubakar, 2018). These figures are worrisome and call for concern from all well-meaning education stakeholders. Recent surveys conducted on the impact of corruption on the provision of social services – including education – thus suggest, for instance, that illegal payments for school entrance and other hidden costs help explain low school enrolment and drop-out rates in developing countries; and that bribes and payoffs in teacher recruitment and promotion tend to lower the quality of public school teachers (Hallak & Poisson, 2005).

These dropouts are usually found hawking in streets, motor garages, bar joints, clubs, hotels, bus-stops and markets to generate income for their family instead of being in the school. Some of them are subjected to similar child abuse such as working on the farms and looking after their parents’ domestic animals like sheep, cattle or goats instead of schooling. The major concern here is that this act denies some children of their basic right to education and also reduced the hope of attainment of Nigerian National goal of the Universal Basic Education (UBE) which stipulates that every child of school going age should have access to quality basic education. The major here is that the goal of education for all may not be attainable under this scenario. Besides, it threatens effective planning and allocation of human, material and financial resources of the school.

The issue of ghost workers” syndrome which manifests in forms where non-existing workers, dead workers, retired and workers who have resigned their appointments keep receiving salaries and other benefits and entitlements meant for workers (Sergio, 2005). Besides that fact that this threatens effective management of the educational system, it also increases the cost of running our educational system.

Corruption has led to production unqualified graduates who cannot contribute anything

meaningful to the development of the society. This is because most of the graduates are grossly deficient in competence or capacity. Graduates from Nigerians universities now find it hard to enroll for direct post-graduate studies abroad (Education Transparency International 2013). Presently, there are graduates who cannot fill out or complete a simple form, cannot write a simple essay or explain simple concepts in their area of study. According to Mitsga (2010), National youth corpsers sent to teach in secondary schools were withdrawn due to their inability to communicate in simple correct English. Indeed, the scheme had to withdraw some of them from secondary schools as they were not able to communicate in simple correct English. One begins to wonder how they managed to graduate if not that the system was compromised. The Nation Newspaper (2010:41) reported that six First Class graduates of Nigerian universities admitted to the African University of Science and Technology, Abuja for postgraduate studies abandoned their scholarships because they could not cope with the academic rigours of the university. The issue of incompetence is applicable to other sectors like medicine; engineering and law now produce many non-practicing professionals.

The multiplier effects of corruption in the education are glaring among the low quality of products from the sector. For example patients died at the hands of such medical doctors, justice are lost at the hands of such lawyer, civil engineers are ashamed due to prevalence of building collapse, the issue of insecurity abound as security apparatuses cannot guarantee the nation the needed protection, road accidents and plane crashes are no longer news in Nigeria, economists cannot rescue the country from inflations which has protracted for many years while politicians cannot give the citizens the appropriate leadership that will usher us into true democracy. Many Nigerians today are afraid of consulting newly graduated medical doctors when they are sick because they feel that many are hardly better than quacks; many prefer to look for succour from road side mechanics and electricians rather than from our mechanical and electrical engineers (Pius, Obawale and Kayode,

2011). This depicts clearly the status or quality of education offered in the country, Nigeria.

Besides the fact that corrupt practices deny some candidates the opportunity meeting up the requirements for admission into institutions of higher learning, it presents a bad image of the school to the society. It also goes that the potential human personnel required to feed into the nation's diverse economic sector will be deprived. It is in view of the above situation that Omeregie, (2005) lamented over the products of secondary schools that could neither be useful in the society nor gain admission into higher institution without the aid of parents and (compromising) teachers or forgery.

Corrupt practices have stigmatised graduates from the education sector. For instance, the society has lost confidence in the graduates from the Nigerian educational system and even the entire system itself. This is predicated on the different corrupt practices that have characterized the system: its prevalence seems to have been institutionalized.

Due to corruption in the education sector, teachers are deprived the necessary attention that enhances their productivity. For instance, teachers sometimes stay for some months without salaries. Consequently, some of them have to look elsewhere by embarking on other business in order to supplement or put food on the table. This obviously must affect their effective service delivery. It is obvious that one cannot expect effective performance from such teachers when their welfare are not properly taken care of to enable them put in their best in term of service delivery.

5. Conclusion

The paper identified Quality education as the fulcrum upon which other developmental facets are hinged upon in Nigeria. This informed the reason why Nigeria among other countries placed high premium on ensuring this quality is assured at all levels of education to afford her citizens the needed knowledge and skills. Any compromise in the quality of the system impairs on the development of the entire country. It is rather regrettable that despite the lofty

advantages quality education bring to a nation, the issue of corrupt practices has characterized our educational industry. Its prevalence seems to have been institutionalized because all stakeholders of the sector are involved and they practice without any fear of embracement.

There is no-gain-saying the fact that corrupt practices affects the education quality negatively. As one would say, to destroy a nation does not need ammunition but one need to destroy the quality of its educational system. The paper argued that poor quality education produces unskilled people who cannot contribute anything meaningful to the development of the nation. It further discussed extensively how corruption has robbed the quality of our educational system. Unless informed decisions and actions are taken to arrest this situation, the country is doom to collapse. In other words, measures must be employed to reduce these corrupt practices in the education sector. These measures to prevent corruption in the field of education are geared in particular to enhancing the quantity, quality and efficiency of the education system, and of course access to education.

From the foregoing, we can clearly see the damaging consequences of corruption in the educational system as shown in different perspectives. However, the pertinent question now would be: is there any remedy to the consequences of corruption and unethical practice in the Nigerian educational sector? The paper also made frantic efforts by recommending some ways that could help curb these challenges.

6. Recommendations

In view of the above challenges of corruption in the Nigerian educational system, the following recommendations were proffered to curbs these challenges:

- There is need to institutionalize monitoring team that monitors and reports all cases of corruption to the appropriate authorities for action. The teams should be properly funded and their capacity strengthened for effective

service delivery and sustainability. Formation and of anti-corruption clubs and funding of their programs and activities will ensure sensitization of all stakeholders is also critical to curbing these challenges.

- It is also expedient to sensitize various stakeholders through conferences, seminars, training programmes and workshops. Participants should be exposed to the damages corrupt practices have done in our educational system.
- Integrating such courses as religion/religious instructions, guidance and counseling civic education into the curriculum at all levels of education
- Stakeholders who indulge in corrupt practices should be adequately punished. This would serve as deterrent to others who plan to indulge in corruption.
- Making financial transactions online through banks accounts and provision of bills for every transaction involving money can go a long way to reduce cases of misappropriations.
- Make clear norms and regulations, transparent procedures and an explicit policy framework specifying, for each of the steps involved, the distribution of responsibilities between different stakeholders in the allocation, distribution and use of educational resources.
- The Nigeria educational system must be adequately funded and equipped in line with the 26% UNESCO recommendations.

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Part Seven

Physical & Health Education



Assessment of 50 Meters Dash on Physical and Physiological Characteristics of Male Nigerian University Athletes

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Abstract. The application of modern scientific technological principles in the selection and training of athletes in different sports disciplines has been responsible for the incredible high sporting standards registered in modern competitions. Moreover, frequent changes in officiating rules of different sports discipline necessitate the development of new equipment of new training technologies and methodologies. Available research evidence indicates specific physical and physiological characteristics relevant to certain sports. This research was therefore conducted to assess 50 meters dash on physical and physiological characteristics of Nigerian Male University Athletes. Four universities from each of the seven administrative zones of Nigerian Universities were selected; eight athletes from each university were selected. The groups are, individual sports, speed endurance sports, combat sports, racket sports and ball games, totaling 32 athletes were selected from each zone, totaling 225 athletes representing their various universities at the NUGA championships. The athletes thus selected were tested in the 50 meters dash to determine speed. The data thus collected were statistically

analyzed. One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine if there was any significant difference among the selected groups of sports. It was observed from the result that ball games recorded the highest score in height and weight measures, while the individual sports recorded the highest scores in the 50 meter run test by the individual sport. People with speed and medium height are more suitable for speed endurance sports like soccer and hockey and therefore such people are to be selected when it comes to sport competitions.

1. Introduction

Physical and physiological characteristics have been shown to determining factors in the successful performance of many sports discipline (Kreighbuam & Bartheles, 1985; Venkateswarlu, 2010). It has also been shown that some physical measures like structure, weight, length, and arm length were more important for success in some sporting events than in others (Ireland and Ott, 2004). For example, basketball, volleyball, and track event like high jump have been reported as sports in which the absolute height of the body was

important to success. (Accurater & Ross, 2005) in order words the taller the better. However, there have been applications of talent identification within sports requiring more decision making may not be very useful as success in this sports, depend more on decision making processes, (Falk, Lidor, Lander, & Lang, 2004). It is the belief of this investigator that physical physiological characteristics identified among athletes of different sports discipline can be used to identify talents for different sports. If such characteristics of Nigerian elite' sports of men and women are known, they can be used to identify talents for different sports earlier in life.

According to Toshiyuki, Hidehiko, Yusuke, & Paola, (2010), reported on the activity profiles of field-based team sports players (e.g. soccer, handball, and basketball) fluctuate randomly depending on game situation, from brief periods of maximal or near maximal intensity to longer periods of low-intensity activity. On the other hand, the activity patterns of track athletes are nearly constant. The purpose of this study was to compare the characteristics of physical fitness for field-based team sports players, endurance runners and sprinters from the view point of energy supply during intermittent sprint exercise. Twenty-four university-trained males (field-based team sports players: F:n =8, endurance runners: E:n = 8 and sprinters: S: n =8) completed an intermittent sprint exercise test. The test consisted of three 5 x 30m (every 40s) repeated sprints, with sprints separated by a 4-min rest period. Sprint times were recorded during intermittent sprint exercise test from 0-15m, 15-30m, and 0-30m by electronic photo cells. Oxygen uptake (VO_2), minute ventilation (VE), Heart Rate (HR), and blood lactate concentration (La) were also measured during the test. An incremental treadmill rest and a 40s anaerobic power test were also performed to determine maximal aerobic and anaerobic capacities.

The F group had a significantly faster 0-15m sprint time than E ($P < 0.05$), but not when compared with the S group; while, the F group had a significantly slower 15-30m sprint time than the S group ($P < 0.05$). The F group had a significantly lower La during intermittent sprint

exercise test than the S group also had a significantly ($P < 0.05$), but not when compared with the E group. In contrast, VO_2 , during intermittent sprint exercise test in the interval phase showed no significant differences among the groups. Although no significant differences were observed, lower La indicated a sufficient phosphocreatine resynthesis in the interval phase in the F and E groups.

These findings showed that the F group performed the repeated-sprint as fast as the S group from 0-15m with lower anaerobic energy supply. Furthermore, the results suggested the need for regular implementation of repeated-sprints in the F group. In conclusion, field-based team sports players have superior repeated-sprint ability than sprinters, especially over short distances such as 15m.

2. Methodology

The research design adopted in this study was the one- shot research design. According to (Thomas & Nelson, 1996), the subjects were tested for their physical physiological and anthropometric measures without giving any treatment. The treatment was their participation in training and competitions in their various fields of sport before they were tested. The population for this study consisted of male athletes from the Nigerian universities and within the seven Nigerian university administrative zones of the 6 geo-political zones of Nigeria. The sample for this study was selected by using stratified random sampling technique, in this technique, the male Nigerian University athletes were stratified into 5 groups of sports namely; individual sport, speed endurance sport, ball game, racket game and combat sport. Individual sport consisted of track and field and swimming; speed endurance sport consisted of soccer, hockey and rugby; ball game consisted of basketball and volleyball and handball, racket game consisted of tennis and badminton, table tennis, and squash; combat sport consisted of judo and taekwondo and karate and kick boxing. Because this study was primarily concerned with Nigerian University male athlete, from each of these 5 groups of sports, track and swimming were selected under

the individual sport, hockey and soccer were selected under speed endurance sport, volleyball and basketball were selected under ball game, badminton and tennis were selected under racket sport and finally judo and taekwondo were selected under combat sport at random by using dip and pick method, in this method, the names of all the groups of sports were neatly written on a piece of paper and thus track and swimming were picked under the individual sport, hockey and soccer were also picked under speed endurance sport, tennis and badminton were also picked under racket game, basketball and volleyball were also picked under ball game and finally judo and taekwondo were also picked under combat sport.

The five chosen groups of sport serve as strata for this study. Using the same method, 8 athletes from each of the university representing each zone of the Nigerian university administrative zones were selected, 4 universities were selected from each zone of Zone A to G within the Nigerian university administrative zone. Thus, the sample for this study consisted of 225 athletes from the 5 male groups of the Nigerian university administrative zone. (Adeyanju, Mamudu, & Dania, 2005) used the cup and dip method in simple random selection, when they investigated power, speed, and strength in the lower limbs of male college athletes. They further explained that this method ensures that the different characteristics that exist within the population are taken care of.

3. Result

Table 1: The physical characteristics of the subjects by sport group of male Nigerian University athletes is presented in

Table 1: Means and Standard Deviation of the Stature and Body Mass of Male University Male Athletes used for this Study

<u>Sport Groups</u>	<u>Height (meter)</u>		<u>Weight (kilogramme)</u>	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Speed endurance sport	1.7	0.5	67.1	8.9
Ball game	1.7	0.5	69.6	6.7
Individual sport	1.7	0.6	63.4	10.9
Combat sport	1.7	0.10	71.2	6.9
<u>Racket game</u>	<u>1.7</u>	<u>0.6</u>	<u>65.9</u>	<u>10.4</u>

2.1 Testing Procedure

Height and Weight Measurement

The standard anthropometric protocol of the international working group on kinanthropometry (1 WGK) has described by Ross, (1983), were used to measure height and weight, in this respect, due to unavailability of the equipment for the anthropometric protocol of the international working group, the measurement of weight and height was done using a calibrated standio-meter and a weighing scale. The height was taken meters and weight in kilograms, the subjects dressed in a minimum sportswear and without shoes.

50 Meters for Speed: Speed was tested by means 50 meters sprint (AAHPERD, 2007). The test measures the subjects speed ability, that is, the minimum time required for a subject to run 50 meters. The test was administered to five subjects at a time from one group of sport. Each subject took a crouch position behind the starting line. The starting command was “Go” command was given, the starter made a downward sweep of the arm to give a visual signal of the arm to give a visual signal to timers who stand at the finishing line. On the command “Go” the subjects run the entire 50 meters as fast as possible, passing through the plane of the finishing line. The score is the time elapse between the starter’s signal and the time he crossed the finish line. Time is recorded in second to the nearest tenth of a second.

Table 1: shows the means and standard deviation of the physical (stature) and body mass of the subjects. Observation of the table revealed that all the athletes did not vary much in stature. However, the combat sport athletes were heavier than all other groups followed by the ball game players.

To test this hypothesis, data collected on the performance of each athletic group is shown in table 2

Table 2: Mean Standard Deviation and Standard Error of Estimate 50 Metres Speed Run Test of the Different Athletic Groups

Test	Groups	N	Mean	SD	SEE
50meter run test	Speed endurance	112	7.2438	1.07606	.10168
	Ball game	112	6.6334	1.73436	.06939
	Track & Individual	112	7.2021	1.19698	.11310
	Combat	112	7.2267	1.17460	.11099
	Racket	112	7.8724	1.22872	.11610
	Total	560	7.2357	1.16165	.04909

An observation of the performance of the different athletic groups in 50metre run test revealed that speed endurance, track and individual, combat and Racket athletic groups had higher mean performances (7.243±1.076, 7.202±1.196, 7.226±1.174, 7.872±1.228 and 7.235±1.161) respectively than the ball game sport group (6.633±1.734).

To find out whether there are statistical significance differences in the performance of the different sport groups in 50metres run test, the data was analyzed with one way analysis of variance (ANOVA 1) and presented in table 3

Table 3: Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for Differences in 50 Meter Speed Run between Different Selected Athletic Groups of Male Nigerian University Athletes

Test	Source	SS	MS	DF	F
50metres run test	Between Groups	86.179	21.545	4	17.896*
	Within Groups	668.152	1.204	555	
	Total	754.331	5.3848	559	

F (4,555) = 2.37, P = ≤ 0.0

*Significant

It was revealed that individual sports had significant higher mean than other male athletic groups in their 50 meter speed run test; therefore it was concluded that there are significant differences among selected male athletic groups in their 50meter speed run test.

The null hypothesis of no significant difference was therefore rejected, post hoc result of scheffe test for difference of mean further showed that the five male athletic groups were different from each other in their 50 meter run test as indicated in table 3

4. Discussion

Height

A Welsh Statistician, Kholsa (2010) argued and produced graphs to illustrate that elite sports favour tall people. Team games are sports where height, shape and body composition and fitness play an important role in providing distinct advantage of specific playing positions, particularly at the highest level of performance where there is high degree of player specialization (Bale, 2000). But significantly higher means value for height than its male counterparts, although, there were significant differences in height among the other groups of the male groups.

Body Weight

Body weight is of important consideration especially in elite combat athletics as, quite often, competition had been based on different height categories (Encarta Encyclopedia Standard Edition, 2004). But male basketball players had significantly higher mean value for body weight than male volleyball counterpart. The judo group also has a significant higher mean value than its taekwondo counterparts in body weight. An inherent problem existed, however, as body weight measurement alone might be inadequate because it did not present the full picture of the component that make up the body weight in terms of body fat and or lean body mass (Stout et al 1996, Troiano, Hidehiko, Yusuke, Paola, 1996. Walberg-Rankin & Atkinson, 1996). Athletic performance is also influenced by body physique, excessive amount of fat or Fat Free Weight (FFW) negatively affects long distance run performance, as the excess weight has to be transported by the lower extremities and this requires extra energy. Thus the excess fat weight causes the runner to be less efficient, since more leg power is needed during running.

50 Meters Speed Run

According to Nelson (1982), speed is the velocity of a body part of an object, that is, the rate of motion, speed is basically the result of rapid application of force to a mass. This force is caused by muscle contraction. If the force is greater than the resistance, the movement occurs as the force becomes proportionately greater, the speed with which the mass moves increases based on Newton's second law of motion. It was observed that the male individual sport had significantly higher mean \pm SE value for 50 meter speed run than their male counterparts.

Watson, (1983) pointed out that speed of contraction is apparently inherent in muscle tissue, because even when muscle receives constant artificial stimuli, they contract at varying rates.

Total body speed can be measured by timing the athletes over a set distance from 50-100meters. Running speed can be evaluated from 10meters, 20 meters, 40meters, 50 meters, to 100 meters

sprint using electronic timing device. Individual sports are sports that requires speed since the events involved in it are more of anaerobic in nature.

5. Conclusion

It was observed from the result recorded in this study that ball game recorded the highest score in height and weight measures, while the individual sports recorded the highest scores in the 50 meter run test by the individual sport.

6. Recommendation

The following recommendation is made:

People with speed and medium height are more suitable for speed endurance sports like soccer and hockey and therefore such people are to be selected when it comes to sport competition.

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Predictors of Sports' Injuries among Male Professional Footballers in Nigeria

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Abstract. Sports injuries have been found to impede optimal sports' performance. In football, injuries have been identified to result from multiple risks factors and events. The purpose of this study was to assess the influence of playing field, climatic conditions, rate of exposure to matches, skill level and competition level on the occurrence and severity of football injuries among male professional footballers in Nigeria. Cross-sectional survey research design was adopted for the study. A total population of 435 participants from thirteen registered professional football club in South-Western part of Nigeria participated in the study. Purposive sampling technique was used to select the participants for the study. The research question raised was answered using descriptive statistics, and the hypothesis formulated was tested using inferential statistics of multiple regressions at 0.05 alpha levels. A researcher-developed data form was the instrument used for data collection. The instrument was subjected to reliability testing using test-re-test method, and a reliability value of 0.92_r was obtained. After a baseline examination and measurements were performed ascertaining possible predictors of injury, all players were followed up weekly for oneseason during the Nigeria professional league matches to register subsequent injuries and complaints.

Three hundred and sixty-four completed the weekly follow-ups over 1 year.

Results showed that playing field, climatic conditions, rate of exposure to matches, skill level and competition level were predictors of injuries among the professional footballers with cal. f-val. of $3.074 > \text{crit.f-val of } 2.29$ at 0.05 df 5 and 405. Playing on natural grass, or third-generation artificial turf, acclimatization, reduction of physical overload, among others, were strategies postulated for preventing injuries in football. The study concluded amongst others that, playing on artificial should be discouraged or improved upon and that the rate of exposing footballer players to match situations should be reduced because the more they are exposed to match situations, the more injury prone they are.

Keywords: Sports Injury, professional footballers, predictors, Male footballers.

1. Introduction

Numerous injuries occur each year caused by sports, resulting in decreased physical activity and work time loss in addition to substantial medical costs. Worldwide, the cost of sports injuries has been estimated at \$1 billion annually [Eagger, 2014]. Talabi and Oyerinde [2015], estimated that 3-5 billion injuries occur annually

among competitive and recreational athletes in Nigeria alone. Sports injuries are diverse in terms of the mechanism of injury, how they present in individuals, and how the injury should be managed. Defining exactly what a sports' injury is can be problematic and definitions are not consistent. Verhagen et al [2010], highlighted that definitions of sports injury can be discussed in both theoretical and operational terms. According to Engebretsen, L, LaPrade, R, Mccrory, P, Meeuwisse, W. [2012], a sports injury may be defined as "damage to the tissues of the body that occurs as a result of sports or exercise".

Risk factors for football injuries are typically divided into intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic or internal risk factors [factors within the body], have been identified as the individual biological or psychological characteristics, such as age, gender, body composition, joint flexibility [including pathologic ligament laxity and muscle tightness], functional instability, previous injuries and inadequate rehabilitation, muscle strength and limb dominance. Extrinsic or external risk factors [factors outside the body], have been considered to include the amount of training and number of games played, climatic factors, pitch surface, playing field conditions, equipment, and also the rules of the game and foul play [Kujala, Sarna and Kaprio, 2001; Murphy, Connolly, and Beynnon, 2003; Bahr, 2005; Aoki, Kohno and Fujiya, 2010; Bjerneboe, Bahr and Andersen, 2014]. A summary of risk factors of football injuries would necessarily include the relevant extrinsic or external risk factors such as the amount of training and number of games played, climatic factors, pitch surface, playing field conditions [for example, dry, wet, uneven], equipment [for example, shin guards, taping, shoes], and also the rules of the game and foul play [Meeuwiese, 2000; Van Mechelen, 2001; Aoki, Kohno and Fujiya, 2010]. Some studies reported that, not only is football a high injury risk sport due to the body contact nature of the game, but other external predisposing factors such as equipment, coaching, playing time, and playing conditions, all contribute to athletes' proneness to injuries [Dvorak, Junge and Chomiak, 2000; Junge, Dvorak and Graf-Bauman, 2004; Soligard, Bahr

and Andersen, 2012; Walden, Hagglund and Ekstrand, 2013]. Factors such as venue, weather and playing surface, such as hard, soft and uneven playing surfaces, poor lighting, dry field condition, shoes that are inappropriate or worn out, inappropriate equipment, and environmental conditions such as hot, cold and humidity can all contribute to football injuries [Boden, Kirkendall and Garret, 2000; Orchard, Seward and McGovern, 2001; Ostenberg and Ross, 2000; Dragoo and Braun, 2010; Williams, Hume and Kara, 2011; Orchard, Walden and Hagglund, 2013; Nilstad, Andersen and Bahr, 2014].

Artificial turf has been implicated as an injury risk factor in football. A study of National Football League athletes conducted between 1980 and 1988 in Japan, reported that playing on artificial turf increased the incidence of knee and foot/ankle injuries. In that study, Tartan Turf had the highest injury incidence rates [IR = 2.36], followed by super Turf [IF = 2.34], and Astro turf [IR = 1.94], compared with grass [IR = 1.78] [Prager, fitton and Cahill, 1999]. Seven studies [Prager, Fitton and Cahill, 1999; Arnason, Gudmundson, Dahl and Johannsson, 2000; NCAA, 2002; Dragoo and Braun, 2010; Williams and Kara, 2011; Nedelec, McCall and Carling, 2013; Nilstad, Andersen, Bahr, 2014; and Hughes, Birdsey and Meyers, 2014], have reported increased incidence of injury on artificial turf compared with grass and gravel. Several prospective studies were reported to have recorded exposure as a factor of injuries in football. The general agreement among researchers is that, the more an athlete is exposed to match situations, the more prone to injuries he is [McGuine, Grene, Best and Levenson, 2000; Mckay, Goldie, Payne and Dakes, 2001; Beynon, Renstronme, Alosa, Baumhauer and Vacek, 2001; <http://www.mh.gov/pmc/articles/PMC/64386>, 2012: Accessed 12/06/2013; Dupont, Nedelec and McCall, 2010; Dauty and Collon, 2011; Ekstrand, Hagglund and Tomqvist, 2013, Junge and Dvorak, 2013; Hagglund, Walden and Ekstrand, 2013]. A study reported a 4.4 ankle sprains per 1000 hours of participation in soccer games, and 0.1 sprains per 1000 hours of practice [Amason, Gudmundson, Dahi and

Johannsson, 2000; van Beijsterveldt, Stubbe and Schmikli, 2015]. Studies have analysed the relation between skill level and injury. In a study related to severe injury in 398 male soccer players, it was reported that, athletes in lower skill level groups had a two fold increase incidence of all severe injuries as a group compared with higher skill level groups [Chomiak, Junge, Peterson and Dvorak, 2000; Bloomfield, Polman and Butterly, 2015].

As regards the level of competition and injury risk in football, it can be assumed that the higher the level of competition in football, the higher the injury rate would be. This assumption is supported by general agreement among researchers that injury incidence is greater during competition than in training session [Nielsen and Yide, 2000; Seil, Rupp and Tempelhof, 2000; Soderman, Alfredson and Werner, 2001; Bengtsson, Ekstrand and Walden, 2013; van Beijsterveldt, Stuble and Schmikli, 2015].

An injury in this study was any incident that caused a player to leave the field of play, required a stoppage in play by the referee or player, or resulted in the player being referred to hospital for medical attention.

Sports injuries result from a complex interaction of multiple risk factors and events. The rapid deceleration, acceleration, single-stance ballistic movements and acrobatic maneuvers, the nature of football explain why overall level of injury to a professional footballer is higher than in other sports. In Nigeria, the standard of professional football has been observed by the researcher to be suffering a great setback due to injuries, particularly hamstrings strains or patella tendionopathy, constituting a threat to the health and career of these professionals. In available literature, most researchers have concerned themselves more with incidence of football injuries than their factors. In consequence, as popular as football is with vigorous league season, large followers and participants, and the high degree of the players' proneness to injuries, the risk factors and mechanisms of injuries in this sport are yet to be fully identified with any appreciable degree of certainty in Nigeria.

Therefore, the purpose of the study was to determine whether playing field, climatic conditions, rate of exposure to matches, skill level and competition level were possible predictors of football injuries among male professional footballers in Nigeria, and to design a prevention programme capable of reducing the rate of injuries among these professional footballers.

1.1 Research Question

A research question was raised for the study:

Will playing field, climatic conditions, rate of exposure to match situations, skill level and competition level be significant predictors of injuries among male professional footballers in Nigeria?

1.2 Research Hypothesis

Playing field, climatic conditions, rate of exposure to match situations, skill level and competition level will not be significant predictors of injuries among male professional footballers in Nigeria.

2. Methodology

The research design adopted for the study was a cross-sectional survey [also known as cross-sectional analysis], because it forms a class of research method that involves observation of a population or a representative subset at a defined time, involving special data collection, including questions about the past, but often relying on data originally collected for other purposes. Purposive sampling technique was used to select the participants for the study. The population for the study consisted of four hundred and thirty-five [435] registered professional football players in South-western part of Nigeria. The sample for the study comprised 435 registered male professional footballers in Ondo [Sunshine F.C. and rising Stars F.C], Oyo [3SC F.C. and Crown F. C], Ogun [Gateway F.C. and Remo F.C], Lagos [Bolowotan F.C. and C.O.D. F.C.], Osun Prime F.C. and Gray F.C], and Kwara [Kwara United F.C., Bukola Babes F.C. and Injectors F.C.] States of Nigeria. Thirty-five

[35] registered male professional footballers were drawn from Sunshine F.C.; Rising Stars F.C.; 3SC F.C. Crown F.C.; Gateway F.C.; Bolowotan F.C.; C.O.D. F.C.; Prime F.C.; Gray F.C. and Kwara United F.C. respectively, while thirty [30] registered male professional footballers were drawn from Remo F.C. and Bukola Babes, and twenty-five [25] from Injectors F.C.; using purposive sampling techniques from registration list provided by the thirteen [13] registered professional football clubs. These were the total numbers of players registered by each professional football club for 2013/2014 Nigeria professional football league season. A data generating form developed by the researcher was used to measure the influence of playing field, climatic conditions, rate of exposure to matches, skill level and competition level on participants' injuries. The context criterion validation was done by experts in Health Education, Medicine, Exercise Physiology and Physical Therapy. A pilot study was carried out and the reliability was determined by using a test re-test method, and a reliability co-efficient of 0.92 was obtained.

The procedure for data collection of the prospective study was as follows: A baseline examination was conducted to examine playing field, climatic conditions, rate of exposure to matches, skill level and competition level as possible predictive risk factor variables. All the players were followed up weekly during their league matches for 1 year to register subsequent injuries and complaints.

During the 1 year follow-up of 2013/2014 Nigeria professional football league season, all

teams' physical therapists documented all injuries and complaints, the types of play field, the climatic condition and competition level when the injuries and complaints occurred, the rate of exposure to match situations, and the skill level [According to Coaching Crew Rating], of the players using a special documentation sheet for each player. In the study, an injury was described as an incident that caused a player to leave the field of play, required a stoppage in play by the referee, or player, or resulted in the player being referred to hospital for medical attention. Injuries were classified as severe if the player was eventually hospitalized. The full co-operation and assistance of football coaches, the medical team, welfare officers, participants in each of the professional football clubs, and involvement of five trained research assistants enhanced prompt and effective administration of the data collection sheets. Descriptive statistics was used to describe the data, while Multiple regression Analysis was employed to analyse the data collected using SPSS version 16.0.

Approval for the study was obtained from the management of all the professional football clubs from which the participants were drawn. An initial orientation was organized for the participants intimating them with the details of the study including their rights, risk/discomfort, and confidentiality. Opportunity was given for questions and clarifications, and consent forms regarding their involvement in the study were signed by the participants. The study is new in Nigeria since numerous previous studies on sports injuries were basically on incidence of football injuries while the risk factors and mechanisms of the injuries were not identified

3. Results

Table 1: Descriptive Frequency Analysis of Injuries with Extrinsic Variables of Professional Footballers in Nigeria.

Variables	TYPES OF INJURIES						Total	%
	Sprain	Strains	Knee Injury	Achilles tendon	Fracture	Dislocation		
Playing Surface								
Astro turf	75	6	62	76	12	6	237	65%
Grass	45	5	57	15	5	0	127	35%
Total	120	11	119	91	17	6	364	
Climatic Conditions								
Hot	37	0	6	6	0	0	49	13.5%
Humid	5	0	12	7	0	6	30	8.2%
Cold	72	11	96	73	11	0	263	72.3%
Normal	6	0	5	5	6	0	22	6.0
Total	120	11	119	91	17	6	364	
Rate of Exposure to Matches								
1-2 times per month	40	5	42	5	0	6	98	2.7
3-4 times per month	25	6	36	59	0	0	126	35%
Grater than 4 times per month	55	0	41	27	17	0	140	38.5%
Total	120	11	119	91	17	6	364	
Skill Level								
Low	85	0	6	0	0	0	13	3.6%
Average	28	6	49	53	6	0	142	39%
High	7	5	64	38	11	6	209	57.4%
Total	120	11	119	91	17	6	364	
Level of Competition								
Practices	14	10	39	25	7	0	95	26%
Games	106	1	80	66	10	6	269	74%
Total	120	11	119	91	17	6	364	

Table 1 revealed that, playing on astro turf increased susceptibility rate to injuries with a total number 237 injuries [65%] followed by grass with 127 injuries [35%]. This should be expected because, at amateur level from where these players graduate to professional football level, practices and games are mostly done on grass pitch. So, the artificial and the stiffness of astro turf pitch could, for a long period of time, increase susceptibility rate to injuries among these footballers. Also, the table revealed more injuries during cold weather conditions with 263 injuries [72.3%], followed by hot weather with 49 injuries [13.5%], humid weather condition with 30 injuries [8.2%], and normal weather condition with 22 injuries [6%]. This is an indication that athletes, regardless of type of sport, need acclimatization and adequate warm-up activities, particularly during cold weather condition to avoid incidences of sustaining injuries. High rate exposure to match and game situations have been indicated to increase soccer athletes' susceptibility rate to injuries. Exposure to match and game situations greater than 4 times per month has a total of 140 injuries [38.5%], followed by 3 – 4 times per month [126 injuries] [35%], and 1-2 times per month [98 injuries] [2.7%]. Therefore, the rate of exposing athletes to match and game situations should be reviewed with a view to reducing it because, the more they are exposed to match situations, the more prone they are to injuries. Highly skillful soccer athletes have been found to have incurred high rate of injuries [209 injuries] [57.4%], followed by average skill level athletes with 142 injuries [39%], and low skill level athletes with 13 injuries [3.6%]. This is probably as a result of high rate of exposing good athletes to match situations in the desperate bid to achieve good results. Injury rate has been found greater during games [269 injuries] [74%], to practices with 95 injuries [26%]. This is natural because at the games level, the efforts are intensely geared towards success.

Table 2: Multiple Regression and Model Summary of Regression Analysis of Extrinsic Variables as Predictive Risk Factors for Sports Injuries among Male Professional Footballers in Nigeria.

Multiple Regression Analysis								
Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	Cal. value	F	Crit. values	F Sig.	Decision
Regression	55.163	5	11.033					
Residual	4162.243	405	10.277	3.074		2.29	0.027	Ho ₁
Total	4217.406	410						Rejected

Model Summary of Regression Analysis				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.114	0.013	0.001	3.20580

□ = 0.05

(a) **Predictors: (Constant)**, Playing field, Climatic condition when injury occurred, Rate of exposure to matches, skill level and competition level.

(b) **Dependent Variables:** Injuries among male professional footballers in Nigeria.

Table 2a indicates that, all the independent extrinsic variables were significant predictive risk factors for injuries among professional footballers in Nigeria with calculated f-ratio 3.074, and P = 0.027 which shows that playing surface, climatic conditions, rate of exposure to matches, skill level and level of competition were significant predictive risk factors of sports injuries among the soccer athletes.

Table 2b: The Contribution of Each Independent Variable as Predictive Risk Factor of Sports Injuries among Male Professional Footballers in Nigeria.

Independent Variables	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardized coefficients β	t-val.	P-val	Decision
	B	Std. Error				
1 (Constant)	9.059	2.172		4.170	0.000	
Playing Field	0.302	0.114	0.101	1.011	0.035	S
Climatic Conditions	0.337	0.329	0.152	1.024	0.031	S
Rate of Exposure to Matches	0.345	0.208	0.185	1.664	0.040	S
Skill level	0.152	0.030	0.086	0.057	0.612	S
Competition Level	0.319	0.202	0.106	1.016	0.059	S

□ = 0.05

The equation for table 2b is:

$$Y = 9.059 + 0.302X_1 + 0.337X_2 + 0.345X_3 + 0.152X_4 + 0.319X_5$$

Dependent variable: Injuries among male professional footballers in Nigeria.

The results of the multiple regression analysis as presented in table 2b indicates that all the five independent variables contributed to predict sports injuries among the athletes. An examination of Beta weight shows that, rate of exposure to matches contributed 0.185 to the model, followed by climatic conditions (0.152), competition level (0.106), playing field (0.101), and skill level (0.06).

4. Discussion of Findings

The study was carried out to determine possible predictive risk factors for sports injuries among male professional footballers in Nigeria with specific references to determining the influence of playing surface, climatic conditions, rate of exposure to match situations, skill level and level of competition on the occurrence and severity of football injuries. The finding lends credence to previous studies which reported increased incidence of injury on artificial turf compared with grass and gravel because of its stiffness and the increased functioning force at the shoe surface. [Arnason, Gudmundsson, Dahl and Johannsson, 2000; NCAA, 2002; Aioki, Kohno and Fujiya, 2010; Soligard, Bahr and

Andersen, 2012; Bjerneboe, bahr and Andersen, 2014]. The result also supports those studies that considered factors such as hard, soft, and uneven playing surfaces, poor lighting, dry field conditions, inappropriate equipment and environmental conditions, such as hot, cold and humidity as significant predictive risk factors for football injuries [see tables 1, 2a and 2b] [Bopden, Kirkendall and Garrett, 2000; Orchard, Seward and McGivern, 2001; Soligard, Bahr and Andersen, 2012; Hughes, Birdsey and Meyers, 2013; Poulos, Gallucci and Gage, 2014. Today, however, the nature of artificial turf has changed very considerably in developed environments by replacing short-pile carpet laid over a thin pad with a surface that contains long “grass-like” fibers embedded with granules of crushed rubber, sand, and/or silica, and laid over a thick pad. This results in a more compliant surface and one that results in a considerably lower shoe-surface coefficient of friction. Nigerian football ruling body should, as a matter of urgency, adopt this third generation artificial turf, encourage its use at all levels of football since natural grass is no longer popular, particularly at international level. Also, football coaches, trainers and team managers should encourage adequate warm-ups particularly during cold weather condition and good level of acclimatization to changing climatic conditions at all levels of the game. The result also identifies with those studies that considered increased exposure to match situations a significant predictive risk factor for injuries in football [see table 1 and 2b]. [Lindberg and Nilsson, 1994; Chomiak, Junge, Peterson and Dvorak, 2000; Bahr, 2005; Danielsson, Dupont, Nedelec and McCall, 2010; Hagglund, Zwerver and Ekstrand, 2011; Bengtsson, Ekstrand, Hagglund, 2013; Bengtsson, Ekstrand and Walden, 2013]. Physical loadwork for the athletes should be reduced to the barest minimal, as physical over load like playing four matches per month and fixture congestion were found associated with increased rates of injuries in football.

Also, the study agrees with those that reported high injury rate among athletes in higher skill level groups compared with athletes in lower skill level groups [see table 1 and 2b] [Chomiak,

Junge, Peterson and Dvorak, 2000; ASA, 2010; Bloomfirled, Polman and Butterly, 2015]. Coaches and team managers should exercise care in fielding star athletes to avoid exposing them to injuries. Start footballers may not be used during unimportant matches. The result of the study also indicates high injury rate during games than during practices [see table 1 and 2b]. The result identifies with those that found a greater injury risk during games than in practice [Ekstrand, and Moller, 1993; Nielson and Yide, 2000; Seil, Rupp and Tempell of 2000; Soderman, Alfredson and Werner, 2001; Aoki, O’Hata and Kohno, 2012; Bengtsson, Ekstrand and Walden, 2013; Hagglund, Walden and Ekstrand, 2013; Lundblad, Walden and Magnusson, 2013; Walden, Hagglund and Ekstrand, 2013]. Considering the high rate of injuries during football matches, football players should be informed adequately well on the importance of disciplined play because once an injury is incurred, it predisposes the victim to recurrent injury or permanent disability.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

Based on the findings, it was concluded that playing surface, climatic conditions, rate of exposure to matches, skill level and level of competition were significant predictive risk factors for injuries among professional football players in Nigeria.

The following recommendations were made:

- Playing on artificial turf should be discouraged or improved upon, because of its stiffness and the increased frictional force at the shoe surface which places athletes at increased injury risk.
- Climatic conditions should be considered for both training sessions and match situations as very hot and extremely cold weather conditions facilitate occurrence of injuries among athletes.
- Structured training sessions, appropriate warming-up, appropriate game/ training relationship and reduction of physical overload should be observed more seriously as inappropriate application of

- any or all these increase the risk component for sustaining injuries.
- The rate of exposing the soccer athletes to match situations should be reviewed with a view to reducing it, because the more they are exposed to match situations, the more injury prone they are.
 - Considering the high rate of injury occurrence in football, health professionals, coaches, team managers, and all stakeholders in football should include in a systematic way, discussion on importance of disciplined lifestyle as well as information on disciplined play because once an injury is incurred, it predisposes the victim to recurrent injury.

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