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Editorial

This issue of NIU *Journal of Humanities* touches on Development Administration, Creative Writing as well as Peace and Conflict Studies.

The first part of the Journal addresses issues in Development Administration such as Anti Corruption Policies, Globalization, Environmental Policies, Fiscal Federalism, International Economic Relations, Deregulation of Educational Services and so on. One of the papers in this section reveals that government environmental policies in the study area in the last fifteen years have not been adequately implemented. It is therefore, recommended that the Federal Government should review government environmental policies in the study areas. The study also recommended the setting up of a new dedicated and centralized agency for effective flood risk management in Nigeria.

Section two explores issues in Peace and Conflict Studies such as Terrorism, Violent Protests, Military Coup Detat, Gender-Based Violence at Work Place and Minor Infractions of Tax Laws. Based on the result of the findings of its empirical Studies, one of the papers in this section recommends that both government and employers of labour should eliminate all forms of violence against women through reactivation of gender and equal opportunities bills and labour laws in Nigeria.

Papers in the last section are on Creative Writings. It is postulated in one of the papers that flaming devices have the tendency to infuriate the target(s) of the speech, and elicit negative reactions. The paper recommends that since the world has become a global village, discourses of prominent persons should be devoid of devices that have the propensity to infuriate the hearers and stimulate negative feelings and reactions. Another paper in this section also argues that there is monotony in their writing style and monotonous writing is ineffective writing style. The paper concludes by recommending possible solutions to effective and elegant writing for effective communication and enhanced performance in English.

On the whole, this issue of *NIU Journal of Humanities* features many empirical and theoretical based articles which can be of great benefit to every reader.

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Part One

Development Administration



The United States of America and The Fight Against Corruption in Nigeria, 2015-2020: A Critical Analysis

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Abstract. Corruption as a major blight of most developing states around the world is an endemic that has systematically eaten deep into the core of Nigeria as a system. Considering selected approaches to tackle corruption in Nigeria since 1999, the expository design was adopted to appraise the efforts of the United States (US) in the anti-corruption operations in Nigeria. The study confirmed that Nigeria has the highest stake in its anti-corruption struggles. It concluded that Nigeria and the US can work together against corruption in Nigeria. However, Nigeria's expectations of the US in this regard should be moderate, in recognition of the latter's interest. Although the US has projected interest in the anti-corruption fight in Nigeria in many high-profile discussions, the study recommended that the US should begin to make its efforts believable by dissociating itself from corrupt Nigerian elites. In furtherance of its anti-corruption drive, the US should also be confrontational through rigorous questioning of funds laundered to be spent or invested in the US.

Keywords: Corruption, Anti-corruption, Nigeria, United States (US), Developing States

1. Introduction

Corruption contributes a great deal to the socio-economic and political plights of developing countries around the world. It is the social plague that holds the people's progress to ransom. It militates against infrastructural growth and economic development through misappropriation and diversion of public funds and government revenues for private (selfish) use by corrupt political and economic elites, thereby impoverishing the mass majority (Otusanya, 2011). Corruption can take different forms. However, a broad categorization includes petty corruption,

which involves government workers taking bribes for carrying out their jobs like issuing forms and licenses, etc. This category of corruption is usually not projected seriously and, in fact, often normalized as a necessary ritual or appeasement to get things done quickly (and easily) – the proverbial greasing of palms. There is also the downright diversion of government revenues to private coffers (Nwabuzor, 2005). Other forms of corruption are vote-buying, nepotism in recruitment and promotion in the public sector, etc. {United Nations Office on Drug and Crime (UNODC), 2019}. Nevertheless, all forms of corruption have their ways of negatively impacting a polity in the long run.

Although political corruption in Nigeria can be traced to the pre-colonial and colonial eras, corruption in post-colonial Nigeria has grown to become a bane in its system; it has come to be identified with the country. Corruption is believed to be the bedrock and core of Nigeria's misadministration (Nmah, 2017; Nwogbo, & Ighodalo, 2021). It has to do with the abuse or misuse of authorized power for selfish benefits (Transparency International (TI), 2020). This could be in form of giving or taking bribes, diversion of public funds, neglect of duties, and general maladministration. These corrupt practices frustrate democratic principles, promote governmental instability, and stunt economic growth. Economic growth is further stunted due to discouragement of foreign direct investments and small businesses often hardly survive the start-up costs required in a corrupt society (Awareness Days, 2020). This results in poverty and loss of trust in the government due to hindered institutional development.

It is important to note that corruption, in all its ramifications, constitutes the basic justification for all

military overthrow of civilian rules in Nigeria. In his 1966 coup speech, Major Kaduna Nzeogwu noted that the military overthrow of the Balewa-led government was to correct the social malaise perpetrated by “the political profiteers, swindlers, and men in high and low places who seek bribes and demand ten percent...” (quoted in Nwoke, 2013:57). However, it is ironic that on a much higher scale, the same massive looting, mismanagement of public funds, favoritism, and other forms of corrupt practices were evident in all the succeeding military regimes in Nigeria (Abada & Ngwu, 2019). With the return to democratic government in 1999, there were hopes of quality leadership to address corruption’s corrosive and pernicious hold on Nigeria. Two decades of democratic rule, notwithstanding, corruption is still as pervasive in Nigeria as it was used to be (Abada & Ngwu, 2019) and perhaps, more chronic and subtle.

Successive governments had taken stringent measures – through policies and laws – against this cankerworm. One of such was Muhammadu Buhari’s War against Indiscipline (WAI), from 1983 to 1985. Prominent among subsequent efforts to combat corruption since 1999 is the establishment of the Independent Corrupt Practices and other Related Offences Commission (ICPC) and Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) in 2000 and 2003 respectively under President Olusegun Obasanjo’s administration (Nmah, 2017). Upon return to power again in 2015, Muhammadu Buhari restated his commitment to stamp out corruption and corrupt practices as a cardinal programme, as he inaugurated the Presidential Advisory Council Against Corruption (PACAC) chaired by the eminent Prof. Itse Sagay. It is important to add that Nigeria’s new anti-corruption crusade under President Muhammadu Buhari, tagged “change begins with me”, is a necessary step to resuscitate discipline, fairness, orderliness, and zero corruption in Nigeria (Oludayo, 2021; Faseke, 2021).

It is equally gratifying to note that with the exit of the military, the United States (US) has been partnering with Nigeria against corruption since the dawn of the fourth republic. This is evident in the US Government’s support of Nigerian efforts to strengthen democratic institutions, promote good governance, counter corruption, and improve security in Nigeria (U.S. Department of State, 2021). Despite this partnership, corruption continues to reign with a significant negative effect on political and economic relations between the two countries. Corruption has jeopardized Nigeria’s foreign direct investments (FDI), including U.S investments in the country’s

economy, security, and governance (Page, 2016; U.S. Department of State, 2021).

Notwithstanding reforms aimed at checkmating corruption in Nigeria, the 2017 Transparency International Corruption Perception Index puts Nigeria as the 148th most corrupt country in the world out of 180 countries evaluated (Nwogbo, & Ighodalo, 2021). By 2020, Nigeria was ranked 149 out of 175 countries (U.S. Department of State, 2021). This shows that efforts, both local and international, towards fighting corruption in Nigeria are yet to be productive. This is worrisome, as Adisa, (2021) suggests that this reality exists due to a gap in the moral commitment of leaders and state power to the fight against corruption in Nigeria. This gap is also evident in the effort and attitude of the US in helping the struggle against corruption in the country. One might beg to understand the extent of the moral commitment of the US in the anti-corruption struggle in Nigeria, considering the U.S has paid more lip service than actual actions to discourage corrupt practices, especially among politicians and government officials.

Because the United States of America (USA) remains the largest foreign investor in Nigeria, with \$3.2 billion in exportation to Nigeria in 2019, (U.S Department of State, 2021), U.S policymakers deemed it important to support President Buhari’s aggression against corruption. However, thus far, USA’s efforts are yet to generate policy actions with actions that distance it from corrupt politicians. The efforts of the US have been limited to public speeches and high-level discussions (Page, 2016), which have not deterred corrupt political office holders from engaging in corrupt practices such as diversions of public funds and misuse of their posts to the detriment of the masses. Since independence, corruption has remained a major challenge for the attainment of economic growth and development in the country.

Following this background, this paper examines the role of the USA in the fight against corruption in Nigeria from 2015 to 2020, and what this role translates for Nigeria and the USA. The paper studies the effectiveness of the support of the USA through the United State Agency for International Development (USAID) in the fight against corruption in Nigeria. To achieve this study, realism Colonialism and the Two Publics theories were adopted as a framework of analysis. Methodologically, this research is qualitative thus, the major source of data includes relevant books, journals, newspapers, and online materials gotten through the internet. The researcher makes use of

archival information, internet browsing, etc. as methods of data collection for this study. The study contributes to knowledge by exploring how the anti-corruption fight in Nigeria can be mutually beneficial for Nigeria and the USA.

The next two sections of this paper explored the theoretical frameworks of analysis of the study. The section that follows interrogates the causes and effects of corruption in Nigeria. This is followed by a brief analysis of selected efforts to curb corruption in Nigeria; the roles and impacts of the ICPC, the EFCC, and the US in the process are explained. This is immediately followed by the findings and summary of the study and recommendations for a mutually beneficial anti-corruption effort in Nigeria.

2. The U.S and Anti-Corruption Struggles in Nigeria: The Realist's Framework of Analysis

The realist's school of thought holds that human beings set out to maximize their gains, even at the expense of others. Prominent among classical realist scholars are: Thucydides, Niccolo Machiavelli, Thomas Hobbes, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Max Weber (Bell, 2017). They all simply agreed that humans live in anarchy, a stateless system where life is brutish, harsh, and short. Hans Morgenthau is one of the realist scholars of international relations, some others are Raymond Aron, Edward Hallet Carr, Robert Gilpin, John Herz, Samuel Huntington, George Kennan, Stephen Krasner, and Kenneth Waltz. They all believe that just like humans are interested in the attainment of power to dominate others; states in international politics also strive to attain as much power as they can to coerce others (Griffiths, Roach, and Solomo, 2009).

Taking a cue from Niccolo Machiavelli's idea of "the end justifies the means", the "how" is not as important as the attainment of the desired result. In this case, the desired result is power, which could be political, economic, military, etc. (Griffiths, et al, 2009). The realist's perspective directly opposes the idealist's philosophy of bringing states under an international organization to ensure that they relate cordially to enhance peace. This idea birthed the establishment of the League of Nations in 1919, after World War I. However, with the outbreak of World War II, the idea of international organization as a means to avert war was broken (Akinbobola, 2008). This was what gave the realist's view momentum after the Second World War, through the works of Edward Hallet Carr (Bell, 2017; Gold & McGlinchey, 2017).

Bell (2017: para. 3) noted that E.H. Carr "focused on the perennial role of power and self-interest in determining state behaviour". He observed that states do not jump into international relations or politics without a prior domesticated plan or rules of engagement (Bell, 2017). This is called the foreign policy of the state, which is always structured to protect the interest of the state, otherwise called national interest (Griffiths, et al, 2009). States relate with other states based on what they stand to gain, and realistically, at no point would a state engage with another when there are no 'payoffs'.

Considering the realists' idea that states only relate with other states based on what they stand to gain, it will then suffice to wonder what the U.S. would gain in the active fight against corruption in Nigeria. Instead of confronting corruption head-on, so far, the US agencies and officials seem to be more "concerned with cultivating strong relationships with a wide range of elites, including those complicit in corruption" (Page, 2016:2). Consequently, Page further described the US anti-corruption policy as "broad-based and untargeted, centered on modest assistance programmes for police investigators and civil society watchdogs" (Page, 2016:2). The US officials are alleged to enjoy the friendships of some controversial Nigerian officials. An example of this is the USAID's sponsorship of a rice farming "...project owned by a former attorney-general whom the United States sanctioned for corruption in 2010. In April 2016, the US ambassador and USAID officials visited and toured the farm with the owner" (Page, 2016:2). One can be justified to think that a cordial relationship must have existed between the sanctioned Nigerian and the US for the USAID to have sponsored his rice project.

Available measures like the consular databases, local law enforcement records, or online searches have not been employed by the US officials against enabling corruption in Nigeria. (Page, 2016). Cordial relationships with Nigerian corrupt officials seem to benefit the U.S. and other European countries where they take their loots to enjoy. To buttress this point, Page (2020) wonders "why politically exposed Nigerians suspected of corrupt practices enjoy near-total freedom to spend their unexplained wealth on the high-end property, private schools, and luxury goods in the United States, United Kingdom, and Europe" (para. 17). As long as they can afford it, Nigerian politicians are not questioned about the

sources of the money they spend. Prominent Nigerian politicians send their children to the best of schools and own houses in the U.S. and other places while the masses have to make do with a degraded educational system and poor housing in the country.

On September 14, 2020, Nigerian politicians that were involved in malpractices and responsible for violence in the 2019 general elections were issued a visa ban by the United States Department (Egbunike, 2020). However, their names were not made public, this has made some Nigerians question the reason behind this move and some wonder if any politician was banned since there are no names to back their claims (Egbunike, 2020). This even became more questionable in 2013 when a Nigerian former minister's visa was almost revoked, but for a "...senior embassy official who claimed that doing so would put US oil companies' business dealings at risk" (p. 2). This goes to show the kind of tepid approach of the US to corruption in Nigeria. In reality, the US may not be able to effectively fight corruption in Nigeria as far as the corruption has no direct adverse effect on it. It is hoped that appeal to common humanity could constitute a "gain" to drive a more assertive US anti-corruption posture

3. The U.S and Anti-Corruption Struggles in Nigeria: Peter Ekeh's Colonialism and Two Publics Theoretical Framework

Peter Ekeh (1975) proposed the Colonialism and the Two Publics in Africa theory to explain and analyze corruption in Africa. Ekeh referred to African politicians as bourgeoisies, a class of privileged persons who wield more power than authorities. He observed that the movements for independence from colonialism were primarily a power struggle between the African and European bourgeoisie. The African bourgeoisie used their western education to organize the masses to support the struggle for independence, which was not entirely in the interests of the people. The African bourgeoisie were more interested in the replacement of the colonialists – the European bourgeoisie – in the governance of African colonies.

To describe an African's relationship with the postcolonial state and primordial community, Ekeh (1975) identified two publics in Africa. He referred to them as the civic public and the primordial public, typifying the colonial and traditional institutions respectively (Ekeh, 1975; Onuoha, 2014). Colonialism originated in the two publics and the

dialectical interactions between these publics are responsible for many of Africa's political issues, especially corruption (Ekeh, 1975). While villages/rural communities, traditional groups/associations, and religious groups are all part of the primordial public, the civic public is all colonial or offspring of colonial institutions. The complexity in African politics is found in the morality or lack of it thereof in Africans' interaction with the two publics; Africans relate to the civic public without moral considerations and to the primordial public on moral grounds.

Africans viewed the colonial state with doubts and questioned its morality. They preferred and are more comfortable with the virtues and communality created by Africa's kinship ties, unlike what they perceived as self-centered European morality prescribed by the colonialists (Goddard, Assad, Issa, Malagila, & Mkasiwa, 2016). The colonial institutions are seen as alien, foreign, and unfamiliar by Africans, as such, they reap from the civic public to enrich the primordial public (Ekeh, 1975). However, in contemporary times, contrary to the postulations of Ekeh, the primordial public, and the civic public is being ripped-off by corrupt African politicians to enrich the economic growth of the privileged few. This is evident in how public funds diverted or embezzled by corrupt politicians are used to enjoy vacations, go for health care, buy houses, invest and or school in places like Britain, America, Canada, etc., with no regard or pity for the "primordial public".

4. Corruption as an Endemic in Nigeria: Causes and Effects

Considering the pervasiveness of corruption in Nigeria, there have to be reasons for this reality. Shuaib (2015 as cited in Khan, nd) identified three levels from which the causes of corruption can be traced. They are; International, National, and Individual levels.

International Level: this level highlights the competitive nature of the international market to be the major cause of corruption in Nigeria. In this case, multinationals are willing to give bribes to gain favour over their competitors. "The Siemens scandal, the National Identity Card saga, and Halliburton case are some of the corruption cases involving international companies in Nigeria." (Shuaib, 2015, p. 28).

National Level: identified under this level are three types of relationships, namely: elected and appointed government official (government) and the civil

service, the relationship between government and the judiciary, and third; the relationship between government and the civil society/private organization or individuals. “What comes to mind here is connivance and privileges. This could be when awarding contracts or giving concessions for economic reasons or granting of rights (such as privatization of government-owned businesses)” (Shuaib, 2015, p. 29).

Individual Level: the basis for corruption at this level is identified as “competition between and among different classes of individual and the tendency to acquire more to gain advantage and retain one's position or aspire for a higher position.” (Shuaib, 2015, p. 29). This explains why political elites engage in corrupt activities such as: “diversion of public resources, collection of mobilization fees without execution of the project or abandonment of projects when the amount for the project has been paid or poor execution of the project, a culture of affluent and get rich syndrome” (Shuaib, 2015, p. 29).

From these levels, one can deduce greed as a major cause of corruption in Nigeria. Okwuagbala, (2020) identified four causes of corruption, they are Greed, Poor youth empowerment, Poverty, and Unemployment. Greed, he argued is one of the reasons politicians embezzle public revenue; they feel the need to amass as much wealth as possible at all costs. Poor youth empowerment Okwuagbala, (2020) argued has to do with inadequate moral and financial empowerment of the youth. For instance, finances that could have been invested in education are misappropriated, and seeing, stealing and mismanagement at the top, the youth begin to emulate in their own corners, what they see practiced by the “leaders”.

Also, Arowosegbe, (2017) observed that the perception of government and or political offices as a business instead of an avenue to serve has contributed to the ruthless striving for kick-backs in the forms of returns and rewards; the absence of institutions in the governance processes, which makes the building of state activities and practices dependent on individuals, rather than institutions, possible; the lack of accountability in the democratic political process; the absence of austere and painstaking dedication to developing the economy and society; and the perception of political rule as rite de passage, such that there is no tolerance for either dissent politics or even a critical questioning culture (Arowosegbe, 2017:130-131).

As a result of all these, ethics and morality are undermined, thereby, weakening social order and even, Nigeria as a system (Arowosegbe, 2017).

Other causes of corruption explained by Okwuagbala, (2020) are poverty and unemployment. When a person lives below 1.90 dollars, which is about 723 naira per day (Like Forex, 2020), such is said to be poor. Unfortunately, many Nigerians fall in this category, and a contributory factor to the high poverty rate is unemployment. These factors make many Nigerian ready and willing to do anything; including stealing, to earn a living. These are parts of the reasons poor, unemployed youths collect bribes to be thugs for politicians (Okwuagbala, 2020).

On the effects of corruption in Nigeria, Šumah, (2018) stated that government officials manipulate public expenditure to gain extra income for themselves. Supporting this claim, Okenna, (2020) observed that a relationship exists between corruption and government expenditure in Nigeria. He pointed out that an increase in the level of corruption will lead to an increase in government expenditure. It can, therefore, be gathered that an effect of corruption in Nigeria is increased expenditure. Another effect of corruption mentioned by him is poverty, just as poverty could cause corruption; it is at the same time a resultant effect of corruption. It is indeed “a locust that has eaten deep into the Nigerian economy; it has stolen the wealth of resource-rich nations like Nigeria thereby making people to be trapped in poverty.” (Okenna, 2020:42).

Corruption leads to brain drain as poor working conditions and inadequate remunerations make professionals seek greener pasture beyond the shores of the country “as many Nigerians believe it is profitable to work outside Nigeria” (Shuaib, 2015:31). Shuaib went further to opine that corruption:

desecrates the rule of law and distorts the entire decision-making process, undermines the credibility and legitimacy of government. Even, those who tried to expose corrupt activities find themselves to blame as they can be dealt with and the culprits walk away without being punished (p. 31).

All of these factors contribute to the country's negative image in the international system, resulting in restricted foreign and domestic investment, democratic undermining, and general underdevelopment (Nmah, 2017). With low investment comes increased unemployment and poor national development due to low productivity (Nmah, 2017; Okwuagbala, 2020).

5. The Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) and the Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Commission (ICPC)

Since 1999, there have been measures to combat corruption and ensure a saner society; such efforts are the establishment of the ICPC and EFCC (Mikail, et al., 2017). Suleiman, et al., (2017) opined that upon coming into existence, the EFCC became the financial intelligent unit saddled with the responsibility of coordinating all other anti-corruption bodies in the fight against corruption and all other financial crimes in the country. Highlighting the duties of the EFCC, Mikail, et al., (2017) stated that the EFCC is responsible for the investigation and prosecution of financial and economic crimes such as money laundering, counterfeiting, market fraud, illegal transfer of funds, contract scam, computer credit fraud, forgery, etc. By instilling fear of conviction and punishment, the commission strives to ensure a corruption-free Nigeria.

The EFCC has been tagged the most promising effort of the Nigerian government under President Obasanjo, to fight corruption. This is due to the fact that “the EFCC is the only Nigerian government institution that has posed a meaningful challenge to the impunity enjoyed by corrupt and powerful members of the political elite” (Albin-Lackey, 2011, para. 4). The first head of the commission, Nuhu Ribadu, did not shield from publicly declaring war against corrupt politicians. However, his record was dented with shreds of evidence that the operations of the EFCC were selective and highly influenced by his boss, President Obasanjo (Albin-Lackey, 2011; Mikail, et al., 2017). Ribadu was forced out of office two weeks after he attempted to prosecute a former governor of Delta State, James Ibori, a political ally of President Umaru Yar’Adua. Yar’Adua took over the presidency after President Obasanjo in 2007 (Albin-Lackey, 2011).

Farida Waziri replaced Ribadu as the chairman in 2007, and her reign also was highly controversial with allegations and pieces of evidence of poor investigations and handling of corruption cases. “Acts of spectacular incompetence ... afflicted the EFCC under both Ribadu and Waziri” (Albin-Lackey, 2011, para. 8). Waziri was believed to have gained the position of EFCC boss through support from James Ibori, George Akume, and Bukola Saraki. All these were politicians with cases of corruption at the time and still do even in 2020 (Sahara Reporter, 2020). This thereby made Waziri’s capability to be objective in her duties questionable.

She was alleged to have cleared James Ibori of corruption; the same Ibori that was “convicted of fraud and money laundering in the United Kingdom despite Nigeria’s failure to do so” (Sahara Reporter, 2020, para. 11). Due to allegations of a corrupt EFCC during Waziri’s tenure as the boss, the commission was tagged turbulent at the time and potential international partners and donors became weary of dealing with Nigeria and Nigerians. This goes to show that the actions of the EFCC under the leadership of Waziri contributed to denting the image of Nigeria in the international system.

On November 23, 2011, Farida Waziri was relieved of her duty by President Goodluck Jonathan and she was replaced with an acting chairperson, Ibrahim Lamorde (Ogala, 2015). His tenure was also marked with controversies, in 2015, following allegations of missing \$5bn (£3.2bn) in the EFCC by the Nigerian Senate. He was relieved of his post by President Muhammadu Buhari, succeeded by Ibrahim Magu in an acting capacity. Although the Nigerian Senate had, in 2016, authorized the Committee on Ethics, Privileges, and Public Petitions to issue a warrant of arrest on Lamorde for alleged financial misappropriation to the tune of N1trn during his administration, he was neither arrested nor prosecuted.

President Muhammadu Buhari appointed Ibrahim Magu as the new chairperson of the EFCC in an acting capacity in November 2015. However, the Nigerian Senate refused to confirm this appointment on the basis of some criminal allegations against him. It would be interesting to recall that despite the allegations, plus the refusal of the Nigerian Senate to confirm his appointment, Ibrahim Magu continued to perform the duties of the head of the EFCC (acting) until he was suspended following a major scandal that bothers on gross misconduct in July 2020. Substantively, he was succeeded by 42-year old Abdulrasheed Bawa in February 2021. The jury is still out on Bawa, whose tenure has been hard on political corruption and internet fraud (nicknamed “yahoo-yahoo”).

The EFCC has been collaborating with international agencies to ensure that economic and financial crimes are reduced in the country. For instance, in December 2019, the EFCC obtained the deportation of Mr. Mohammed Bello Adoke (SAN), Nigeria’s former Attorney-General and Minister of Justice, from Dubai, United Arab Emirates (UAE), on charges of alleged abuse of office and money laundering in connection with the granting of the Oil Prospecting License (OPL) 245 to Shell and ENI (the case

popularly known as the Malabu oil scam deal). Prior to his deportation, Adoke had been detained by Interpol in the same UAE since November 11, 2019. To some, Adoke's visit to Dubai for medical treatment was seen as an attempt to evade arrest, but the anti-graft agency collaborated with the International police and UAE authorities to ensure his arrest and deportation (Obiwuru, 2020).

In spite of EFCC's efforts under Magu to curb economic and financial crimes in Nigeria, just like others before him, he was criticized for using the commission to carry out the dictates of the Presidency. The EFCC under the leadership of Ibrahim Magu was believed to be out to weaken oppositions, and the major one, in this case, is the People's Democratic Party (PDP). The PDP argued that the EFCC is not independent as most arrested politicians or targets are usually either member of the PDP or the party's supporters. Some of those in these categories are Bukola Saraki, former Senate President; Ayodele Fayose; Patience Jonathan; Sambo Dasuki; Raymond Dokpesi; Justice Walter Onnoghen, former Chief Justice of Nigeria; etc. (Obiwuru, 2020).

The PDP suggested that someone like Bola Tinubu, the National Leader of the ruling All Progressive Congress (APC), was alleged to have used bullion vans to convey huge sums of money to his Ikoyi home during the 2019 General Elections. Yet, he has never been arrested nor investigated by the EFCC. Instead, when asked about Tinubu's matter, Magu gave no comment and simply called for another question (Obiwuru, 2020). The potency of such claim notwithstanding, we believe that the culpability or otherwise of the above persons should be the paramount issue in analysis, and never their political affiliation. To do otherwise would amount to rationalizing corruption, clothed in political garb, especially when it is obvious that prominent members of the ruling All Progressives Congress (APC) – such as Babachir Lawal, Bala Ngilari, Orji Uzor Kalu, Stella Oduah, late Adebayo Alao-Akala, etc. – are also being tried, and possibly convicted, of corrupt charges. The Human Rights Watch, the United States of America-based group has condemned the EFCC, labeling it an agency that fights corruption with corrupt hands. It is also observed that the political system in Nigeria “rewards” rather than punishes corruption (Obiwuru, 2020). As long as this system is sustained, corruption will continue to thrive in the country.

The Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Commission (ICPC) is a “sister” anti-graft

agency charged with the responsibility of deterring corruption through public education and enforcement in the public and private sectors (Mikail, et al., 2017). Just like the EFCC, the ICPC aims to rid Nigeria of corrupt engagements. In fact, one finds it difficult to demarcate where the duty of one ends and where that of the other begins. In the words of Nmah (2017:121), “ICPC and EFCC have the duties of fighting corruption in Nigeria since their enactments and there was a general acceptance by majority of Nigerians”. Nigerians have mostly been in support of the anti-graft agencies since they came into existence. So far, their presence has been able to instill some level of deterrence among Nigerians.

However, and with turnout of events, some Nigerians alleged that ICPC and EFCC suddenly had become government's tools for vendetta to political oppositions, non-loyalists and perceived enemies. This development derailed the hitherto merits credited to the anti-corruption bodies, and most unfortunately also, such perception has endured to the political dispensation under the administration of President Goodluck Ebele Jonathan (Nmah, 2017:121).

Every government in Nigeria since 1999 has been accused of unleashing EFCC and ICPC on their political opponents, and the current government under President Muhammadu Buhari is not left out of such allegations. Supporting this claim, Obiwuru, (2020:55) asserted that “some people believe that the agency is being used by each government that comes to power, particularly the present Buhari's government, to weaken every opposition”. However, it is worthy of note that the ICPC has handled over 20,000 petitions since its establishment 20 years ago (Abubakar, 2020).

Following the similar aims of the ICPC and the EFCC to tackle corruption in Nigeria, President Buhari's political party, the All Progressive Congress (APC) on 12 May 2015 proposed the merging of the two agencies “to tackle graft in a new way that would be prompt, fearless and decisive” (Badet, et al., 2016:156). Although this would enable the government to reduce the cost of the fight against corruption, it remains a tall order, not the least because of vested interests and the rigid legislative process involved.

6. The United States (US) and the Anticorruption Fights in Nigeria

The United States (US) and Nigeria maintain serious partnerships and collaboration in the efforts against

corruption in order to ensure a transparent, responsible, and accountable government in Nigeria (Young, 2016). This partnership is important because of the United States' professed commitment to fostering development in Nigeria, through the United State Agency for International Development (USAID). Also, the US as the largest foreign investor in the country (US Department of State, 2019) has the moral duty to strive against forces that could suffocate its productivity, prominent among which is corruption, having established that corruption is at the core of most underdeveloped states around the world.

It is worthy of note that Nigeria and the United States' relationship dated back to 1960 when Nigeria gained its independence from Britain. Following a series of military takeovers of civilian rule, the relationship between the countries whittled. However, with the commencement of Nigeria's fourth republic in 1999, the relationship and cooperation between the two countries improved (U.S. Department of State, 2019). The U.S. Senate in September 21, 2000, during a senate hearing through Hon. Russell D. Feingold stated that the US has taken a strong interest in promoting the rule of law in Nigeria, while the Secretary of State designated Nigeria as one of four democracies deserving of special attention in the year 2000. The United States-Nigeria Joint Economic Partnership Committee was established to assist Nigeria's economic reform efforts, and support was rendered to President Obasanjo's unwavering commitment to fighting corruption and the initiatives he has made since assuming office (Senate Hearing 106-873, 2000, para. 27).

Arguably, the year 2000 marked the official start of the discussions by the US over its support for the anti-corruption struggle in Nigeria's fourth republic. The relationship between the countries is better fostered under the US-Nigeria Binational Commission (BNC). This commission creates an avenue for high-level discussions between Nigeria and the U.S. The last one of such discussion was on February 3, 2020, in Washington D.C. (U.S. Department of State, 2021). The BNC meetings focus on important common interests of the countries, such as good governance and anti-corruption; trade and investment; development and food security; and security and forestallment of terrorism (U.S. Department of State, 2021).

The United States through the USAID collaborates with representatives of civil society and media firms in Nigeria to build "their internal management capacity and strengthen their ability to engage with

the government on issues of fiscal accountability, budget monitoring and transparency within extractive industries." (USAID Nigeria, 2020, para. 2). This would go a long way in making them strong forces to reckon with in their advocating for a more transparent government and democratic reform. Supporting this position, the U.S. Department of State (2019), stated that Nigeria is currently getting help from the U.S. government through foreign aid to strengthen democratic institutions, promote good governance, and fight corruption. At the heart of such intervention is the belief that democratic and transparent institutions would repel or, at least, minimize corruption.

Although the US policy in Nigeria since 1999 is focused on security cooperation, economic growth and development, and democracy and governance (Page, 2016), there have not been any serious or sincere direct confrontations of corruption in the country. By not directly confronting corruption, the United States has done little to prevent kleptocrats from weakening Nigeria's political, security, and economic institutions (Page, 2016). In other words, the current approach of the U.S. to corruption in Nigeria has not been able to effectively deter corrupt practices. This is because corruption in Nigeria is yet to be viewed as a potent threat to the USA, rather, it is regarded as secondary because it does not pose a direct threat to the USA's actualization of its policy objectives and interest (Page, 2016).

To support Page's critical view, the US has been consistent in identifying and prosecuting corruptly enriched individuals, particularly suspected of cybercrimes and other forms of transnational crimes. In this category of corrupt Nigerians are Ramon Abbas (*Hushpuppi*), Valentine Iro, Chukwudi Igbokwe, and Obinwanne Okeke (*Invictus Obi*), etc., prosecuted and convicted accordingly. However, a number of Nigerian politically exposed persons who either fled or escaped the country to avoid corruption trial and/or conviction have either been indicted or apprehended in the US or returned home to be prosecuted through bilateral or multilateral collaborations. This includes Senator Andy Uba (indicted), and Mr. Abidemi Rufai (arrested). The point is that the efforts of the US in the former category surpass the latter, ostensibly because the perceived American interest in the former could be directly threatened.

7. Findings

The findings of this study are briefly stated as follows:

Corruption has adversely affected Nigeria's socio-economic and political development, causing further institutional decay and breeding powerful individuals whose corruptly acquired wealth constitutes a serious clog in the wheel of successive administration's intention and action towards fighting corruption. A scenario of "corruption fighting back" and, many times, defeating the system.

In the struggle against corruption in Nigeria, the US has only put to the fore more words and policies, in terms of high-profile discussions against corruption, than actual actions to confront it. Thus, the US has not effectively contributed to the deterrence of "kleptocrats" from weakening Nigeria's political, security, and economic institutions.

Following from the above, the US does not view the anti-corruption struggle in Nigeria as primary, not the least because corruption in Nigeria does not have direct perverse implications on the US. It is rather shown to enrich the US economy through corruptly laundered and siphoned public resources. Instead, the corruption seems to be of benefit as corrupt government officials lavishly spend part of their loot in the US, buying properties, shopping, schooling their children, etc. As such, expecting the US to be more effective in the combat against corruption may remain unrealistic.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Based on the findings, it is apt to conclude that the fight against corruption in Nigeria is predominantly a domestic affair than it is external. Hence, the expectation on another country to be actively involved in curbing it should be lowered. Instead, the Nigerian government at all levels should re-strategize and embrace sincerity in creating a system that discourages misappropriation and embezzlement of public funds. This would mean that the government itself is not complicit, but only handicapped by saboteurs.

From the findings, the recommendations of this study are as follows:

- The many discussions of the U.S. on the corruption in Nigeria should begin to go beyond just policies but actions. This is the only way its efforts and intentions regarding the anti-corruption campaigns in the country can be trusted.
- The actions of the U.S. will begin to be noticeable when it begins to give more importance to the fight against corruption in

Nigeria and not just view it as secondary. This is because no matter the efforts of the U.S. to enhance development in Nigeria through the USAID, it may not bear much fruit as corruption in high and low places will jeopardize these efforts.

- Nigeria should take the front seat in the anti-corruption fight in the country, as corruption in Nigeria is first of all Nigeria's problem. It is highly illogical to expect a country to go against a system that benefits it. As such, whatever efforts the U.S. brings to the table, Nigeria should complement, relying substantially on domestic efforts/mechanisms to curb corruption in its system.

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Rediscovering and Preserving African Identity in the Globalization Process

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Abstract. Globalization is an unavoidable necessary trend facilitating scientific, socio-economic, political and religio-cultural interaction and integration among nations of the world. African nations seem to be the worst affected as it threatens to eliminate most cherished African values sacredness of life, communal life, brotherliness, sense of respect for authority and elders, sense of language and proverbs. No doubt, African nations are struggling to develop along European cultured and tailored conception of development; a type of development that negates or outdates authentic African identities like dressing, language, religion, food, music, occupation communal living, occupation among others. Africa does not need to abandon her ancestry and cultural values to be counted in the global community rather such unique values should project her as a significant member of the community. This does not mean to exclude ourselves (the Africans) from accepting and adopting positive and friendly external influences that aid or accelerate our development and welfare. The paper adopted the descriptive survey approach. This work advocates a liberal conservatism, mental decolonization, and socio-cultural reorientation for Africa through an indigenized education system, policy and curriculum that reflect and promote African values.

Keywords: Rediscovering, Preserving, African Identity and Globalization

1. Introduction

The idea that the world has become a global village is made possible by Globalization. Globalization is an unavoidable trend going on in the world; a process that compels individuals and groups to exchange ideas with others across the globe, crossing different

geographical, ethnic and religio-cultural backgrounds. The force of globalization is no doubt impacting more on the identity of the developing countries of which Nigeria and in fact Africa is currently facing serious identity crisis. The super-power members of the global community with their high power technology and superiority mentality have not only tried to dominate Africa economically, scientifically and technologically but have indirectly threatened to eliminate African cultural values which differentiated Africa from her neighbours, on the face of the earth. It is impossible to remain undaunted by the influence of globalization. It is a very powerful force that is affecting people of every culture and religion. We must however guard those major areas of identifying and distinguishing Africa from the rest of the world which entail Religion, Culture and Ethnicity.

This does not mean that Africa's value system is the same everywhere in Africa but there are major areas of interest common among all Africans which the process of globalization is threatening to extinguish or uproot; such areas as language, dressing, food, religion, music, dancing rhythm, family and relationship among others. We can still reclaim those lost values and guard against further damages to our identity as a people and that is the essence of this paper.

1.1 Understanding African Identity and Globalization

By African identity we mean those characteristics or beliefs which African man or society can be recognized and appreciated not necessary believing that African identity or values mean one and the same thing throughout Africa as such notion is illusory and

a delusion. Globalization has to do with interaction and socialization. Man is a social being and makes up the society. Dukor (2008) sees globalization as the sum total of the values of the people that make up the global village and not the phenomenon of the values of one nation and one civilization, colonizing the whole world. Dukor's views stems from the subjugation experienced by especially third world countries. Globalization is therefore not meant to be an imposition of values on the weaker players in the global community. Globalization is a practical and philosophical concept of economic integration, information and communication highways, justice and fairness for mankind under the aegis of the United Nations and the concept of man as an end in himself. Fisher (2001) views globalization as a process by which nationality becomes increasingly irrelevant in global production. It represents the totality of the inter-relationship among states, non-governmental organizations, individuals, companies and so on that constitute the international system. Global perspective is a view of the larger world and the place of our-society in it. According to Michael (2000), globalization is the accelerating trend that is creating greater access and exposure to opportunities, values and protects environmental destruction. For Sibani (2014), it is the introduction of Western technology for the coordination of the entire planet earth into a village with common communication network and for success in business transaction and solution to the world problem.

1.2 African Identity

Does Africa really have values? This question simply implies if there are values that distinguish Africa from the rest of the world. If there are such distinguishing values, are those values still evident in their original forms in her relationship with others. According to Onyenechehie (2008), Africans identify themselves for cultural rather than geographical or racial reasons as evident among the settlers in the communities of European descent in South Africa. Thus, we are not just discussing Africa by the colour of their skin or geographical settlement but in relation to their cultural values. For Onyenechehie (2008), Africa is characterized by a vastly diverse patchwork of social values, ranging from extreme patriarchy to extreme matriarchy, which is sometimes seen among tribes that are existing side by side. The continent is also constituted of many ethnic groups, with different cultural thought patterns. Ugwuja (2016) reflected those values in terms of sacredness of life, sense of hospitality and philanthropy, sense of community life and brotherliness, sense of good human relations, sense of the sacred and religious inclinations, sense

of time and season, sense of respect for authority and the elders and sense of language and proverbs and the likes. Emphasizing the sense of relationship in Africa, O'Donovan (2000) maintains that people and relationships between people and individuals are much more important in Africa than almost everything else. Relationship is held in higher esteem, than programmes, projects, plans and schedules. It is common in some parts of Africa for a person to accompany a visitor who is leaving for a distance down the road. Sometimes the visitor unconsciously follows the person he visited back to house again before they finally part. The high value placed on relationships in Africa is quite extensive. Africa is interested in communing or cooperate interest. People care for, help and share concern for one another. In African society, respect for humanity spreads beyond the confine of nuclear family. Members of extended family, community or tribe are regarded as brothers whose lives must be preserved and protected. The concept of human value is intrinsically linked with a wide range of brotherhood, which is not necessarily biologically based. The spirit of brotherhood stimulates patriotic disposition of one towards another. Unlike the western individualistic ideal, Africans live for one another. In the expressions of Mbiti (1969), it is based on 'I am because we are and because we are, I am'. The joy and sorrow of one is shared as interdependent whole. Responsibility, kindness, hospitality, diligence, care among others are part of African moral values. Men, women, children and youths have roles to play. Man as a husband, woman as a wife and children have their places, dignities and reciprocal respects. Relationship between individuals respects and recognizes their worth as human beings not because of what they possess, but on the ground that each person is important and has something to offer. There is however the potential for tribalism, ethnicity and prejudice towards others.

Onyelakin (2016) inferred that traditional African societies were filled with evils not only virtues, such as lack of regards for human life and excessive use of power and authority. These manifested in activities such as using human beings for sacrifice to idols, unsatisfied and excess use of positions and kingship among others. It is therefore very dangerous and conical to attempt restore in its totality the whole African values. Falola (2007) warns against the totalitarianism of the past in Africa and its cultures, and be wary of those who present us with totalizing narratives of the past. This means that not all was rosy in the traditional African past. Even in the communal nature of Africa, there was also much

capitalism and individualism, inequality and class distinction.

Cultural values of the people are their reputation. Ajala (2010) asserts that “the Culture of the people is of prime importance to them and the value they place on their culture can never be fully measured in monetary terms” (p. 217). One most sensitive area of African identity is language, arts and crafts, festivals, dishes, clothing, oral traditions among others. Africans are known for their respect for elders. In many African countries, children are exposed to a lot of folktales during moonlight by the elders that inculcate humility, courage and obedience. Youths through social organizations during initiation ceremonies are guided with some norms that help them to live an honest and transparent life.

One cannot separate a people’s identity from her values. Rokeach (1973) sees values as a belief and like all beliefs; values have cognitive, affective and behavioral components. People are identified by those principles that affect their lives, thoughts and activities. Some important categories of values as captured by Shever and Strong (cited by Nmah, 2016) include aesthetic values which is judged by beauty, instrumental values which entail standards, principles or criteria for judging the worth and desirability of a people. For Nmah (2016) identity could be regarded as self realization or self awareness in terms of esteem and reorganization by others. Identity has both biographical and spatial dimensions in that it deals with either what a person or thing is and the place in a universe of interactions and relationship in a universe that is potentially chaotic because of the absence of reliable reference points as to the person’s or things role in that universe, the condition to the society. The spatial aspect of the identity has to do with question of socio-graphic and psychological boundaries. Identity helps to demarcate personal and collective boundaries in order to ensure interpersonal harmony and peaceful co-existence.

The identity of people differentiate one people or thing from the other, and helps for easy recognition, respect and honour or otherwise. Identity can be demeaning or honoring. It can be demeaning if not well guarded. Identity can be abused or corrupted if not well preserved. Uncherished identity can easily be lost.

When we are discussing African identity, we are discussing African personality. We cannot subject Africa to any definition in terms of colour, stature or any other racial standards, except for its geographical location and some socio-cultural dispositions and

peculiarities. Africa is the largest continent in the world after Asia, bounded in the North by the Mediterranean Sea which separates Africa from Europe, in the South by the Atlantic Ocean, in the East by the Indian Ocean and to the North-East by Suez Canal, the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden which separates Africa from Asia. Africa is the most tropical of all the continents in the world.

The notion of the western world which includes Europe was captured by Hegel (1944) that Africa was a historical part of the world which has no movement or development to exhibit. For them, Africa is understood as unhistorical, under developed spirit, still involved in the conditions of mere nature. As far as Hegel was concerned, Africa is irrelevant when it comes to the issue of historical foundations, culture, values, religion and in fact belongs to the sub-human world. Karl Marx (cited by Onyelakin 2016) asserts that historical dialectics does not apply to Africa. All these assumptions are quite unfortunate and seem to replay in the European relationship with Africa right from slavery till the colonization and even in the present globalization process. It therefore behooves the Africans to prove that they have significant histories which are actually relevant in world history. Surely, Africa has identity. Modern Africans are trying to re-assert their identity in the modern world to refute the modern African culture that is characterized by Arab nationalism and the European imperialism.

1.3 Globalization

We attempted some definitions to the term ‘globalization’ earlier in this work. Globalization is not a new trend. The globalization of the 20th and 21st century is only the height or the zenith of what started from the ancient times covering the period of ancient Africa. Globalization is the philosophy of one humanity in a village which implies society globally integrated; the International Monetary Fund (IMF) increasing integration of economies around the world, particularly through trade and financial flows, movement of people (labour) and knowledge (technology) across international borders, thus turning the world into a global village. Dukor (2008) divided the phases of globalization into five:

- Ancient phase which he calls *Animistic Globalization*. This was a period of communicating economically, religiously and culturally within the imaginable and known world or universe. This phase is highly primitive and limited and involved gazing the sky and the stars.

- Empires and slavery: This period is very critical to Africa identity collapse. It was when most of the Africans were sold into Europe to work in farms. Such globalization served the interest of the western slave owners who exploited Africa and usurped her of her religion and culture, manpower and developmental potentials.
- Colonization which involves partitioning Africa. At this phase, Africans were enslaved and exploited in their own homes. The approach was through education and religion, dubbed Civilization Mission. Within this period, Africa got integrated with the world but in a handicapped and marginalized manner.
- Importation and inflow of Western technology and science into Africa and other parts of the world. This equally is a kind of enslavement of Africa to western culture because Africans seemed to have nothing to contribute to world scientific heritage. Our resources were used in developing Europe. This was exactly what Walter Rodney decried in his book *How Europe Underdeveloped Africa*.
- United Nations: This is the current and most recent phase of globalization. This phase is both social and economic integration of people of the world through information, communication, science and human rights.

2. African Identity Crisis in the Globalization Process

Okoye (2010) opined that the advancement which globalization carries orchestrates the other side of man which was continually though implicitly reflected in the writing of earlier intellectuals- man as a creator and inquirer. Man's constant quest for self actualization meant so much to him that he broke loose from the rigid beliefs and focused on the best way to understand himself and answer some questions that would give him a reason for his life. These reasons according to Garvey (cited by Okoye 2010) he found the answers in his scientific discoveries. His absolved self and the reconciliation of himself with other things around which with him, inhabits the natural world. Globalization seeks to espouse a particular kind of humanism, one which aims at making the world a better place for all. It emphasizes equal opportunities, equal right and privileges. Despite all that, the reality is that globalization still peddles cultural values or different shades as well. Asiegbo (2010) points out that no matter how promising technology is, it still harbours

ideologies peculiar to a certain society that adopts it. Many forces of change have affected African identity in various means. Chukwuokolo (2010) maintains that globalization has an irresistible force that even when one wants to escape from it, its nature seems inescapable with the result that those who pretend to escape it are still enjoying its fruits. Humanity is sustained through relationship with the external world of material and social existence. Through these relationships we experience value, worth, a sense of belonging and a developing awareness of our own identity. Our experience of life itself, the processes, experiences and places which we go through and the way life deals us are also part of what nourishes and sustains us. All these affect not only social lives but also our mentality in relation to our value system.

The demerits of globalization are evident in the alarming rate of inequality in the globe and erosion of cultural identities, and African uniqueness and no control of information. Ideas, artifacts, internet, transportation and communication services enhance globalization. Languages have come to serve as one of the mechanisms of integration and dependence. The French and English language that are so widely used in Africa is more for the purpose of African communicating with Europeans rather than African to African. These two languages have much influence on African languages as both became the official languages of the subjects of the colonial masters, their languages had to be learned and adopted as the *lingua franca* of many African countries through trade, missionary activities and colonialism. Lamenting the case of the Igbo people of Nigeria, Chukwu (2009) asserts that "as the Igbo tribes cherishes novelties and unwaveringly go after them when opportunity is offered, it is the tribe worst hit by the neglect of its languages" (p.100).

The contacts of the African with Europe via the notorious slave trade, the remedial colonialism resulting to imperialism, and the post colonialism greased by globalization portrayed the European powers as the superior players in the global community while Africa forms the conquered and inferior specie. The external influence in Africa was spearheaded by slave trade which greatly left indelible imprint of inferiority complex in the psyche of the Africans. Up till date, the European forces have always shown that Africa should look up to them to learn civilization. Nweke and Nwoye (2016) assert that "sequel to the inferiority complex, the African has almost thrown away everything African, including African values and swallowed everything Western lock, stock and barrel" (p.104). For Oguejiofor (2001), the attempt to create the new

Africa in a new outfit of a modern culture and civilization implied the introduction of western education. The modern education the first Africans received was completely Euro-based. To be a student of history meant to study European history while to study geography was to study the geography of Europe and North America. Language was no other than English, French, Spanish and Portuguese. The new Africa that emerged as the end product of acculturation was thus tailor-made not only to neglect but also to despise his own culture. The Africans swallowed western indoctrination without reserve. The standard of modern learning became European and mostly of foreign culture which became synonymous with *Superiority*. According to Oguejiofor (2001), “fluency in the languages of the colonizers became a respectable mark for learning, and the acquisition of such languages was accompanied by the forgetfulness of one’s own native language” (p.102). Africa according to Kwame (2009), is the most linguistically and ethnically diverse of the entire world’s continents. These different cultural values constitute their strength and great unifying factor. Western adventurers made frantic efforts to marginalize the African cultural heritage. The impression was that the development of the colonized people must involve a total denial of their history, a rejection of their cultural heritage and the adoption of western cultural values and practices. Colonization went a long way in reshaping the African culture and perception of the people. Majority of her people now live a borrowed and artificial life, making it difficult for Africa to independently articulate or chart their own history, culture and identity. Maduagwu (1999) opines that western colonial education was the major instruments of this cultural disorientation and disintegration of the African countries.

Comparing the African traditional education and the western education reveal that the African education hinges on morality and communal living, character formation, and respect for one another. The traditional education is both formal and informal and promotes unity and harmony where the individuals of the community experience life as a unit within the organic whole. Everybody is virtually a farmer no matter his profession. The western education encourages the total imposition of foreign cultural values at the expense of the local African norms and values. Such education was designed to alienate the African from his culture. Western education is seen as the process of emancipation from permissiveness and a vehicle for enlightenment and white collar job. For Kwame (2009), the neglect of traditional educational values has led to the collapse of Agricultural

production as an average educated African sees farm work as infradig and demeaning. The Agricultural products from the rural areas are no longer enough for feeding the ever growing population. Africans were renowned Farmers, Hunters, Fishermen, Goldsmiths, Sculptors, Traders, Potters, great designers of artifacts and many others.

Akindele (2002) did not hesitate to allude to globalization as a sort of cultural imperialism which will seek to enslave the African mind, leaving in its wake a cultureless or culturally disoriented people. Globalization has many cultural attendants and attachments that exert great influence on the life of peoples everywhere to which Africa is the major victim. Eberinwa and Ewuim (2010) insist that globalization goes with cultural domination. African countries are rapidly losing their cultural identity and their ability to interact with other cultures on equal and autonomous basis. Internet connectivity is the bait for usurping Africa her cultural values. Many have expressed fear that nations like Nigeria whose contributions to the internet pool is low may lose their identity as they are fond of patronizing the internet more than other nations in Africa because of her larger population. No doubt, globalization makes all other cultures local and inferior while the western culture becomes the model. This implies that the western culture has become the yardstick for measuring other cultures’ relevance.

In the aspect of trade, Africans exalt foreign made products above anything made in Africa. The language ‘Igbo made’, ‘Aba made’ are derogatory names of inferiority used for home made products. Africa has lost the mark of quality ranging from the food we eat to what we wear; foreign rice, Indomie, foreign shoe and clothes receive greater patronage. We seem to have lost the sense of sound judgment; Africa paraded the original of whatever product they deal on: Gold, Animal Skins, Elephant Tusks, Cream-Herbs, Garri and fofofo from cassava, traditional medicine, honey, and wine among others. It is very unfortunate that in the aspect of trade which connects virtually the whole world, the whole import and export relationship between Africa and its trading partners is one of unequal exchange and exploitations. A paraphrased assertion of Achebe (2008) shows that, a lot of damages have been done to African identity, but Africans can still gather their pieces. Turning and turning in the widening globalization process where information, communication, technology and media technology is breaking ethnic barriers and eroding national identities, a homogeneous identity is created, the falcon cannot hear the falconer again, things fall

apart; the centre can no longer hold. The old Africa is crumbling and the new Africa is being constructed.

3. Preserving African Identity in the Globalization Process

Nationalism can be seen as the early attempt to preserve African identity. The idea of nationalism developed in the late 19th century protest against Europeans condemnation of, and systematic attempts to destroy African ways. It rejects the imposition of alien political, economic, religious and cultural forms, values and structures on Africans and on African institutions and asserts the right to introduce indigenous form and structure based on the understanding and genius of the indigenous people. However, as expressed by Davidson (1992) the activities of the 1950s plunged into their chosen road of nationalism which they felt was the only available guaranteed route to progress. They accepted building nation states on the British and French model as they were strongly advised was the only useful alternative. This post colonial nation state means acceptance of the legacy of the colonial partition, and of the moral and political practice of colonial rule in its institutional dimensions which makes Africa half slaves and half free.

We need mental decolonization against imposition of European mentality. Africa is rich in diverse cultures and traditions and have over the years served as tourist attractions to the advanced countries of the world. African nationalism is meant to be an instrument for the unification of Africa and not for dividing Africa. Africa has the history of being the cradle of world civilization before the slave trade damaged the achievements of the past. Africa should be encouraged that the empires that reigned in the past are no longer reigning. Such empires as the early Roman Empire. Britain reigned at the expense of Africa, using the dividends from exploiting Africa to develop America. Today America is greatly using her influence to dominate the other key players in the global community, including her earlier boss and colonizer, the Great Britain. The computer and internet languages are more of America. We can today battle with what scholars refer to as '*Englishes*' a word used to show the battle of supremacy between the usage of British original English and the other parts of the world that use English language of which America is more noticeable. China's influence is rapidly rising in global influence. Africa can still rise. According to Legun (1966), in 1881 Blyden, at the opening of the Liberian College, warned against the danger of Africans losing their traditions and of becoming assimilated. The African must advance by

methods of his own to show that she is able to be alone, to carve her own way. Although African nationalism was born out of the struggle against colonization, in Africa nationalism was not only a force with negative purposes of destroying colonialism but at the early stage, it developed positive aims to create strong modern societies capable of transforming the lives of the people economically, educationally and socially, to enable them to take their place as equals in the world community. It developed as modernizing force which belongs as much to the twentieth century age of western technology and science as to the continent's cultural traditions. This gives it a dual aim as described by Legun (1966) "to leap the centuries and to adapt African societies to modern needs, while at the same time promoting a cultural regeneration of African traditions and values" (p.536). To be recognized as a nation is not that people should lose their ethnic, religious or linguistic identities. As it applies to Nigeria, men can still be Igbos, Hausas, Yorubas, Efik, Ibibio, Ijaws and Tivs but must feel themselves to be part of a political society whose symbols- the flag, the head of state, the anthem and the constitution transcend those of the tribal regional society that make up the nation state.

The first step to rediscovering African identity is rebuilding the confidence of African man against inferiority complex. There is the need for mental decolonization. Though we say we are independent which implies freedom from colonialism but the truth is that Africa needs to be free from mental corruption. No single nation can be literally totally independent but interdependent at various degrees. Idowu (1965) really worked hard to liberate the Nigerian Church from perpetual religious slavery. Idowu (1965) observes that inspite of the political independence of Nigeria, the way things are done in Europe and America still forms the norm and standard by which the life of the Church is ordered. The Church in Nigeria will be forever indebted to Europe and America, and grateful for the faithful services of their missionaries. The Church in Nigeria should struggle and suffer in order to live than continue to receive any kind of help which is likely to continue to fetter, paralyze, or throttle her, and choke life out of her. The African Independent Churches are on their way to realizing real African identity but is still grossly influenced by European and America Pentecostalism. The influence is simply too strong on most churches in Africa. This predicament is because of the early European incursion into Africa with her civilizing mission that arrived in Nigeria, dressed up in European garb. Inferiority complex is the issue of the mind. Europeans took time to work on the minds

of Africans and kept them where they are today. To counter the status quo, the Africans should rework on their mind.

Noting that western colonial education was the major instrument of this mental colonization and cultural disorientation of the African countries, it is important that African educational systems be indigenized. There should be attitudinal change through restructuring of educational system of African countries. Curriculum should reflect and inculcate African values and philosophy from primary to tertiary institutions. As both private and government universities are multiplying in Africa, the body in charge of approving the establishment of higher institutions should make sure there is a well equipped Department of African Studies, irrespective of the founders' interest. Apart from that, every tertiary institution in Africa should make it compulsory that courses on African history and philosophy are offered by every student irrespective of the course of study starting from the first year to the last year in the university. History of countries in Africa should be taught as well as the history of Africa as a continent to help pupils and students to be conscious of African value, pride and experience. The early nationalists were inspired to fight for freedom because they were exposed to history books, and classics on French and American Revolution. They were also exposed to the Christian scriptures which espouses human freedom. Those who head education ministries in African countries should be true nationalists' not political and materialistic bigots.

Another area to reconstruct African identity is the pool of scientific and technological evolution. The domination of the world by western European powers over the past centuries and even today is the result of their superiority in science and technology. The instruments of physical domination like guns, warships, aircrafts, bombs, medicine, computer, internet among others are obviously products of superior science and technology. According to Obi (1970) "any country which wants to survive must introduce science and technology into her territory" (p. 70). While advocating African based education, it should be borne in mind that to cope with the higher technology, and be relevant in our quest for African identity, we must learn the language of accessing those higher technologies. By implication, Africa must turn the knowledge of western language to her advantage. There should be combination of African traditional education and that of western education approaches. For instance, the languages in which the secret of science and technology are recorded are English, German, French, and Russian. It is at this point that it is impossible to develop African

potentials independent of more advanced countries in terms of knowledge and equipment (tools) otherwise the secrets of accessing the technological development will be impossible. The process of doing this will bring about a change in culture and cultural outwork. There is already a marriage between Africa and Europe which total divorce is not attainable. Liberal Conservatism is very crucial in this globalization era. Being open to positive influences while protecting those positive values that can unite, distinguish and strengthen our existence as a people; such values must be projected with pride and confidence. Let other nations see many values to borrow from Africa. Obi (1970) persist that Nigeria must concentrate all her present human and material resources on the scientific and technological education. This means the introduction of science and technology into her schools and colleges and inter alia, the practical aspects of constructing toys and games like China to impart the scientific technological outlook from the elementary school which is the cradle of official education. Okot (1952), frankly lamented that "no black country has ever made a breakthrough to modernity. As black peoples, we have no country to be proud of in terms of its great inventions and discoveries, its technical equipment and political power. No black country has successfully developed or adopted the technology of industrial civilization to assure its citizens of a high standard of living" (p.10). It is quite unfortunate that close to seven decades this assertion was made, the situation has not significantly improved. We are still struggling to manufacture cars under INNOSON Company at Nnewi in Anambra State of Nigeria. The defunct ANAMMCO motor company at Emene-Enugu existed to assemble western manufactured Peugeot car parts. Emeagwali's Computer invention has not re-written Africa's technological and scientific backwardness. Dangote's industrial revolution depend on Western Equipment for all its productions just as Innoson. Africa is really far but can still arrive sooner than expected when their resolve to be proactive and original, rejecting Western sycophancy and selfish interest. According to Obi (1970), "unless our race contributes to science and technology, the present advanced Races will never accept us as their equal. Any fool can be a diplomat and babble in the United Nations but it requires some innate superiority to invent a thermionic value" (p.72). Many Africans have distinguished themselves technologically and scientifically in America and Europe and can still develop their full capacity. We need an improved and diversified *Biafran Technology (1967-1970)*. Language is the basis of cultural identity. If the language is lost, the culture is also in danger of being

lost. Africa must not allow any language either French or English to subjugate or oppress her language. Language has a major role to play in the nation's growth and development. Using indigenous language to communicate and teach conveys the message clearer and quicker too. Science, technology and religion can be taught with indigenous language.

The African cultural morality has been eroded due to western influence generated by slave trade, advanced by colonialism and perpetuated by globalization. The sanctity of moral and religious laws is desecrated without fears as punishment is not instant but has to undergo civil processes of the police and the court. On the issue of clothing, one sees the multiplicity of costumes and attires which are majorly European. Most offices in Africa cannot tolerate African attires during office hours. The banks, public services, the judiciary and education institutions amongst others can only approve those who are dressed in western style. Africa identity is embedded in her culture. Ajalla (2010) points out that there are certain positions you cannot occupy without wearing suites, unless one wears suites, one cannot be a lawyer. To be a bank official, suite is inevitable dressing code. For you to wed in churches, the man must wear suite and the woman in white wedding gown, for you to matriculate or convocate in the university, you must be dressed in suites, western styles academic gown, cap and hood. Government and universities must understand that those Euro-inspired copying will continue to demean our identity as Africans while it arrogates power to already domineering European and American influence. The ongoing globalization is colonization in disguise.

Africa needs technological, cultural, religious independence to retain her identity in the global community. Much has been done and much needs to be done to be proudly Africans anywhere in the world. We cannot totally absolve ourselves from global influence but we can still project our identity in such a confident manner that it cannot be disdained in the midst of other cultures in the world. The awareness and consciousness is already rising as we have seen many Europeans feel so much honored to be decorated with African titles and names in African costumes; wearing our clothes, dancing our music and trying to speak our language. They need to enjoy our scientific discovers even as they have enjoyed our stolen artifacts.

4. Conclusion

Human society is dynamic. Man has natural instincts which are further influenced by relationship in the

course of socializing with others. Humanism and rationalism based on culture of each ethnic group are being corrupted and eclipsed by external influences. One major external influence in Africa is Europe and its culture and brand of humanism. Man continues to lose his identity to more civilized cultures. As much as we must acknowledge our aspects of independence to adjust into global society, we must be mindful not to lose our particular identity to global influence. The same sex marriage is gaining global approval but this negates our cultural values. We cannot isolate ourselves from the global transformation as "those living things which cannot or do not adjust themselves to their environment get eliminated from the class of living things sooner or later". Our global and particular environmental values must be respected. Africans are known as their brothers' keeper. The communal and protective outlook of our culture makes us unique as Africans. We must not lose the spirit of good human relation, hardwork, value for family ties, moral values inspired by our religious inclination, communal living, the sanctity and sacredness of human life, and the brotherly care for one another. Everything west is best mentality must be killed through proper education, modeling the old formal and informal virtues of traditional education from the immediate family circle. Western education should serve our developmental interest. Our national constitutions should reflect and represent our social, economic, political and religious structures and values. Our language must be preserved, our dressing must be respected, and our moral value and intelligence must count. Our cherished foods and local medicine must count. We must develop along our cultural heritage. Globalization is not a curse but an opportunity to market our value and assimilate other cultures not inimical to our Africanness.

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Studies in Intra-Africa Relations: Nigeria-South Africa Cooperation (1994-2015)

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Abstract. Nigeria and South Africa are big hegemony in Africa. In spite of their current rivalry on the international arena, especially for a permanent seat in the United Nations Security Council, there is more that brings the two countries together than separates them. Nigeria's anti-apartheid policy only lasted as long as the apartheid regime in South Africa. Upon the abandonment of the racist regime in South Africa, Nigeria was more than willing to pursue warm relations with the South African government. With sufficient pressure mounted on South Africa and the rest of the International Community, the apartheid regime collapsed in South Africa in 1994. Nigeria, like other countries, then began a policy of political and economic engagements with South Africa from 1994 onwards. In spite of the fact that there are regional economic blocs in Africa, economic cooperation among African countries has not always been easy. One reason that may account for the situation is that economic factors are often linked to the political, socio-cultural and military aspects of nation building. This study investigated the origins and nature of their political, economic and socio-cultural relationship to ascertain whether this can be a template for economic cooperation among African countries. This study made use of secondary sources of data such as books, journals, articles, previous related research works from libraries and Internet sources. This study adopted a qualitative approach. Therefore, deductive analysis method was employed. This research has found that despite the fact that the Nigeria-South Africa cooperation is less than perfect as it has its many shortcomings; it is still an acceptable template for intra-Africa co-operation.

Keywords: Bi-lateral relations, Competition, Co-operation, Hegemony.

1. Introduction

With a democratic and majority rule in place in South Africa in 1994, South Africa quickly switched over from the pariah status in the International Community to a position of being wooed by many countries politically and in terms of business. In the wake of democratic rule in South Africa, Nigeria was pre-occupied with domestic leadership squabbles of her own which manifested itself in gross domestic human rights abuse perpetrated by Abacha's military regime. A good example is the unlawful execution of Ken Saro Wiwa and the Ogoni eight (8) on November 10, 1995. This change in the turn of events in Nigeria put her in the international black book and earned her South Africa's prior bad reputation. Thus, the warm relations which Nigeria had with South Africa was short-lived as the latter wanted nothing to do with Nigeria, because of her bad reputation at the time. With the restoration of democracy in Nigeria, however, Nigeria and South Africa enjoyed long years of sound political, economic, socio-cultural and military relations.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

In spite of the fact that there are regional economic blocs in Africa, economic cooperation among African countries has not always been easy. One reason that may account for the situation is that economic factors are often linked to the political, socio-cultural and military aspects of nation building. Nigeria and South Africa are regional powers in Africa and are both instrumental to the growth and development of the continent. It is expected that a relationship of co-operation should exist between them. Nigeria and South Africa are two African powers and are undoubtedly the largest economies in Africa. There is no gainsaying the fact that a strategic relationship between the two is not only beneficial but crucial to

the growth and development of Africa. This study investigated the origins and nature of their political, economic and socio-cultural relationship to ascertain whether this can be a template for economic cooperation among African countries.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

The main objective of this work is to investigate the origin and trends in Nigeria-South Africa relations. Therefore, the specific objectives are to examine the nature of their political, economic, socio-cultural and military relations.

1.3 Research Methodology

This section is concerned with providing information on chosen research methods and techniques for this study. This study made use of secondary sources of data such as books, journals, articles, previous related research works from libraries and Internet sources which were employed analytically with an unbiased mind to ensure the objectivity of this study. This study adopted a qualitative approach. Therefore, deductive analysis was employed in this study.

2. Political Relations

Nigeria's policy towards Pretoria took a drastic turn with the termination of apartheid regime and its replacement with black majority rule in May 1994. The total defeat of apartheid regime in South Africa meant that Nigeria had recorded a huge success in the implementation of her post-independence foreign policy goals, especially as it concerned Africa. The expiration of apartheid and its replacement with black majority rule in South Africa afforded Nigeria the opportunity to abort her anti-apartheid policy and cement genial relations with South Africa. To this effect, a consular office was established in Johannesburg, South Africa, and subsequently, an embassy in Pretoria. However, this friendship of two African giants was soon short-lived. The Nigerian military government of Gen. Sani Abacha had an ugly record of flagrant disrespect for human rights. The human right crimes heightened as the Ogoni crisis of 1995 culminated into the execution of Ken Saro Wiwa and eight others on the eve of the Commonwealth Summit in Auckland, New Zealand. The South African government under President Nelson Mandela did not mince words in expressing its utter disappointment in the blossoming human right ills in Nigeria.

The international community at large expressed great displeasure towards the Abacha government and soon

perceived and related with Nigeria as a pariah state. The Nigerian delegates to the 1995 Commonwealth Summit were declared persona-non-grata and Nigeria was suspended altogether from the Commonwealth at the request of President Mandela of South Africa. Thus, Nigeria and South Africa resumed cold and retracted relations with Nigeria replacing South Africa as the pariah state, and South Africa replacing Nigeria as the modern epitome of democracy in Africa. However, South Africa's involvement in Nigeria's political dilemma started before her influence in the suspension of Nigeria from the Commonwealth. The South African leader, Nelson Mandela had been greatly involved in the restoration of political sanity and respect for human rights in Nigeria since his resumption to office.

South Africa, based on her newly formulated foreign policy objectives in accordance with her equally new democratic government, assumed the role of a 'moral prefect', advancing democracy and respect for human rights. Nigeria which at the time had experienced successive military regimes perceived South Africa's 'sudden' campaign for democracy and human rights as a means to set up a competition which Nigeria claimed she was not interested in. Abacha's human rights crimes could not have come at a worse time because of the already existing mistrust between Nigeria and South Africa. The sour relations with Nigeria only exacerbated as General Sani Abacha refused to hand off the reins of power and continued to disregard the campaigns of South Africa and the displeasure of the international community towards his regime. He ordered the arrest and detainment of Chief M.K.O. Abiola, the presidential candidate that was unanimously validated by the Nigerian electorates to have won the June 12 1993 presidential election. President Nelson Mandela, who at this time had become an international icon because of his liberation feats in South Africa during the apartheid era, visited Nigeria to plead with Abacha for the release of M.K.O. Abiola but to no avail. Mandela also sent Archbishop Desmond Tutu, a famous South African Nobel Peace Prize laureate to Abuja in April 1995 to follow-up on his plea visit; this still did not yield the desired result.

While the Nigerian government did not take cognizance of Mandela's visit and diplomatic efforts, regarding his visit as a mere solidarity visit, Mandela, as a result of his international status, charisma and leadership position in South Africa, continued to face pressures to intervene in the Nigerian political dilemma. Umezurike and Lucky point out that Banjo identified three important 'pressure groups' that pressurized President Mandela: President Bill

Clinton's administration in the United States of America, African leaders, and a combination of Abiola's family members and supporters. Similarly, in July 1995, Mandela sent his vice-president, Thabo Mbeki to Nigeria to negotiate the release of a group of purported coup plotters who were suspects in a failed attempt to overthrow Abacha's regime and were arrested and detained. Notable among those arrested were general Olusegun Obasanjo and major General Shehu Musa Yar'Adua. Mandela had anticipated that his vice, Mbeki, a seasoned diplomat and tactful negotiator with a wealth of mediatory and negotiating experience, would be able to persuade Abacha to expedite the release of his detainees. Mandela's hope however, did not materialize as Abacha made no commitment to grant the wish of the South African leadership.

At the 1995 Auckland Commonwealth Summit, Mandela, under the impression that he had Abacha's word for pardon of Ken Saro Wiwa and eight others (Ogoni nine), assured the Commonwealth leaders that Abacha had reneged on his resolve to execute the Ogoni nine. Mandela's high hopes were crushed when news of the sudden hanging of the Ogoni nine reached him. The news infuriated him because he relied on his charisma and far-reaching influence to dissuade Abacha from killing the Ogoni nine. He therefore called for the expulsion of Nigeria from the Commonwealth. With this turn of events, the tables had turned between Nigeria and South Africa as Nigeria, which once orchestrated the expulsion of South Africa from the Commonwealth, now received a taste of her own medicine.

Apart from being the brain behind Nigeria's expulsion from the Commonwealth, South Africa launched other diplomatic offensives against the Abacha regime. In the same year, South Africa withdrew Nigeria's invite to the four-nation tournament organized by South Africa. South Africa (Mandela) went further to call for a unanimous action against Nigeria at the SADC Summit in December 1995. He brought forward charges against Nigeria of human rights abuse and illegal killing. Abacha retaliated by preventing the Super Eagles of Nigeria from defending the gold medal they won from the African Cup of Nations in South Africa in 1996. The Nigerian football team had won this medal earlier in 1994 in Tunis. As diplomatic offensives between Nigeria and South Africa heightened, Nigeria refused to attend the 1996 CAF competition in South Africa.

The sudden death of Sani Abacha led to a turn of events in Nigeria-South Africa relations. General Abdulsalami Abubakar succeeded Abacha and upon

his succession, started making efforts to sweeten the sour relationship between Nigeria and South Africa. Thabo Mbeki paid another visit to Nigeria to persuade the new leader to expedite the release of the political prisoners, provide a suitable environment for the return of exiles, uphold human rights and protect the freedom of the press. In addition to Abubakar returning the visit in August 1998, he invited Mandela to the ECOWAS Summit which was held in Abuja, Nigeria. Abubakar's military regime handed political power over to a democratically elected President; Obasanjo on 29 May, 1999. Obasanjo's first diplomatic visit upon his resumption to office was to South Africa to attend the inauguration of Thabo Mbeki as the newly elected South African President in June 1998. The duality of Mbeki and Obasanjo as democratic Presidents in South Africa and Nigeria respectively, went a long way to re-shape the abrasive relationship between both countries. The rest of the decade saw series of co-operations and bilateral relations between Nigeria and South Africa.

While Mandela inherited a country wallowing in numerous socio-economic problems and was pre-occupied with solving those problems in the early post-apartheid years, Mbeki busied himself with improving South Africa's influence at the regional and global levels through her foreign policy. After the racist system that spanned over four decades came to a halt in 1994, re-construction and rehabilitation efforts were more than necessary and the buck stopped at the new leadership's table to build a strong democratic foundation and economy for the country. The immediate post-apartheid South Africa was plagued with challenges such as "democratic consolidation, socio-economic disparity, rampaging effects of HIV/AIDS, land-based issues, gender-based divisions, and deep racial cleavages".

The state of affairs of immediate post-apartheid South Africa necessitated the focus of Mandela on internal reforms and more focus on South Africa rather than Africa and the rest of the world. Thabo Mbeki's leadership activities were a sharp contrast from those of Mandela. While Mandela was pre-occupied with internal reforms, promoting the influence of South Africa in Africa and the world at large was on the front burner for Mbeki's administration. As Chidozie et al put it, "...following Thabo Mbeki's coming in 1999 as the successor to Nelson Mandela; he chose instead to actively and dominantly stamp South Africa's foreign policy on a regional and global stage. With dexterous diplomatic relations with Obasanjo (Nigeria) and Wade (Senegal), Mbeki kick-started the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) and ultimately

led to the modification of the Organization of Africa's Unity (OAU) to African Union (AU) in 2002.

Mbeki maximized the opportunity of South Africa's chairmanship of the Non-Aligned Movement in 2000 to mount pressure on Nigeria and Algeria who were hosting the G77 Summit and the OAU respectively, to support the Millennium Partnership for Africa's Recovery Programme (MAP). President Wade later joined the movement with the fusion of his OMEGA Plan (a program which was majorly concerned with projects on infrastructure and education) with MAP in May 2001, and the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA) Compact for African Recovery. The New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) was formed in 2001 and was due to the efforts of four heads of states: Thabo Mbeki of South Africa, Olusegun Obasanjo of Nigeria, Abdelaziz Bouteflika of Algeria and Abdoulaye Wade of Senegal. The formation of NEPAD was necessitated by the escalating poverty level in Africa, Africa's debt accumulation, exacerbated economy etc. The primary objective of NEPAD according to Alo "is to eradicate poverty in Africa, to place African countries both individually and collectively on a path of sustainable growth and development, and ensure Africa's integration and halt the marginalization of the continent in the global economy". The duality of Mbeki and Obasanjo indeed brought in a new dawn in African politics as evident in their promotion of democracy, as well as peacemaking and peacekeeping efforts all over Africa. Landsberg summarizes the regional accomplishments of Mbeki and Obasanjo:

In July 2000, at the annual G8 meeting, Obasanjo and Mbeki, together with Algeria's Bouteflika...made a formal case to G8 leaders...for Africa's debt relief and forgiveness, and for a deal around information technology capacities for the continent. In 2001, Obasanjo and Mbeki together with other African counterparts...stressed the importance of a new partnership with the rich North. In 2002, both leaders engaged the G8 summit...to craft a G8 Africa Action Plan...At the G8 summit in Sea Island in the US in 2004, both leaders again received a pledge from G8 leaders to fund an African peacekeeping standby force to be deployed by 2010, with a strong emphasis also placed on funding HIV/AIDS programmes in Africa.

However, there came a diplomatic reversal with the end of Obasanjo and Mbeki's administrations. Although Obasanjo's successors Alhaji Umaru Yar'Adua and Goodluck Jonathan visited South Africa shortly after they assumed leadership of Nigeria in 2008 and 2013 respectively, relations between Nigeria and South Africa never remained the same.

3. Economic Relations

Since the end of the age of military despotism and restoration of democratic rule in Nigeria, Nigeria and South Africa have shared cordial bilateral economic relations. South Africa has since been one of the highest investors in the economy of Nigeria especially in areas such as telecommunication, engineering, banking, retail, hospitality, property development, construction, terrorism among others. In Egbeulem's words, "in terms of technology and infrastructure, South Africa has an edge over Nigeria, while Nigeria has an advantage of large market potentials for investments over South Africa". This explains why there are numerous South African companies with enormous investments in Nigeria. In addition, Nigerians can be found in South Africa as businessmen, employers of labour, employees, students, expatriates etc. and vice versa. South African agricultural exports to Nigeria include tobacco, beverages, sugar, dairy and milling products while Nigeria exports goods such as cocoa, food industry residue and waste to South Africa.

In October 1999, Nigeria and South Africa appended their signatures to a document that established a joint Bi-National Commission aimed at establishing and deepening economic relations between both countries. In Akinboye's words, the Bi-National Commission "covers a whole gamut of economic spectrum including agriculture, commerce, energy, mining and solid minerals, labour and telecommunications. Its overall objective is to actualize strategic and mutually beneficial relations between South Africa and Nigeria". The Commission recorded some achievements in that the bi-lateral agreement cemented economic relations between both countries. For example, Nigeria continues to play host to many South African companies who in turn invest enormously in her economy. Table 1 shows some South African companies that have gained foothold in the Nigerian economy.

Table 1: Some South African Companies operating in Nigeria

S/N	Company	Sector
1.	MTN	Telecommunications
2.	Shoprite	Retail and Marketing
3.	Dstv/Multichoice	Media and Entertainment
4.	Standard Chartered Bank (Stanbic IBTC Bank)	Banking
5.	Protea Hotel	Tourism and Leisure
6.	SAC Oil	Oil and Gas
7.	South African Airways	Tourism
8.	Entech	Construction
9.	Umgeni Water	Beverages
10.	Rand Merchant Bank	Banking
11.	Nandos	Fast Food
12.	Steers	Fast Food
13.	South African Breweries	Beverages
14.	Wichertech	Construction
15.	LTA Construction	Construction
16.	Sasol	Oil and Gas
17.	Southern Sun	Tourism and Leisure
18.	PEP Retail Store	Retail
19.	Nu Metro	Media
20.	Broll Property Group	Real Estate
21.	Massmart	Retail and Marketing
22.	South African Oil Company	Oil and Gas

Sources: A. Adebajo, *Prophets of African Renaissance: Nigeria and South Africa as Regional Hegemons*, Ikeja: Nigerian Institute of International Affairs, 2006.

D. Games Nigeria-South Africa Baseline Study, www.africaatwork.co.za, 2013.

I. S. Zabadi & F.C. Onuoha, "Nigeria and South Africa: Competition or Cooperation" in T.A. Imobighe & W.O. Alli (Eds.) *Perspectives on Nigeria's National Politics and External Relations in Honour of Professor A. Bolaji Akinyemi*, (Ibadan: University Press Limited, 2012)

For example, South African Oil Company (SAOL) and Chevron Nigeria invested US\$500 million in gas project in Nigeria, MTN was an important part of the bidding process for Nigeria's GSM license, ESKON liaised with NEPA to improve the efficiency of power in Nigeria. One of the cardinal objectives of the Bi-national Commission was to improve relations between Nigeria and South Africa. Before 1999, commercial relations between both countries was not substantial, in 1994, South Africa exported goods that amounted to US\$8.1 million to Nigeria and imported goods worth US\$3.1 million from Nigeria (Egbeulem, 2013). The 8th session of the Nigeria-South Africa Bi-National Commission was held between 22nd and 23rd May 2012 in Cape Town, South Africa, shortly after the resolution of the yellow card diplomatic row. The objectives of the Nigeria-South Africa Bi-national Commission as summarized by Egbeulem are to:

- provide a framework for collaborative and cooperative efforts in the common endeavor to bring Africa into the mainstream of global political, social and economic developments;
- provide the basis for the governments and private sectors of both countries to consult

each other on their respective economies and investment climates with a view to promoting trade and industry;

- improve bilateral relations between the two countries in the field of technology, education, health, culture, youth and sports;
- utilize the generous endowments of both countries in human and natural resources to maximize socio-economic development, through economies of scale, global competitiveness and specialization based on comparative advantage;
- to establish the mechanisms for putting benefits of economic cooperation to the service of peace, stability, social integration and economic development in other parts of the continent."

Trade relations between Nigeria and South Africa continued to improve over the years such that by 2005 South Africa was exporting goods to the value of R3.4 billion to Nigeria and importing R4.2 billion worth of commodities from Nigeria. The table below expresses the volume of trade between Nigeria and South Africa within the context of the bi-lateral trade framework.

Table 2: Nigeria- South Africa Trade Volumes between 1994 and 2015 (In Rand)

Year	South Africa's Exports to Nigeria	Nigeria's Exports to South Africa
1994	64.3m	24.8m
1995	186.2m	27.1m
1996	182.9m	38.1m
1997	202.6m	837.8m
1998	290.9m	439.3m
1999	514m	1.23bn
2000	709m	1.26bn
2001	1.6bn	1.6bn
2002	2.7bn	3.6bn
2004	2.9bn	5.1bn
2006	3.85bn	9.28bn
2007	4.62bn	12.45bn
2008	7.11bn	15.74bn
2009	5.41bn	15.60bn
2010	4.38bn	16.08bn
2011	3.85bn	9.28bn
2012	4.62bn	12.45bn
2013	42.7bn	27.1bn
2014	10.5bn	55.7bn
2015	8.3bn	15.2bn

Source: Amusan L, *South Africa as an object of Nigerian Foreign Policy: 1960-1999, unpublished PhD Thesis, South Africa: University of South Africa, 2006.*

South Africa's exports to Nigeria include machinery, electrical equipment, appliances, wood, paper, prepared foodstuffs, beverages, plastics, rubber, chemicals etc. however, oil makes up 97% of Nigeria's exports to South Africa. By interpretation, while South Africa offers a wide range of goods to Nigeria, majority of which are value added manufactured goods; Nigeria essentially offers South Africa one raw material in the form of oil. In essence, while South Africa's exports have the potentiality of substantially growing, Nigeria's exports to South Africa are less likely to expand or multiply. As such, the trade relation between Nigeria and South Africa is lopsided with South Africa being the predominant partner. Quite a number of South African companies have dominated many sectors of the Nigerian economy. Preceding 1994, only four South African companies were in Nigeria, but with the signing of the bi-lateral agreements and the initiation of the Nigeria-South Africa Bi-national Commission, more than a hundred South African companies can be found in Nigeria and are playing significant roles in various aspects of the Nigerian economy.

The most significant investment made by any South African company in Nigeria is in the communication sector. MTN (a South African company) in 2001 was licensed by the Nigerian government to operate mobile phone network in Nigeria for which MTN paid over US\$285 million as licensing fees and expended US\$1 billion for operational set up. MTN is today the largest mobile network company in Nigeria with millions of subscribers. South African

presence can also be felt in the construction sector of Nigeria's economy. Entech for example, is an engineering firm of South African origin led a \$3 billion re-development programme of Lagos Bar Beach and Victoria Island Waterfront in 2007. In the same year, Group Five, another South African company, received the contract to construct a power station in the Niger Delta. Similarly, the largest tourism project in Nigeria at the time (in Tinapa), was a united venture between three South African companies- Standard Bank, Broll and Southern-Sun. Under the auspices of NEPAD, South Africa's Industrial Development Corporation became one of the most significant investors in Nigeria's tourism. As at 2005, it invested more than US\$1.4 billion in Nigeria's telecommunication and tourism sectors. Also worthy of note is South Africa's involvement in Nigeria's media and entertainment sector. DSTV is a significant company in Nigeria's television industry with millions of viewers. However, in August 2006, the Nigerian National Broadcasting Commission (NNBC) terminated the monopoly DSTV enjoyed for the purpose of healthy competition by granting other satellite television stations such as FSTV and Trend the same opportunities granted to DSTV. In spite of this, DSTV controlled approximately 90% of cable TV business and paid a tax summing up to about N3 billion to Nigeria between 1999 and 2006.

Nigeria also has some of her companies in South Africa in different sectors of the economy. The table below is a representation of some Nigerian companies in South Africa.

Table 3: Some Nigerian Firms Operating in South Africa

S/N	Company	Sector
1.	Dangote Industries	Construction
2.	Zenith Bank	Banking
3.	Oando	Oil and Gas
4.	First Bank	Banking
5.	Union Bank	Banking
6.	Philips Consulting	Consultancy
7.	News Media	Media and Entertainment
8.	Financial Standard	Media

Source: A. Adebajo, *Prophets of African Renaissance: Nigeria and South Africa as Regional Hegemons*, Ikeja: Nigerian Institute of International Affairs, 2006.

Oando Oil Company was listed on Johannesburg Securities Exchange in 2005. Oando partnered with Sasol and PetroSA, two South African government-owned rich oil companies for the purpose of increased oil production, while Nigeria’s NNPC (Nigerian National Petroleum Commission) partnered with Sasol Oil for the purpose of converting natural gas to liquid in Nigeria. Nigeria, in an attempt to attract private and government businesses, sought to create an enabling environment for South African businesses by implementing free corporate tax, reducing import duties, encouraging absolute foreign ownership and prolonging leases. The year 2005 also saw collaborations between the banking sectors of both countries. In December (2005), South Africa’s Standard Bank and Nigeria’s Oceanic Bank negotiated the purchase of Stanbic Bank by the former. Also beginning from 2005, negotiations ensued between South Africa’s FirstRand Bank and Nigeria’s Intercontinental Bank on employable methods to ensure increased capital investments in the later.

Other industries through which Nigeria and South Africa made efforts to further improve their economic relation were the cement and the aviation industries. For example, in 2010, Dangote Industries Limited (DIL), a Nigerian-based company increased its investment in South Africa’s cement industry. DIL invested R779 million into Sephaku Cement, a South African company, making the investment the largest ever Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) made by any African company into South Africa (Vanguard News, 2010). DIL’s stake rose significantly from 19.76% to 64%. With regards to the aviation industry, South Africa supplied Nigeria with airplanes and technical support for the Lagos-Johannesburg and Lagos-New York routes, based on a co-share agreement. The partnership was, however, short-lived as the arrangement soon proved to be one-sided as Nigeria continued to enjoy the benefits at the expense of South Africa.

4. Bi-lateral and Trade Agreements

There is no doubt that Nigeria and South Africa are two adroit partners that have been committed to mutually gratifying bilateral relations since the launch of their formal cordial relations in 1994. The inception of formal bilateral relations was represented by the establishment of high commissions in Abuja (by South Africa) and Pretoria (by Nigeria) in 1994. The posting of diplomatic staff also went a long way to lay the foundations for cementing mutually beneficial bilateral relations between both countries. The rationale for bilateral relations was the recognition of the economic and political strengths of the two states as well as their critical importance in Africa. Nigeria’s strength in terms of her population size, market potential, military strength, oil and gas reserves, OPEC membership, and peace keeping activities in Africa projected her image as a strategic partner for South Africa. South Africa on the other hand could boast of a stable and robust economy with an impressive GDP, developed steel sector, laudable infrastructures, and improved service sectors; all of which caught Nigeria’s attention. These hallmarks spell relations that would be mutually beneficial to both states as well as Africa at large.

In order to further the welding of bilateral relations, the leadership of Nigeria and South Africa appended their signatures to a number of pacts and bilateral trade agreements that have also formed part of their bilateral relations. According to Ibeanu et al, since the inauguration of the Bi-National commission in 1999, over twenty agreements and pacts have been negotiated and signed by both countries. Some of the agreements include: agreement on cooperation in the fields of Mining, Geology, Exploration and beneficiation of Minerals and Energy; agreement on reciprocal promotion and protection of investment; Bi-national commission of cooperation among many others. The table below represents the bilateral agreements signed by Nigeria and South Africa.

Table 4: Bilateral Agreements between Nigeria and South Africa (1994-2009)

S/N	Agreements and Pacts	Year of Enactment
1.	Exchange of Notes on the commencement of diplomatic relations	1994
2.	Agreement on the establishment of Bi-National Commission	1999
3.	Agreement on avoidance of double taxation and fiscal evasion	1999
4.	Agreement on Defense cooperation	2001
5.	Agreement on Industrial cooperation in the field of Agriculture	2001
6.	Agreement on cooperation in the field of health and medical science	2002
7.	Agreement on immigration matters	2002
8.	Extradition treaty	2002
9.	Framework programme on cooperation in Science and Technology	2002
10.	Memorandum of Understanding on the prevention of counterfeiting postage stamps and meter impressions	2002
11.	Memorandum of Understanding on the prevention of counterfeiting of postage stamps and meter impressions	2002
12.	Treaty of mutual legal assistance in criminal matters	2002
13.	Agreement on Scientific and Technological Cooperation	2005
14.	Agreement for the reciprocal promotion and protection of investment	2005
15.	Agreement on cooperation in the fields of mining, geology, exploration and beneficiation of materials and energy	2005
16.	Agreement on Educational cooperation	2005
17.	Trade Agreement	2005
18.	Agreement on cooperation in the fields of Arts and Culture	2005
19.	Agreement in respect of Police cooperation	2005
20.	Agreement on cooperation in the field of tourism	2008
21.	Agreement on children and persons living with disabilities	2009

Source: S. Wapmuk, *Nigeria-South Africa's Relations (1960-2008)* in A.M. Ashafa (Ed.) *Challenges for Nigeria at 50: Essays in Honour of Professor Abdullahi Mahadi*, (Kaduna: GK Press Limited, 2010)

The pacts and treaties reflected in Table 4 have gone a long way to deepen the economic relations between Nigeria and South Africa under the auspices of the Bi-National Commission. These trade pacts have been beneficial in initiating trade, investments and other natures of economic interactions between both countries. These trade agreements are to serve the purpose of easing tensions and fostering greater cooperation between the two states in other areas of interest.

On a regional level, the union of Nigeria and South Africa yielded some economic gains for Africa. Seteolu and Okuneye point out that Obasanjo and Mbeki inherited a debt ridden Africa; the Obasanjo and Mbeki administrations opted for economic diplomacy and renaissance respectively to mediate development concerns in their countries. Obasanjo and Mbeki championed the course to canvass for the forgiveness of Africa's debts and succeeded. Furthermore, Mbeki, Obasanjo and Bouteflika (Algeria) established the Millennium African Recovery Programme (MARP) in January, 2001 at Davos, Switzerland. This programme was aimed at re-establishing the confidence of foreign private establishments in Africa for the purpose of wooing Foreign Direct Investment to Africa. Nigeria and South Africa formally sought insurance from the Global North through international financial institutions controlled by them in order to protect Foreign Direct Investment to Africa in July 2001 at the OAU Summit. As a means of curbing

communicable diseases in Africa, Nigeria and South Africa canvassed for partnership between multilateral financial institutions and pharmaceutical companies to ensure access to available drugs. Amusan and Wyk posit that there is a likelihood that the combined efforts of both countries was what led to the US\$200m pledge by the United States of America to tackle HIV/AIDS in Africa. At the World Trade Organization (WTO), Nigeria and South Africa pursued the removal of US and European Union (EU) tariff barriers and agricultural subsidization in order to achieve real globalization independent of substantial aid from industrialized countries.

There is no gainsaying the fact that Mbeki and Obasanjo cemented genial economic relations which was largely symbiotic. However, the expiration of the administrations of Presidents Thabo Mbeki and Olusegun Obasanjo took a toll on the economic relations of their countries. The different diplomatic rows recorded between both countries beginning from 2010 further aggravated the situation. In 2011 for example, a fine of \$5.2 billion was imposed on MTN for violating the instruction of the Nigerian government to disconnect unregistered numbers. The diplomatic row of 2012 involving the deportation of 125 Nigerians from South Africa, subsequent retaliations by Nigeria, incessant xenophobic attacks against Nigerians and their businesses in South Africa, stereotyped perception of Nigerian immigrants in South Africa as criminals, illegal activities of some Nigerians in South Africans,

rivalry between Nigeria and South Africa for status of regional hegemon etc. have all taken their toll on the once affable economic relations between Nigeria and South Africa.

5. Socio-Cultural Relations

The reconstruction and rehabilitation processes of the South African economy after the abolishment of apartheid required necessary man-power. Thus, foreign expatriates migrated to South Africa to participate in the reconstruction processes. Nigerians in their large numbers moved to South Africa as professionals in various capacities to help rebuild the South African economy as well as seek greener pastures. The presence of Nigerians in South Africa for various economic reasons soon led to cementing socio-cultural relations between Nigerians and South Africans. Inter-cultural marriages soon began to ensue and became more popularized over the years. As one would expect, the inter-cultural marriages between Nigerians and South Africans led to continued procreation of children of South African and Nigerian origin.

In addition to inter-cultural marriages and shared procreation between Nigerians and South Africans, tourism also serves as a form of socio-cultural relation between the two countries. As far as tourism is concerned, South Africa 'houses' some of the most important tourist centers in Africa. Top tourist centers in South Africa include Kruger National Park, Cape Town, Kgalagadi (Kalahari) Trans-frontier Park, Stellenbosch, The Drakensberg, The Garden Route, Isimangaliso Wetland Park, Blyde River Canyon Nature Reserve, Cage Dive with Great White Sharks, Robben Island, Durban's Golden Mile, Cape Point Nature Reserve, Boulders Beach, Victoria and Alfred Waterfront, Table Mountain, Franschoek Motor Museum, Khwattu, Newlands Brewery, Groot Constantia, World of Birds, Cango Caves, Bloukrans Bungee, Oudtshoorn Ostrich Farm, Addo Elephant National Park, The Apartheid Museum, Gold Reef City, Newtown cultural Precinct, Nelson Mandela Square etc. Nigerians in their large numbers visit one or more of the notable tourist centres in South Africa annually.

6. Military Relations

Nigeria's military relation with South Africa is not as substantial as her economic and political relations. However, both countries have shared a few military interactions in recent years. For example, under the administration of President Goodluck Jonathan, Nigeria employed South African mercenaries to help

her in the war against Boko Haram (Malik, 2016). Boko Haram is a jihadist militant organization based in North-eastern Nigeria. The organization was founded by Mohammed Yusuf in 2002 and led by Abubakar Shekau since 2009. The group started out as a non-violent organization seeking only to uphold Islamic beliefs in the Northern Nigeria. As the group continued to evolve, it became increasingly violent. Since the Boko Haram insurgency which started in 2009, thousands of Nigerians have been killed and millions displaced. It has been established that between December 2014 and April 2015, at least 147 South African mercenaries were hired by the Nigerian government to train her soldiers and also fight alongside the soldiers during the insurgents. The government of President Goodluck Jonathan engaged former South African soldiers and together with 163 Nigerian soldiers, formed the 72 Mobile Strike Group.

Similarly, in 2014, the Nigerian government reached out to South Africa for arms supply. The Nigerian government through Societe D'Equipment Internationaux (a Nigerian firm) reached out to Cerberus, a South African Company to supply her some military hardware. The sum of \$5.7 million dollars was wired to the South African firm to seal the deal. The Asset Forfeiture Unit of the National Prosecuting Authority of South Africa froze the money, thus interrupting the deal. Cerberus received an initial payment of R60 million (#1.2 billion) in its Standard Bank Account which it tried to refund when it could not settle its registration protocols with the South African government. Cerberus had been previously registered with the South African National Arms Control Committee (NACC), but the registration expired in May 2014, together with the marketing and contracting permits. The company's inability to complete its application processes for re-registration propelled it to make refunds to the Nigerian government. The attempt to return the money raised eye brows among bank officials and eventually led to the confiscation of the money. Sources reveal that the arms deal was not without prior knowledge of South African leadership as President Goodluck Jonathan had earlier informed President Jacob Zuma. For this reason, the seizure of the money meant for arms deal further infuriated the Nigerian government and Nigerians in general.

Prior to this failed deal, Lulu Mnuguni, the South African envoy to Nigeria had been summoned over a bungled arms deal that led to the confiscation of \$9.3 million. This brought the total amount that was seized to \$15 million (an estimated #2 billion). The \$9.3 million was loaded into three suitcases and

transported to South Africa in a private jet which landed at Lanseria International Airport in Johannesburg on 5th of September 2014. The attention and suspicion drawn by the suitcases when they were put through scanners led to their confiscation. South Africa however vowed to return the \$15 million to Nigeria. South Africa did not make good on that promise until July 2015. According to statements issued by PR Nigeria, the consulting firm making statements on behalf of Nigerian security agencies, the money was released after following some routine legal and diplomatic processes.

7. Conclusion

The study has traced the history of Nigeria's political, economic, socio-cultural and military relations with South Africa. It was established that prior to Nigeria's independence, she did not have a defined relationship with other countries of the world. This was because only independent countries could pursue formal relations with other independent nations according to the provisions of the United Nations Organization. Nigeria's large economy, population size and strategic location conferred on her a leadership role in the African continent. Therefore, Nigeria upon her independence molded her foreign policy in line with the pursuit of the welfare of Africans and decolonization of other African states. Nigeria made it clear to the international community that she would not condone racism and imperialism in all its forms in Africa.

South Africa had historically been subjected to apartheid system of government which was characterized by the ruling of the black majority by the white minority. With the sustenance of apartheid, and examples of gross disrespect for human rights, the South African government became Nigeria's arch enemy. The Sharpeville massacre which occurred barely months before Nigeria's independence is an attestation to the human rights crimes perpetrated by the South African government. South Africa's less than democratic regime put her out of favour with the rest of the international community and earned her the status of a pariah state. Thus, Nigeria, in commitment to her foreign policy utilized her influence, economic strength, military as well as political power to wage war against the racist South African government until its eventual crumbling in 1994.

The end of apartheid regime and conformity with democratic principles ought to align Nigeria with South Africa, however, the tide turned against Nigeria when consequences of the human right

crimes of her military regime caught up with her. Nigeria's military regime under the leadership of General Sani Abacha was characterized with utmost disrespect for human rights. Perhaps the most significant example was the extra judicial execution of Ken Saro Wiwa and eight others, also known as the Ogoni nine in 1995. This singular act infuriated the international community and marred Nigeria's image among the comity of nations. With this turn of events, South Africa and Nigeria switched positions- the former as the leading African enforcer of human rights and epitome of democracy, and the later as a pariah state. The buck then stopped at the desk of South African leadership (under Nelson Mandela) to restore democracy in Nigeria.

The expiration of military system of government cum embrace of democracy, most especially the installation of President Olusegun Obasanjo, ushered in a new era for the conduct of Nigeria's foreign relations. Obasanjo saw the need to repair Nigeria's dented image among the comity of nations. The duo of Obasanjo and Thabo Mbeki of South Africa spelled a strategic partnership between Nigeria and South Africa, making the years between 1999 and 2007 the golden years of Nigeria-South Africa relations. The Nigeria- South Africa Bi-National Commission, transformation of the O.A.U. to AU, creation of NEPAD, deepened economic relations constitute some of the dividends of the strategic partnership.

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Interrogating Community Self-Help Development Initiatives in Ikpoba Okha and Oredo Local Government Areas, Edo State, Nigeria

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Abstract. This paper interrogates community self-help development initiative to ascertain the complementary roles the local governments in line with their constitutional mandates can play in strengthening local efforts in addressing felt needs. To achieve this, it raised some research questions and adopted the survey research design. Using a multistage sampling, it elicited responses through questionnaires and in-depth interviews on the phenomenon being investigated from residents of Amagba community in Oredo and Idogbo community in Ikpoba Okha Local Government Areas in Edo State. Data were analysed using the simple percentages and thematisation. Findings reveal that although community self-help initiatives such as the provision of security, electricity, pipe-borne water, community layouts mapping, roads and drainages promote development, these initiatives mostly lack Local Government support thereby leading to unintended consequences like flooding, erosion and urban slums. To be assured of quality and sustainable delivery of community self-help development initiatives, it recommends that the Local Governments need to strengthen its funding, technical and supervisory capacities as well as set up a special department for the coordination of community self-help initiatives so as to reposition the Local Governments as effective enablers of community developmental efforts.

Keywords: Community, Self-help initiatives, Local government, Development

1. Introduction

Development is unequivocally an on-going process where perhaps no individual, community and society in the world, no matter how advanced, would not

have need of (Akpomuvie, 2010). It is a well-known fact that development initiatives are derived from several sources – the individual, the community, socio-cultural organizations, institutions, governments either acting independently or in concert with each other. As regard community development, Ako and Ojo (2019) opined that the level of community development is determined by the level of involvement of the immediate citizenry who come together to achieve common goals. The opinion is hinged on the fact that a development programme even with the best of intention will not be meaningful and sustainable if it is not initiated and carried out by members of the community since they are in the best position to identify what they truly need and maybe ready and willing to combine their efforts in meeting those needs (Bappi, Singh & Dahiru, 2018).

In view of the foregoing, community self-help initiative has become one of the dominant approaches to sustainable grassroots development. Aweto (2000) argued that the idea of self-help is one of the several distinguishing features of community development theory, practice and ideology. Self-help is based on the premise that people can, will, and should collaborate to solve community problems. In addition to the practical problem-solving utility of this perspective, self-help builds a stronger sense of community and a foundation for future collaboration (Wordu & Azunwo, 2017). According to Onyeozu (2007), the permanent cure to a community's problem is achieved only when members of the community have learned to apply or administer remedy to problems themselves. The idea of community self-help initiative is also deeply rooted in the rich traditions of most cultures around the world in which evidences abound of how

communities have, for generations successfully organized themselves to construct roads, build bridges, palaces, market stall, dwelling houses among many others.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

The development gaps evident in most communities in Nigeria suggest that without adequate external support, the community themselves may not be able to undertake key development projects; and in most cases when they do, the projects may lack the desired quality. This reality has reinforced the opinion being held by some citizens that it is the sole responsibility of government, especially the Local Government, to provide the basic needs of communities. This opinion is backed by the thinking that the Local Government has the requisite funds and technical expertise at its disposal (Imuetinyan and Mustapha, 2017). In other words, the Local Government should develop the community by providing the necessary infrastructure and social and physical amenities needed (Ogunleye-Adetona & Oladeinde, 2013). Unfortunately, the efforts of the Local Government towards development over the years have either been inadequate or absent in most communities. Consequently, several communities in Nigeria are experiencing major developmental challenges such as insecurity, inadequate water supply, inaccessible road networks and so on.

Equally, literature is replete with the challenges that have hindered the Local Government in Nigeria from actualizing the mandates for their establishment (Imuetinyan and Mustapha, 2017) including the provision of services for which they are intended to be the most successful provider in view of their closeness to the people compared to other levels of government (Bello-Imam, 2007). It is likely that a major setback to actualizing the mandates is that the Local Governments in Nigeria have not fully and properly integrated community self-help development initiatives into their development programmes on a continuing basis.

1.2 Objectives

The paper seeks to:

- ascertain the community self-help initiatives that promote development in Oredo and Ikpoba Okha Local Government Areas (LGAs) of Edo State;
- identify the challenges of community self-help development initiatives in Oredo and Ikpoba Okha LGAs; and

- examine the prospects of Oredo and Ikpoba Okha Local Governments' involvements in community self-help development initiatives in the areas.

1.3 Research Questions

The following research questions were coined to guide the trajectory of the paper:

- What are the community self-help initiatives that promote development in Oredo and Ikpoba Okha Local Government Areas?
- What are the challenges of community self-help development initiatives in Oredo and Ikpoba Okha Local Government Areas?
- Will the involvement of Oredo and Ikpoba Okha Local Government in community self-help initiatives promote quality and sustainable development in the areas?

2. Conceptual Clarification:

2.1 Community Self-Help Initiatives

Community self-help initiatives include all collective development strategies and interventions at the community level (Akpomuvie, 2010). These interventions are enabled by specific features such as social ties, common perspectives, closeness of residents and the ease to engage in joint action that prevail at the community (Anyanwu, 2009). As an approach, it is inextricably linked to the broader concept of community development which consist of three major strands – the extension approach, the project approach and the service approach. The service approach to community development is known as “self-help” (Idode, 1989).

According to Udoye (1992), self-help initiative/development is both an object (what) and a process (how). As an object, it should be an induced change for the achievement of community improvement, while as a process it should be a well-articulated programme and effort to assist individuals to acquire attitudes, skills and concepts required for their democratic participation in the effective solution to a wide range of community problems in order of priority determined by their increasing level of competence. In other words, the efforts of the people themselves are united with those of the governmental authorities to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of the communities, to integrate these communities in the life of the nation and enable them to contribute fully to national progress.

According to Abatena (1995), community self-help programs tend to foster sustained community support in two ways. Firstly, such programs provide the people with an opportunity to manage and monitor the program in such a fashion that it continues to serve their interest and as a result attracts steady community support. Secondly, such experience would help the development of community capability to manage its own affairs and deal with its problems more effectively on a sustained basis.

2.2 Development

Development is a very broad which cut across values such as capacity building, equity, sustainability, self-reliance and empowerment. it includes the improvement of people lives in terms of economic, social, political, environmental, spiritual/personal and cultural aspects. According to Coetzee (2001), development connotes a favorable change in status such as moving from worse to better; simple to complex; advancing away from the inferior; a form of social change that leads to progress and the process of enlarging people's choices of acquiring knowledge, and having access to resources for a decent standard of living.

Edoun & Jahed (2009) posit that development is related to modernization, which include the attainment of services, including clean and safe water, health, education, good roads, and the level of citizen interest in basic leadership at local level. It goes beyond economic growth and material changes and incorporates human attitude with respect to a spirit of enhanced human capacity development, and mass citizen participation in the decision-making process.

Whereas traditional development strategies have relied on national frameworks and on the abilities of central government authorities, the success of development at the local level depends, to a large degree, on the subsistence of suitable local institutional frameworks and on the accessibility of the essential systems and skill levels at all government levels. Without a functional decentralized local authority, development at the grassroots is not achievable (Olsen, 2007; Imuetinyan and Mustapha, 2017). Along these lines, the focus of development is generally concerned with ensuring that the social well-being of individuals is paramount and should be reflected in the life of the individual rather than quantitative economic growth or the state of the economy.

2.3 Local Government

The concept of local government has been defined in different ways by several scholars. Nevertheless, in all the viewpoints, there seems to be a form of

commonality which largely derives from the fact that we cannot realize the full benefit of democratic government unless we begin by the admission that all problems in their incidence require decision at the place, and by the persons by whom the incidence is most deeply felt (Laski, 1964).

Fatile, Fajonyomi and Adejuwon (2017) opined that the concept of Local Government is widely conceived as administration at the local level. The United Nations Office for Public Administration (Ola and Tonwe, 2005) sees Local Government as a political subdivision of a nation or (in a federal system) state, which is constituted by law and has substantial control of local affairs including the power to impose taxes or to exact labour for prescribed purposes. The Local Government is instituted to maintain law and order, provide a limited range of social amenities and encourage co-operation and participation of inhabitants towards the improvement of their living conditions (Ibietan & Ndukwe, 2014).

According to Otohile & Edigin (2011), Local Government also connotes the decentralization or dispersion of authoritative decision making whereby the authority to make decision is displaced downwards from remote points near to top administration or outward from geographical locations, thus bringing authority closer to the people affected by it. Similarly, Ikelegbe (2005) views local government as a segment of a constituent state or region of a nation state established by law to provide public service and regulate public affairs within its area of jurisdiction. By implication, as the closest level of government to the people, the Local Government has the power and mandate to deliver on assigned fundamental objectives of government within its sphere of influence (Imuetinyan and Mustapha, 2017).

3. The Study Area

Oredo and Ikpoba Okha Local Government Areas are part of the eighteen (18) Local Government Areas (LGAs) in Edo State. The Local Government Areas are also two of the three metropolitan Local Government Areas that make up Benin City, the Edo State capital. Despite being situated within the metropolis with some considerable level of State Government infrastructural interventions, there are still sub-urban communities in Oredo and Ikpoba Okha (LGAs) which lack the desired Local Government presence in terms of infrastructural developments. Some of these communities which also form the study area include Amagba in Oredo,

and Idogbo in Ikpoba Okha Local Government Areas respectively.

3.1 Development Mandates and Challenges of Oredo and Ikpoba Okha Local Government Areas

As obtainable in other climes, the Local Government in Nigeria, and by extension in Oredo and Ikpoba Okha, is intended to be the bedrock of development; a place where people first seek succor for better living and where good socio-economic and welfare services can be easily rendered (Chinda, 2014). The fourth schedule of the 1999 Constitution, as amended, clearly spells out the mandates of the Local Government in Nigeria to include:

The consideration and the making of recommendations to a State Commission on Economic Planning or any similar body on:

- the economic development of the State, particularly in so far as the areas of authority of the Council of the State are affected;
- proposal made by the said Commission;
- Collection of rates, radio and television licenses;
- Establishment and maintenance of cemeteries, burial grounds and homes for the destitute or infirm;
- Licensing of bicycles, trucks (other than mechanically-propelled trucks), canoes, wheel barrows and carts;
- Establishment, maintenance and regulation of slaughter houses, slaughter slabs, markets, motor parks and public conveniences;
- Construction and maintenance of roads, streets, streets lightings, drains and other public highways, parks, gardens, open spaces, or such public facilities as may be prescribed from time to time by the House of Assembly of a State;
- Naming of roads and streets, and numbering of houses;
- Provision and maintenance of public conveniences, sewage and refuse disposal;
- registration of all birth, death and marriages;
- assessment of privately owned houses or tenements for the purpose of levying such rates as may be prescribed by the House of Assembly of a State;
- Control and regulation of:
 - Movement and keeping of pets of all descriptions
 - Out-door advertising and hoarding
 - Shops, kiosks and restaurants
 - Bakeries and other places for the sale of food to the public

- Laundries
- Licensing for the sale of liquor.

Although the constitution clearly mandates Oredo and Ikpoba Okha Local Governments to discharge a wide range of functions, the reality is that their presence is rarely felt as they are bedeviled by a lot of challenges. These challenges range from State Government domineering tendencies and the usurpation of local government authority (Kalagbor, 2001), inadequate funding, diversion and misappropriation of funds, lack of visionary leadership and dearth of skilled technical and professional staff to carry out their duties (Chinda, 2014). These constraining issues have led to the continued drive to seek ways to beat developmental odds at the grassroots and to make Local Government more responsive and result oriented.

4. Theoretical Perspective

The paper adopts the participatory development theory/approach. The approach is critical of the modernization paradigm that heavily promotes a top-down ethnocentric and paternalistic view of development which assumes the knowledge of governments and agencies were correct, and that indigenous populations were either ignorant or had incorrect beliefs (Cypher & Diethz, 1997; Weyman & Fussell, 1996). Consequently, the Participatory, or “People Centered Development” approach which focuses on ‘bottom up’ planning, ‘People-Centered Development’ and the view that ordinary people have the capacity to manage their own development was espoused in its place (Conyers & Hills, 1990; Chambers, 1992; Rahman, 1993; & Dinbabo, 2003). Specifically, the participatory development theory encourages the involvement of all stakeholders in the process of development. It emphasizes that experts’ participation alone in the development process cannot guarantee significant progress in any development initiative. Thus, it advocates the integration of local communities in development endeavours (Rahim, 1994). It further asserts that the lack of sensitivity to integrating local inputs accounted for the lack of development and/or failures of development projects at the local level (Coetzee, 2001). The significance of the theory is its charge to individuals and societies to recognize and become subjects of their own creation instead of being artifacts of technical processes involved in development (Ako, 2017).

The critical standpoint of the participatory development theory therefore, is the fostering of active involvement of people in making decision about implementation of processes, programs and

projects, which affect them (Slocum, Wichhart, Rocheleau, & Thomas-Slayter, 1995). In all, the participatory development theory/approach reinforces the following advantages:

Sustainability and Self-Reliance: It leads to increased self-reliance among the community and to the establishment of a network of self-sustaining groups. This also in turn has implication for greater efficiency of development services and opportunities for the community to contribute constructively to the development processes.

Building of Democratic Organizations: The settings and size of a community in a particular location is ideal for the diffusion of collective decision-making and leadership skills, which can be used in the subsequent development of inter-group federations.

Higher Productivity: Given access to resources, the community shares fully in the benefits of their efforts. They also become more receptive to new technologies, services, and achieve higher levels of production. This helps to build net cash surpluses that strengthen the group’s economic base and contribute to the community capital formation.

Reduced Costs and Increased Efficiency: The contributions of the community in terms of knowledge of local conditions, labour, locally available materials and finance to projects reduce costs. The community also facilitates the diagnosis of environmental, social and institutional constraints, as well as the search for solutions for local problems (Dinbabo, 2003).

In the context of community self-help development initiatives in Oredo and Ikpoba Okha Local Government Areas, the theory is apt as it offers a veritable perspective to analyse community efforts in bridging developmental gaps.

5. Methodology

The study adopts the survey research design. Thus, responses were elicited through questionnaire and in-depth interviews. Using a multistage sampling, two communities, one each from the two Local Government Areas and a total of two hundred (200) respondents; one hundred (100) per community, were first purposively sampled. The communities include Amagba in Oredo Local Government Area and Idogbo in Ikpoba Okha Local Government Area. Both communities were purposively selected based on their sub-urban status and prevalence of self-help development initiatives.

The respondents were further stratified into community leaders and landlords. The community leaders were made up of members of the traditional institutions and/or the community development associations. Administration of Questionnaires and conduct of in-depth interviews were then undertaken through a simple random sampling. In all, fifteen questions, formatted on a three-point Likert type of scale were used to elicit responses. The questionnaire has response options of “Agreed” (A) 3points, “Undecided” (UD) 2points and “Disagreed” (D) 1point. Out of the two hundred (200) questionnaires administered, only a total of one hundred and eighty-three (183); eighty-nine (89) from Ikpoba Okha and ninety-four (94) from Oredo, were properly filled and retrieved. While the simple percentage was used to analyse the quantitative data, thematisation was deployed in the analysis of in-depth interviews.

Community Self-Help Initiatives Promoting Development in Oredo and Ikpoba Okha LGAs

The table below presents the result from the response on the community self-help initiatives promoting development in the sampled communities of Idogbo in Ikpoba Okha and Amagba in Oredo LGAs respectively:

Table 1: Community Self-Help Initiatives Promoting Development in Oredo and Ikpoba Okha LGAs

S/N	Item	Responses								
		Idogbo (89 Respondents)			Amagba (94 Respondents)			Aggregate (183 Respondents)		
		A	UD	D	A	UD	D	A	UD	D
1	Inclusion of residents in community self-help initiatives promotes development in the area	73 (82)	11 (12)	5 (6)	79 (84)	12 (13)	3 (3)	152 (83)	23 (13)	8 (4)
2	Vigilante activities contribute to the promotion of development in the community	89 (100)	- -	- -	91 (97)	3 (3)	- -	180 (98)	3 (2)	- -
3	Sinking of Individual and community bore-holes contributes to the well-being of the community	77 (86)	5 (6)	7 (8)	79 (84)	7 (7)	8 (9)	156 (85)	12 (7)	15 (8)
4	Community layouts mapping, construction of roads and drainages promote development in the area	88 (99)	1 (1)	- -	91 (97)	3 (3)	- -	179 (98)	4 (2)	- -
5	Provision of power (electricity) infrastructure promotes development in the community	87 (98)	2 (2)	- -	94 (100)	- -	- -	181 (99)	2 (1)	- -

Field Survey (2021)

The first item in the table above shows that 152 respondents representing 83 percent agreed that the inclusion of residents in community self-help initiatives promotes development in the area. On the contrary, only 8 respondents representing 4 percent express disagreement while 23 representing 13 percent were neutral. The second item reveals that 180 respondents representing 98 percent affirmed that vigilante activities contribute to the promotion of development in the community while 3 respondents representing 2 percent were undecided. On the third item, while 156 respondents representing 85 percent were in consonance that sinking of individual and community bore-holes contributes to the well-being of the community, 15 respondents, indicative of 8 percent disagreed and 12 respondents representing 7 percent took a neutral stance. Item four shows that 98 percent of respondents agreed that community layouts mapping, construction of roads and drainages promote development in the area while 2 percent were of neutral opinion. Lastly on item five, 99 percent of respondents agreed that provision of power (electricity) infrastructure promotes development in the community while only 1 percent were undecided.

Challenges of Community Self-Help Development Initiatives in Oredo and Ikpoba Okha LGAs.

On the specific challenges hindering community self-help development initiatives, the table below presents result from the feedbacks expressed by respondents in the sampled communities:

Table 2: Challenges of Community Self-Help Development Initiatives in Oredo and Ikpoba Okha LGAs.

S/N	Item	Responses								
		Idogbo (89 Respondents)			Amagba (94 Respondents)			Aggregate (183 Respondents)		
		A	UD	D	A	UD	D	A	UD	D
1	Community self-help security initiatives lack Local Government support in the area	87 (98)	2 (2)	- -	91 (97)	3 (3)	- -	178 (97)	5 (3)	- -
2	Lack of technical support from the Local Government contributes to poor execution of community layouts mapping, construction of roads and drainages in the area	77 (87)	7 (8)	4 (5)	89 (95)	2 (2)	3 (3)	166 (91)	9 (5)	7 (4)
3	Inadequate funding impedes community effort to provide electricity infrastructure like transformer in the area	69 (78)	11 (12)	9 (10)	72 (77)	20 (21)	2 (2)	141 (77)	31 (17)	11 (6)
4	Lack of Local Government support in the community impacts negatively on access to pipe-borne water	16 (18)	22 (25)	51 (57)	15 (16)	12 (13)	67 (71)	31 (17)	34 (19)	118 (64)
5	There is a general absence of Local Government support in the affairs of the community	81 (91)	5 (6)	3 (3)	94 (100)	- -	- -	175 (95)	5 (3)	3 (2)

Field Survey (2021)

In the table two above, item one shows that 178 respondents representing 97 percent agreed that community self-help security initiatives lack local government support in the area while 5 respondents representing 3 percent were undecided. On item two, 166 respondents representing 91 percent agreed that the lack of technical support from the Local Government contributes to poor execution of community layouts mapping, construction of roads and drainages in the area, 4 percent disagreed while 5 percent were undecided. Item three reveals that 77 percent of respondents agreed that inadequate funding impedes community effort to provide electricity infrastructure like transformer in the area while only 6 percent and 17 percent disagreed and were nonaligned respectively. However, item four shows that 17 percent of respondents agreed that lack of local government support in the community impacts negatively on access to pipe-borne water, 19 percent were undecided while 64 percent of them disagreed. The percentage of respondent who disagreed is indicative of the fact that owners of properties in the sampled communities have completely taken up the responsibility to provide water for their households through the sinking of boreholes within their compounds without recourse to any level of government. A community leader in Idogbo sums up the reality as presented below:

I do not think the Local Government intervention in this regard will mark a significant shift again. We have become our own water boards. Only very few houses are without boreholes now and even those who cannot afford to sink one in their compound usually fetch water from their neighbours' houses for free or for a negligible amount of money. We need them (the Local Government officials) to do something big that we will appreciate instead of this one that they will sink borehole today and after few months it will no longer be functional due to lack of maintenance (Transcript from in-depth interview; March 16, 2021)

Nevertheless, item five indicates that 175 respondents representing 95 percent affirmed that there is a general absence of local government support in the affairs of the community, 3 percent were undecided while only 2 percent disagreed.

Prospects of Local Government involvement in community self-help development initiatives in Oredo and Ikpoba Okha LGAs

Respondents further expressed their opinion by giving feedbacks on the possible contributions the Local Governments involvement will make in entrenching community self-help development initiatives as shown in the table below:

Table 3: Prospects of Local Government involvement in community self-help development initiatives in Oredo and Ikpoba Okha LGAs

S/N	Item	Responses								
		Idogbo (89 Respondents)			Amagba (94 Respondents)			Aggregate (183 Respondents)		
		A	UD	D	A	UD	D	A	UD	D
1	Local Government expert involvement in community self-help initiatives will promote development in the area	83 (93)	4 (5)	2 (2)	82 (87)	9 (10)	3 (3)	165 (90)	13 (7)	5 (3)
2	Local Government partnership in community security self-help initiatives will promote development in the area	88 (99)	1 (1)	-	89 (95)	5 (5)	-	177 (97)	6 (4)	-
3	Local Government collaboration with the community to provide pipe-borne water will improve the living standard in the area	89 (100)	-	-	81 (86)	12 (13)	1 (1)	170 (93)	12 (6)	1 (1)
4	Local Government supervision of community layouts mapping, construction of roads and drains will help to forestall flood and erosion challenges suffered in the area	86 (97)	1 (1)	2 (2)	81 (86)	3 (3)	10 (11)	167 (91)	4 (2)	12 (7)
5	Local Government support towards the provision of power infrastructure will improve the living standard of residents in the area.	89 (100)	-	-	77 (82)	14 (15)	3 (3)	166 (90)	14 (8)	3 (2)

Field Survey (2021)

In table three, item one indicates 90 percent of the respondents agreed that local government expert involvement in community self-help initiatives will promote development in the area, 3 percent disagreed while 7 percent were neutral. This position was further reinforced by the opinion expressed by a landlord in Amagba community:

The problem of poorly planned neighborhoods you see in this community is caused by the absence of government oversight especially the Local Government. Most of the members of the community development associations (CDAs), even though they have been officially proscribed, still operate and they do not have the requisite knowledge and skill; and also do not care about proper layouts which before now our forefathers brought to bear through native intelligence. All they care about now is land grabbing and the money. Have you seen when it rains? Most buildings will almost end up being submerged by floods because the waterways have been sold and built on. The Local Government just need to come and collaborate with them to ensure the right thing is done. Nothing pains the most as having a building one cannot easily access due to the gaps that exist in the community layouts **(Transcript from in-depth interview; March 19, 2021)**

Also, item two indicates that 177 respondents signifying 97 percent of the respondents agreed that local government partnership in community security self-help initiatives will promote development in the area, while 9 percent were undecided. Similarly, 93 percent of the respondents agreed that local government collaboration with the community to provide pipe-borne water will improve the living standard in the area, 1 percent disagreed with 6 percent taking a neutral stance. On this, even though most respondents do not think that lack of local government support impacts negatively on access to pipe-borne water, they however expressed optimism that local government involvement will help to further optimize individual and community self-help interventions. This result is also in tandem with the view expressed a landlord in Amagba community:

...the truth is; intervention cannot be too much. As you know, not everyone has been able to sink their own borehole. So, if the Local Government help in sinking a community borehole here, those who are currently buying water will then save that money for something else. I think it will still be very important for them to think of doing something like that even though I do not personally have need of it **(Transcript from in-depth interview; March 19, 2021)**

More so, item four of the survey shows that 167 respondents indicating 91 percent asserted that local Government supervision of community layouts mapping, construction of roads and drains will help to forestall flood and erosion challenges suffered in the area, 7 percent disagreed while 2 percent were undecided. Finally, item five shows that 90 percent of the respondents agreed that local government support towards the provision of power infrastructure will improve the living standard of residents in the area. While only 2 percent of the respondents disagreed, 8 percent took a neutral position.

6. Discussion of Findings

The findings of the study indicate that community self-help initiatives have substantial effect on the development of Amagba Community in Oredo and Idogbo in Ikpoba Okha Local Government Areas of Edo State. The study agrees with Wordu & Azunwo (2017) who observed that the involvement of local people in project execution gives them a sense of ownership of the projects and enhances capacity, learning and interaction among community residents. The findings are also in sync with the position of Ogunleye & Oladeinde (2013) that the conception of initiatives and best of the exceptional responsibility rest on the occupants of the community concerned.

Thus, the findings of this study establish that community self-help development efforts to provide security, pipe-borne water, community layouts mapping, accessible roads and drainages; and power (electricity) infrastructures promote development in the sampled areas. Also, the participation of individuals in decision making in community self-help initiatives promotes sustainable development in the Local Government areas. This is instructive as most respondents affirmed that the level of insecurity in their area was on the high before the introduction of community vigilantes. In other words, the help of community security outfits restored peace in most communities and reduced crime to barest minimum. Nevertheless, since there is no public water supply infrastructure in the sampled communities, property owners result to sinking of boreholes in their compounds, and also supply to other residents who could not afford to do same either for free or for a fee. Because this practice is now proliferated, most residents of the sampled areas do not consider the lack of Local Government support in this regard as impacting negatively on the well-being of the locals. In terms of provision of electricity, respondents stated that even though power infrastructure had been privatized, they were still largely responsible for the purchase, installation and maintenance of power

infrastructures like transformers and electric poles in their communities. Also, the fact that these infrastructures are quite expensive demand that residents of the communities will either have to seek external support to procure them or stay in darkness.

Furthermore, the dearth of technical expertise and inadequate funding of community self-help initiatives are some of the key challenges facing development at the community level. In fact, respondents bemoan the fact that community efforts towards security, layouts mapping, construction of accessible roads and drainages, provision of pipe-borne water and provision of power infrastructures largely lack Local Government support in the area. It was affirmed that the non-involvement of Local Government in planning and execution of community self-help initiatives undermines their developmental efforts. In practical terms, the lack of Local Government support in terms of planning, funding and implementation of community layouts and construction of roads in the sampled areas give credence to the unintended consequences of poorly executed community self-help developmental efforts like flooding, erosion and urban slum. The prevailing circumstance therefore implies that to have a significant and sustainable development at the community level, there has to be an effective collaboration between the Local Government and the local communities.

7. Conclusion

The study concludes that the mandate of Local Government is to foster development at the grassroots. It, however, identifies the challenges of Local Government to range from State Government domineering tendencies and the usurpation of local government authority, inadequate funding, diversion and misappropriation of funds, lack of visionary leadership and dearth of skilled technical and professional staff to carry out their mandate as major challenges constraining the Local Government in Nigeria including Oredo and Ikpoba Okha Local Government Areas. It however established that for the mandate to be achieved sustainably, a collaborative partnership between residents of communities and the Local Government have to be prioritized.

Finally, community participation in any development endeavor is an important element and a sure path to speedy community development in Nigeria in view of the fact that most communities have laid down structures to ensure the effective participation of residents in projects they consider as having positive

impacts on their lives and livelihoods (Adejumobi, 2010). Since sustainable development is what every community yearns for, the study establishes that projects identified, planned, executed and managed by the community themselves in collaboration with the Local Governments will outlive those without any technical, funding and supervisory support from the Local Government.

8. Recommendations

In view of the findings from the study, the following points are recommended for implementation:

- Oredo and Ikpoba Okha Local Government Councils in Nigeria should strengthen their funding, technical and supervisory capacities in order to serve as an enabler of community self-help initiatives.
- The Local Government Councils should enhance the activities of local vigilantes through proper profiling and funding support in order to prevent any unintended consequences.
- The Local Government Councils should establish a special Department to coordinate community self-help development initiatives. This Department should be saddled with the responsibility to provide technical assistance for community self-help projects like layouts mapping, roads and drainages construction to forestall reversed development outcomes like flood and erosion.
- The Local Government should develop guidelines for community initiatives. For example, instead of individuals sinking boreholes in their compounds arbitrarily in the community, they can collectively sink a central borehole that will be connected to households in order to forestall future ecological risk.

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Environmental Policies, Agencies and Flood Management in Selected States in Nigeria (2005-2021): The Gaps and The Challenges

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Abstract. Floods have affected the lives of people across the world. Nigeria is not an exception. It has resulted in the loss of lives, damage to infrastructure, agricultural produce and disruption of social life. In addressing the problem, Government has formulated and implemented different policies, set up various agencies to mitigate the devastating effects in the last fifteen years. In spite of these efforts, the problem of flooding continues, unabated in Nigeria. Hence this study investigated the influence of government environmental policies and government agencies on flood management in Nigeria. Mixed method design was adopted for the study. The population of the study was 990. Taro Yamani formulae was used to determine the sample size of 285. Purposive and stratified sampling was adopted in the location of the respondent. Questionnaire and interview guides were used for the study. Data collected were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics while the qualitative data were content analyzed. The study found that the flood management mechanisms of agencies had no significant effect on flood management (Adj. $R^2 = 0.011$; $F(1,258) = 2.737$, $P > 0.05$). The content analysis revealed that government environmental policies in the study area in the last 15 years have not been adequately implemented. The study recommended that the Federal Government should review government environmental policies in the study areas. The study also recommended the setting up of a new dedicated and centralized agency for effective flood risk management in Nigeria.

Keywords: Flood Management, Environmental policy, flood disasters, government agencies.

1. Introduction

Globally, flood disasters have led to considerable loss of lives and increasing economic and social losses. From China to Mexico, USA, Indonesia, India, Canada and the UK among others, floods have assumed threatening dimensions. In August 2021 flash floods caused massive destruction in Tennessee USA, 21 people were killed and several houses were swept away several people were declared missing. The horrifying flood swept away a set of 7 months old twins from their fathers' arms (CNN NEWS 2021). In May 2016 floods driven by torrential rains claimed the lives of hundreds of people in China, while thousands more were killed by landslides caused by floods (Zhang et al, 2016). In 2018, Korale, a State in India was devastated by floods, more than 350 persons died while over one million people were evacuated to over 4000 relief camps (Izah 2018) African nations have not been excluded from the worldwide flood experience. Flooding remains one of the key reasons preventing Africa's population from escaping poverty (Musa & Shuaibu 2019). According to the centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters (CRED 2019) more than 15,000 people died during 2000 to 2009 as a result of flooding. From 1950 to 2009 the number of people killed by floods in Africa grew by a factor of ten. Over a million people were displaced by floods in 2007 and 2.5 million were displaced in 2009.

In Nigeria flooding is a typical occurrence on yearly basis and its destructive potentials are considerable. Cities in Nigeria have had several major floodings since the early 1950's with both coastal and river floods. These floods are mostly caused by the seasonal interruption of major rivers and the fact that water can get over their barriers, both natural and man-made, when it rains (Chukwu et al 2018).

Flooding has caused damage to agriculture, livelihood systems, household properties, public utilities and infrastructure amounting to billions of naira each year (Olalekan 2018). Several Nigerian states are seriously experiencing flood disasters caused by precipitation which is always associated with climate change (Adeniji 2018). Some of the States most seriously affected by flooding in Nigeria are Bayelsa, Kogi, Lagos, Taraba, Delta, Edo, Rivers, Anambra, Plateau and Niger states. In the South west and Delta states of Nigeria flooding is also recurrent with severe impacts. The communities located at the tributaries of the Niger are also flood-prone (Adekola & Lamond 2018)

According to Obeta (2015) farmlands in Zamfara were submerged in 2003 due to heavy floods caused by a dam collapse. Akinloye (2018) confirms that excessive rains in Zamfara state resulted in the displacement of 12,300 persons during the same year. The rains ruined farmlands, inundated structures and damaged farmlands. A major flood in Nigeria was the Kano state flood of 2006, which killed hundreds of people and cost the country millions of dollars (Okoye 2019). The floods of 2012 was adjudged the worst flood in Nigeria in 40 years. The floods affected 30 of the 36 states in the country. An estimated total of 7 million people were affected by the floods. 368 deaths were reported while more than 2.1 million people were forced to flee their homes. The floods caused 2.6 billion Naira in losses and damages (Okoye 2019). In 2019 devastating flood disasters occurred in Nigeria. According to NEMA reports (2020), the states affected by the floods were Cross River, Kogi, Adamawa, Anambra, Taraba, Bayelsa, Rivers, Niger, Borno, Yobe, Benue and Delta states. The floods displaced 141,400 people. Over 108 deaths and 192 injuries were recorded. Again in 2021, flood disasters killed 68 people and affected 35 states and 520 Local governments in Nigeria (NEMA reports 2021)

This study covered three (3) states in Nigeria. These are Bayelsa in south south zone, Kogi in the North Central zone and Lagos in the south west zone. The states were selected for the study because of the preponderance, magnitude and frequency of flood disasters in the states. The study covered environmental policies on flood management formulated and implemented from 2005 to 2021 in Nigeria. It also covered selected agencies responsible for policy making and implementation on flood management in the study areas. The study focused on National Emergency Management Agency the flagship agency for flood management in Nigeria.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

In addressing flood disasters, different policies and disaster management measures have been formulated and implemented by the Federal Government of Nigeria. Two of these major policies include; the National Erosion and Flood Control Policy (2005) and the National policy on environmental conservation (2006). Government agencies like National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA), National Orientation Agency (NOA) and National Environmental Standards Regulation Agency (NESRA) have all been involved in activities of flood management in Nigeria. The nodal agency responsible for flood management in Nigeria is NEMA. The agency has the formulation goal of ensuring a dynamic, effective and efficient flood disaster/emergency management in Nigeria.

In spite of these policies and the management and control of flood disasters by different government agencies, flooding continues unabated with disastrous consequences in Nigeria. In 2019, 45,000 farmers were directly displaced by flood disasters and 29 deaths were recorded across 8 Local Governments of Lagos State (NEMA 2020). In August 2021 in Bayelsa state, several homes, farmlands, schools and church were submerged in 6 local government areas of the state with 250,000 people displaced (NEMA report 2021). In Kogi state, flooding has continued on yearly basis with devastating effects, Following the Presidential approval of a designated national climate change strategy in August 2021, the Federal Ministry of Environment announced that a national policy that will address all of the difficulties posed by climate change and climate vulnerability in the country was underway. Details of the policy are still been awaited. This study therefore investigated the effect of government environmental policies and activities of its agencies on flood management in Bayelsa, Kogi and Lagos states of Nigeria.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

The main objective of the study is to examine the influence of government environmental policies and the activities of its agencies on flood management in Nigeria. The specific objectives are to:

- Evaluate the effectiveness of government environment policies on flood management in the study areas.
- Examine the effect of the activities of government agencies activities on flood management in the study areas.

1.3 Research Questions:

- How effective are government environmental policies that have been formulated and implemented in the study areas?
- What has been the effect of government agencies activities on flood management in the study areas?

1.4 Hypothesis

H1 Government agencies activities have no significant effect on Flood management.

2. Conceptual Clarifications

The concepts that will be reviewed in this work are floods and environmental policy.

2.1 Floods

The existing literature on flooding makes available a multiplicity of the overlapping definition of the concept, the types of a flood, its causes, and its impact. Zom (2018) defines flooding as the presence of water in normally dry locations that considerably disturbs and interferes with human and societal activity. Flooding is defined by the European Commission as the temporary covering of land by water that was not previously covered by water. Similarly, Olajuyigbe et al (2006) describe flood as large volume water covering an area that is typically dry or as the overflow of a large body of water over terrains that is not normally submerged. That demonstrates that floods occur when an excessive amount of water moves across the previously dry ground (Demessie 2007), Cirella and Iyalomhe (2018) view flooding as a natural by-product of stream movement in a constantly changing environment from the point of new of its devastating effects, Adelekan (2016) described the flooding as a natural disaster comparable to drought and desertification that happens as a result of a severe hydrological event while the above researchers hold divergent opinions on what flood and flooding are they all agree on one thing: a flood is a vast amount of water inundating previously dry territory.

On causal factors of flooding Ojo and Adejuyigbe (2017) state that the factors that lead to the occurrence of flooding in Nigeria are anthropogenic in nature and according to the world Metrological Organisation (2008) the factors causing flooding include hydrological extremes and other human factors. Various studies have implicated the poor

attitude of many Nigerians to waste disposals as a major cause of flooding in the study areas (Oladokun & Proverbs 2016, Oluwaseyi 2019, Ojo & Adejuyigbe 2017, Musa & Shaibu 2019, Olukanmi, Adebayo and Terube 2014). In their own study, Offiong, Atu, Njar & Amreyon (2009) found that poor drainage system have seriously caused flooding problems in developing countries including Nigeria. Salami, Van Meding and Griggins (2017) stated that unregulated urbanization resulting from rapid population increase coupled with the issue of unplanned development has resulted in inadequate spatial planning. This has presented itself in the form of flooding catastrophes.

2.2 Policy

According to Hallsworth, Parker, and Rutter (2011), policies are discrete interventions designed to alleviate specific problems, the effects of which can be quantified and evaluated, while acknowledging that the effects of these deliberate interventions may be complex, sometimes wide-ranging, and unintended. Given the gravity of the issues that governments often address, they note that it is improbable that a policy will have both accountable and observable effects.

Hallsworth, Parker, and Rutter (2019), said that the aim of policy is to accomplish broad strategic objectives, noting that the quality of policy formulation is inextricably linked to the government's overall goodwill and that of the individual country. When policies fail, large monetary and associated expenses are typically incurred. Public opinion may have a variety of influences on how policies are developed or perceived. Indeed, it has been asserted that public opinion possesses the capacity to alter the course of history (Hobley 2012).

3. Theoretical Framework

The Theoretical Framework adopted for this study is the social action theory of Max Weber (1864 – 1920). The social action theory is preoccupied with the path, processes, and consequences of human actions in society as well as with the causes and meaning. Weber distinguishes four primary categories of social actions. The man may participate in Max Weber's social action theory is helpful in clarifying the study's substantive concerns. Among Weber's categorises and types of social activity, the last rational action is the most pertinent to their study. The acts or inactions of both government and people in society frequently result in unintended effects of floods that are detrimental to the long-term viability of civilization.

In other words, it would be stressed that government and individual acts and/or inactions contribute to the causes and effects of floods. Some examples of poor behaviour on the part of individuals in society include depositing waste in the urban drainage system in the mistaken notion that floods will wash it away. People's disproportionate proclivity for indiscriminately disposing of debris is always significant; it may result in floods, which is detrimental to society. Policy actions of government are necessary instruments for change in Society. Also, the construction of adequate drainages system is a desirable action of government but these are in shortfall while most of the available drainages are poorly constructed. Consequently, there are regular overflow of water especially during rainy seasons leading to flooding in major cities in Nigeria. Other areas of government passivity that directly cause floods are the governmental agencies' incapacity to develop an effective waste management system and affordable housing in the society.

4. Environmental Policies in Nigeria

The NEFCP was developed in March 2005. The policy thrust is directed at ensuring that coordinated and methodical actions are implemented in the management of flood and erosion problems in the country. It was argued that before 2005, efforts at controlling floods and erosion in Nigeria appeared discontinuous, very uncoordinated, and seriously under-funded leading to unsatisfactory results (Wahab, 2017). Among other things, Obasanjo (2005), in his preface to the policy, stated that "the national policy on flood and erosion control is intended to coordinate and promote programs that will eventually lead to the minimization of soil erosion" promote programs that will eventually lead to the minimization flood hazards." Oladoku and Proverbs (2016) stated that the National Erosion and Flood Control Policy has as its purpose the preservation of natural resources, conservation of productive land and the prevention of negative consequences from floods and landslides.

The policy provided that land use laws and regulations be formulated and reviewed. However, according to Arokoya and Ibam (2014), it is not just the review and formulation of land use regulations and laws, but the strict enforcement and adherence to these laws that will engender achievement of government objectives. The enforcement of land use laws and regulations have been undermined in Nigeria through the instrumentality of the State bureaucracy. Public and private buildings have been constructed without regard to government

environmental regulations. Some projects are sometimes built without adherence to existing environmental guidelines because some top government officials get percentages as kickbacks from contracting firms. The continuous indulgence of Nigerians in unfriendly environmental practices like deforestation, bush burning, overgrazing and indiscriminate waste disposal is an attestation to their abysmal ignorance. It is obvious that 17years after the formulation and implementation of the National Erosion and Flood Control Policy, many Nigerians remain ignorant of the consequences of their human activities on the environment.

According to Wahab (2017), the National Erosion and Flood Policy has shown to be ineffective in restoring environmental security, contrary to predictions. The terrible flood disaster of 2012 was caused not just by severe rainfall, but also by human activities, which contributed to its devastation. However, the NEFCP was unable to control these human activities, even if it wanted to, in order to prevent and ameliorate the devastation caused by the floods in Nigeria in 2012. Despite the fact that the Policy included raising awareness as one of its aims and placed a focus on a participatory approach at the grassroots level, it has failed to rein in the excesses of residents when it comes to the environment. People in Nigeria continue to engage in unwholesome practises such as the construction of refuge dumps and the blocking of waterways by individuals, corporate organisations, and even government agencies, which demonstrates that the majority of Nigerians are completely unaware of the consequences of their actions on the environment Wahab(2017).

The absence of, or complete disregard for, applicable planning rules and environmental impact assessment (EIA) during building operations demonstrates the National Flood Control Policy's failure some years after it was enacted. Clearly, suitable measures have not been done to achieve the fundamental goals of Nigeria's National Policy on Erosion and Flood Control. The policy appears to be a piece of paper that has not even given full power it requires to mitigate terrible effects of flood erosion in Nigeria (Adebimpe, 2017).

4.1 The National Policy on Environmental Conservation (2006)

The National Policy on Environmental Conservation was initially formulated in 1989 in response to the Federal Environmental Protection Agency's (FEPA) regulation No. 59 of 1988 and was amended in 2006.

The decree establishes the legislative foundation for environmental preservation, natural resource conservation, and sustainable development strategies.. The National Policy on Environmental Conservation intends to include biological diversity issues into national planning, policy, and decision-making, as well as to conserve and enhance the nation's biological variety via sustainable usage (Adebimpe, 2017). The primary objective of this environment policy, which was amended in 2006, is to ensure environmental protection and natural resource conservation for sustainable development. Its strategic purpose is to coordinate environmental conservation and development that is sustainable. The strategic objectives will be accomplished by ensuring a healthy and sustainable environment; promoting an understanding of the critical connections between environmental, social, and economic development issues; encouraging individual and community participation in environmental improvement; raising public awareness and fostering a national culture of environmental stewardship.

Despite the policy's ambitious goals, the country has continued to endure an increasing degree of catastrophe risk. The administration has failed to compile comprehensive maps of hazards and vulnerability assessments for the country. Additionally, the national catastrophe framework and strategy have not been implemented at the national and state levels. This has harmed the nation's capabilities for properly identifying, monitoring, and assessing flood risks (Adebimpe, 2017).

4.2 Agencies for Flood Management in Nigeria

Institutional policy approach to flood management in Nigeria entails the setting up of key institutions for tackling flood. This entails the setting up of disaster management agencies, departments and ministries with responsibility for flood management. The major agencies that have been set up include National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA), National Environmental Standards and Regulation Enforcement Agency (NESREA), and the National Orientation Agency (NOA).

4.3 National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA)

The National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) is the government's premier flood disaster management institution. It is charged with the responsibility of formulating policies, assessing natural and man-made disasters, providing mitigation

for disaster-related activities, coordinating relief programmes for victims of such disasters, and identifying flood-prone areas for the purpose of developing flood mitigation and prevention measures (Maigari,2009).

Deriving from its formulation goals, NEMA was to superintend emergency/disaster management through formulation of policies, coordination and monitoring of other stakeholders and agencies (NEMA, 1999). According to the Act establishing NEMA, the Agency was designed to take both horizontal and vertical oversight of the -activities of Federal Government agencies and parastatals directly and indirectly engaged in emergency management activities in Nigeria. The vertical aspect of NEMA's function focuses on the stakeholders/agencies from the other levels of government, especially the State and Local Emergency Management Agencies/Committees. Invariably, disasters/emergency management is patterned after Nigeria's federal political structure.

5. Methodology

To generate relevant data for this study, a mixed research design was adopted. The research collected data using quantitative and qualitative methods. The qualitative data were collected through survey methods while the quantitative data were collected through interviews Data were also collected through documentary methods, Journals, government gazettes and internet sources. Primary and secondary sources were used in data collection. Purposeful and stratified were used in the administration of questionnaires to 285 management staff of ministries of environment and emergency management agencies in Bayelsa, Kogi and Lagos States. Taro Yamani formular was used to determine the sample size of 285 out of the population of 990 across the three selected states. A total of 12 government and agency officials and 16 community leaders and victims of flood disasters were interviewed. Tayo Yamani formulae was used to determine the sample size of 285 out of the study population of 990 across the 3 selected states. The method of data analysis was both descriptive and inferential statistics. The descriptive statistics were analysed using simple percentage count while the inferential statistic was analysed using regression analytical tool with the aid of SPSS software. In addition, the data generated from interviews were analysed using content analytical method.

6. Data Presentation, Analysis and Discussion of Findings

This section of the study covers the presentation of data from the respondents through the questionnaires and interviews. The data gathered are analyzed in

tables using descriptive statistics of simple percentages mean and standard deviation. The section also tested one hypothesis using simple regression statistics. Discussion of findings formed the last section.

Re-statement of objective One:

Evaluate the effectiveness of Government Environmental Policies/strategies of flood Management in the study Area.

Government Policies/Strategies for Flood Management

S/N	ITEM	CA(5)	SA(4)	SD(3)	CD(2)	N(1)	M	SD	REM
		F(%)	F(%)	F(%)	F(%)	F(%)			
1	The National Erosion and Flood Control Policy and the National Policy on Environmental Conservation have been successful in curbing Flood Disasters in Nigeria	18(6.9)	81(31.2)	77(29.6)	39(15.0)	45(17.3)	2.85	1.212	
2	Government Environmental Policy have been able to address the problem of climate change and other human causes of flooding in the study area.	68(26.2)	161(61.9)	26(10.0)	4(1.5)	1(0.4)	4.01	0.898	Accept
3	Agencies of government have put urban planning guidelines, development and building control policies in place to ensure that no building are erected in flood plains and flood risk areas.	78(30.1)	148(56.9)	17(6.5)	17(6.5)		3.97	1.074	Accept
4	Government strictly enforces regulations barring buildings residing in flood prone areas and demolish such buildings to avert flood disasters.	62(23.8)	149(57.4)	26(10)	18(6.9)	5(1.9)	3.81	1.118	Accept
5	Government is actively involved in provision of proper waste management facilities	103(39.6)	145(55.8)	11(4.2)	1(0.4)		4.30	0.716	Accept
6	Relevant agencies normally engage in desilting of drains and construction of drains where needed	77(29.6)	168(64.6)	14(5.4)	1(0.4)		4.18	0.719	Accept
7	Government adopts non-structural measures like education of citizens, institutional readiness and enhancing citizens coping capacity in flood risk management.	154(59.2)	84(32.3)	7(2.7)	14(5.1)	1(0.4)	4.37	1.026	Accept

In the Table, minority of the respondents with 6.9% and 31.3% completely and somehow agreed that The National Erosion and Flood Control Policy and the National Policy on Environmental Conservation have been successful in curbing flood disasters in Nigeria. While 29.6%, 15.0% and 17.3% majority somehow disagreed, completely disagreed and neutral about the statement. On the average, the respondent completely disagreed in this case with a mean of 2.85 and a standard deviation of 1.212. Furthermore, a majority of the respondents with 26.2% and 61.9% completely agreed and somehow agreed respectively that. Government Environmental Policies have been able to address the problem of climate change and other human causes of flooding the study areas. However, 10.0%, 1.5% and 0.4% minority of the respondents responded otherwise. In sum, the respondents, with a mean of 4.01 and a standard deviation of 0.898, somehow agreed that relevant agencies of government usually issue early warning notices/advice of impending flood events to residents of flood prone communities to relocate before flood events.

In another dimension, majority of the respondents with 30.1% and 56.9% completely agreed and somehow agreed with the assertion that agencies of government have put urban planning guidelines, development and building control policies in place to ensure that no building are erected in flood plains and flood risk areas while 6.5% and 6.5% responded otherwise. Averagely, with a mean of 3.97 and standard deviation of 1.074, the respondents somehow agreed to the statement. Also, while majority of the respondents completely agreed and somehow agreed respectively with 23.8% and 57.4% respectively that Government strictly enforces regulations barring buildings residing in flood prone areas and demolish such buildings to avert flood disasters, 10.0%, 6.9% and 1.9% minority of the respondents respond otherwise. Summarily, with average mean of 3.81 and a standard deviation of 1.118, the respondents somehow agree with the forgoing statement.

In addition, the majority of the respondent equally agreed completely and somehow with 39.6% and 55.8% respectively that Government is actively involved in provision of proper waste management facilities while a minority of 4.2% and 0.4% respondents thought otherwise. On the average, respondents somehow agreed, with a mean of 4.30 and a standard deviation of 0.716, that Government is actively involved in provision of proper waste management facilities.

Furthermore, while 29.6% and 64.6% majority of the respondents completely agreed and somehow agreed respectively that relevant agencies normally engage in desilting of drains and construction of drains where needed, 5.4% and 0.1% minority of the respondents somehow and completely disagreed that relevant agencies normally engage in desilting of drains and construction of drains where needed. Thus, the mean value of 4.18 and 0.719 revealed that the respondent somehow agreed with the statement.

Also, the statement that Government adopts non-structural measures like education of citizens, institutional readiness and enhancing citizens coping capacity in flood risk management was attested to with 59.2% and 32.3% majority of the respondents who completely agreed and somehow agreed respectively. However, 2.7%, 5.1% and 0.1% of the respondents somehow disagreed, completely disagreed and neutral respectively to the statement. Thus, the values of the mean and standard deviation superlatively affirmed that the respondents somehow agreed to this statement.

The implication of the results above is that government policies and strategies for flood risk management have not been successful in preventing and managing flood disasters in Nigeria.

Restatement of Objective Two

Examine the effect of government agencies activities on Flood Management in the Study Area

Government Agencies Activities.

SN	ITEM	CA(5)	SA(4)	SD(3)	CD(2)	N(1)	M	SD	REM
		F(%)	F(%)	F(%)	F(%)	F(%)			
1	Government adequately trains and equip management and rescue teams for flood disaster management.	65(25.0)	133(51.2)	23(8.8)	39(15.0)		3.62	1.349	Accept
2	Adequate evacuation and relocation plans are usually put in place and enforced by relevant agencies of government after flood disasters.	93(35.8)	106(40.8)	19(7.2)	42(16.2)		3.73	1.427	Accept
3	Government actively provides adequate relief i.e. food, water, clothing, shelter for flood disaster victims post disaster.	123(47.3)	80(30.8)	11(4.2)	46(17.7)		3.86	1.491	Accept
4	There here been lack of proper and effective coordination between the major stakeholders (NEMA, SEMA and LEMA) in the conduct of flood risk management activities in Nigeria	161(61.9)	97(37.3)	1(0.4)	1(0.4)		4.60	0.557	Accept
5	The failure to operationalise the National Disaster Management Framework (NDMF) which was adopted by Nigeria in 2010 has affected the nation's capacity to prepare, respond and recover from disasters.	159(61.2)	99(38.1)	2(0.7)			4.60	0.537	Accept
6	Despite its appreciable achievements, NEMA the modal disaster management agency in Nigeria has not succeeded addressing flooding problems holistically and permanently in Nigeria.	160(61.5)	92(35.4)	2(0.8)	6(2.3)		4.53	0.758	Accept
Aggregate							4.58	0.61	

In Table 5.7, majority of the respondents completely agreed and somehow agreed with 61.9% and 37.3%

respectively that there has been lack of proper and effective coordination between the major

stakeholders (NEMA, SEMA and LEMA) in the conduct of flood risk management activities in Nigeria. However, 0.4% and 0.4% of the respondents respectively affirmed somehow disagree and complete disagree. On the average, with a mean of 4.60 and a standard deviation of 0.557, the respondents completely agreed with the statement. Furthermore, majority of the respondents with 61.2% and 38.1% completely agreed and somehow agreed respectively with the statement that the failure to operationalise the National Disaster Management Framework (NDMF) which was adopted by Nigeria in 2010 has affected the nation's capacity to prepare, respond and recover from disasters. However, 0.2% of the respondent completely disagreed. Thus, the respondents averagely completely agreed to the above assertion with a mean of 4.60 and a standard deviation of 0.537. Moreover, 61.5% and 35.4% majority of the respondents completely and somehow agreed respectively to the statement that despite its appreciable achievements, NEMA the modal disaster management agency in Nigeria has not succeeded addressing flooding problems holistically and permanently in Nigeria. Nevertheless, minority of the respondents with 0.8% and 2.3% somehow and completely disagreed with the same statement. However, the value of mean and that of the standard deviation which are 4.53 and 0.75 respectively, affirmed that the respondents completely agreed with the statement.

The implication of the forgoing result is that government agencies have not been successful in post disaster activities like adequate evacuation plan and provision of adequate relief items for flood disaster victims. It revealed that effective coordination is lacking among the major stake-holders in the federal, state and local government. It also revealed that NEMA, the primary agency for flood risk management in Nigeria have not performed its establishment roles creditably.

Findings from Transcribed Interview Sessions According to Research Questions

How effective are government environmental policies that have been formulated and implemented in the study areas?

Interviewees gave varied responses in respect of how adequate and effective the policies and strategies of government on flood management are in the study areas. In an interview conducted with a key official in the Planning Department of the Ministry of Environment, Lagos State, he asserted that government strategies in the State have been largely

successful. He stated that the strategies identified to be implemented to manage flood by the state government are documented in the 2012 climate policy which was revised in 2020 and the Lagos model city Masterplan produced in 2011. He said the ongoing implementation of the climate policy has led to several structural and non-structural flood control activities like the development of a flood and storm warning system including a Geographical Information (G.I.S) based storm and flood simulation system, creation of buffer zones from the shovelines to accommodate anticipated sea level rise, climate profiling of existing and new infrastructure against anticipated climate change impacts such as flood and sea level rise and storm surges. Other measures the official said are being implemented are building capacity of local communities to protect themselves against storm surges and sea level rise and raising public awareness of residing in low lying areas and provision of incentives towards relocating to safer alternatives places. He informed that notices are usually issued to dwellers of flood prone communities to relocate.

On waste management and de-silting of drains in the study areas, another official in the Ministry of Environment Lagos State stated during an interview with him that the state government has put in place an effective, proactive and resourceful waste management system in the state through Lagos waste management Agency (LAWMA) to avoid droppage of wastes in gutters and flood paths. He said since 2019, the government introduced the construction, demolition and disaster waste management (CDDW) initiative to prevent, minimize, re-use, recycle, recover and dispose waste. Also as part of efforts to ensure a flood free Lagos he said extensive dredging and desilting projects are being carried out in major drain channels in the state. The Director averred that massive desilting of drains, clearing of culverts and identified spots in the state are ongoing. He said rehabilitation works have been carried out in 44 primary channels in the state while work is ongoing on 222 secondary channels.

In Kogi State, the Director of climate change in the Ministry of Environment informed that the government in a bid to mitigate the effect of flooding in the state has been pursuing a deliberate strategy of expansion and desilting of drainage facilities in Lokoja, Ibaji, Bassa, Ofu and Igalamela Local Governments in the State.

In the contrary opinions expressed by community leaders and victims of flood disasters in the study areas, government policies and strategies for flood

management have been inadequate. On expansion of drainage facility it was observed in Lagos state that some drainage projects embarked upon by the government have not been completed three years after commencement. Also it was pointed out that in many cases when the government embarks on cleaning of primary and secondary channels, the debris found their way back into the channels because of delayed evacuation on the part of the contractors. Also the drainages are usually left uncovered after the removal of the debris leading to early collapse of such channels and most of the time a reduction in vehicular right of way. On relocation notices usually issued by government, some of those interviewed averred that most of the time adequate evacuation and relocation plans are not put in place. Usually, where to relocate and nature of support government plans to give are not stated, hence people in the flood plains always neglect or ignore government announcements and make their own plans to defend their belongings and homes from impending floods. Moreso some demolitions are carried out without any compensation or relocation of the residents.

In Kogi and Bayelsa States, some of the respondents averred that government has failed in respect of public enlightenment programmes on flooding in their communities. They averred that the policy thrust of the present government is on structural measures for combating floods. Also, community development associations and the locals are not deliberately involved in flood risk management efforts.

What are the effects of activities of government agencies in flood management in the study areas?

The interviewees, especially the top officials of NEMA in Lagos and Abuja averred that the agency has done reasonably well in flood disaster management in Nigeria since it was set up in 1999. One top official stated that NEMA has been in the fore front of disaster management and has provided relief and rehabilitation for flood disaster victims creditably in the last 20 years. He stated that there is no State in the country that has not benefitted from NEMA activities in that regard. Another respondent maintained that NEMA has established regional cooperation for disaster management and set up grassroots emergency management vanguards all aimed at effective flood disaster management. He also stated that NEMA has developed a multi-disciplinary epidemic early-warning systems and mechanism and a Geographic Information System (GIS). The GIS is a computer-based application that assists flood risk management activities.

In Kogi State, the Executive Secretary of Kogi State Emergency Management Agency (KOSEMA) averred in an interview that several awareness programmes on flood disasters have been held in the state. He stated that the social media, handbills and town cries have been used in the state to create awareness on flood readiness and notices to relocate from flood prone areas during heavy rains. On provision of adequate reliefs for victims of flood disasters, the Executive Secretary of Bayelsa States Emergency Management Agency (BASEMA) avowed in an interview that adequate measures are taken post flood disasters in the state to provide for and protect lives of victims. He said camps were set up and adequate relief materials provided for all internally displaced persons after the major floods of 2012, 2018 and 2020 in the State. Interviewees in KOSEMA and LASEMA avowed that adequate relief packages, shelter and health care are provided in Kogi and Lagos states post flood disasters.

In contrary opinions, some victims of flood disasters and community leaders interviewed in Bayelsa, Kogi and Lagos States scored government agencies especially National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) and National Orientation Agency (NOA) very low in their efforts at flood risk management in the study areas. They averred that public enlightenment and awareness in respect of flooding have been very inadequate in the study areas. The interviewees averred that most of the time after flood disaster government was generally aimed at distribution of relief materials to affected victims. A respondent a female trader who was a flood victim in Ibaji LG of Kogi State stated that after the 2020 floods in her area items like mattresses, bags of rice, beans, roofing sheets, clothings and other household items were brought and distributed in the area. She reported that there were issues of biases and corruption in the distribution of the materials as some people who were not victims benefited from the materials while several of the flood victims were neglected. She commended the efforts of the state government through Kogi state emergency agency but stated that government measures are only palliatives.

On the whole, most respondents in Kogi and Bayelsa view government strategies for flood management as ad hoc, reactionary, inadequate and unsuccessful. However, in Lagos state most respondents indicated that government strategies for flood management have been partly successful.

The study found that government agencies activities do not have significant effects in flood management in Nigeria. NEMA, the nodal agency for flood management in Nigeria has been bogged down with bureaucratic bottleneck and low institutional capacity and has therefore not been able to holistically and permanently address flooding problem in Nigeria. From the interviewees, it was found that there was need for the setting up of a dedicated agency for flood management in Nigeria. Also, there was need for involvement of Community Development Associations in flood management efforts.

A suggestion in respect of a dedicated agency for flood management in Nigeria is in agreement with the findings of Nkumnowo et al (2016). Who in their study harped on the need for a centralized institution for FRM in Nigeria. In the UK, the Environmental Agency is the non-departmental government body that has full responsibility for FRM. The success of

Flood Risk Management and Flood Risk = Reduction in the Netherlands, USA, China and the UK have been attributed to the success of their flood management agencies which have strong legal and policy backings to operate effectively (Nkumnowo 2017).

Analysis of Hypothesis

Government agencies’ activities have no significant effect on flood management in Nigeria.

A linear regression analysis was conducted to test the effect of government agencies’ activities on flood management in Nigeria. The dependent variable is flood management while the independent variable is government agencies’ activities. The test was conducted at significant level of $p < 0.05$ such that when p-value was more than the significant level, the model is considered insignificant. The results are outlined in the table below.

Regression results for effect of Government agencies activities on Flood Management

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate		
1	0.103 ^a	0.011	0.007	2.78704		
a. Predictors: (Constant), Government Agencies’ Activity						
ANOVA						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	21.260	1	21.260	2.737	0.099 ^b
	Residual	1996.277	257	7.768		
	Total	2017.537	258			
a. Dependent Variable: Flood Management						
b. Predictor: (Constant), Government Agencies’ Activities						
Coefficient						
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
(Constant)	31.438	0.882		35.639	0.000	
GAACTIVITY	0.074	0.045	0.103	1.654	0.099	
a. Dependent Variable: Flood Management						

The table revealed the results of the regression analysis on the effect of Government agencies activities on flood management in Nigeria. The Table showed that there is a positive relationship between government agencies’ activities and flood management in Nigeria $R=0.103$. However, the Table equally revealed that government agencies’ activities had no significant effect on flood management in Nigeria ($R^2 = 0.011$; $F(1, 258) = 2.737$, $p > 0.05$). Based on this result, the study accepted the null hypothesis and concluded that government policies had no significant effect on flood management in Nigeria.

7. Conclusion and Recommendations

The study concluded that governments’ environmental policies that have been initiated and implemented in Nigeria from 2005 till date have not been adequate and effective in solving flooding problems in Nigeria. Also, government agencies for flood management have not been effective in the prevention and management of the current flood disasters in Nigeria due to bureaucratic bottlenecks, inadequate funding and low institutional capacity. The institutional policy thrust of the Federal Government which focuses mainly on the structural

approach to FRM has not holistically and permanently addressed flooding problem in Bayelsa, Kogi and Lagos States.

Based on the findings of the study, the study recommends a comprehensive review of government environmental policies and strategies for flood management in Nigeria. Specifically, there is need for the review of the National Erosion and Flood Control Policy (2005).

Secondly, the Federal Government should review the activities of the Nigerian Study Action Team (NEST) with a view to strengthening it further to promote more scientific research and generation of requisite data towards resolving flood disasters and other environmental problems in Nigeria. Universities and research institutions should also be given the authority to incorporate studies and programmes in their curricula that are geared toward enhancing flood control and awareness in Nigeria, as well. It seems, at least on the surface, that worldwide research is correlated with progress in the fight against floods.

Finally, there is need for the federal government to set up a new dedicated and centralized agency for flood management in Nigeria. The new agency which should take over the present role of NEMA should be backed with relevant legal and policy frameworks for effective flood risk management in Nigeria. The new agency which should be a non-departmental government body should be adequately funded with at least 50% of the 1% allocated to the ecological fund. Also, the federal government should adopt a deliberate strategy of involvement of non-governmental agencies, Community Development Associations and the locals in flood risk management activities in Nigeria.

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Remuneration and Service Delivery in the Civil Services of Benue and Kwara States, Nigeria

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Abstract. The importance of remuneration in the sphere of public administration cannot be overemphasised. It is as a result of this that civil servants often clamour for better pay and improved welfare. The first major attempt at enhancing workers' wages in Nigeria was made when the Udoji Commission reviewed the salaries of civil servants in 1974. The general objective of this study was to examine how remuneration affects service delivery in the civil service, with Benue and Kwara States as case study. The study examined the benefits and the challenges of remuneration in the civil service. The study also examined the issue of wage disparity among the federal and state government in Benue and Kwara States. The study anchored on Max-Weber's bureaucratic theory. The methodology adopted for the study was survey research design. The population of the study was 1439, while the sample size was 313 based on Taro Yemani's formula. The study adopted structured questionnaire for the collection of primary data. The study revealed that remuneration had significant effect on service delivery in Benue and Kwara States, $F(1,304) = 53.077$ ($P < 0.05$). Based on its findings, the study recommends that Benue and Kwara States should increase their revenue drives, in order to be able to augment with what they receive from the federation account.

Keywords: Bureaucracy, civil service, motivation, remuneration, service delivery.

1. Introduction

All over the world, remuneration is perceived as an important aspect of human survival. It is a means by which workers are able to meet up with their needs, especially the basic ones. These needs have been classified by Abraham Maslow into an hierarchy of needs. It starts with the physiological needs, which are basic needs of food, clothing and shelter. Others

in the hierarchy are safety or security needs, social needs or love and belonging needs, esteem or prestige needs and the need for self-actualisation (Aruma and Hannachor, 2017).

The concept of remuneration gained much recognition with industrial revolution of the late 1700s and early 1800s, that began in Britain. Societies developed from agrarian to industrial ones, and with the growth of factories, people began working for companies that were sited in urban areas (Chen, 2007). In developing countries like Nigeria, the wage system became paramount as the society developed from the era of feudalism to capitalism.

The need to elevate the standard of living of the workers and also improve productivity, especially of civil servants, led to introduction of minimum wage in Nigeria. The clamour for a minimum wage was at the instance of Hassan Sumonu led Nigerian Labour Congress in 1979. This was as a result of a pay rise for political leaders when Nigeria was ushered into a democratic dispensation in 1979. This led to a major strike, with the Shagari led government agreeing to a minimum wage package of ₦125.00 per month (Fagbemi, 2018). At the state level, the issue of increase in remuneration has always been a source of rancor and acrimony between labour and the government based on reluctance to increase workers' remuneration.

The general objective of this study is to examine the effect of remuneration on service delivery in the civil services in Benue and Kwara States of Nigeria. The specific objectives are to: examine the benefits and challenges of a good remuneration package in the civil service; explore the issue of wage disparity between the federal government on one hand, and Benue and Kwara states on the other; examine the effect of remuneration on service delivery in Benue and Kwara states. Previous studies centred on work

environment and service delivery without dwelling on remuneration in particular and how it influenced the delivery of services by the civil servants.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

It is noticeable that service delivery in Nigerian civil service is poor. However, scholars and researchers in the past had attributed this problem of poor service delivery to many factors. Meanwhile, out of the reasons given for poor service delivery in Nigeria, remuneration has never received a fair share. Remuneration is an important aspect of service delivery in the civil service. Good remuneration is a means of motivating workers for better performance in the provision of essential services in the state. Therefore there is a need to look into the problem of poor remuneration in Benue and Kwara states so as to motivate workers for effective and efficient service delivery.

2. Literature Review

The concepts that are being reviewed in this study are remuneration, service delivery and civil service.

Remuneration: Remuneration, otherwise known as employee compensation, has been variously defined by scholars in both private and public sectors. Remuneration is the benefit or payment that an employee enjoys from his employer, for service that he or she has rendered based on the terms of contract of the employment that exist between them (Oluata, 2019). In addition, Oluata (2019) posited that remuneration or compensation can come in different forms. These are in form of salary, housing allowance, transport allowance and launch allowance.

In a similar but slightly different manner, Odunlade (2012) sees employee compensation as all forms of financial returns and benefits that are tangible in nature that an employee is given while in employment. Remuneration can be in two parts; these are hourly or weekly wages. Fringe benefits can be divided into two, namely, legally required benefit programmes and discretionary benefits. Examples of legally required benefits programmes are pension plans, paid time-off, recognition owned, tuition reimbursement, promotion and annual increment. As could be seen, legally required benefits are all futuristic in nature.

In addition to defining remuneration, James (2021), gave various determinants of what employees will see as remuneration. James (2021) opined that remuneration is what an employee receives as

payment for services rendered. This includes basic salary, bonuses and other economic benefits that an employee or executive receives in the course of employment. What is central to all the definitions is that remuneration has to do with entitlement that exists in form of salaries, bonuses, and allowances of employees, paid by their employer(s).

Service Delivery: Service delivery is the provision of basic services, namely, roads, electricity, health services, and safe water supply; and they are often the responsibilities of municipality (DBSA, 2022). The municipality in South Africa; for instance, are expected to maintain healthy living for their inhabitants through efficient and effective service delivery. In addition, it has been realised that poor service delivery often results in poor government services, reduction in available resources, job losses and poor living conditions (DBSA, 2022).

It is the federal, state and local government, that is, the three tiers of government that are engaged in delivery of service. In other words, public service is a basic responsibility of the state. The 1999 Constitution of Nigeria has vested the government with certain powers like controlling the national economy, with a view to securing maximum welfare for the people and also ensuring freedom and happiness of every citizen on the basis of social justice and equality of state and opportunity (Section 16 (1) (6)). In addition, Darma and Alli (2014) and Ibuzor (2017) posited that Section 16 (2) [6] of the 1999 constitution states that appropriate and sufficient shelter, abundant food, reasonable national minimum living wage, old age care, pension, unemployment and welfare of the disabled are to be ensured for all citizens.

Moreover, Oronsanye (2010) cited in Nwekeaku and Obiorah, (2019), sees public service as a means of satisfying the needs of the citizens through timely and well-organised procedures, often involving the various ministries of the state. These needs are necessities of life like roads, water, shelter and health services. They were being viewed in terms of their efficient delivery in the state.

In spite of importance of the civil service in rendering services to the people for socio-economic development, the roles of other institutions or stakeholders in rendering services cannot be overemphasised. Public enterprises also play important roles in provision of services to the people, such as electricity and water. However, these public enterprises have been criticised for their dismal performance in rendering services. As Anyebe (2018) observed, the public enterprises have failed to meet

up with public aspirations in terms of quality and quantity of services, generation of returns on investment and inability to provide reliable services.

Civil Service: The civil service is the body responsible for the implementation of government policies and programmes. It performs mainly administrative and executive function that has to do with the formulation and implementation of the policies and programmes of the government (Edeh, 2020). From time to time, the Nigerian government comes up with policies in the sphere of health, education, water and roads that the civil service is expected to implement. This is to ensure improvement in the people's living conditions and also promote socio-political and economic development in the country. As aptly put by Igbokwe-Ibeto, Agbodike and Osawe (2015), the civil service is the major means of managing development at different levels.

The civil service can also be seen as a body made up of civil servants and their activities that involve implementing assigned functions and decisions of political office holders (Smalyskys and Yubalovic, 2017). "In other words, it is a system of civil servants who perform the assigned functions of public administration". As further asserted by Smalyskys and Yubalovic (2017), the definition and scope of civil service varies from one country to another. While some states like Island and Poland have a narrow perception of national civil service, countries like France, Finland and Netherlands have a broader view of it. In a country like Italy thus, its view of the civil service covers not only the central and local governments, but also public sector employees who perform public sector functions such as educational institutions and government agencies. In Nigeria, the civil service covers only government Ministries at both the federal and state levels and local government council officials.

3. Theoretical Framework

This study anchored on Bureaucratic theory as observed by Nwogwugwu (2015), Max-Weber (1864-1920) is the major proponent of bureaucratic theory. The theory was proposed in 1922 (Prachi, 2021). Max-Weber in his analysis came up with an ideal type of bureaucracy that could serve as a platform or template for the comparison of the development of real bureaucracies (Serpa and Ferraira, 2019). This means while setting up organisation, whether public or private, the ideal type of bureaucracy can serve as yardstick for the proposed one.

The major assumptions of Max-Weber bureaucratic theory are that, a rational legal system of authority is (i) universally applicable, that is, can be put into operation in any country; and (ii) the most efficient mode of organisation, that is, no other system of authority is efficient as the legal-rational system (Poisson, 2020).

Max-Weber, while postulating his theory, came up with ideal characteristics of bureaucracy, which has been widely accepted as basis for the setting up of both private and public organisations like government Ministries, Departments and Agencies. Based on the analysis of Max-Weber's definition of bureaucracy, Julien, Freud (1996) cited in Serpan and Ferreira (2019), present the following principles as basis of Max-Weber's work: (i) the existence of written rules and regulations or terms that aid the division of functions in a clear manner; (ii) secured tenure of office for public servants; (iii) hierarchy of responsibilities/functions; (iv) employees are paid wages in the form of fixed salaries and pensions for retirees of the organisation; (v) recruitments are based on merits and qualifications; (vi) promotion is based on lay down rules and qualification, not on the basis of discretion; (viii) separation of official positions for individuals that perform the functions of these positions (Serpa and Ferraira, 2019).

Weber's bureaucratic theory has been criticised from various perspectives. Critics, namely Sharma, Sadana and Kaur (2013) had attacked the theory from ideological angle in the sense that the theory is regarded as defence of capitalist domination over the society.

Moris (2017) had also criticised Weber's bureaucracy on the ground that Weber's advocacy damages organisation's effectiveness thereby making it unsuitable for modern organisation. Its inefficiency emanates from too much emphasis on rules and rigidity, coupled with its impersonal approach.

In spite of criticism against Weber's theory, it provides the necessary guidance needed for administration decisions in organisations (Prichi, 2019). In addition, it ensures that the right person is placed in the right position in an office. Weber's bureaucratic theory is relevant to this study in the sense that the principles and characteristics embedded in the theory like remuneration, have been incorporated into the civil services or even at a broader level, the public services of different states.

4. Benefits and Challenges of Remuneration in the Civil Services

4.1 Benefits

Remuneration as could be seen has its own benefits. Cole (2002) in his analysis on salary, benefits and incentives, came up with three principal purposes of payment in an organisation. These are in order to attract sufficient and sustainable employees; for the retention of employees for their efforts; loyalty and achievement. It is imperative to note that some employees can also enjoy better pay in order to enhance their welfare and make them happy.

In a much broader sense, the benefits of remuneration as indicated by U.K. Essays (2013) and adapted by Benson and Lasisi (2019) are as follows: (i) mutual benefits: this implies that the benefits of remuneration or reward system are not mutually exclusive as they are not confined to the employees alone. The employers also benefit in terms of increase in productivity; (ii) motivation: remuneration or reward system also promote loyalty or draw employees to an organisation; (iii) team work: this is when employees see themselves as working towards the same goal, and this is enhanced through reward system or good remuneration.

Martin and Whiting (2016) posited that if an organisation adopt a managed approach to reward, it would help in the development of performance culture and it would also help in attracting and retaining the right people with the right skills; employees would also be motivated and engaged. This in essence implies good service delivery. While expanding on this, Abah and Nwoku (2016) in their study examined the strategies that can be used to motivate workers to work and secure higher productivity. These are enhanced compensations, which are financial rewards that will include basic pay, allowances and incentives.

4.2 Challenges

Multiplicity of government Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs): It has been realised that the wage bills for civil servants in developing countries like Nigeria during the 1970s and 1980s ballooned with the expansion of development in this country. There was increase in the number of Ministries, Departments and Agencies and state-owned enterprises. As the need to deliver education and health to the people increased, government expenditure grew (World Bank Group n.d). Currently, as established by the Oronsanye Report,

Nigeria has 541 federal government parastatals, commissions and agencies, some are statutory while other are none-statutory (Olaopa, 2021). As a result of the increase in cost of governance, the Oronsanye Report recommended a merger in the number of the agencies to reduce cost. This is a challenge to good remuneration in the mist of economic recession, as the government would find it difficult to increase salary when workers demand for it.

Attitude to wage increase by the wages commission: With an over-bloated civil service, and increasing salary/wages, the situation has often resulted to a small amount left in the coffers of government that has the responsibility for determining the pay of civil servants through an independent body. In Nigeria, it is the National Salaries and Wages Commission that is responsible for determining the pay and fixing of other benefits of civil servants often, it involves extensive collective bargaining by employee unions (World Bank n.d). Though, during military era, this was not the case, as collective bargaining took a new dimension, with the setting up of the wage commission and wage tribunals in order to fix salaries and also settle industrial disputes, there was also increasing unilateral role of government in determination of salaries (Amobi, 2015). Some state governments these days are also involve in unilateral declaration of remuneration for their workers as against the practice of collective bargaining.

Moreover, a critical analysis of the review of salaries and wages by the Wages Tribunal and Commission has indicated that they have never provided a proper and desired rational review of public service salaries and wages. It has also been realised that sometimes wage commissions had complicated issues and their awards have served as source of industrial disharmony (Amobi, 2015). For instance, Anambra State, like some other states in Nigeria has experienced increase in wages for civil servants, which has never met up with the needs and expectation of the people (Okeke, Nwele and Achilike, 2017).

Government's insensitivity to demand for good pay: when the government either at the federal or state level is insensitive towards workers' demand for a pay rise, there is challenge to the adoption of a good remuneration package for them. This insensitivity often results in industrial disharmony in Nigeria between the government and labour, which can lead to strike action. This as observed by Babatola, Oluwasanmi and Rotkang (2020) was experienced in Ekiti State, with federal government's 2011 minimum wage that resulted in prolonged industrial

dispute between workers and the state government. This eventually made the work environment to be uncondusive, with negative implication for productivity and service delivery in the state service.

Ability to pay: Sule, Amoni, Obasa and Banjo (2015), had asserted that the ability to pay serves as a challenge to a good remuneration package by the government. This is often noticeable when a country is witnessing economic recession.

5. Civil Service Remuneration at the Federal Level, Benue and Kwara States

It is worth noting that there often exists disparity between the pay of federal civil servants and that of their states counterparts and even among the states. Civil servants, in most cases, working with federal civil service are better remunerated than most states

civil servants. For instance, the new minimum wage of ₦30,000 being implemented by the federal government took effect from Thursday, April 18, 2019 (Ezigbo, Olaitan, Kolawole and Shittu, 2019). Even though, the law applies to both the public and private organisations that employ not less than 25 workers, many states still find it difficult to implement as a result of dwindling economic resources brought about by COVID-19 pandemic and security challenges and other pressing issues. Benue State said it was set to implement the new minimum wage for its civil servants from grade level 01 to 06 by December, 2020. Other workers on grade level 07 and above would have to wait till payroll issues are sorted out (Charles, 2020; Wantu, 2020).

The table below (Table 1.0) shows the disparities between the Federal, Benue and Kwara States salaries for the respective civil servants

Table 1.0: Showing Wage Disparity among the following

GL	Kwara State Salary Structure Effective from 2011 (Step I)	Benue State Salary Structure Effective from 2011 (Step I)	Federal Government Salary Structure Effective from 2019 (Step I)	
			Per Annum	Monthly
01	19,402	18,000	360,000	30,000
02	19,701	18,277	363,328	30,277.3
03	19,965.56	18,514	366,170	30,514.6
04	20,696.66	19,350	376,194	31,349.5
05	21,382.54	20,875	294,498	32,874.8
06	22,436.03	25,452	449,429	37,452.4
07	27,662.75	43,413	638,133	53,177.7
08	30,676.61	58,000	799,421	68,618.4
09	35,435.80	68,916	928,981	77,415
10	40,820.49	81,910	1,060,833	88,402.7
12	48,955.89	95,375	1,221,722	101,810.1
13	53,947.53	107,125	1,362,110	113,509.1
14	59,084.72	110,774	1,503,149	125,262.4
15	89,161.54	157,645	2,027,623	168,968.5
16	121,162.96	198,330	2,505,352	208,779.3
17	151749.12	239,105	4,769,304	399,442

Source: National Salaries Incomes and Wages Commission 2019, The Presidency, Abuja. The Benue State Government of Nigeria, Approved Salary Structure (CONPSS) 2011 Kwara State Consolidated Salary Structure, 2011

From the table above, it would be seen that there exists wide disparity between the salaries of Kwara and Benue State workers which is noticeable among workers on grade level 07 and above. With regards to the Federal pay, as seen in the table above, Federal Civil Servants in Nigeria are better remunerated than their counterparts at the state level.

6. Data Presentation and Analysis

Table 1.1: Descriptive Statistics of Remuneration of Civil Servants in Benue and Kwara States

S/N	STATEMENT	SA(5)	A(4)	D(3)	SD(2)	UD(1)	M	SD
		F(%)	F(%)	F(%)	F(%)	F(%)		
1	What I earn as salary is good and I feel satisfied to work efficiently.	37 (12.1)	77 (25.2)	84 (27.5)	67 (22.0)	40 (13.1)	2.78	1.360
2	My salary commensurate with my work performance, thus given me satisfaction on the job.	35 (11.5)	67 (22)	104 (34.1)	62 (20.3)	37 (12.1)	2.70	1.323
3	My workplace provides incentives that make me perform better on the job than my colleagues elsewhere.	33 (10.8)	78 (25.6)	95 (31.1)	51 (16.7)	48 (15.7)	2.80	1.282

4	My enhanced pay has prevented me from leaving the establishment and also ensures improvement in my work performance	28 (9.2)	73 (23.9)	98 (32.1)	45 (14.8)	61 (20)	2.81	1.219
5	My salary and allowances have made me comfortable, safe and healthy and thus motivate me to work well.	34 (11.1)	69 (22.6)	93 (30.5)	59 (19.3)	50 (16.4)	2.76	1.303
Remuneration (Mean =2.77)								

Source: Field Survey, 2022

Decision Rule: 0.5-1.49 = Undecided; 1.5-2.49 = strongly disagree; 2.5-3.49 = disagree; 3.5-4.49 = Agree; 4.5-5.0 = Strongly Agree. The cut-Off mean is 3.0

Table 1.1 reveals the opinions of the civil servants in Kwara and Benue State on how remuneration influences their service delivery. Hence, the table shows that 12.1% and 25.2% minority of the civil servants strongly agreed and agreed respectively that what they earn as salary is good and so they feel satisfied to work efficiently while 27.5%, 22% and 13.1% majority of the civil servants did not agree. In addition, while 11.5% and 22% of the civil servant strongly agreed and agreed respectively that their salary is commensurate with their work performance and thus given them satisfaction on the job, 34.1%, 23.3% and 12.1% majority of them disagree, strongly disagreed and undecided. Similarly, 10.8% and 25.6% of the civil servants strongly agreed and agreed respectively that their workplace provides incentives that make them perform better on the job than their colleagues elsewhere while 31.1%, 16.7% and 15.7% majority of them responded on the contrary.

Moreover, the response to the statement, my enhanced pay has prevented me from leaving the establishment and also ensures improvement in my work performance, also revealed that 9.8% and 23.9% of the civil servant that strongly agreed and agreed are in minority, while 32.1%, 14.8% and 20% of them that disagreed, strongly disagreed and undecided are in the majority. In like manner, 11.1% and 22.6% minority of the civil servants strongly agreed and agreed that their salary and allowances have made them comfortable, safe and healthy and thus motivate them to work well, but 30.5%, 19.3% and 16.4% majority of them did not agree. Summarily, Table 1.1 has revealed that the level of remuneration in the Civil Service in Benue and Kwara States is not enough to motivate the employees effective service delivery (mean = 2.71)

Hypotheses

H₁: Remuneration has significant effect on service delivery in Benue and Kwara states.

H₀: Remuneration has no significant effect on service delivery in Benue and Kwara states.

A linear regression test was carried out to examine the extent of effect that remuneration has on service delivery. The dependent variable is service delivery while the independent variable is remuneration. The valid measure for this test was at significant level of p<0.05 such that when p-value was more than the significant level, the model is considered insignificant. The result of this test is displayed in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2 Regression Analysis Result on the Effect of Remuneration on Service Delivery in Benue and Kwara States

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate		
1	0.386 ^a	0.149	0.146	3.773		
Predictors: (Constant), Remuneration						
ANOVA						
Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	755.484	1	755.484	53.077	0.000 ^b
	Residual	4312.844	303	14.234		
	Total	5068.328	304			
a. Dependent Variable: Service delivery						
b. Predictors: (Constant), Remuneration						
Coefficient						
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
(Constant)	11.489	0.574		20.029	0.000	
Remuneration	0.279	0.038	0.386	7.285	0.000	
Dependent Variable: Service delivery						

Table 1.2 revealed the result of the linear regression on the effect of remuneration on service delivery in Benue and Kwara States. The table showed that there is a strong positive relationship between remuneration and service delivery ($R = 0.386$). The table further revealed that remuneration had a statistical significant effect on service delivery $F(1, 304) = 53.077$ ($p < 0.05$). The regression coefficient of $R^2 = 0.149$ at $p\text{-value} = 0.000$. This result revealed that remuneration was statistically significant and explained 14.9% of variance in service delivery. The results revealed further from the unstandardised coefficients of remuneration that a unit increase in remuneration will have a 0.386 unit increase in service delivery in Benue and Kwara States.

Based on this result in Table 1.2, the p -value of the model was found to be less than 0.05. Thus, the study rejected the null hypothesis and concluded that remuneration had significant effect on service delivery in Benue and Kwara States.

7. Discussion of Findings

From the table 1.2 of the study that is in line with the main objective of the study, it would be seen that remuneration had significant effect on service delivery in Benue and Kwara states. This implies that pay and rewards made available to civil servants influence their performance on the job in Benue and Kwara states. In other words, remuneration is low, the workers would not be motivated to work.

These findings were in line with the observation of Ikotun (2004), who posited that, when salaries and wages are grossly inadequate no ethical code or staff regulation can shield the organisation from numerous clever ways of misusing public funds. The need for good remuneration in the civil service can also be seen in a study carried out by Akinwale and George (2020), when the study revealed that all the variables under study like autonomy and responsibility, socio-political climate, recognition and achievements collectively determined nurses' job performance, but salary (remuneration) was the most fundamental influence of nurses' job satisfaction followed by their achievement and promotion.

8. Conclusion

Based on the findings of the study, it can be concluded that remuneration plays a significant role in the motivation of employees towards enhanced performance on the job in both Benue and Kwara states.

9. Recommendations

There should be improvement in the remuneration of workers in Benue and Kwara states. The state governments should implement the minimum wage Act to the letter, with consequential increment. Allowances such as leave bonus, duty-tour-allowance, and over-time allowance should be paid to the workers as and when due in the states by their respective state governments.

Secondly, Benue and Kwara states governments should increase their revenue drives so as to be able to augment what they receive from the federation account with internally generated revenue. The boards of internal revenue service of the two states should be strengthened in order to adequately position for these responsibilities of revenue drives.

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A Historical Study of Leprosy Control Policies in Western Nigeria, 1896-1945

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Abstract. This study is within the domain of medical history, a neglected area of studies in Nigeria that is gradually gaining the attention of Nigerian historians. The study examines the institution of leprosy control policies in colonial Western Nigeria up to 1945, when the foundation of what became the basic control modalities was laid. The study analyses and provides insight into the early years of leprosy control in Western Nigeria, thereby filling the gap in a number of studies. The study reveals that the colonial authorities disapproved of the indigenous method of leprosy control. They introduced new medicines such as iodide of potassium, hydreg perchloride and chaulmoogra oil, but emphasised the seclusion of lepers in leprosaria. Leprosaria in the form of asylum, camps and settlements were created across Western Nigeria to facilitate the seclusion policy. The study also analyses the synergy between the government, Native Authorities, Christian missions, international agencies and families in the funding and management of the leprosy centres. To meet the objectives of the enquiry, the study relies substantially on primary sources especially the extraction of information from the national archives, Ibadan, while relying more on the Annual Reports of the Medical Department and related files.

Keywords: Leprosy, Western Nigeria, Leprosaria, Medicine, Ordinance

1. Introduction

This study in the social history of medicine focuses on the foundation of leprosy control policies in Western Nigeria. Only a few studies have interrogated leprosy control in Nigeria from a historical perspective because of the lean attention that Nigerian historians have paid to medical history,

relative to political and economic themes. However, reference to developments in Western Nigeria has featured in some works written by some medical doctors and a few historians, although none has focused on leprosy control policies in the area and time under consideration. For instance, although Ralph Schram in his work, *a History of Nigerian Health Services*, paid attention to Western Nigeria, his account was of a composite nature, covering the whole of Nigeria and capturing both preventive and curative medicine, with emphasis on the latter (Schram, 1971). The work provides useful ideas, yet does not share the focus of this study. Tunde Oduwobi's study, *Tackling Leprosy in Nigeria, 1926 -1960*, also gives insight into the subject of leprosy control in Nigeria (Oduwobi, 2013). However, he left out the period before 1926, a period when some major developments took place in Western Nigeria. Unlike the focus of Oduwobi's work, John Manton's *Global and Local Contexts: The Northern Ogoja Leprosy Scheme, Nigeria, 1945-1960*, was centred on Ogoja in the middle belt of Nigeria, with only cursory reference to developments in Western Nigeria. He emphasised the influence of international agencies especially United Nations agencies like UNICEF, World Health Organization (WHO) and the British Empire Leprosy Relief Association (BELRA) which was later renamed British Leprosy Relief Association (LEPRA) in 1964. The span of the work excludes the period before 1945, which, indeed, was a significant part of the foundation years of the leprosy control policies in Western Nigeria. This gap is addressed in this study to reveal the synergy between the colonial authorities, the Christian missions, Native Authorities, local communities, families, international agencies and patients at various times up to 1945 in the control of leprosy in Western Nigeria.

Western Nigeria refers to the South-western end of Nigeria and is coterminous with the defunct Western Region of Nigeria as constituted by the Nigerian colonial state in 1951. It is occupied mostly by the Yoruba, the Edoid elements, the Anioma people and a sub-set of the Ijaw people, The common administrative umbrella foisted on them under the Western and Central Provinces in 1906, Western Group of Provinces in 1939 and as the Western Region in 1951 ensured several points of convergence in the development of leprosy control policies in the area.

2. Beginning of Leprosy Control in Western Nigeria

The adoption of preventive healthcare measures against leprosy was inspired by the need to check the spread of diseases, minimize recourse to hospital care and reduce death rate. Leprosy, the focus of this study, an infectious disease caused by *Mycobacterium leprae*, was present in virtually every community of Western Nigeria. Cases were reported across the region, including places like Abeokuta, Ijebu Ode, Ibadan, Lagos, Ogbomosho, Benin, Agbor and Asaba. The indigenous people had ways of dealing with it, which the British colonialists ruled out as ineffective and even hazardous to health. In the traditional setting, Lepers often roamed the streets, until their cases became conspicuous and complicated with chronic ulceration. Only those with chronic ulceration were sometimes ostracized from their homes. In some instances, as it was reported “among the Eguns, it [was] thought of as nothing; lepers intermingling with others in perfect ease and comfort”. (National Archives Ibadan (NAI) Lagos Annual Report, 1906, p.220)

There was no known herbal decoction considered efficacious in preventing leprosy in any community in western Nigeria. But herbal mixtures were compounded for therapeutic uses. In Yorubaland, for instance, an indigenous plant called “*fu*” was used. It was selected from the bush and the bark split off ritualistically on four sides – north, south, east and west. The herbalist placed four cowries on those sides and repeated an incantation. The essence of the cowries was to pay the plant for its service in healing. Slag from the blacksmiths furnace was then placed in the bottom of a pot and mixed with the compound. The urine of a young to which the ordinary blue dye has been added was poured over this, along with small quantity of water. The mixture was covered and allowed to stand for seven days. The infested person then drank with his hand first and thereafter wash the leprous spot with the compound. (NAI, Lagos Annual

Report, 1899). Apart from its contagious nature and its tendency to disfigure the patient, leprosy was looked upon as a curse from the gods or as a result of a dreadful offence that must have been committed. Many communities in Yorubaland and the Edo and Anioma axis of Western Nigeria also considered it hereditary. A case arising in a family tended to deter marriage to someone from that family. Being a stigmatised disease, families usually ostracised those with visible ulceration to save themselves from ridicule. A secondary reason was to prevent its possible spread to other members of the family. An ostracised leper usually set up a camp close to a farm land but was surreptitiously visited by family members, a habit that negated the desire to prevent the spread of the disease by seclusion. Another limitation of the indigenous effort at seclusion is that it was not rigidly enforced and there was no mechanism for detecting early stages of the disease, which were potentially as infectious as the large ulceration stage. British officials dreaded the possibility of being infected and had to include preventive measures against leprosy in their health calculations.

3. Colonial Rule and Prophylactic Isolation: Leprosaria

Upon the institution of colonial rule in Nigeria, the British were confronted by several tropical diseases one of which was leprosy. The virulent and incessant attack of the disease coupled with its contagious nature, correspondingly attracted the policy of prophylactic isolation. An institutional mechanism and policy in the form of isolation centres were contrived to foster environmental protection against the diseases. Leprosaria, inadvertently, emerged under this policy. The idea was to treat the diseases in isolated and specialized institutions. This was a containment policy because of the risk of causing nosocomial infection in General Hospitals if cases were referred there. Thus, preventive isolation was adopted and preferred to conventional hospital and therapeutic care. This required a clear-cut isolation policy, which demanded that lepers should be kept in leprosaria and it was first attempted in Western Nigeria at Kokomaiko in Lagos under Governor Molony. By 1896 a leprosarium had been opened at Yaba. The Yaba Leper Asylum commenced operation with two female patients. In 1897, one more female and two males were admitted. In 1898, three males and two females were also admitted. By 1889, the number rose to thirteen – eleven males and two females. Of the former, five were prisoners from Lagos prison and eight paupers. (NAI, Lagos Annual Report, 1899). Of the ten patients admitted between

1896 and 1898, two were indigenes of Lagos, while three were from the other parts of Western Nigeria simply referred to as the “hinterland” at that time. The asylum was expected to admit destitute patients, those from prisons, individuals who had lost faith in traditional medicine practitioners and those recommended by families, irrespective of the stage of the disease. Oguntola Sapara in 1901 classified the inmates into three: (1) those compelled to stay due to long sentence; (2) those finding that their ulceration had healed. (3) Those that were too mutilated to be useful to themselves and compelled, thereby, to remain (Sapara, 1899). By 1900, fifteen cases were admitted from western Districts and Lagos area. Of these, five were Egba; one, Ijebu; one, Ilorin, one from Lagos and one, Yoruba (of unknown town of origin); and two Hausa. (NAI, Lagos Annual Report, 1900-1901). The earliest form of treatment was with iodine, which was applied externally and iodide of potassium and hydreg perchloride used internally.

One of the teething problems associated with the leprosarium was the tendency of the inmates to abscond as three did in 1899. (NAI, Lagos Annual Report, 1899). This influenced Governor Alfred Molony’s decision (with advice of the Executive Council) to proclaim an order declaring contagious disease hospitals as prisons on March 2, 1899, although it was not applied to lepers stringently (NAI, Lagos Annual Report, 1906). This order rested on Ordinance Number 9 of 1876, which empowered the Governor to do so. Going by the permissive nature of the seclusion policy, compulsory seclusion was difficult to enforce and Lepers could ask to be discharged against doctor’s advice because many of them “preferred being in their own villages where they could plant garden products, make palm oil and rear poultry” (NAI, Lagos Annual Report, 1899). Some even preferred “begging for alms from the too indulgent public” (NAI, Lagos Annual Report, 1899). Segregation for leprosy patients was relatively loose until 1916 when the health authorities made more stringent rules. Further development, as we shall see, resulted in the establishment of more leprosaria in places like Ogbomosho and Ossiomo alongside a host of Native Authority leper camps across Western Nigeria.

Since compulsory detention was never effective, the policy adopted was to educate and persuade infected persons to avail themselves of the opportunities offered by the asylum. Vagrant lepers were not compelled by law to submit themselves to compulsory seclusion. Therefore, A. J. Broodie, then Colonial Surgeon lamented that the government was paying for an institution which certainly offered little

protection for the general public and even the patients who often spoilt their treatment by lack of continuity of treatment. According to him; “The law or rather want of some law regarding lepers in the Colony of Lagos makes this institution...merely a casual ward for lepers, paupers, many of whom come and go as they please” (Broodie, 1901).

This scenario was replicated in the Onitsha Leper Settlement, which had commenced operation by 1909. There was a high rate on leprosy infection in the neighbourhood of Onitsha, including the Agbor, Asaba, Ibusa, and Ogwash-ukwu axis. Cases from these latter towns were initially handled at Onitsha, but subsequently at Ibusa, where a leper colony was opened in 1913. (NAI, Annual Report, 1913). A leper Ordinance was passed on 2nd September 1910 (NAI, Annual Report, 1910). It introduced a modified system of segregation by the establishment of leper settlements and villages with the paraphernalia of an agrarian community. The ordinance influenced the construction of the Ibusa settlement in 1913. In that year, Yaba had seventeen inmates, Ibusa, fifty-two and Onitsha, 100. Onitsha at that time, in spite of the Ibusa site, still accommodated several patients from Western Nigeria (NAI, Annual Report. 1913). The new Ibusa site operated as a small leper village. It was maintained by the “native community”. Farmland was allotted to augment the food and clothing provided by the relatives of patients. Although the policy of farming was integrated into the leper settlement or village system, the planting of crops was not entirely a new idea. As far back as 1900 gardening was a part-time resort at the Yaba centre. Greens, banana, plantain, oranges, breadfruit were planted (Sapara, 1900). But a 1914 settlement policy emphasized a larger space, a more elaborate farm and location within a village in the neighbourhood of larger towns (NAI, Annual Report, 1914). Although these measures were already in place, an ordinance to further regulate the establishment of asylums and settlements for the isolation and detention of lepers was promulgated on 21st December, 1916. It streamlined the meaning of an asylum, defining it to mean “a place established by government for the temporary or permanent detention of lepers” while a settlement was taken to mean “a suitable number of native dwellings established and supported by government or by a native community for the isolation and detention of lepers” (Kingdom, 1958, p. 2188). Compulsory detention was still not rigidly adhered to at this point and had to wait until Order 47 of 1951 when it was declared that every person residing in a house...who knows or has reason to suspect that any innate therein is a leper, and every person who knows or reasonably

suspect that a person employed by him in a proclaimed district is a leper shall give notice thereof to the nearest magistrate (Kingdom, 1958). Defaulters at that point were made to pay a fine of five pounds.

In spite of these efforts, leprosy remained a virulent epidemic. In the 1920s, alepol, a variant of the chaulmoogra oil was introduced as the drug of choice. It produced impressive results and, therefore, inspired the expansion of leprosy control in western Nigeria (Browne, 1980). On January 31, 1924, the British Empire Leprosy Relief Association (BELRA) was formed. It became a powerful voice in the campaign against leprosy. Its influence was felt in the emergence of Ogbomosho and Ossiomo settlement in 1926 and 1931 respectively. Its leader Dr Ernest Muir visited Nigeria in May 1935 and made recommendations that were to form the basis of new arrangements. The influence of Muir and his BELRA intensified the involvement of Christian missions. In fact, Muir had recommended the expansion of the present system of settlement on a provincial basis and the policy of placing medical mission in charge of Native Administration leper colonies. (NAI, Annual Report, 1936).

The Ogbomosho and Ossiomo settlement became key players in the implementation of this policy. The construction of the Ogbomosho centre started in 1926 and by 1935 it had become fully operational with fifty-five inmates under the aegis of the Baptist mission. The Ossiomo settlement was initiated in 1931 by a Catholic Lady, Dr Louba Lengauer, with the help of Rev. Fr. Hugh Colon (Schram, 1971). Grants were received from the Colonial Development Fund but the centre was to be jointly maintained by the Native administrations in Benin and Warri. It commenced operation formally in 1938 with a target population of 500 patients. By 1939, it had about 319 patients and 381 in 1940. Ogbomosho and Ossiomo centres, like the Yaba and Ibusa centres had farms which inmates cultivated to augment what the missions and Native Administrations provided (Shokpeka, 2008). The Ossiomo centre later became a model centre for the Western Region. It gave technical support to the Native Authorities that ventured into the construction of small leprosy camps which became common during the war years.

4. Leprosy Control during the War Years

By the beginning of World War II, in spite of the efforts of the past years, the problem of leprosy was still largely unsolved. The leprosaria at Ogbomosho and Ossiomo had, at best, laid a foundation, for

leprosy work. There was still much to be done to develop such an institutionalised control system. Vast areas were still not attended to beyond the Benin and Yoruba axis that were relatively close to the administrative capital in Lagos. Leprosy control, for example, was absent in Urhobo and Isokoland. The marked the influx of the Urhobo people seeking admission into Ossiomo Leper Settlement was an indication that leprosy was rapidly ‘progressing’ in the division (NAI, Ugheli District I/1146, Minutes). Similarly, a report on Oyo Provinces and environs indicated that out of an estimated number of 10,000 lepers, 9,400 were still roaming the streets. Those in Ondo, Ogun and Ekiti areas were poorly catered for in temporary camps. The Ossiomo settlement was overwhelmed by the influx of lepers from the Benin and Delta provinces. Leprous soldiers were also to be treated for there. By 1940, its facilities were already utilised to full capacity just as it was in Ogbomosho. The health authorities, therefore, sought government approval and improved funding to expand, recruit more staff and rev up propaganda work. A decisive and well-funded programme was required, but the government was more committed to its administrative responsibility in this regard. It practically shrieked from taking up the financial burden of expansion.

The tone of war time fiscal policy of a limited financial involvement in non-war concerns reflected government position. The government maintained a quadripartite arrangement between it (represented by the Health Department), the Native Administrations, the missions and the British Leprosy Relief Association (BELRA). The government coordinated the activities of the other agencies, but within the war period, it broadened their level of involvement. As the other agencies became more involved, government intervention dimmed. So much so that BELRA had to recommend the appointment of a full-time Leprosy Adviser and a Leprosy Unit (made up of a Leprosy Adviser, Research Officer and Field Officer) to augment the waning services rendered by government. By 1941, the Leprosy Adviser had become an important resource person (NAI, Oyo Prof1/21BXIX, C. P. Walker). The Native Administration, missions and BELRA, more than the government, financed leprosy control projects. In order to ensure continuity, create an enabling environment and possibly further develop the settlements, the government increasingly got the leprosaria to rely on internally generated revenue. The Director of Medical Services confounded by the financial difficulties experienced in the settlements in the war period, made a point about the need for a legislation to be introduced under section 8(g) of the

Native Authority Ordinance, and No. 43 of 1933, to provide for the maintenance of lepers by their families (NAI, Oyo Prof I/218XIX H. M. F White). A similar position had earlier been taken at the Uzuakole settlement in Eastern Nigeria based on the recommendations of D. N. Davey, the Medical Superintendent of the Camp, that families of leprosy patients should bear part of the cost of their treatment. At Ossiommo in Benin Province, the idea was also adopted, and for the first time, the administration, in 1941, verified the composition of the inmates in relation to their capacity to pay or be sponsored by their families. To the amazement of the officers and the camp Superintendent, many who hailed from wealthy families but related to some chiefs or clerks of the Native Administration office were smuggled into paupers' quota (NAI, Oyo Prof I/218XIX Report). It was no longer business as usual; such patients were promptly re-categorised as fee paying. The statement of account of the Ossiommo colony in the 1943/1944 financial year clearly illustrates the importance of such fees to the sustenance of leprosy control efforts in the war years. The total revenue for the period was £2,545:8:5, which was accumulated as follows:

Table 1: Sources of Finance for Ossiommo Leprosarium, 1943/1944

Source	Amount
Native Administration	£1,530:00
Paying Patients	£533:12:6
Farm Products	£65:4:13
Nigeria BELRA	£100:0:0
Education Department	£60:0:0
Miscellaneous	£16:0:0
London BELRA	£240:0:0
Total	£2,544 16 : 9

Source: NAI. Ben Prof I/BP.1417. Ossiommo Leper Settlement: 158.

The highest contribution came from the Native Authorities, but the £1,530 they contributed was pulled together from eight divisions, namely, Benin, Agbor, Ishan, Kukuruku, Ogwashi-Uku, Sobo-Ughelli, Jekri-Sobo (Itsekiri) and Kwale-Agbor. Their contribution going by a 1939 report were as follows:

Table III: Contribution of Divisions to Ossiommo Purse.

Benin	£400
Agbor	£135
Isahn(sic) (Ishan)	£150
Kukuruku	£50
Ogwashi-uku	£150
Sobo-Ughelli	£200
Jekri-Sobo	£200
Kwale-Agbor	£220

Source: NAI. Ben Prof I/BP.1417. Ossiommo Leper Settlement: 1-11.

The revenue so derived boosted Ossiommo's capacity to expand its facilities to accommodate more inmates. Thus, in spite of war-time financial difficulties, it was able to build "a court, an oil plant shed, store, dormitory for girls, dormitory for boys, two latrine for men, one incinerator, two houses for married people, a new rest house for visitors and rearranged the market place (NAI, Annual Report on Ossiommo, 1941, p. 70). The policy which approved of a more intensive family support for lepers was also embraced at the Ogbomosho colony. The District Officer of Ife-Ilesha had argued that the legislation was "quite in keeping with native law and custom" (NAI. Oyo Prof I/1032. Vol. II: Reply. p. 258). The legislation was to be enforced through the Native Courts. Just as it was at Ossiommo, the improvement in the revenue base of the Ogbomosho colony arising from expanded family support also facilitated expansion, to the extent that in 1944 alone "the colony's physical space was expanded", more crops were grown, a special food factory was established, old buildings were repaired, twenty new huts were constructed, three new latrines and three incinerators were erected, forty new pupils and three new teachers also joined the leper school (NAI, Oyo Prof I/1032. Vol. II, Reply, p. 902). Ogbomosho and Ossiommo colonies, invariably, acquired sufficient stature to undertake the supervision of ancillary leper camps that emerged in various locations in the region especially in the 1940s. The two colonies were officially designated the headquarters of such clan settlements that emerged (Ogbeide, 2015, March 3, Oral interview). The satellite clan settlements of Ogbomosho colony included those located in Lanlate, Iwo, Ede, Ejigbo, Oyo, Iganna and Shaki. Together, they had 445 lepers in 1944. An additional one was established at Shepeteri in 1945 and commenced operation with twenty-two inmates. The number of inmates in these centres was 498 by 1945 whereas the Ogbomosho colony alone had 434 (NAI, Report on Ogbomosho Leper Colony, 1944). The Ossiommo colony also supported a programme of expansion through satellite settlements which emerged in places like Ugboha and Urhonigbe in Benin province. With these, more lepers were taken off the streets and homes, with a concomitant effect of reducing the spread of the disease.

The clan settlements were manned by attendants employed by the Native Administration. The Medical Superintendents based at Ossiommo and Ogbomosho were the medical overseers. They paid regular visits, supplied medication and ensured compliance to good standard of hygiene. They collated the report of the attendants and relayed same to the provincial Medical Officer of Health, who, in turn passed the

information to the Director of Medical and Sanitary Services based in Lagos. One of the challenges which the leprosy control authorities had to deal with was the relative shortage and increased cost of drugs owing to the extra cost of shipping during the war. Chaulmoogra oil obtained from the *hydnocarpus* plant remained the drug of choice during the war. It was supplied from England to the medical store in Lagos, from where it was sold to leprosaria. The government came up with an import substitution measure by way of local cultivation of the *hydnocarpus* plants. A pilot project started in Benin where the plant was successfully grown (Ogbeide, 2015, March 3, Oral interview). The cultivation of the plant was introduced from Benin into Ogbomosho and Oyo in 1944 as an alternative source of the chaulmoogra oil (NAI, Oyo Prof I /218XIX. Report, 1944). This policy was endorsed and implemented enthusiastically with the support of the Native Administration and the Missions involved. Undoubtedly, the Catholic and Baptist Missions contributed significantly to the programmes and the survival of Leprosy service during the war years.

The former took charge of the day-to-day running of Ossiomo settlement as a missionary and humanitarian service, ensuring a steady flow of medical and clerical officers from its fold. Ossiomo jobs were regarded with disdain. The fear of becoming infected made them unpopular. Those who took up positions in the settlement were encouraged by the missions who preached that it was a virtuous and cardinal work of mercy to do so. At the Ogbomosho settlement, the Baptist Church was the partner. It encouraged its members to take up appointment and was involved in the running of the centre to such an extent that the Resident of Oyo Province could assert, unequivocally, that the "settlement at Ogbomosho is not a Native Administration settlement. It is a mission concern assisted financially by the Native Administration" (NAI. Oyo Prof I /218XIX. Resident Oyo). But it was subject to government control through a provincial board. (NAI, Oyo Prof I/218XIX. Resident Oyo). Although the government was ill-disposed to a heavy financial involvement during the war years, it never reneged on its role as a policy formulator. The Director of Medical Services in 1943 reiterated government policy position when he declared that

The development of leprosy control work on comprehensive preventive lines is far beyond the scope of the mission organisations to undertake. In any event, there are so many administrative, medical and public health problems involved, that responsibility for direction and maintenance must be

undertaken by government, its continuity of policy is necessary to ensure permanent results is to be obtained (NAI, Oyo Prof I /218XIX. Report on Ogbomosho Leper Colony, p. 901)

Therefore, the government insisted that the Native Administration's contribution should continue. By 1945, the Baptist mission had become more deeply committed financially. It offered as much as 6000 dollars for the development of the camp, even expressing the desire to run the leprosarium independently as a sole financier. The government responded that the "mission was free to carry on its leprosy policy" but that the "general direction of policy must remain in the hands of the government" (NAI, Oyo Prof I /218XIX. p.901). For instance, it took the government to institute a regulation that leprosy soldiers should be admitted and treated at the government's expense. Government approval was also required before leprosy patients were allowed to barter with healthy population in their neighbourhood and to regulate the degree of contact they should have with them. By soft-peddalling on leper-community business transactions, the leprosaria gained in revenue generation. But government position was rationalised thus:

It is not the policy of the leprosy service to cut off segregated patients completely from their people and relatives... for if they were harshly treated as prisoners, people would be reluctant to stay in the village.... The germ of leprosy which lived in the blood was only infectious through constant contact of body (NAI, Ugheli Dist I/1146. Minute).

Settlement-community relations required a lot of propaganda work. Sanitary inspectors spearheaded the work, with occasional visits by the propaganda unit and the sanitary superintendent.

Definitely, there is a lesson to be learnt from the contribution of the native authorities to the dispensation of preventive healthcare in Western Nigeria up to 1945. The role they played during World War II period, when government became less willing to finance non-war projects, unlike what obtains in contemporary Nigeria, demonstrates the capacity of local governments to operate as effective agents in preventive healthcare. Their financial contribution and improvisation saw several communities and preventive healthcare institutions like leprosaria through the vicissitudes and the financial crunch occasioned by the war.

5. Conclusion

The control of leprosy in Western Nigeria has a checkered history. As indicated in this study, the late 1880s up to 1945 could be regarded as the foundation years of leprosy control policies in the area as most of the modalities instituted for the purpose are traceable to the period. This study complements the works of Oduwobi and Manton whose scope of study began in 1926 and 1945 respectively because significant developments had been recorded before these dates. The government, Native Authorities, BELRA, Catholic mission, Baptist mission and families were engaged in the control of the disease. Although cure was sought through the administration of medicines such as iodide of potassium, hydreg perchloride and chaulmoogra oil, greater emphasis was placed on prophylactic isolation of leprosy patients in asylums and leper settlements. A significant proportion of available funds was deployed to the construction and funding of the centres in addition to the upkeep of the inmates. This was the foundation built upon in subsequent years by WHO, UNICEF, post-independence Nigerian government, Nigerian Leprosy Mission (NLM), Non-governmental Organisations and the German Leprosy Relief Association (GLRA) which was established in 1957 and re-christened German Tuberculosis and Leprosy Relief Association in 2003.

The conditions of the leper settlements have deteriorated over the years. Some patients who have been healed and their children elect to remain in the settlements because of rejection by society. Some come out to the highways to beg for arms and even sell food items to travellers. The inmates and their families now practically fend for themselves. The poor attention given to leprosy control has made it impossible for the disease to be eradicated in Nigeria. Report by the Nigerian Centre of Disease Control indicates that over 3,500 people are infected with leprosy in Nigeria every year (Onyeji, 2021). This has earned the disease a place in the list of Neglected Tropical Diseases (NTD) produced by WHO. There is a need, therefore, to explore the lessons inherent in the collaboration between the government, local governments, donor agencies and families to rekindle the drive towards the eradication of leprosy in Nigeria.

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Demystifying Ijaw and European Foreign Trade Relations, in the 19th Century

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Abstract. This paper examines the ways in which the Europeans' quest for trading ventures across the Atlantic Ocean necessitated their contacts with the Ijaw people along the Niger Delta coast since sixteenth century. It discusses the initial trading transactions between the Europeans and the Ijaws, and specifically casts light on the participation of the Ijaw merchants in the Atlantic Slave Trade. The paper concentrates on the nineteenth century and the impact the transition from slave trade to legitimate commerce, in particular the palm oil trade, had on the Ijaw and how these changes led to greater involvement by Britain in the region by the end of the century. Using both primary and secondary sources for data collection, this study further explains the fact that palm oil trade lured the Ijaw people into the nexus of capitalist economic system. It argues that the Ijaw's were skillful and blessed with favourable environmental condition required for the growth of palm tree and then, the production of palm oil in large volumes. Their ability to meet the number of volumes required by European merchants brought massive income and revenue to the Ijaw merchants. It concludes that palm oil was the main thrust of foreign relations between the Ijaw people and European traders. Also, the resuscitation of palm oil production by the government is imperative in the Niger Delta region, as it required a re-direction of government policy through proper funding as well as provides low interest loan for the farmers to ensure increase production and supply. It is only when this is done that additional income would accrue to both the local people, government and for the economic development of Nigeria at large.

Keywords: Ijaw, Palm Oil, European, Economy, Relations.

1. Introduction

The first external contact of the Niger Delta Ijaw people with the Europeans was with the Portuguese in the fifteenth century. By 1841, the Portuguese had already established strong trading contacts along the Niger Delta River where they exchanged trading items such as pepper, ivory, coral beads, iron, tools, weapons, clothes, horses, hardware, guns and manilas for slaves in Benin, and with the Ijaw people. The Portuguese dominance of the region and monopoly on trade with West Africa was challenged and broken by other European nations, such as the Dutch, French and the British, in the course of the seventeenth century. Together with the Portuguese, the Dutch, British and French, and to such a lesser extent the Danish, became actively involved in the slave trade at the ports of the major city states of Bonny, Kalabari, Okrika and Nembe.

It is noted that the emergence of the overseas trading between the Ijaw and the Europeans are closely associated with the topographic nature of the River Niger. The Niger Delta environment particularly the Creeks that provided many natural harbours along the Atlantic Ocean had influenced the beginning of the early trading contacts between the Ijaws and the European merchants. Other factors such as existence of a vibrant internal trade between the Ijaws and the inland ethnic group, dynamic trade routes, and experienced professional merchants largely fuelled the growth and development of the overseas trade in the central and eastern Delta. The scene was thus set for the Ijaws' active involvement in the Atlantic slave trade with the Europeans between the sixteenth to nineteenth centuries.

Historians such as Crowther and Horton believed that the coming of the European slave trade into the Ijaw territory stimulated the growth of a number of trading stations. Wariboko specifically affirmed Alagoa's claims that the 'internal long-distance trade laid the foundations for the emergence of the canoe-house trading system', especially in the pre- Atlantic slave

continuation between the old and new structures of the house, and the fact that the new trading system required stronger centralized control than the old one.

The function of the 'Amanyanbo' was transformed in order to exercise more control over the economic interest of the Ijaw people than before. More significantly, the centralized control of trade by the 'Amanyanbo' shows the fact that instead of assemblies of all adult male exercising power and headed by the 'Amanyanbo', the new city states much rather were organized into house systems where the heads of houses preferred the function of the earlier assemblies and the 'Amanyanbo' were elected from the head of houses especially in Bonny. The Ijaws' central and eastern Delta thus served as one main trading centres for the Atlantic Slave Trade until the start of the nineteenth century.

At the peak of the trade in slavery by the eighteenth century, some Ijaw villages had experienced internal socio-economic transformation. Their population grew from small villages of 1,000 into towns of between 5 000-10 000 inhabitants. The slave trade brought changes in the economic fortunes of the traders that redefined and determined their political status rather than traditional one. This was consistent with the increasing populations of the Ijaw fishing villages that was linked with the importation of slaves from the Ibos and Ibibio not sold to the European. This according to Alagoa was the 'quickest way of increasing the labour force' into the trading houses.

As a result of the participation of the Ijaw traders in the slave-trading activities, hundreds of thousands of the able-bodied men and women were exported from their communities in the Niger Delta hinterland, and transported across the Atlantic Ocean as labour for the plantation economies in the Americas. Thus, the productive forces required for the acceleration of the socio-economic advancement of the Ijaw's hinterland Ibos and Ibibio were exported to Europe. This pointed to the role played by the Ijaw intermediaries in the Atlantic slave trade that undermined the development of other ethnic group in the hinterland, while they defended the economic interest of the city states. The Ijaw people therefore, did not loose their productive forces, and thus shared in the blame for their role in under-developing their neighbours. It must be pointed out that several related sources have extensively dealt with the issue of slavery in the Ijaw area, therefore my main focus in this paper is more on the palm oil trade between the British and the Ijaws. This will particularly examine the exploitation

of palm oil product and its impact on the environment as well as the ordinary Ijaw people during this period.

2.2 The Ijaw in the Age of Legitimate Commerce

The British ban on the slave trade in 1807 ushered in massive changes for West Africa in general and the Niger Delta in particular. Cash crop production in palm oil became the main thrust of the British trading activities with the Ijaws. The Ijaws traders thus viewed this as legitimate trade.

Historians like Hopkins suggested that the change from slave trade to legitimate commerce created a crisis of adaptation for the Ijaw middlemen in the eastern Delta of Bonny and Elem-Kalabari. The introduction of the legitimate commerce in palm oil at Bonny and Elem-Kalabari had encouraged the traders and producers to believe that the transition from slave trade would become very easy. The eventual change from the slave trade to the trade in palm oil by the Ijaw traders, was a continuation of the same pattern of credit or trust system, that was expanded to accommodate the ordinary Ijaw traders and the hinterland oil producers.

Adding to the above, the Ijaw intermediaries were believed to have developed the palm oil trade earlier against an anticipated decline in the slave trade. This was the case of Opubu the King of Bonny when in the 1820s, he decided to open a palm oil market in the Ibo hinterland area, when he perceived that the British were determined to end slave trade in the world and particularly in the Delta Rivers. Dike however agreed that "The determined attack on the slave trade by the British Naval Squadron had greatly undermined it, and the Delta middlemen eager to maintain their position, turned to the new trade" It explained how the insistence of the British Naval patrol impact on the Ijaw traders who were reluctant to accept the new trade. Though they had the options of not adapting to the new trade in commerce, but the economic benefits attracted them to switch into palm oil trade with the European traders.

The resistance of the Ijaw slave merchants to the change-over to palm oil export trade, was linked to the status many of them had attained in the slave trade. They were famous, wealthy and relied on the profits accruing from the sale of slaves in building their socio-political, cultural and military institutions, particularly in Bonny, Nembe and Elem-Kalabari as well as in Oloibiri village. The Ijaw slave traders before the switched to palm oil trade perceived that the British Naval patrol at the coast was inimical to their immediate source of income, wealth and

political fortunes. It took the British traders a long time in persuading the Ijaw slave intermediaries to play along in the palm oil export. Clearly, the British determination through its naval patrols hindered further trade in slave in Bonny.

2.3 Growth of Palm Oil Export in the Ijawland

The growth of palm oil export trade in West Africa, and particularly in the Ijaw area, began as a result of the availability of palm trees that grows naturally in the Delta environment. The Niger Delta area especially Bonny and Elem-Kalabari, became an important entrepot partly due to the abundance of palm tree in its hinterland, and because the Niger River provided easy transportation for oil across the Atlantic. Northrup argue that the preparedness of the Delta's hinterland region for the palm oil trade dated to centuries of old internal development. The hinterland oil producers had the knowledge of extracting oil from palm front; the existence of a desire for commerce; established trading links between the coastal people and the inland areas, which all facilitated the rapid growth of palm oil export in the early 19th century.

The growth in the palm oil export trade could therefore be said to have responded to the immediate and indirect effect of the overseas slave trade, and not to the decline of slave export but to its growth that was already started in the Niger Delta. The internal factors mentioned were directly responsible for the growth of palm oil trade in the coastal area. The Ijaw middlemen were conversant with the trade techniques and had traded in palm oil commerce locally before it became a valuable commodity demanded by the British traders.

The increasing demand for soap in Britain became the driving force behind the growth of palm oil export and the British involvement in the trade. Palm oil commodity also served as lubricants for the British industries in the age of the Industrial Revolution as well as the increasing need for personal cleanliness by the Europeans, largely necessitated the growth of palm oil export demands.

Consequently, the British merchants by the mid-nineteenth century had exported large numbers of palm oil products from the eastern Delta, Ibo, Ibibio and other hinterland areas into London and Liverpool. The Ijaw traders had on the other hand maintained constant supply of palm oil to the British merchants largely as a result of the availability of palm trees and producers in the hinterland.

The Elem-Kalabari and Bonny city states in the central Delta became centres of palm oil export in the Niger Delta and the whole of West Africa between 1840 and 1855. Lynn remark that palm oil was the centre of the relationship between the British traders and the Ijaw people, 'because as far as the Ijaw people were concerned, they bought and sold what the British traders demanded' Bonny was the richest part of the Ijaw Delta in the palm oil trading, and had by 1855 exported palm oil worth about 15, 000 to 20,000 tons to Europe. New Kalabar and Brass the rival city states to Bonny had exported 4, 000 and 2, 280 tons of palm oil to Liverpool respectively. This signify the importance of palm oil as the most valuable export commodity amidst other product such as palm kernel and groundnuts that became export trade articles in the second half of the nineteenth century.

Despite the unprecedented growth in the export of palm oil commodity in the nineteenth century, it did not end the trade in slave in West Africa and Niger Delta. Lovejoy had asserted that the "shift to palm oil and palm kernel product and export trade in the legitimate trade-resulted in the use of many slaves in the local economy" It was evident that internal slavery continued side by side with the trade in palm oil since 1807 despite the British Naval patrol along the sea. Scholars like Crowder and Abdullahi claimed that twenty six years later, more European slave ships were seen in the port of Bonny and Brass. Expansion of palm oil export trade thus led to massive expansion of the internal trade in slaves.

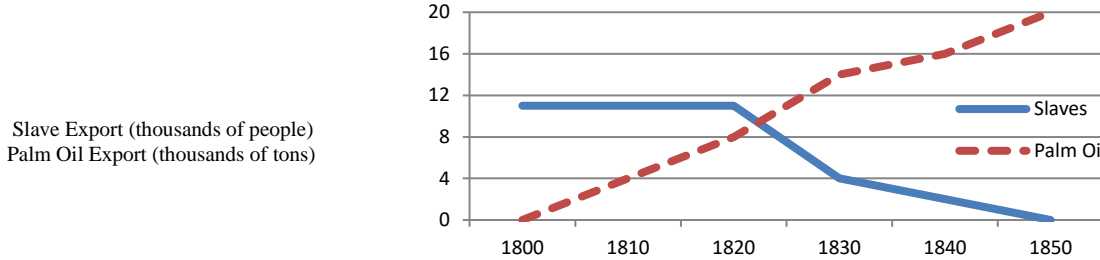
Supporting the above, Ade Ajayi and Austen believed that trading in slaves internally was required in order to sustained human labour by the Ijaw traders and to carry palm oil to the river port. Slaves became the largest component in the labour force as they served as porters and pullaboy in the canoe transportation of palm oil to the market. This significantly revealed that the used of slaves had continued despite the location of the British navy along the coast. David Northrup agreed that the 'rise in palm oil did not brought the decline in the export trade, but the two trade expanded in tandem until 1830' As the British merchant were determined to ensured transition from slave trade to palm oil commerce, the Ijaw traders in both Bonny and Elem-Kalabari were engaged in the two trades. This was linked to the large numbers of slaves waiting along the coast.

Evidence found in Bonny at the peak of palm oil export showed that, most Bonny traders sought to supply palm oil to the British and at the same time

want to supply slaves to the Europeans. This occurred as a result of the expansion of plantation in the America, Brazilian and Cuban as well as the increase in the price of slave. On the other hand, the palm oil

traders could not effectively compete with the slave traders, as oil ships were found on the coast for 18 months waiting for a cargo.

Table1.1: Statistical data on the continuation of Atlantic slave trade and palm oil commerce in Bonny between, 1800 -1850



Source: Long term variation in the trade in slaves and palm oil from the Bight of Biafra 1800-1850 (Year-to-year fluctuation not shown) cited in Northrup David, p.358.

The table above cast light on the growth of palm oil trade and slave trade despite the abolition of the latter in 1807. It was found that from 11,000 a year between 1801-10, slave trade rose to some 15, 500 in 1820, with an average of about 13,000 through that decade. It is noted that export of slaves further increased between 1821-1830 to the tune of 20,000 or more in 1826, and with an average of 15,000 for that period. The downward trend in the export of slaves began from the mid-1830s to zero point up to 1850. Palm oil export base on the table had by 1819 rose to 30,000 tons, and in 1929, it was 13,600 tons. The total palm oil exported in the Bight of Biafra by 1850 was 25,000 ton yearly.

Additionally, the above statistical data revealed that the growth in palm oil trade was not responsible for the decline of the slave trade, but could argue that the two trade increased side-by side up till 1840s, because the Ijaw middlemen had continued with both trade despite the British switch to palm commerce.

Lovejoy has captured the continuation of slave export trade vis-à-vis the legitimate commerce in West Africa and the Delta as follows:

The fight against the slave trade, the shift to legitimate commodities and the consolidation of European outposts in Sierra Leone, Gold Coast, at Lagos and the Niger Delta, and at Fernando Po were elements of the shift from exporting slaves to exporting other commodities, but the transition from slave exports to other commodities did not result in the decline of slave trade and slavery within the coastal zone.

Based on the above, it was clear that slave labour was necessary in order to increase the production of palm oil, kernels, food crops like rice and yams. The internal slaves made it possible for the owners to

direct their labour force into the development of local trade, particularly in Aro, Efik, Elem-Kalabari, Igbo and the Ijaw area.

Hence, the main reason why prominent Ijaw city states like Bonny and Elem-Kalabari had to completely change from external slave trade to palm oil trade was the presence of the British Naval patrol that made this coastline impossible for the slavers to continue with the Trans-Atlantic Trade in slaves after the 1860s. Bonny for example could not continue in the slave trade, because it was located directly to the open sea, and the British Naval patrol could easily watch the slave ship or took over the ship. Slave trade was however diverted to the Brass area because it was surrounded by maze of creeks and the slave ship could not be noticed by the British navy until 1860s. The increase in palm oil production and export thus led to the massive growth in internal slave trade since it became cheaper to work a slave to death than to treat him/her humanely.

2.4 Expansion of Trust System in Palm Oil Commerce

The palm oil trade like the slave trade operated on the trust (credit) system. On a general note, the slave trade in Africa depended on the capital goods of the British merchant, and principally in the form of credit given to local traders in return of slaves. The trust system in the legitimate commerce was however expanded and became more complicated and problematic than the Atlantic slave trade.

The expansion of ‘trust’ system by the British traders in Bonny and Elem-Kalabari in the nineteenth century was necessary to ensure prompt and sufficient supply of palm oil to their waiting agents

along the Niger coast. Goods from Liverpool traders such as spirit, cloth, guns, beads, lead and copper rods were advanced to trusted Ijaw traders in the river towns of the Delta and across the river estuary. These goods were in turn sent to the interior markets the same pattern adopted in the Atlantic slave trade in exchanged for palm oil product of the hinterland Ibos, Itsekiri, Isoko, Ukwani and the Urhobo producers. Dike, Alagoa and Crowder, claimed that credit goods worth of 5,000 pound sterling were entrusted to the Ijaw traders for a year or two. This pointed to the smooth trading relationship that transpired between the British traders and the Ijaw intermediaries before 1860s.

Similarly, the trust system in legitimate commerce was not only a source of strifes and conflict of interest among the traders, but also a weapon of commercial rivalry. The Europeans wanted African traders to remained loyal in paying back the goods entrusted in palm oil as at when due. Thus, the British traders in the Delta never wanted his trust totally repaid in order to keep other foreign rivals like the Dutch, French and Portuguese out of trade.

The British trust system built in an element of monopoly of trade in the Ijaw area. Initially, the palm oil trading activities were conducted only within the trading centres of the New-Kalabari and Bonny. However, in the 1870s, palm oil trading activities had been directed toward other communities outside the Delta coast, such as Whydah, Badagry, Cameroon and Gabon, as well as Angolan trade routes by the British. It must be stated that the British were not the only role players in the palm oil trade. Other foreign competitors such as the French, Dutch and the Portuguese equally participated in the trade. It was clear that the British had more trade links with the Ijaw traders than others. Based on the extension of trading networks across the eastern Delta, the British sought to monopolise trade in palm oil within the Ijaw Delta for onward transfer to Liverpool in England.

Clearly, the British, in carrying out their monopolistic tactics, started eliminating other foreign competitors from trading within the coast. They tactically entrusted the Ijaw middlemen with more European goods in order to bind them to their trading interests as against the French, Dutch and the Portuguese. Dike believes that the British monopoly over palm oil product clearly manifested in New-Kalabari and Bonny where credits were given extensively to the Ijaw middlemen. The Ijaws traders thus operated within the confines of the British trust.

3. Impacts of British Palm Oil Trade on Local Politics in Ijawland

The change from trade in slavery to a palm oil trading system brought certain changes into the existing political structure of the Eastern Delta, which aimed at ensuring the smooth running of the trading activities in palm oil. This largely informed the establishment of strong trading links by the Ijaw chief executive ('Amanyabo') with the British merchants, the local oil makers and its hinterland producers at maximising profits in the palm oil trade.

Also, the new trading activities in palm oil expanded the position occupied by the 'Amanyabo' or the king. He became the defender of the economic interests of the entire Ijaw land, the trading houses, as well as the people. Jones claims that the 'Amanyabo' controlled the funds of the house, investing the profits and using the capital in maintaining the war canoes by securing ammunitions from the white traders in order to protect its trading interests. E.J. Alagoa on the other hand, believes that the new trade afforded the king and its middlemen the opportunities of having a very strong hold over the palm oil product.

Hence, it is clear that the changing roles in the house system in the eastern Delta necessitated the fishing villages in naming the house the canoes house. Crowder agrees that this was so, because the house or wards required a war canoe in achieving its trading activities along the coast. The houses in the eastern Delta, however, had numbers of trading canoes carrying palm oil from the markets into the interior, the canoe house or war canoes were larger to take about 80-100 men warriors for maintaining adequate security within the Ijaw city states, especially in Nembe, Bonny and New-Kalabari which were the centres of palm oil trading.

It is equally important to note that the canoe house is a corporation which, according Wariboko, was a 'simple hierarchical arrangement that enabled merchants to internalise transactions that were previously made across market boundaries'. The chief was known as the head of the house and the controlling power over a number of people in a trading unit, with strict compliance to its customs and rules. It is argued that the canoe houses in line with the suggestion given by Jones were therefore not a lineage or descent group but a 'compact and well-organized trading and fighting corporation capable of manning and monitoring a war canoe'.

Evidence has revealed that the changes in the houses of the eastern Delta were however not the initiatives

of the British traders, but were rather based on the transformation taking place in their lineage administration. In advancing this debate, Alagoa agrees that the canoe house was a response to the emerging European overseas trade in slaves and palm oil products. On the contrary, Horton argues that the European trading contacts with the Ijaws necessitated the adoption of the canoe house, because of the credit in British good made available to the Ijaw traders. In retrospect, Cookey claims that both Alagoa and Horton failed to note that the lineage of the eastern Delta adopted the canoe house in response to the 'indigenous means of transportation' He however agrees that, the internal long-distance trade claimed by Alagoa and not the European overseas trade influenced the transformation in the political and trading structure of the eastern Delta. It reveals that the trading houses in the eastern Delta extensively depended on the canoes house in maintaining adequate security and supply of palm oil to the British traders.

The slight changes in the House system also necessitated the incorporation of freemen and slaves under the King or the chiefs. This largely permitted the sharing of the trading power and control among the chiefs, sub-chiefs, freemen and the slaves. A successful slave in a particular house emerged as the head of such a house based on his performances in the palm oil trading activities at the Hinterland. The canoe house was thus sustainable, flourishing and profitable, though might have been integrated or merged with the more prosperous house whenever it became less successful. Therefore, the re-structuring of the house system significantly ensured a prompt and increasing supply of palm oil from the hinterland producers into the Niger coast for onward shipment to Europe.

Trading competition among the various houses engendered civil wars within the Ijaw city states. This was the case within New Kalabar, Brass and in Bonny, because Brass had by the 1860s lost out on its flourishing slave trading as a result of its total elimination by the British squadron. Therefore, Brass' decision and shift into palm oil trade brought sharp resistance from the other city states. Conflict and resistance through trading activities broke up the New Kalabar into three states, namely Abonnema, Bakama and Buguma. Alagoa and Dike agree that trading conflict in Bonny was also responsible for the founding of Opobo Town by King Jaja in 1869. This occurred as a result of the internal rivalry between the King of Bonny over Jaja's successful trading links in palm oil, which was very significant in the

emergence of Opobo Town as another trading centre of the eastern Delta.

Lastly, the modification which occurred in the Ijaws' local politics before 1880s, to a large extent enhanced the growth and development of Bonny, Nembe and the New-Kalabari as great trading centres. These trading centres agreed to end slave trading for palm oil commerce, believing it would spur a flourishing trade and the expansion of trading links. Most of the kings in the trading states therefore, had minimal control of resources, trade routes and articles of trade, because they had depended on palm oil supplied from the Ibibio traders at Ikpa across the River north of Old Calabar to compliment what they produced internally, as well as maintained a sovereign and sustainable political dispensation until the British colonisation towards the end of the 1890s.

4. Conclusion

This paper has examined the Ijaw and European Foreign Trade relations in the 19th century. Evidence presented however suggests that the initial contacts between the Ijaw people and the Europeans had no influence on their physical environment, because the British relied on the use of human labour. The palm oil trade was exploited by the Ijaw traders themselves and the British traders cannot be totally blame for the environmental exploitation of palm oil, because the local traders offered to produced and participated in the legitimate commerce in order to retained a fair share in the market. Palm oil trade was the main thrust of their relations, particularly when trade in slaves was abrogated in 1807. Oil palm became lucrative venture, but the Ijaws and other Delta eastern people were persuaded and convinced by the British merchants on the values and potentials of this product. It was found that the change in the structure of palm oil export began to manifest in the mid-1900. This occurred as a result of the influx of a new generation of traders who were not associated with slave trade. In Bonny, legitimate commerce paved way for the incorporation into the house, outstanding slaves to act as intermediaries and distribution of goods at the interior equivalent of palm oil.

The paper further revealed that the British Government was not willing to take over the Ijaw territory through the intervention of the Court of Equity, but rather to make peace between the traders. The United Kingdom's involvement in the Ijaw local politics only began in the mid-1850s through its Consular Authority and to a large extent the Royal Niger Company (RNC) by the 1860s. The RNC re-enforced the pattern of environmental exploitation in the Ijaw City States that favoured the British traders.

The unfair treatment and inefficient administration of the territory by the RNC was responsible for the suspension of its charter in December 31st 1899 and the reconstitution of the entire Ijaw and Delta under the United Kingdom by 1900.

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The Effect of Financial Structure and its Determinants on Performance of Deposit Money Banks in Nigeria, 2015 – 2021

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Abstract. This study ascertained the effect of financial structure and its determinants on the performance of deposit money banks in Nigeria 2015-2021. The motivation behind the study is to contribute to the age long debate on financial structure and to close the knowledge gap in literature by disaggregating the financial structure variables and also using non-net interest income as one of the dependent variables. The general objective of the study is to ascertain the effect of financial structure and its determinants on the performance of deposit money banks in Nigeria, and to specifically ascertain the effect of financial structure and its determinants on return on assets, return on equity, net operating income, net interest income, and non-net interest income. Data were sourced from the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) banking supervision and Nigeria Deposit Insurance Corporation (NDIC) annual reports from 2015 to 2021. The regression models were estimated using Ordinary Least Square (OLS) technique. The time series data were checked for unit root and diagnosed of serial correlation, heteroskedasticity, Ramsey reset stability and multicollinearity. The data were analysed using econometric tools of Johansen Co- Integration, vector error correction model and granger Causality analysis amongst others. The analysis performed revealed that financial structure has significant effect on the return on assets, return on equity, net operating income and non-net interest income of deposit money banks. Net interest income is not significantly affected by financial structure. Deposit money banks should reduce the debt ratio to avoid rising financial leverage via liquidity risk/ bankruptcy and financial distress. To improve the wealth of shareholders, deposit money banks should fund their operations largely from external sources of finance such as bonds to ensure diversification instead of relying heavily on the short term deposits of customers.

Keywords: Cash, Consideration, Custodian, relationship, Services

1. Introduction

Prior to the emergence of behavioural finance, corporate financial decisions and financial management functions such as financial structure were mainly determined by the management and the internal operating factors of the business such as the firm size, composition of assets, ownership structure, financial structure, performance and board composition. The agency theory formulated by Jensen and Meckling (1973) separated the owners of the organization from the management. The management was entrusted with the business operation and with the objective of optimizing the interest of the owners without conflict of interest. Maximizing the interest of the shareholders is a critical management function that requires strategic and tactical planning such as optimal capital mix. Corporate organizations have financial goals and strategy which is the expression of a corporate mission and strategy that are determined by the long-term planning system as a trade-off among conflicting and competing interests. Corporate objective relates to four corporate fundamental goals of maximizing corporate performance, Returns on Investment, corporate growth and availability of funds (Pandey, 2015).

Determining the optimal financial structure of an organization is a critical financial management function. It involves the weighing of the pros and cons of various sources of financing and selecting the most advantageous keeping in check the target capital and its effect on the value of the organization. It is a continuous decision that is taken whenever a firm needs additional capital (Pandy, 2015). A firm's financial structure must be developed with an eye on

the risk element because it has a direct link with the value (Krishnan and Moyer, 2017). Risk may be factored for two considerations: that financial structure must be consistent with the firm's business risk, and that financial structure results in a certain level of financial risk. The debt-equity mix can take any of the following forms: 100percent equity: 0percentdebt, 0percent equity: 100percent debt and Xpercent equity: Ypercent debt. From these three alternatives, option one is that of the unlevered business organization, which shuns the advantage of leverage (if any). Option two is that of an organization that has no equity capital (Olokoyo, 2018).

Unlike the classical theories of financial structure, modern theories take into account taxes, financial distress, agency cost, information asymmetry and the effect of market imperfections which are considered non-existent in the Miller and Modigliani assumptions. Unlike other corporate organizations, financial structure of the banking sector is determined by the regulatory authorities, credit risk, dividend policy, Bank size, growth of assets and performance. It comprises tier 1, tier II and tier III capital which is a combination of equity and debt. In the conventional corporate finance theories, a bank in equilibrium will desire to hold a privately optimal capital that just trade-off cost and benefits, implying a zero relationship at the margin. Capital requirements, imposed by regulators, as they are bound by them, make banks to hold capital in excess of their private optimal and hence forces banks to go above their internal optimal capital ratio which imposes cost on banks.

The bank's financial structure directly affects its financial risk which has direct effect on the performance levels. The more fixed-cost financing, debt including financial leases and preferred stock, a business has in its capital structure, the greater its financial risk. Since the level of this risk and the associated level of returns are key inputs to the valuation process, the bank must estimate the potential impact of alternative financial structures on these factors and ultimately on value in order to select the best financial structure. The greater the bank's operating leverage-the use of fixed operating cost- the higher its business risk. Since the company's cost of capital is seen as a function of its financial structure, choice of optimal financial structure or adequate and appropriate financing and investment reduce company's cost of capital and increase its market value (Modarres & Abdoallahzadeh, 2018) and thus will increase shareholders wealth. This study incorporates the non

interest income as one of the measure of performance which has not been captured in previous studies. Therefore, this study examined the effect of financial structure on the performance of deposit money banks in Nigeria.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

There has been an aged long debate and point of departure among corporate finance researchers on the relationship between financial structure and the value of the business. While others like Cheng and Tzeng (2017), Rathinasany, Khrisnawawy and Mantripagada (2018) are of the opinion that financial structure is relevant, Modigliani and Miller (MM) are of the opinion that financial structure is irrelevant. Like the dividend policy theories, the assumptions of financial structure theories are based on the well-developed financial policies as opposed to an emerging financial environment such as Nigeria.

The issue of adopting an adequate measurement of financial structure remains controversial in the literature. The literature has focused more on the classical classification of capital that comprises equity and debt. This study disaggregated the various measures of equity and debt to see the component that will be more robust and significant for the Nigerian banking sector. This robustness check allows us to establish whether the effect of financial structure on corporate performance is equally strong for various measures of financial structure. Many of the previous studies did not investigate the direction of causality between financial structure and financial performance and focus on the real sector of the economy. (Cheng & Tzeng 2017; Saeed 2017; Pratomo & Ismail, 2016; Siddiqui & Shoab, 2016; Taiwo, 2015). This work examined the banking sector financial structure and financial performance. Previous authors who ran cross sectional regressions on the effects of financial structure on corporate performance got conflicting results due to the problem of aggregating the various components of capital, time frame and other factors. (Babalola, 2014)

Several related studies reviewed neglected other measures of corporate performance such as non-interest income and interest income but focused on the quantitative accounting measure such as return on assets, return on equity, profit after tax and return on investment (Awunyo-Victor & Badu, 2012). However, this study incorporates net interest income and non-net interest income as a measure of performance. This study aimed at examining the effects of financial structure on the performance of

Nigerian Deposit money banks (DMBs) by investigating the relationship between the various components of DMBs financial structure and performance in Nigeria 2015-2021.

1.2 Research Hypotheses

The under listed null hypotheses are formulated from the above specific objectives of the study:

- Financial structure has no significant effect on return on equity of deposit money banks in Nigeria.
- Financial structure has no significant effect on net operating income of deposit money banks in Nigeria.
- Financial structure has no significant effect on interest income of deposit money banks in Nigeria.

2. Conceptual and Theoretical Analysis

It is customary to begin an academic investigation by examining the conceptual and theoretical contours of the subject matter of analysis by analyzing the views of various scholars and authors as well as the way in which one's research is integrated into the body of existing theories and rese (Igbokwe-Ibeto, 2019). It is in this line of thought that financial structure according Velnampy and Ninesh (2018) can be defined as the way in which business enterprise finances itself by means of debts, equity and securities. The firm requires a composition of debts and equity to finance its assets. These way stakeholders' needs can be satisfied. Saeed (2017) described the concept of financial structure as combining debt and equity in order to make up the total capital of the firm. Capital is a vital part of the statement of affairs of an enterprise because the overall position of the enterprise is reflected regarding all types of assets, and liabilities. The term capital structure of an enterprise according to Kathaf (2013) is actually a mix of long term debts preference shares and equity shares. A company should therefore plan its financial structure to be successful.

Debt capital, preferred stock and common equity are mostly used by firms to raise needed funds. Financial structure policy seeks a trade-off between risk and expected return. The firm must consider its business risk, tax positions, financial flexibility and managerial conservatism or aggressiveness, while these factors are crucial in determining the target financial structure. Operating conditions may cause the actual financial structure to differ from the optimal financial structure. A critical decision for any business organization is a decision for an appropriate

financial structure; the decision is not only because of the need to maximize returns to various organizational constituencies, but on an organization's ability to deal with its competitive environment. The prevailing argument, originally developed by Modigliani and Miller (1958), is that an optimal financial structure exists which balances the risk of bankruptcy with the tax savings of debt. Once established, this financial structure should provide greater returns to stock holders than they would receive from an all-equity firm.

Over the years in literature with effect from the postulation of the irrelevance theory of financial structure by Modigliani and Miller (1958), a lot of theories have been modelled in an effort to explain the connection between financial structure and performance of firms. These theories include pecking order theory, static trade-off and dynamic trade-off, agency cost theory, market timing hypothesis and signalling postulation+. These theories are concisely discussed in the subsequent sub-sections. This study however anchors on Pecking Order Theory.

3. Types of Financial Performance Measures

The goal of every business is to achieve its goals of corporate performance, which makes the determination of performance one of the most interesting and challenging areas in finance literature. Owing to the complexity in measuring performance, it is difficult to ascertain the perfect index of measuring performance. The performance measures according to Kerstein (2017) are divided into two general groups, market based and accounting-based measures. The market based measure relies on market data and accounting based measure is hinged on accounting information in the balance sheet. There are also hybrid measures of performance which comprises both market based and accounting-based measures.

3.1 Market-Based Performance Measures

Market-based measures have been widely used in different studies. The market based measure tries to determine firm's performance using its value in the market. The most popular market based indicator is Tobin's Q. Other may include price earnings ratio, dividend yield, market value added, market to book value, etc. This measurement of performance does not recourse to the financial figures in the balance sheet or annual statement of account. Cumulated abnormal return (CAR) with the idea to measure potential abnormal market returns related to a

particular event is an excellent market based measurement followed by market return (Kerstein, 2017).

The market return refers to the growth in stock value over a specific period assuming that dividends were reinvested and thereby captures the income of shareholders in form of dividends and capital gains from stock price changes and rarely used in empirical studies. According to Demsetz and Lehn (1985), the rare application of market return empirical studies is on premises that stock market rates of return presumably adjust for the ownership structure and its effects on performance. Stock prices incorporate changes in expectations about future cash flows and the cost of capital. To this effect, higher stock prices may be attributed to changes in ownership structure. Capital gains due to stock price changes do not reflect a preferable ownership structure, as soon as the ownership information is reflected in the stock price (Kerstein, 2017). Market returns should be equal for all firms with equal risks in periods when expectations are constant. Hence, they give only valuable information about the relationship of ownership and performance in the case of an unexpected event.

3.2 Accounting-Based Performance Measures

In literature, the accounting base measurement dominates all facets of performance as they are widely used in empirical studies and assessing the health of a firm. The accounting performance indicators include return on assets, return on equity, net operating income, gross profit margin, net interest margin, etc. Studies have shown that return on assets and return on equity are the most widely used account performance measure. Return on equity measures only returns of shareholder while return on assets deals with aggregate return of equity holders and debt holders. Kerstein (2017) observed that return on equity is preferred over return on assets owing to first, generally financial performance is based on the shareholder value concept, which is stronger reflected in the pure equity focus of the return on equity than by the diluted equity returns of the return on assets. Second, regarding the effect of performance on equity ownership the pecuniary benefits of shareholders play an important role. These depend stronger on the return on equity than on the return on assets also including the debt-holders' return. As a result, the return on equity should lead to a more significant relationship of ownership and performance improving the results. Thirdly, also other benefits gained by shareholders through their control rights can only be derived from residual

profits. However, the rents for corporate debt are paid according to predetermined contracts and therefore not part of the residual profits.

3.3 Hybrid Performance Measure

The hybrid accounting performance is a combination of market and accounting performance measures. The market-to-book ratio (M/B) and the Tobin's Q are comprised of both accounting and market based ingredient of measuring performance. In market to book ratio, the amount of market value is generated by the stock of invested capital. It is arrived at by dividing market value of the firm's liabilities by the accounting value of these liabilities. Market to book ratio would be obtained via market value of stock divided by the shareholders' equity, or market value of stock and debt divided by total assets. Second, market data cannot be manipulated by management, as accounting data can. Nevertheless, as the M/B includes book values, it is not completely free of the accounting bias. In addition, the reliance on market data creates also a disadvantage of the M/B. Sudden outburst and speculative market movements that are not motivated by changes in the expectations can make it less representative as performance measure. The advantages and disadvantages do not only apply to the M/B but also to the second hybrid measure, the Tobin's Q. Tobin (1969) introduced the concept of the Tobin's Q as the ratio of market value to replacement values of a firm's assets. Since then it has been frequently used as performance measure in the ownership literature.

4. Banks's Specific/Micro Determinants of Financial Structure

The bank specific determinants are factors within the banks that are capable of influencing or sharpening the financial structure. Some of these banks specific factors based on results of empirical studies are precisely discussed as follows:

Collateral: Collateral is an asset or security pledge to the banks by a customer before a loan is advanced to him/her. Deposit money banks rely on the monetary value of any collateral to recover any loan should there be a default. Following the assumptions of the agency cost theory and trade-off theory, with collateral, risk of financial distress and agency cost on the side of deposit money banks are drastically reduced thus leverage capacity of deposit money banks are enhanced (Frank & Goyal 2015).

Dividend Payout: Dividend pay-out is adjudged as the percentage of a firm's profit paid out to

shareholders as a reward for the equity capital contributed in the business operation of the firm. A highly profitable firm normally pays dividend mainly on annual basis, and investors are so delighted to receive dividend from their investment as such a firm is considered as ideal and worthy of investing. Firms that do not regularly pay dividend are considered as not performing well and based on the bankruptcy theory, a firm that cannot pay dividend has a risk of going bankrupt as inability to pay dividend implies rise in equity base for debt capital. Hinging on the bankruptcy theory, high level of debt in the financial structure suggests low bankruptcy whereas high level of equity implies high bankruptcy. In the light of the pecking order theory, debt is positively related with dividend pay-out on the argument that a profitable firm instead of paying dividend will plough such fund into business as retained earnings, which cancels the need for debt. Frank and Goyal (2015) asserted that a dividend-paying company which is large and mature can rely on its reputation to raise external capital, hence would reduce borrowing. Following Frank and Goyal (2015), Gropp and Heider (2017) deposit money banks that indulge in paying dividends are expected to face lower cost of issuing equity as they are well known to the outsiders, preferring equity financing.

Assets Size: The size of a firm normally captured with the monetary value of total assets has been empirically confirmed to improve performance. The trade-off theory and pecking order theory postulate a positive relationship between size of a firm and performance. From the standpoint of the trade-off theory, large firms with lower bankruptcy costs and more stable cash flows would have higher capacity for debt financing. With references to past studies on linkage between size and financial structure and anchored on either pecking order theory or trade-off theory, Frank and Goyal (2015), Aggarwal and Suthisit (2013), and Booth, Aivazan, Demirguc, and Maksimovic. (2011) found the existence of positive relationship between firm's size and financial structure. Conversely, Rajan and Zingales (1995) are of the opinion that disclosing of more information to the public, increasing its transparency, reducing information asymmetry costs which are attributes of large firms favours equity financing.

Assets Risk: The inability of deposit money banks to meet customer's obligation is very challenging and banks strive by acceptable means to avoid the occurrence of this risk. The probability of default on a loan granted could affect the financial structure of the bank as fund that would not be recovered (bad debt counted as loss) would be accounted for from

profit based on the banking regulation applicable to the Nigerian environment. This is the reason why the Central Bank of Nigeria requires all deposit money banks in Nigeria to maintain a prescribed level of risk to ensure that they meet their obligation as at when due. The agency cost theory and bankruptcy theory maintained that the risk that abounds in banking operation negatively affects its financial structure. For bankruptcy theory, frequent volatility in earnings increases the probability of going bankrupt as the weight of bankruptcy will be higher on the firm's financial structure decisions. With regards to the agency cost theory, as the level of debt decreases, occasioned by fluctuation in earnings, assets risk increases. This assumption by these theories have been empirically affirmed by the findings of Ullah and Mohammed (2018), Pandey (2015), and Harris and Raviv (1999) that firms with high level of assets risk use less debt in financing business operations.

Market to Book Value: The market to book ratio value of a firm as determined by comparing the book value of the firm and its market value is critical to financial structure decisions of firms management. A high market to book value ratio according to the pecking order theory shows that the firm has high financial muscle to fund its operation from its retained earnings or equity; hence no need for external financing that would require the firm to service cost of capital. The postulation of the pecking order theory on the negative relationship between market to book value ratio and financial structure has been confirmed by the empirical works of Gropp and Heider (2017); Frank and Goyal (2015); Aggarwal and Suthisit (2013).

Profit: The capacity of the bank to make profit is very critical for its survival being one of the sectors that is highly regulated in the country. Resting on the trade-off theory, a firm that is extremely profitable would have high muscle to accommodate debt and less risk to debt holders, thus a negative relationship between financial structure and performance. From the perspective of the pecking order theory, high profitability is an indication of heavy reliance on internal financing as against debt. Bulk of empirical studies tends to lay credence to the pecking order assumption. From Modigliani and Miller (1963), the effect of corporate tax on performance would make firms to go for debt as a means of tax shield. Furthermore, on the premises of the pecking order assumptions, agency costs of managerial decisions are mitigated by increasing the level of debt in the financial structure as a profitable firm would deep its hand in retained earnings first whenever financing need arises.

Tangibility: Tangibility is the ratio of a firm's fixed assets to total assets. The ability of a firm to effectively and efficiently utilize its assets would improve performance. Both the pecking order theory and trade-off theory have postulated the existence of a positive relationship between tangibility and performance. Lenders are in most cases faced with the problem of moral hazard and adverse selection owing to the conflict of interest between providers of debt and equity-shareholders. With this in mind, a lender will require a firm to pledge collateral before extending funds to it, which ultimately affects the debt level in the borrower's financial structure.

5. Country/Macro Determinants of Financial Structure

GDP Growth: The economic health of a country would have some effect on the financial structure of firms operating in the economy. In period of economic boom, firms perform wonderfully and may not have recourse to borrowing. In the same way, firms are exposed to a lot of investment opportunities capable of improving profitability during economic boom. On the other hand, during economic depression or recession as it is currently witnessed in Nigeria today, banks are bound to borrow in the interbank market to meet up with shortfall. The degree of bankruptcy is bound to be high during economic recession as most banks would face fund constraints. Logically, economic growth is positively related with financial structure as have been documented by the works of Deesomsak et.al (2004), and Mitton (2008).

Inflation: Inflation is a general rise in the price of goods and services in a country owing majorly to high volume of money in circulation. Inflation reduces the purchasing power of money and results in higher cost of capital, which ultimately affects the debt level in the financial structure of a firm. On the argument of the trade-off theory, inflation increases the tax benefits associated with debt. The share prices of firms in the stock exchange are undervalued in periods of inflation making equity a not preferable source of financing: firm's management would resort to debt than issuing new shares to potential investors.

Stock market risk: The smooth operation of the stock market would have a great influence on the financial structure of firms trading on the exchange thus stock market risk affect firm's financial structure decisions. Volatility in stock market would cause a drastic fall in the value of equity of firms, and when such is the case, firms are forced to borrow, which increases the debt level in the financial structure.

Some firms may even go bankrupt in adverse stock market volatility.

Interest Rate Structure: The interest rate structure in a country affects the level of fund mobilization by the banking system and the financial system as a whole. A high level of interest would increase the quantum of fund mobilized as customers would make more deposit in their accounts but the reverse is the case. A high interest increases the cost of capital for firms as banks would add up interest on deposits in addition to other administrative and handling charges. With high interest rate on deposits, any bank looking for more debt in its financial structure would have it at ease.

Corporate Tax Rate: The percentage of a firm's profit paid to the government as tax affects the financial structure. Where a large fraction of a firm's profit would be paid as tax, equity capital from shareholders would be distorted. Most firms would resort to debt financing to shield the effect of corporate tax. The findings from studies on the nexus between corporate tax and financing decisions of firms have been inconclusive. For instance, looking at the financial structure of firms, MacKie-Mason (1990) provided evidence of substantial tax effect on the choice between debt and equity as financing decision is affected by changes in the marginal tax rate. On the contrary, Graham (1999) observed that corporate taxes generally do affect corporate financial decisions, but the magnitude of the effect is mostly "not large". Other alternative tax shields such as depreciation, research and development expenses, investment deductions, etc., that could substitute the fiscal role of debt was pointed out by DeAngelo and Masulis (1980). A conceptual model to incorporate the research questions has been constructed.

$$FP = f(FS)$$

Where FP = Financial Performance

FS = Financial Structure

The models depict financial performance which is the dependent variable as a function of financial structure which is also the independent variable in this study. The performance variables are Return on Assets (ROA), Return on Equity (ROE), Net Operating Income (NOI), Interest Income INTI and Non-Interest Income NINTI. The Financial Structure parameters also known as explanatory or independent variable was proxy by debt to total assets (TDTA), Total debt to total equity (TDTE), short term debts to total assets (STDTA). Tangibility, Bank Size and Risk were variables used in order to control the banks specific functions that affect performance. Return on Assets (ROA) is the Net Income before tax dividend

total assets. This will express or show how the bank efficiently utilized their earnings and available assets (Ronoh, 2015). Return on Equity (ROE) depicts the ratio of Net Income before tax to Total Equity. It is the cost of attracting deposits to banks. (Ronoh, 2015). Net Operating Income is the total earnings from banking operations less operating expenses and other charges excluding corporate tax. (Samuel, 2016). Interest Income includes income from loans and securities and comprises the bulk of income for most banks (Amarfor, 2015). Non-Interest Income is credit income primarily from non-traditional banking activities such as account maintenance charge, service charge; cheque and deposit slip fee, etc. Based on the research questions therefore, performance is proxy by return on assets, return on equity, Net operating Income, Interest Income and Non-Interest Income is a function of Total Debt to Total Asset, Total Debt to Total Equity and Short Term Debt to Total Assets in the financial structure.

6. Methodology

This study adopted hypothetical deductive research design approach for the data analysis. This approach combines theoretical consideration (a prior criterion) with the empirical observation and extract maximum information from the available data. It enables us therefore to observe the effects of explanatory variables on the dependent variables. The population of the study comprises of all the deposit money banks in Nigeria that are licensed to operate the business of banking Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) and insured

by the Nigeria Deposit Insurance Corporation (NDIC).

The data as applied in this research work were extracted from Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) banking supervision report as well as Nigeria Deposit Insurance Corporate (NDIC) annual report. The data from the above mentioned sources spanned from 2005 to 2021 and were on annual basis as contained in the published reports of the regulatory agencies.

Test of Hypotheses

Decision Criteria: If the p-value of F-statistic in granger causality test is less than 0.05, the null hypothesis is rejected. On the other hand, if the p-value of F-statistic in granger causality test is greater than 0.05, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis One

H₀: Financial structure has no significant effect on return on equity of deposit money banks.

H₁: Financial structure has significant effect on return on equity of deposit money banks.

From Table 1, (0.0114) as p-values of total debt to total assets and short term debt to total assets respectively are lower than (0.05) thus financial structure has significant effect on return on equity of deposit money banks in Nigeria. To this effect, the null hypothesis that financial structure has no significant effect on return on equity of deposit money banks is would not be accepted and the alternate hypothesis accepted.

Table 1: Hypothesis One

Null Hypothesis:	Obs	F-Statistic	Prob.	Remarks
TDTA does not Granger Cause ROE	16	6.92179	0.0208	Causality
ROE does not Granger Cause TDTA		9.34846	0.0092	Causality
TDTE does not Granger Cause ROE	16	1.79358	0.2034	No Causality
ROE does not Granger Cause TDTE		0.01029	0.9207	No Causality
STDTA does not Granger Cause ROE	16	10.3211	0.0068	Causality
ROE does not Granger Cause STDTA		8.65446	0.0114	Causality

Source: Data output via E-views 9.0

Hypothesis Two

H₀: Financial structure has no significant effect on net operating income of deposit money banks.

H₁: Financial structure has significant effect on net operating income of deposit money banks.

As can be seen in Table 2, (0.0295) as p-value of short term debt to total assets: a financial structure variable is less than hypothesis yardstick (0.05). As a result, the null hypothesis that financial structure has no significant effect on net operating income of deposit money banks is rejected and the alternate hypothesis which assumes the significant effect of financial structure on net operating income accepted.

Table 2: Hypothesis Two

Null Hypothesis:	Obs	F-Statistic	Prob.	Remarks
TDTA does not Granger Cause NOI	16	0.05836	0.8129	No Causality
NOI does not Granger Cause TDTA		2.74458	0.1215	No Causality
TDTE does not Granger Cause NOI	16	2.69181	0.1248	No Causality
NOI does not Granger Cause TDTE		1.00331	0.3348	No Causality
STDTA does not Granger Cause NOI	16	0.81062	0.3843	No Causality
NOI does not Granger Cause STDTA		5.97286	0.0295	Causality

Source: Data output via E-views 9.0

Hypothesis Three

H₀: Financial structure has no significant effect on interest income of deposit money banks.

H₁: Financial structure has significant effect on interest income of deposit money banks.

The p-values (0.2520), (0.6013) and (0.9536) for total debt to total assets, total debt to total equity and short term debt to total assets in Table 60 are greater than the hypothesis decision rule (0.05). Therefore, the null hypothesis that financial structure has effect on interest income of deposit money banks is accepted while the alternate hypothesis rejected.

Table 3: Hypothesis Three

Null Hypothesis:	Obs	F-Statistic	Prob.	Remarks
TDTA does not Granger Cause INTI	16	0.03082	0.8634	No Causality
INTI does not Granger Cause TDTA		1.43721	0.2520	No Causality
TDTE does not Granger Cause INTI	16	0.00835	0.9286	No Causality
INTI does not Granger Cause TDTE		0.28677	0.6013	No Causality
STDTA does not Granger Cause INTI	16	0.04560	0.8342	No Causality
INTI does not Granger Cause STDTA		0.00352	0.9536	No Causality

Source: Data output via E-views 9.0

7. Discussion of Findings

The negative relationship between two financial structure variables- total debt to total assets and total debt to total equity as shown in Table 1 is in agreement with the pecking order theory which states that firm prefer internal financing to external fund. This may be hinged to the fact that the major component of deposit money banks debt in Nigeria are short term based and sourced from small account holder which affect efficiency by reducing profit as the fund are withdrawn anytime by the customers. This finding supports the result of Anarfor (2015) for Sub-Saharan Africa, Shiferaw (2013) for Ethiopia, Awunyi-Vitor and Badu (2012) for Ghana, Taani (2013) for Jordan. Nikko (2015) for Iran, Mujahid, Zuberi, Rafiq, Sameen and Shakoor (2014) for Pakistan, Sharma and Verma (2016) for India, Siddik, Kabiraj and Joghee (2016) for Bangladesh and Zaroki and Rouhi (2015) on the negative relationship between financial structure and return on assets. The findings in respect of total debt to total assets and total debt to total equity and return on assets did not negate previous findings in the context of the banking industry.

For Table 2, it was observed that total debt to total equity has negative but insignificant relationship with return on equity of deposit money banks. This could be attributed to that assumption that if ratio of total

debt to total equity increases, the financial risk borne by shareholders of banks also increases. This is the reason why shareholders demand high reward in proportion to risk they are exposed to, by imputing their capital due to rising debt in the financial structure. This result is inconsistent with previous studies of Siddik, Kabiraj and Joghee (2016), Sharma and Verma (2016), Mujahid, Zuberi, Rafiq, Sameen and Shakoor (2014), Nikko (2015), Awunyi-Vitor and Badu (2012) and Anarfor (2015) for Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, Iran, Ghana and Sub Saharan Africa respectively. In a similar manner, it contradicts the works of Shiferaw (2013), Taani (2013), Zafar, Zeeshan and Ahmed (2016), Abbadi and Abu-Rub (2012) and Zaroki and Rouhi (2015) for Ethiopia, Jordan, Kenya, Pakistan, Palestinian and Iran respectively.

As shown in Table 39, total debt to total assets negatively relates with net operating income of deposit money banks in Nigeria. The result is evidence that deposit money banks in Nigeria rely on customers deposits to make profit which becomes a liability to them. This may be linked with the level of development in the capital market where banks do not get the fund needed for operation thus relying majorly on short term customers deposits. This is why there was jittery in the banking industry when the Federal government of Nigeria implemented the Treasury Single Account (TSA) policy. The negative

relationship also may be that the cost incurred in sourcing fund outside the customer's deposits is considerably high such that it affects performance. This is in line with the works of Shiferaw (2013) for Ethiopia but refutes the study in the context of Jordan by Taani (2013).

Net interest income was found to be negatively related with total debt to total assets as evidenced in Table 40 This gives an idea that when a bank borrows externally to finance in the current level of interest rate in Nigeria, the cost of such fund would in most cases higher the profit derived from the usage of the funds. This concurs with the results of Anarfo (2015) and Taani (2013) that interest income of the banks in Ethiopia, Jordan and Kenya are negatively related. Looking at Table 41, the non-interest income of banks is also negatively related with financial structure variables-total debt to total equity and short term debt to total assets. This also lays credence to that fact that in the present macroeconomic uncertainty in Nigeria, deposit money banks externally seeking finance to invest in non-banking areas in form of off balance engagement may be negatively affected by the cost of the borrowed fund.

This is in connection with the pecking order theory that internal financing and retained earnings remain the greatest priority of any firm to finance business operations. The granger causality test shows that tangibility has significant effect on net interest income and non-net interest of deposit money banks in Nigeria. This insinuates that banks investment in fixed assets relative to total assets inclusive of off balance sheet engagement has the potential of increasing net interest income and non-net interest income.

8. Conclusion

The performance of deposit money banks depends on the financial structure decisions taken by management, considering the fact that customers deposit in banks are mainly on short term bases which constitutes over 90% of deposit money banks liability. The result of this research has shown that financial structure has negative effect on performance of deposit money banks in Nigeria within the period studied and upheld the applicability of the pecking order theory in the Nigeria's banking industry. This is not the end to the nexus on financial structure performance linkage, rather a starting point to the unending debate having deep regard to banking industries of emerging economies.

9. Recommendations

In considerations of the findings of this study, the following suggestions are put forward for policy formulations of deposit money banks management in Nigeria. To improve wealth of shareholders, deposit money banks should fund their operations largely from other external source of finance such as bond market to ensure diversification instead of relying heavily on the short term deposits of customers. Deposit money banks should aim at increasing their assets, especially investment in off balance engagement as this positively relates with net operating income.

To increase interest income deposit money banks should have more assets that a tangible as higher ratio of fixed assets to total assets inclusive of off balance engagement would reduce debt equity level thus improving performance. Deposit Money banks should strive to improve deposit mobilization and should constitute a marketing team that would be charged on the effective and efficient utilization of these deposits. In order to increase interest income, they should set lending rates bearing competition in mind and such rates should not discourage depositors from accessing loans.

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Acquisition of Literacy Skills using Mobile Handheld Devices and Science Education Students' Academic Performance in Universities in Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria.

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Abstract. This survey study examined acquisition of literacy skills through the use of handheld devices and academic performance among Science Education students in Universities in Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria. The population of this study comprised of level 200 Science Education students which was 1080 (440 male and 640 female) in Universities in Akwa Ibom State. The sample consisted of one hundred and twenty (120) Science Education students drawn from two universities in the State. Two instruments used were: Acquisition of Literacy Skills using Handheld Devices Questionnaire, ALSHDQ ($\alpha = .70$) and Computed Result Sheet (CRS). Three research questions guided the study. The data were analyzed using mean, frequency count, percentage, t-test and Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC). The results showed that the level of acquisition of literacy skills through handheld devices among Science Education students was high (weighted mean, $\bar{x} = 3.07$); Male and female Science Education students had similar performance mean scores ($t = .905$) and Science Education students acquisition of literacy skills through Handheld Devices was positively related to their academic performance ($r = .555$). It was concluded that the level of literacy skills acquisition through handheld devices among Science Education students was high, and that there was no difference in the performance mean scores of male and female Science Education students exposed to handheld devices in acquisition of literacy skills.

Keywords: Acquisition, literacy skills, handheld devices, Academic performance, and Science Education Students, Universities.

1. Introduction

Every educational strategy, devices and methods are aimed at improving the learning conditions of the learners. The learner therefore is at the center of the strategies and methods. In order to achieve this aim, appropriate instructional materials and devices should be used by the teachers to impart knowledge to the learners. The learners participate better when instructional strategies of manipulated tools are being used in instructional delivery process. One of the manipulated tools is handheld mobile device. Mobile devices as teaching tools are becoming more and more common part of the Nigeria education experience in classrooms, from preschools through graduate schools. A recent research survey found that almost all teachers own a mobile handheld device which can be used to enhance learning (Itighise, 2016). The presence and use of electronic devices in the undergraduate classroom creates strong opinions as well as confusion among instructors. Policies vary as to allowing students use mobile phones, tablets and/or laptops, and eBooks during classes. Netbooks, iPads, cell phones, iPods, e-readers and even PDAs are increasingly becoming the tools of choice for today's educators. These devices may hinder or support the learning environment, depending on course context and how classroom policies are written and managed

Nationally, two policies are identified as related to the use of mobile handheld devices in teaching and learning in Nigeria. These are the National Policy on Education (NPE) (FGN, 2012) and the National Information and Communication Technology (ICT) Policy of 2001. Part 100 (f) in section 11 of the NPE specifically requires the development and promotion of effective use of innovative materials in schools.

This obviously includes the piece of technology (mobile handheld devices) with the most diverse functionality and widest usage in every country of the globe.

Ekpo (2010) reported that “National ICT Policy of 2001 empowered the National Information Technology Development Agency (NITDA) to enter into strategic alliances and to collaborate with the private sector for the purpose of realizing the nation’s vision of making Nigeria an IT capable country in Africa”. The IT Policy objectives include the requirement to “integrate ICT into the mainstream of education and training”. The provisions of the two national policies cited above provide the policy framework for the incorporation of mobile learning into Nigeria educational systems. Mobile learning technologies offer teachers and students a more flexible approach to learnings (Wylie, 2017). To maximize teaching effectiveness, education in the 21st century has to be active, engaging, and customized. Students must have universal access to mobile technologies that will enable critical thinking, differentiation, and problem solving.

Mobile handheld devices is defined as any small machine that can be carried easily in one’s palm and provide computing as well as information storage and retrieval capabilities (Cheung and Hew, 2009). Its multi-functionality, portability and connectivity are opening doors for learning. These tiny pocket computers keep students connected to the internet, improving their academic performance in different subject areas. However, many students are oblivious to the power in their hands; the power of educational applications which is the potential for success. Mobile handheld devices usage in academic setting has pros and cons. On the one hand, it enables easy transfer of information and can act as mean of distraction for students who tend to use it for social interest such as text messages, play games and accessing Facebook. Mobile devices have introduced new avenues to enhance students learning and project options. Mobile technology is a gateway to learning tools and resources. It makes learning more personalized and create bridges over the gaps between teachers and students. Mobile learning gives users access to tons of content anywhere, anytime and open opportunity to learn at all time. Huang, Lin and Cheng (2010) posit that mobile devices when appropriately applied in teaching and learning process enhance students’ academic achievement as well as students’ dispositions toward learning.

On the contrary, Sung and Mayer (2013) suggest that mobile technology itself is not sufficient to the

increase in students learning rather it is the method of delivery that is significant. However, Navaridas, Santiago and Tourón (2013) found that teachers perceive an increase of students’ interest and activity when incorporating mobile devices. When incorporated into the learning environment, Burkhardt and Cohen (2012) found mobile devices to be an effective tool for classroom polling, which increased student’s engagement and participation by forcing each student to respond to classroom questions. In the same vein, Sung and Mayer (2013) in their study found that participants using mobile devices were more satisfied by their learning activities than participants using desktop computers. Both groups reported a higher interest in studying from mobile devices. other researchers claim that classrooms with handheld computers differ fundamentally from those that have desktop computers in that users of handheld devices can interact with other computing devices as well as with each other at the same time (Lyublinskaya, 2017; Jacquemin, Smelser and Bernot, 2014; Junco, 2012).

Ravizza, Uitvlugt and Fenn (2016) stated that mobile handheld devices are increasingly being used in education and are valuable tools for teachers and students to use in secondary and higher institutions. Churchhill and churchhill (2007) defined handheld devices as the communication tools for sharing the lesson content. Therefore, it can be used as video recording device to capture episodes of lesson taught. Some students use inbuilt cameras available in mobile devices to capture digital pictures of their classroom or lesson. According to Churchhill and churchhill (2007) students used Personal Digital Assistants (PDAs), palmtops or mobile phones to create representations that demonstrate or showcase their thinking, ideas, experience and knowledge. For example students used PiCoMap, a concept mapping software to create maps with at least four nodes and four connections. The maps, were subsequently beamed to other classmates after which the student discussed similarities and differences among the various maps. With the commencement of Global System of Mobile Communications (GSM) operations in Nigeria in 2000, the Nigeria society has witnessed the fastest ever rate of penetration of technology to the remotest of towns and villages. Mobile technologies are owned by members of every class of the Nigeria society and learners in every level of education. Inyang-Abia (2009) defined Technology as a well-researched and dependable body of knowledge to respond to practical challenges in various dimensions of human existence. Technology is applied to solving problem in human society. Newby, Stephich, Lehman and Russel (2006)

explained that just as technology has been used to address practical problem in communication, medicine, sport etc, it has also been used to address practical problems involved in human learning. Inyang-Abia (2009) noted that though educational challenges and issues are numerous, they can best be addressed through the principle, practices and procedures of educational technology. Since schools

are places where learners are educated, there is need for effective utilization of mobile handheld devices. Cheung and Hew (2009) comment that mobile handheld devices differ from other mobile tools such as laptops because the latter, although portable are typically not small and light enough to fit into one's palm. Figure 1 provides a pictorial illustration of the relationship between mobile handheld devices with laptops and desktop personal computers.

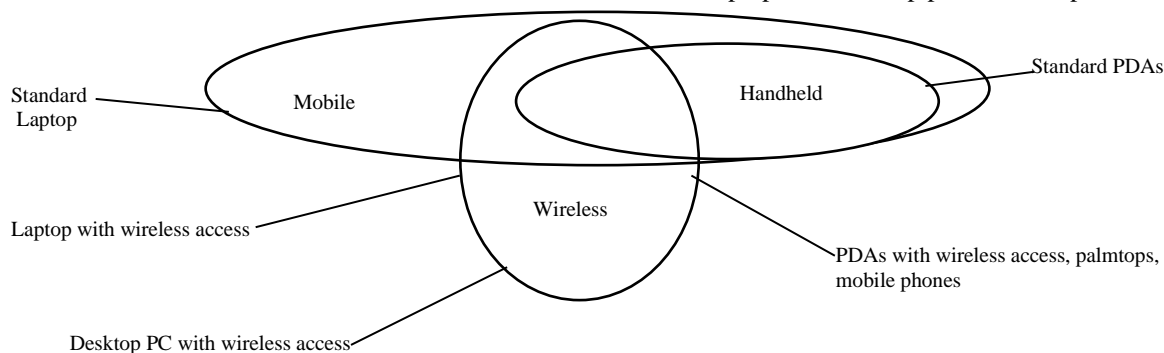


Figure 1: Relationship between Mobile Handheld Devices, Laptop and Desktop Personal Computers.
Source: Cheung and Hew (2009).

According to Cheung and Hew (2009) PDAs are shirt pocket-sized devices equipped with computer capabilities. PDAs typically come with a touch sensitive screen, a pen/stylus input interface, customizable application buttons and a multi-way navigator to browse information on the screen. Nowadays, PDAs are generally equipped with a suite of personal information management software and can connect to desktop computers and wireless local area networks using infrared Bluetooth or Wi-Fi communication technology (Lyublinskaya, 2017). Palmtops are very similar to PDAs and often they are referred to PDAs by name. The main difference however is that palmtop typically have inbuilt keyboard compared to PDAs that need a stylus for data entry. Students being “digital natives” are more engaged and motivated to learn when they use mobile devices, and research shows that academic performances can improve. Lynch(2015) reported in his study of Pew Research Center survey that 73% teachers used mobile technology in their classrooms, either through their own instruction or by allowing students to use it to complete assignments; English teachers are more likely to use mobile technology in the classroom than mathematics teachers; 47% of teachers strongly agreed, and an additional 44% somewhat agreed, that students need digital literacy courses to be successful academically and beyond. Becta (2007) reported on the emerging model of use of mobile devices by teachers and learners to include:

Teacher-directed activity; Teacher-set activity and Autonomous learning activity. In teacher-directed activity, the teacher has a very clear notion of how the device is to be used to achieve the learning objectives and also largely determines the outcome. However, within this predominantly teacher-controlled environment, learners may be enabled to exercise some degree of independence. For instance, within a lesson, learners may be allocated time to complete a specific task individually or in groups and they may use mobile devices as they feel appropriate rather than as directed.

The teacher-set activity is more open-ended in that although the teachers set the tasks and the general outcome, the processes and the format of the outcome are to a large extent defined by the learner. With this approach, learners are free to use their own ideas and their initiative. It can provide a way of engaging different learning preferences. Most learners, though not all, take the opportunity to use their mobile devices when offered the option. In Autonomous learning activity, learners are involved in a wide variety of self-directed school-based learning tasks. For instance, one child developed a way of using her PDAs to learn spellings; another used a spreadsheet to learn her multiplication tables. Other may access content not specified by the teacher, but not of curiosity and interest. Some secondary schools and universities students used mobile device

independently in lessons where there was no use planned by the teacher.

More recently, two studies that separately followed fifth and eighth graders who used tablets for learning in class and at home found that learning experiences improved across the board (Sung and Mayer, 2013). 35% of the 8th graders said that they were more interested in their teachers' lessons or activities when they used their tablet, and the students exceeded teachers' academic expectations when using the devices. With self-reporting, 54% of students say they get more involved in classes that use technology and 55% say they wish instructors used more educational games or simulations to teach lessons. Lynch (2015) comments that kids seem to respond well to the stimulus of mobile devices. They stay on task, correct mistakes in real-time and, most importantly, they get excited about learning. A research study by Olufadi (2015) on self-report and self-analysis study in two Nigeria universities with 285 students from the universities selected using convenience sampling approach revealed that, the time spent on phone calling was the only significant factor affecting students' academic performance out of seven variables including addiction and distraction.

According to a study conducted by Kuznekoff and Titsworth (2013), students who do not use mobile phone during a lecture write 60% more information in their notebooks, make more detailed notes, can recall more lecture information, score better grade and perform better in multiple choice test, than students who uses their mobile phones during the lecture. The students who do not use mobile phones provide 93% more outstanding answers to the questions in their note than the student who frequently use their mobile phone. Similarly, students not using their mobile phones can recall 87% more answers than the students using mobile phones. They described the mobile phones as a high distraction tool for the students, who instead of using it for learning get involved in texting or chatting. This study therefore examined acquisition of literacy skills through the use of handheld devices and academic performance among Science Education students in Universities in Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

With the advent of technology such as overhead projector, slide projector, visualizer, interactive whiteboard for instructional delivery in Science Education, there is continuous poor performance as observed in 2016/2017 academic session students computed results. This may be caused by inability of lecturers to use the gadgets in the teaching and

learning process due to lack of operational techniques of these teaching gadgets. The questions now are: Does the use of handheld devices as instructional devices affect acquisition of literacy skills among Science Education students irrespective of their gender? Is there any relationship between Science Education students' use of handheld devices and their academic performance? To tackle these questions therefore, the study examined acquisition of literacy skills through the use of handheld devices and academic performance among Science Education students in Universities in Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria.

1.2 The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine the effects of mobile handheld devices on Science Education students' literacy skill acquisition and academic performance in Universities in Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria. The study was designed to achieve the following specific objectives:

- To determine the level of acquisition of literacy skills through handheld devices among Science Education students in Universities in Akwa Ibom State.
- To compare the academic performance of male and female Science Education students using handheld devices in Universities in Akwa Ibom State.
- To establish the nature of relationship between acquisition of literacy skills using handheld devices and Science Education students' academic performance in Universities in Akwa Ibom State.

1.3 Research Questions

In order to guide the researcher in the study, the following research questions were posed and answered in its course of the study:

- What is the level of acquisition of literacy skill through handheld devices among Science Education students in Universities in Akwa Ibom State?
- What is the difference in the mean performance score of male and female Science Education students using handheld devices in Universities in Akwa Ibom State?
- What is the nature of relationship between Science Education students' acquisition of literacy skills through handheld devices and their academic performance?

1.4 Methodology

The study adopted a survey research design to examine acquisition of literacy skills through the use

of handheld devices and academic performance among Science Education students in Universities in Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria. The population consisted of 1080 Science Education students in 200 levels of 2017/2018 academic session in six programmes – Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Integrated Science, Mathematics and Computer Science in the two Universities in the State. A sample of 120 Science Education students were selected from the two Universities using simple random sampling technique. Two instruments used were: Acquisition of Literacy Skills using Handheld Devices Questionnaire, (ALSHDQ) and Computed Result Sheet (CRS) for 2017/2018 session. The questionnaire consisted of 10-items of 4-point scale developed by the researcher. The instrument was graded strongly Agreed – 4, Agreed – 3, Disagreed – 2, and Strongly Disagreed – 1. Two experts from the Department of Science Education in the Akwa Ibom State University and University of Uyo validated the instrument. The experts, after examining the

instrument, made some corrections in precision of item and ambiguity of the statement and added more questions. These corrections were effected in the final draft of the instrument. The instrument was tested for reliability using the split-half method with 20 subjects who were not part of the study. Their mean ratings were separated into odd and even numbered items. The two halves were correlated using the Pearson Product Moment Correlations analysis. To obtain the coefficient for the whole questionnaire, Spearman Brown Prophecy Formula was used to get the reliability coefficient of 0.71 which was satisfactory for the study. The questionnaire was administered to the students in classes and they were instructed to complete it within 20 minutes. The data was collected between September and October, 2018. The data were analyzed using mean, frequency count, percentage, t-test and Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC).

2. Result

Research Question 1: What is the level of acquisition of literacy skills through handheld devices among Science Education students in universities in Akwa Ibom State?

Table 1: Level of Acquisition of Literacy skills using Handheld Devices among Science Education Students

S/N	Acquisition of Literacy skills	SA	A	D	SD	Mean	Std. D	Decision
1	I learned problem solving skill in science through mobile phone.	61 50.8%	58 48.3%	1 0.8%	- -	3.50	.519	Agreed
2	I study science concepts well at home with mobile phone.	44 36.7%	66 55.0%	9 7.5%	1 0.8%	3.28	.635	Agreed
3	I improve my communication skill in science through the use of mobile phone.	44 36.7%	47 39.2%	20 16.7%	9 7.5%	3.05	.915	Agreed
4	I use mobile device to do my assignments with ease.	44 36.7%	59 49.2%	17 14.2%	- -	3.23	.679	Agreed
5	I learned critical thinking skills through handheld devices.	44 35.8%	58 48.3%	10 8.3%	83 69.2%	3.13	.856	Agreed
6	I acquired computational skills through handheld devices.	8 6.7%	10 8.3%	19 15.8%	- -	1.53	.907	Disagreed
7	I acquired manipulative skill using handheld devices.	60 50.0%	59 49.2%	1 0.8%	7 5.8%	3.49	.519	Agreed
8	My ability to focus or pay attention improves through the use of handheld devices.	47 39.2%	35 30.0%	30 25.0%	- -	3.03	.937	Agreed
9	I solve science calculation effectively using handheld devices (ipad).	45 37.5%	57 47.5%	18 15.0%	- -	2.23	.692	Agreed
10	I increased my reading and studying skill through the use of handheld devices	56 46.7%	36 30.0%	28 23.3%	- -	3.23	.807	Agreed

Weighted Mean = 3.07

Table I revealed the weighted average of 3.07 out of the maximum obtainable 5.00 which is higher than the standard average of 2.50. This means that there is high level of acquisition of literacy skills through handheld devices among Science Education students in universities in Akwa Ibom State.

Research Question 2: What is the difference in the mean performance score of male and female Science Education students using handheld devices in universities in Akwa Ibom State?

Table 2: Independent t-test of Science Education Students Academic performance by Gender

Gender	N	Mean	Std. D	Df	T
Male	53	30.32	3.847	118	.905
Female	67	30.96	3.784		

Table 2 showed that male and female Science Education students had similar performance mean scores. Female students had higher performance mean score ($x = 30.96$) than their male counterparts ($x = 30.32$) but this difference in their performance mean scores was not statistically significant ($t = .905$). This means that there was no difference in performance means scores of male and female Science Education students.

Research Question 3: What is the nature of relationship between Science Education students' acquisition of literacy skills through handheld devices and their academic performance?

Table 3: Pearson Product Moment Correlation of Relationship between Science Education Students' Acquisition of Literacy Skills through Handheld Devices and their Academic Performance

Variables	Mean	Std. D	N	df	R
Acquisition of Literacy Skills	29.36	2.719	120	118	.555
Academic Performance	30.68	3.890			

Table 3 indicated positive relationship between Science Education students' acquisition of literacy skills through Handheld Device and their academic performance ($r = .555$). This means that Science Education students' acquisition of literacy skills through handheld devices was positively related to their academic performance.

3. Discussion of Findings

Table 1 revealed that Science Education students' level of literacy skills acquisition through handheld devices was high. This supports the finding of Friedel, Bos, Lee and Smith (2013) who investigated the impact of mobile handheld digital devices on students' learning: a literature review with meta-analysis. The finding showed that mobile handheld devices successfully delivered high level meaningful skills, educational content, lessons and scaffolding. It was also supported by Burkhardt and Cohen (2012) which found mobile devices to be an effective tool for classroom polling, which increased students' engagement and participation by forcing each student to respond to classroom questions. In the same vein,

Sung and Mayer (2013) in their study found that participants using mobile devices were more satisfied by their learning activities than participants using desktop computers.

Table 2 showed that there was no difference in performance mean scores of male and female Science Education students in universities in Akwa Ibom State. This study supports the early work of Okorie and Ezeh (2016) that there is no significance difference in academic performance of students and that both the male and female students performed creditably well.

Table 3 revealed that there was a positive relationship between Science Education students' acquisition of literacy skills using handheld devices and their academic performance. This results is in line with Rabi, Muhammed, Umaru and Ahmed (2016) who found that students acquisition of skills through the use of handheld devices was positively related to their academic performance. In the same vein, findings by Navaridas, Santiago and Tourón (2013) showed that teachers perceive an increase in students'

interest and activity when incorporating mobile devices.

4. Conclusion

In this study, it was concluded that the level of literacy skills acquisition through handheld devices among Science Education students was high, and that there was no difference in the performance means scores of male and female Science Education students exposed to handheld devices in acquisition of literacy skills. It was also revealed that there was a positive relationship between Science Education students' acquisition of literacy skills through handheld devices and their academic performance.

5. Recommendations

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

- Stakeholders in Science Education should ensure that the potentials of handheld devices such as mobile phones should be meaningfully harnessed for effective instructional delivery and students' classroom success.
- Lecturers should adopt the use of handheld devices in teaching and reduce the frequent use of conventional method.
- The use of handheld devices in teaching science concepts should be encourage by universities administrators through organization of in-house seminars and workshops for lecturers on utilization of mobile devices for effective instructional delivery process.
- Lecturers should constantly encourage Students' use of online academically through their mobile devices for effective lesson content assimilation.

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Attitude of Agricultural Science Students and their Parents toward Agricultural and Forestry Career in Ibadan North Local Government Area of Oyo State, Nigeria

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Abstract. The purpose of this study was to assess secondary school students and their parents' attitude towards agriculture and forestry career and the relationship that exist between their attitudes. Multistage sample technique was used to sample one hundred and eighty (180) students for the study and through the students 180 parents were included. A validated questionnaire known as Students/parents' Attitude towards agricultural/Forestry career was used to collect data for this study (students' attitude $r = 0.83$ and parents' attitude $r=0.84$). Descriptive statistics (frequency and percentage) and Pearson r was used in data analysis. The results showed that students and their parents' attitude towards agriculture and forestry career were negative. In addition, there was a significant relationship between students' attitudes and parents' attitude towards agricultural and forestry career (Pearson $r=209$). It is therefore recommended that there should be sensitization in schools both for the students and Parents Teachers association meetings to educate both the students and parents on importance and benefits of agricultural/forestry career.

Keywords: Attitude, Agriculture, Forestry, Students, Parents

1. Introduction

Agriculture and Forestry are important sectors for Nigerian economic development with high potentials for employment, food security, poverty reduction and environmental protection. Agriculture is the engine of growth for most developing countries and its development is one of the most effective ways to

alleviate hunger and poverty (Amungwa and Baye, 2014). In the same vein, forests provide important environmental services that contribute to the wellbeing and security of human; they are needed to maintain the atmosphere and its destruction is a major contributing factor resulting in rising level of carbon dioxide emission and global warming. To ensure sustenance of forest resources and its role for economic development and environmental protection, there is need to train professionals in the field of Forestry. It is imperative therefore to develop skilled human resources in order to sustain, diversify and realise the potentials of agriculture and forestry sectors. Hence, Agriculture and Forestry human resources development is a continuous process undertaken by educational sectors (especially tertiary institutions).

Training to become agriculture and forestry professionals generally requires a diploma certificate from technical and vocational institutions or a degree from the university. Agriculture and forestry education are offered in universities, technical and vocational training institutions in Nigeria. Despite all the issues addressed by agriculture and forestry education, students' enrolment into forestry and agriculture in Nigerian tertiary institutions are not encouraging (Alao (2010), Adebo & Sekumade, (2013)). Most students prefer other courses compare to agriculture and forestry courses but enrol in agricultural and forestry only when they are unable to undertake alternative courses or programs of study. This is supported by Appah and Tokede, (2020) that some students found in forestry department are there because they could not meet up to the cut off mark of

their chosen courses and they are pushed into Forestry courses. The poor enrolment in agriculture and forestry in schools is a major concern for agriculture and forestry sectors and this might make it unfavourable towards government efforts at improving agricultural and forestry sectors. However, considering strategic contributions of Agriculture and Forestry education in sustaining National development, there is need to encourage the younger generation to take up agriculture and forestry as a career.

Agricultural science is a compulsory subject in junior secondary education in Nigeria but optional at senior level, in that case students have the choice of deciding whether to offer the course or not. Majority of these students still regard agriculture as nonprofessional and less profitable livelihood option for young adults and sees any one returning to farming after university to be a failure (Okiror & Otabong, 2015). Forestry is not found anywhere in primary and secondary school curriculum, if at all it can only be as a topic in agriculture curriculum; it is only at tertiary education level that Forestry is known as a career. Based on the fact that forestry is not included as a subject both in primary and secondary school education, there is need to increase Forestry education literacy of the people and the need to inculcate awareness of forestry education and its importance; it will also improve students' enrolment and attitude towards Forestry education. In case of Forestry, there is no trace of Forestry as a subject in primary or secondary school curriculum in Nigeria despite the importance of forestry education. However, the average enrolment per year for Forestry and its related courses both at technical level and professional level calls for concern of all stakeholders involved in Forestry education institutions. (Alao, 2010)

There can be many reasons for poor enrolment in agriculture and forestry education, the attitudinal disposition towards agriculture among senior secondary school students can be one of the factors. Kotrlík (1987) found that parents were the dominant influence on a student's decision whether to enrol in agriculture classes when attending high school. Based on the fact that Forestry is not found anywhere in primary and secondary school curriculum, there is need to increase the Forestry education literacy of the citizen and the need to inculcate in students and their parents a positive attitude to Forestry education.

The theoretical basis of this study is based on Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) that a person's beliefs, feelings, or intentions (attitude) towards an object can

predict behaviour. The perceptions or beliefs and feelings towards agriculture and forestry can influence enrolment in agriculture and forestry. Thus, knowledge of students and their parents' attitude toward agriculture and forestry and educational programmes in agriculture and forestry will theoretically, provide an indication of their interest in taking up agriculture and forestry education.

1.1 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to determine the attitude of secondary students' and their parents towards agriculture and forestry education. The knowledge will create awareness and improve students' and their parents' attitudes towards agriculture and forestry education. It will also educate people on the importance of agriculture and forestry education. It is the hope of the researchers that this study will come out with suggestions and recommendations that will give rise to positive attitude towards agriculture and forestry education which will in turn improve students' enrolment in agriculture and forestry.

1.2 Research Questions

The following research questions were addressed:

What is the attitude of agricultural science students towards Agriculture/Forestry as a career?

What is the attitude of parents' of agricultural science students' towards forestry as a career?

Hypothesis

There is no significant correlation between agricultural science students' attitude and their parents' attitude towards Agriculture/forestry career.

2. Methodology

Research Design

Descriptive and correlational survey was adopted for this study hence no variable is manipulated or controlled. The study was carried out in Ibadan North West Local Government Area (LGA) of Oyo state. The target population for this study comprised all public and private senior secondary school three (SSS 3) Students in Ibadan South West Local Government Area of Oyo State. The reason for this chosen population is because they form those students that chose Agricultural Science as subject for senior secondary certificate examination. Simple random sampling procedure was used to select the sample for this study. Six (6) public secondary schools were randomly selected. Thirty (30) students were randomly selected from each of the schools,

making a total of one hundred and eighty (180). 81(45%) female students and 99(55%) male students A structured questionnaire known as Students and their parents' Attitude towards agricultural/Forestry Education was used in collecting data. The questionnaire consisted of sections A and B. Section A consisted of respondents' demographic variables. Section B consisted of ten (10) items used to elicit information on respondents' attitude, measured on a four-point scale (strongly agree, agree, disagree and strongly disagree). The instrument was subjected to face and content validity and empirical validities were ensured also. Lawshe Content Validity (CVI) was used to establish the content validity and the value obtained was 0.78 and 0.80 respectively. The internal consistency and reliability of the instrument in sections A and B were established using Cronbach Alpha to get the values of 0.83 and 0.84 respectively. The instruments were considered adequate for the

study. The instrument was then taken to the sampled senior secondary schools, each students chosen were given students' copy of the questionnaire to respond to. Face to face method was adopted to make sure that the students filled the questionnaire effectively. These students were also given the parents' copy of the questionnaire to give to one of their parents to fill, making a total of one hundred and eighty (180) parents' questionnaire with the instruction given to them by their class teachers, the students returned all the parents' questionnaire given to them to take home. The parents' that responded to the questionnaire were 113(62.8%) female and 67(37.2%) male. (Data collated were analysed using descriptive statistics (frequency and percentage) to answer research questions 1 and 2 while correlation method was used to test the hypothesis at 0.05 alpha levels.

3. Results

Research Question 1: What is the attitude of students towards Agriculture/Forestry career?

Table 1: Attitude of students towards Agriculture/Forestry Career

S/N	ITEMS	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	Students feel they choose agricultural science to enable them study agricultural/forestry courses after their secondary education	3(1.7%)	30(16.7%)	99(55.0%)	48(26.7%)
2	Students believe that there are no job opportunities in Forestry/Agriculture profession	55(30.6%)	40(22%)	57(31.7%)	28(15.6%)
3	Student believe joining Forestry/Agriculture profession will make them useful in the society	10(5.6%)	54(30.0%)	74(41.1%)	42(23.3%)
4	Students believe Forestry/Agriculture will give them prestigious status	33(18.3%)	30(16.7%)	74(41.1%)	42(23.3%)
5	Students believe Forestry/Agriculture will equip them to be self-reliant	32(17.8%)	68(37.8%)	61(33.9%)	19(10.5%)
6	Students feel Forestry/Agriculture Education will not provide them suitable jobs	68(37.8%)	33(18.3%)	55(30.6%)	24(13.3%)
7	Poor Societal Value placed on farming make students dislike the profession	84(46.7%)	33(18.3%)	24(13.3%)	39(21.7%)
8	Students believe Forestry/Agriculture is meant for those in Urban areas	15(8.3%)	30(16.7%)	89(49.4%)	46(25.6%)
9	Student believe that Forestry /Agriculture practices are tedious	16(8.9%)	61(33.9%)	83(46.1%)	20(11.1%)
10	Students prefer Forestry/Agriculture profession to other profession.	12(6.7%)	30(16.7%)	99(55.0%)	48(26.7%)

As shown in table 1, the findings of this study reflect students' negative attitude towards forestry/Agricultural education. For instance, only 18.3% of the students admitted they choose Agricultural Science to enable them offer Forestry/Agriculture Education in higher institutions (item 1). Over 60% of the students disagreed that Forestry/Agricultural education will make them useful in the society (Item 3), will give them prestigious status (4), such education is meant for those in rural area (item 8). Also 65% of the students agreed that poor societal value placed on farming make students dislike the profession (item 6) while only 23.4% of the students prefer Forestry/Agricultural profession to other profession (item 10).

Research Question 2: What is the attitude of parents towards Agriculture/Forestry career?

Table 2: Attitude of parents towards Agriculture/Forestry Career

ITEMS	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Parents believe their wards offering agricultural science is to enable them study agricultural/forestry courses in university.	12(6.7%)	26(14.4%)	55(30.6%)	87(48.3%)
Parents believe that there are no job opportunities in Forestry/Agriculture profession	87(48.3%)	43(23.9%)	22(12.2%)	28(15.6%)
Parents believe their wards joining Forestry/Agriculture profession will make them useful in the society	18(10.0%)	38(21.1%)	48(26.7%)	76(42.2%)
Parents believe Forestry/Agriculture will give their wards prestigious status	34(18.9%)	40(22.2%)	43(23.9%)	63(35.0%)
Parents believe Forestry/Agriculture will equip their wards to be self-reliant	51(28.3%)	54(30.0%)	40(22.2%)	35(19.4%)
Parents feel Forestry/Agriculture Education will provide suitable jobs for their wards	19(10.6%)	39(21.7%)	58(32.2%)	64(35.6%)
Poor Societal Value placed on farming makes parents dislike the profession	45(25.0%)	30(16.7%)	34(18.9%)	71(39.4%)
Parents believe Forestry/Agriculture education is meant for those in Urban areas	54(30.0%)	34(18.9%)	43(23.9%)	49(27.2%)
Parents feel that agricultural/forestry practices will be tedious for their wards.	22(12.2%)	60(33.3%)	38(21.1%)	60(33.3%)
Parents prefer other Education to Forestry/Agriculture profession.	100(55.6%)	29(16.1%)	25(13.9%)	26(14.4%)

As shown in table 2, the findings of this study also reflect parents’ negative attitude towards forestry/Agricultural education. For instance, 78.9% of the parents disagreed that their wards will go for Forestry/Agriculture Education after their secondary education. The respondents also agreed that there are no job opportunities in Forestry/Agriculture profession (item 2), It will not make their wards useful in the society (item 3), it will not give them prestigious status (item 4). Although 58 % of the parents believe Forestry/Agriculture will equip their wards to be self-reliant (5%) and over 55% disagreed that agricultural/forestry practices will be tedious for their wards (item 9) yet over 70% of them prefer other Education to Forestry/Agriculture Education (item10).

Hypothesis: There is no significant correlation between students’ attitude and parents’ attitude towards Agriculture/Forestry as a career.

Table 3: Correlation between students’ attitude and parents’ attitude towards Agriculture/Forestry as a career.

Variables	N	MEAN	SD	Pearson r	Sig	Decision
Students’ attitude t	180	25.96	5.05			
Parents’ attitudes	180	25.64	5.08	.209	.005	significant

.. Correlation is significant at 0.05

Table 3 shows that a significant positive relation existed between students’ attitude towards Agriculture/Forestry career and parents’ attitude towards Agriculture/Forestry career (Pearson r =.209; N = 180, P 0.05). The null hypothesis that there is no significant correlation between students’ attitude and parents’ attitude towards Agriculture/Forestry as a career is therefore rejected. This result implies that students’ attitude is dependent on parents’ attitude.

4. Discussion on the findings

The findings from the study revealed that students and parents’ responses were similar in majority of the

items. They both showed negative attitude towards Agriculture/Forestry as a career, the negative attitude could be attributed to their limited knowledge of what the career entails. This finding is supported by Baliyan and Nenty (2015) that motivational strategies should be used to improve students’ attitude towards agriculture. Their negative attitudes could be because of their misconceptions about the career which they showed in responding to items 2, 3, 4. This is in line with Adejoh, Edeka and Shaibu (2016)) that students attitudes towards agricultural science can be attributed to their misconceptions about the career opportunities in agriculture. The finding agrees with Appah and Tokede (2019) that many people are not

aware of what forestry education entails. The results also showed that students and their parents prefer other courses to agriculture/forestry which makes them disagree to the fact that they chose Agricultural Science to enable them offer Forestry/Agriculture Education in higher institution. This could be attributed to the fact that the students and their parents do not understand what Agriculture/Forestry education is all about and its prospects. This corroborates with Areo, Oyewale and Oyewumi (2019), that stressed the need for massive public enlightenment on forestry education and its prospects to improve students' attitude towards the career.

In this study also the proposition that there is no significant correlation between students' attitude and parents' attitude towards Agriculture/Forestry as a career was found to be false. In essence, students' attitude towards Agriculture/Forestry career is dependent on their parents' attitude towards Agriculture/Forestry career. This is an indication that students' attitude to Agriculture/Forestry career are influenced by their parents. This finding supported Osborne and Dyer (2000) that attitude of Agriscience students' towards agriculture is influenced by their parents' attitude to the career.

5. Conclusion

This study assessed the attitude of senior secondary students and their parents towards agricultural/forestry career. It is revealed that students and their parents showed negative attitude towards the profession, based on this study, a lot of factors contributed to the negative attitude of the students and their parents towards agricultural/forestry career, among them are job opportunities, poor Societal value placed on farming which makes parents dislike the profession, students used for this study are in urban area they see such career to be for those in rural areas. The study also revealed significant relationship between the students' attitude and parents' attitude towards agricultural/forestry career.

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Part Two

Peace and Conflict Studies



Violent Protests in Nigeria: Causes, Dynamics and Viable Solutions

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Abstract. Uprising against the state dotted the political history of Nigeria. The First, Second, Third and Fourth Republics as well as the intermittent interruptions by military regimes recorded quite a number of violent protests, demonstrations, secessionist attempts and insurgencies that have claimed thousands of lives and led to destruction of properties. Different interventions including militarisation, enquiries, litigation and negotiations have been deployed to quell uprising against the state with varying degrees of success. The aim of this explorative survey is to examine the trends of violent protests and efforts made in curtailing politically motivated conflicts against the state in Nigeria. Secondary data sourced from extant literature consisting of books, journals and newspapers were used. Findings revealed that inept leadership leads to exclusion of the masses from benefitting from the distribution of state resources and misdirected political participation led to violent behaviours. Many of the socio-politically motivated conflicts in Nigeria were sponsored by economic and political elites whose desire is to cling to the apparatus of the state; engaging foot soldiers from the crop of jobless youths, poverty stricken adults and ethnic jingoists. The use of force to address genuine grievances has not produced desired result. There is therefore the need for the state to engage dialogue as a non-adversarial technique with disenchanting masses.

Keywords: Insurgencies, protests, militarisation, political participation, behaviour, elite.

1. Introduction

In most African countries the relationship between the states and citizens is fragile. Engaging in violent conflict by different segments of the state, as means of registering discontent on bad governance, has become a perennial occurrence. Such socio-political

conflicts in Nigeria are wrongly profiled or tagged ethnic conflict and have heightened trust-deficit among different ethnic groups that make up the Nigerian plural state. These conflicts have also exposed the state's lack of capacity to deal with past and recurrent complex security and conflict matters in a plural society. The shuttle from parliamentary system (Westminster model) to military autocracy and eventually to the presidential system has not really given the state a stable constitutional order that is vibrant to address divergent interests of her different nationalities. The clamour for restructuring resonates periodically and this is often marked with conflicts of varying degrees and the state always criminalises the situation as either disloyalty, felony against the state or secessions' agenda by sections of the country.

In addressing socio-political conflicts, Nigerian state is found wanting. It is always prone to the use of force. Where there is relative peace, it is often considered as peace of the graveyard compelled by the use of force by government. The force is employed to suppress fundamental human rights of freedom of speech, assemblage and peaceful protest. Thus, uprising against unpopular government policies and lack-luster performance is often subdued through militaristic approach. This is not surprising since Nigeria has witnessed switchovers from colonial rule, to military rule and has developed violence as a culture of handling differences. It is rightly argued that authoritarian rule characterized by more exclusionary multi-ethnic coalitions creates legacies that amplify the risk of violence during the shift to multi-party politics (Brosche et al., 2019). Colonial experience and legacy of authoritarian rule also enhance the vulnerability of African states to the use of brute force (Clapham, 2002). This predisposition accounts for why states usually employ suppressive techniques in addressing even genuine grievances

against the state. Thus, in situations where the government does not enjoy the confidence of the citizens, there are regular face-off with the police and other law enforcement agencies. The security agencies psyche is programmed towards ensuring regime security as against human security.

State versus citizens conflicts are of great concern to scholarship. This concern arises from the fact that the socio-economic development of any state rests mostly on the fecundity of its political culture and its approaches to resolving conflicts. As seen in most African countries, violence is employed as a viable strategy both by the state and the citizens. For example in Nigeria, governance crisis triggered by party squabbles, sectionalism and mutual suspicion wrapped in violence led to the collapse of the First Republic. The two successive military administrations after the fall of the 1st Republic, ill-equipped for governance and ill-motivated by primordial sentiments, worsened the situation that culminated in the civil war that ravaged the Southeast between 1967 and 1970.

Previous researches recognised socio-political conflicts as a critical challenge to fledgling democracy in multi-ethnic settings like Nigeria and have espoused the adversarial measures employed in handling such conflicts. Researchers have argued that coercive methods usually employed by government in handling political violence only create short-lived peace (Birch, Daxecker Ho^glund, 2020). However, the use of dialogue to address socio-political violence has not been exhausted. Thus, there is need to continue to explore means of strengthening political dispute resolution mechanism through eclectic approach. In view of this, Omotola (2019) posited that there is the need for collaboration and support of other key stakeholders (political parties, security agencies, media, and civil society organizations) in the resolution of political violence.

In this study, attempts were made to provide answers to the following research questions: What are the causes of violent protest in Nigeria? What are the different forms of socio-political violent protests? What are the intervention strategies employed by the state in addressing violence? Are there successes in the approaches so far employed? What are the challenges? In what ways can non-adversarial techniques be used to ensure political stability in Nigeria? The study relies on qualitative approach, using data gathered from secondary sources consisting of books, journals and newspapers for content and historical analysis.

2. Conceptual Discourse

In this section, political participation, protest and political violence are clarified to situate their use in the context of this study. Political participation (PP) generally refers to activities undertaken by people to express their perceptions, opinions, feelings and attitudes on the socio-political situation around them in order to shape decisions that affect their lives. It encapsulates the gamut of actions, inactions and dispositions of the people or citizenry in the political affairs of a state or political entity (Esuola, 2013).

The post-behavioural theorists believe that every citizen participates in politics though not everybody is a partisan politician. According to Nie and Verbal (1975) pp refers to those legal activities embarked upon by private citizens which are more or less directly aimed at influencing the selection of government personnel and/or the action they take while in office. It derives from both the fundamental rights of individual to freedom of speech, association, assemblage as well as the principle of inclusiveness in governance. Participation in politics may be in form of engagement in campaign towards selection/election of candidates for political offices, attending constituency meetings, voting during elections, funding political parties, lobbying, protesting, forming social movements, belonging to non-governmental organizations or civil society (Esuola, 2013). Actions that are regarded as PP have to be voluntary (Lakatos & Musgrave, 1970).

Scholars have classified activities that constitute PP into direct or action based and indirect or attitude based. The action based includes voting, money and material donations, attending meetings, campaigning for candidate etc. The attitude based includes agitation, resistance, apathy, endorsement, docility, protest etc. One of the volatile acts of political participation is protest which state often struggles to resist through different legislation and policies. One of such is the requirement to obtain police permit before any protest is embarked upon by civil society organization or group.

Political involvement has changed recently and these changes characterize today's PP repertoire and have led to the distinction between institutionalized and non-institutionalized PP (García-Albacete, 2014). In today's world perceived or obvious structural violence dictates how gender, age, family income and regional affiliation represent important social and economic factors that affect the level of PP and how it is approached either for personal, sectional or national interests. This view negates the proposition

that structural forces that require citizens to take certain actions wouldn't count as participation (Lakatos & Musgrave, 1970). Thus, actions of citizens targeted at political, economic or social institutions for their actions or inactions for the purpose of enhancing governance and welfare of the citizenry are regarded as PP in this study. As rightly argued Sairambay (2020) "civic engagement" should be differentiated from PP because civic engagement fosters PP and refers entirely to social activities. Furthering this argument, Weiss (2020) opined that the question remains regarding the delay in the use of all forms of PP by young adults in contemporary society to benefit political development. Rather than benefit the political system PP is used to achieve narrow end.

Protest is a form of PP. It is a political weapon by the citizens to reject, oppose or call attention of government to policies, situations or actions of government and her functionaries which do not go down well with the generality of the people or a section of the populace. It is to draw attention of government to the social contract obligations involved in the art of governance which have been neglected. Social contract obligations include among others provision of safety, education, healthcare, infrastructure, justice, fairness, inclusive and participatory socio-economic atmosphere, equality as well as free and fair elections for people to determine who govern them.

Protests often coincide with deep-seated societal divides (Kriesi, 2010). In their investigation of support for protest and violent suppression, Akkus et al. (2020) came to the conclusion that both support for protest and support for repression are related to the cultural values people hold and their subsequent political orientations and emotions. Their findings corroborated Milesi and Alberici, 2018 & Osborne *et. al.* (2019) postulation that factors that motivate support for activism of which protest is an offshoot are found in held principles. This postulate is relevant to the Nigerian situation whereby support for or opposition to protest is determined by either political or ethnic cleavages. Thus, no matter the negativity of government policies, opposition to protest will come from their party faithful and ethnic group or clan of leader of government. This is usually the feature of sharply divided society.

Political violence is a very broad term that has been used to cover all activities embarked upon by different non-state actors that involve the use of force which ordinarily should be the exclusive preserve of the state. It is the intentional use of physical force against oneself, another person, or against a group of people. Violence may be self-directed, interpersonal

or collective. Institutional and political violence are a coin of two sides and are usually collective. Violence often results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, mal-development, or deprivation (World Health Organisation, 2002). According to John Locke it is a behavioural instinct that derives from the brute nature of man. Political violence is multilayered and diverse (Mimmi, 2018). It includes electoral violence, violent protest, militancy, insurgency, terrorism and guerrilla warfare. For example, electoral violence which is pervasive has been referred to as the use or threat of force against an opponent within the context of electoral competition for state power (Alli, 2016). It is inhibitive of democratic transition and consolidation.

Three distinct classes of violent activity, directed specifically at the state and state actors, are offensive/extremist violence, defensive/reactionary violence and harassment and intimidation (Perry. Hofmann & Scrivens, 2020). In Nigeria for instance, the government has been contending with perennial violent protests, militancy, insurgencies, and secessionist agitations in the last six decades due to perceived abnormalities in the operation of the federation.

3. Theoretical Underpinning

This paper benefits from social exclusion and elite complicity theories. Inclusive governance has become a major discourse in national and international politics. According to the United Nations (n. d.) social inclusion processes involve more than improving access to economic resources. It is defined as the process of improving the terms of participation in society, particularly for people who are disadvantaged, through enhancing opportunities, access to resources, voice and respect for rights. As captured in the 17 Sustainable Development Goals inclusiveness presupposes access of everybody to the benefits of prosperity and enjoyment of minimum standards of well-being and freedom of all nations and peoples as well as segments of society from poverty and hunger. It includes ensuring, among other things, healthy lives and access to education, modern energy and information.

On the contrary, lack of participation in society is termed social exclusion. According to Birchall (2019), social exclusion refers to a process where individuals are unable to participate fully in economic, social, political and cultural life of a polity. Social exclusion normally leads to structural imbalance and feelings of marginalization that have

been the major causes of violent conflicts against the state. Ethnic and religious identities are often intertwined in Nigeria, forming parts of a complex pattern of social exclusion (Birchall, 2019). Social exclusion increases poverty by reducing groups' access to vital services such as health, education and social protection, and to livelihood opportunities.

Jehoel-Gijsbers and Vrooman (2007) explain social exclusion as a combination of material deprivation, insufficient access to social rights, a low degree of social participation and a lack of normative integration. Indices of social exclusion include inadequate access to government and semi-government provisions, relational and trust deficit, gaps in formal and informal social networks and absence of norms and values associated with active social citizenship.

In a bid to cage and control the socially excluded, both the political and economic elites come together to form a vanguard of defence. In the light of this, we now consider elite complicity as a germane theory to this study. Elite complicity is a kind of collaborative engagement with those who connive with powerful individuals and institutions of social change to exploit the weak (Marcus, 2001). Elite complicity can succinctly be described as class-like relations of exploitation. It is rooted in social reproduction which features are exploitation, precocity, or indebtedness of many by a few (Gilbert, 2018).

Exploitative apparatuses and interdependences that tie the worlds of the complicit elites together are often disguised (Muhammad, 2011). This category of people is called business politician. Business and politics go together in most countries of Africa. This group of people have arrested the political and economic machineries of the state.

4. Why the Prevalence of Violence in Nigeria

Some factors determine nature of PP. According to McAllister (2016), PP is underpinned by political knowledge. Where civic knowledge is higher, people are more likely to participate in the political process in a more beneficial manner than where people lack knowledge of their civic responsibilities. In Nigeria, political education is low and this accounts for why rather than negotiate with the state some citizens show apathy during elections and take to arms to protest misrule usually when it is too late to effect any change of government.

Political violence is a reaction to bad governance. Since independence Nigeria has had the challenge of

nationally acclaimed visionary leadership. Military and civilian politicians failed to provide good security for lives and properties, promote the rule of law, and pursue nationally achievable macro-economic programmes. Since her independence in 1960, Nigeria represents a country bedeviled with series of internal conflicts arising from parochial interests of the political elite (both civilian and military). All successive administrations have been alleged of sectionalism, corruption and lack of vision. The country is witnessing economic growth without development which has led to frustration of the masses and recourse to violent behaviours.

Also, the fault-lines of ethnicity, region and religion run deep in Nigeria (Alli, 2015). These three negative attributes of an average Nigeria constitute major impediments to nation building. In the light of this, Brosche et al (2019) opined that competitive and fragmented inter-ethnic relations and exclusionary systems foreclose the forging of cross-ethnic elite coalitions and make hostile narratives a powerful tool for political mobilization in a plural society like Nigeria. Thus, in instances of genuine uprising against the state like in the #end SARS protest, ethnic, religious or regional profiling is used as diversionary technique to subsume genuine agitation. The participants are branded as adversaries while government media outfits are used to paint them as enemies of the state. Most of these conflicts are also quickly tagged as armed conflicts by non-state actors to pull down the regime or oust a democratically elected government.

Nigerian leaders who emerged through imposition by political parties, disputed and generally rigged elections rarely enjoy the confidence of the electorate (Osinakachukwu & Jawan, 2011). This scenario casts legitimacy doubt on most of Nigerian political leaders since independence and forms the basis for political violence before, during or after elections. Citizens always suspect policies of illegitimate leaders as continuation of imposition.

The job of the government is to equalize opportunities and where access to opportunities are determined by human imposed conditions there surely will be grievance. As in the case of Nigeria where parochial interest determines a lot of government policies and actions, economic marginalization of some individuals or groups has become a major cause of crises (Adebayo, 2010). Thus, failure of the political class to fulfill the social contract obligations in all ramifications is considered as social exclusion that generated conflicts in Nigeria. This position aligns with Gutierrez-

Romero's (2014) thesis that aggregate societal or institutional factors create the conditions for political violence. Institutional violence unleashed on the citizen by the state results in political violence as a form of collective act of political participation to protest structural anomalies. Victims of structural violence are more likely to identify in class, ethnic or sectional terms and support the use of violence against the state.

Partisan politics has become a means of livelihood in Nigeria. Impunity of government officials and their collaborators in the sustenance and use of power and accumulation of wealth for personal and prebendal interests further deepen divisions and hostilities in the country (Yagboyaju & Akinola, 2019). In this light, Albert (2005) observed that some external forces may use the loose security architecture of the country to foment violence to gain access to the resources of the state. The quest for diamond in Sierra Leone and Liberia is a good example to illustrate this kind of complicity. In the same vein, Department for International Development (DFID) (2011) opined that politicians may deliberately govern badly because globalisation has generated perverse incentives and safe haven to fleece a nation's commonwealth. The exploitative tendencies of elites are more apparent in the neo-liberal economic environment that is dominant today and are largely comparable to the slave trade era's antics when the feudal lords collaborated with powerful natives to ferry African across the oceans to European plantations. More worrisome is the fact that world elites of today are willing to render external support for armed groups as a means to penetrate a nation's natural resources for exploitation in the global trade arena. Also, acts of violence may be driven by private motive of exploiting the situation for theft by the masses. For example, the 2020 #EndSars protest that later escalated to violent proportion was used by hoodlums to loot shops, warehouses and public facilities.

Social exclusion is a major causal factor in conflict and instability, especially when exclusion is based on religion, ethnicity or language. Fractures and divisions that arise are often exhibited in deviant behaviour by groups and individuals who are begrudged. Perceptions around exclusion that "extend to health, education, agriculture, developmental infrastructure and other livelihood amenities, all have a significant nexus with the conflicts and violence in North Eastern Nigeria." (UNDP, 2018, p. xv). Ibrahim (2017) also averred that religious radicalism by 'Boko Haram' in the northern Nigeria and other violent activities by

insurgents in the Niger Delta, such as Niger Delta Avengers are all reflections of people's frustration due to unemployment and poverty. Poverty and unemployment produce foot soldiers that then carry out politically motivated violence.

In related twist, complicit elites may sustain violence for ulterior motives. Kleinfeld and Barham (2018) argue that states may exhibit a governance pattern in which governing factions deliberately weaken security services and collude with non-state violent actors to maintain power and ensure extreme levels of privilege and impunity. This may be called state sponsored violence which may be allowed to fester for some time before third-parties are invited to intervene. Corruption at both executive and bureaucratic levels often dots the socio-economic space of such political setting. By and large, the elites act in connivance with one another to confuse the masses. In such situation, the social and political elites are presented as valiant, while the victims of their atrocities are profiled as belligerents. In developing democracies, the only language that is understood by the rulers is suppression.

The police and armed forces are also complicit in the festering violence across the country. It is alleged that policemen, army, navy and air-force high ranking personnel benefit financially from violence by either sponsoring or fueling embers of disunity. Profiteering from arms procurement was widely documented in the Dasukigate 2.2 billion Dollar scandal. Spending of about \$2.2 billion in the foreign currency component under the Goodluck Jonathan administration was not directed towards procurement of arms but was shared among the economic, political and military elites (Premium Times, 2015).

History is replete with government lackadaisical attitude in engaging the civil populace at the right time. Government's recourse to intimidation was noticeable in the anti-structural adjustment programme protest in 1987, anti-fuel subsidy removal protest in 2012 and #end SARS protest in 2019. Interventions came too late and were mostly militaristic.

In summary, the causes of social uprisings and upheavals against the state range from inequality, injustice, economic hardship, failed infrastructure, corruption, manipulated elections, police brutality, and ethnicity to feelings of marginalization. Yagboyaju and Akinola (2019) summarized the causes of socio-political conflict as inept leadership driven by self-interest and other primordial considerations. In a nutshell, socio-political conflicts

in Nigeria are offshoots of marginalization, social inequality, political exclusion, corruption, economic deprivation, unequal allocation and distribution of state resources (Aning, 2016). Aning captioned the whole milieu as ‘multiple socio-economic injustices’ resulting from mutual suspicion among the different constituent units of Nigeria. We agree no less with these postulations.

The factors highlighted above have widened the trust-gap between the government and the governed especially in Nigeria where after 20 years of return to democratic rule the dividends of civil rule in terms of welfare and infrastructure are still elusive. People in government are largely perceived as rogues and exploiters who get richer at the expense of the generality of the people while people live in abject poverty, state of squalor and deprivation. Class depravity is rather forced that being the intrinsic nature of an average downtrodden Nigerian in such situations.

5. Some Violent Protests in Nigeria

There are numerous violent protests against the state that cannot be featured in this paper. A few of them will be worthy of mention because of their negative impact. In historic precedence, Western Region laid the foundation of electoral violence. According to Osinakachukwu and Jawan (2011) the flaws in the 1964 general election in the West necessitated another in 1965 which was equally marred by rigging, hooliganisms, and obstruction by Federal Government agents. Dissatisfied politicians and their supporters resorted to widespread violence in many cities of the region. The violence tagged ‘operation wet e’ accounted greatly for military takeover of government in January 15, 1966. Omotola (2019) also averred that Nigeria has witnessed a rising tide of contentious elections ending in heated debates, court challenges, protests and legitimacy crises.

Elections in most African multicultural societies like DR Congo, Kenya, Nigeria and Zimbabwe often disregard the choice of the electorate (Mbah, Nwangwu & Ugwu, 2019). Rigging is adopted to win elections in a bid to fulfill politicians’ and their allies’ inordinate ambition to capture state power and retain it at all cost in order to expand their accumulation base (Egobueze & Ojirika, 2017). In the same vein, Egobueze and Ojirika (2017) argued that inordinate ambition of the political class and their allies to capture state power and retain it at all cost has resulted in socio-political conflicts against the state.

Election violence in Nigeria were evident in 1964/1965, 1979, 1983,1993,1999,2003 and 2007 general elections with bloodshed and death of many Nigerians (Osinakachukwu and Jawan, 2011 & West Africa Network for Peacebuilding, 2014). Although the April 2011 elections were adjudged the most credible since the return to democracy in 1999 (International Crisis Group, 2014), yet the violence that marked the post-election was unprecedented in Nigerian electoral history. Factors that contribute to electoral violence include among others lack of trust, fierce infighting among the diverse groups, primitive accumulation of wealth, fierce struggle for power and position, issue of marginalization and minority challenge (Agoha, 2015). Government responded by using the police to suppress uprising against the perceived manipulation of the electoral process and a promise to review the electoral law has not translated to free and fair elections in Nigeria.

The structural adjustment programme (SAP) was proposed as a measure to manage economic problems in the context of austerity and stabilization in the 1980s. It was proposed that there should be a cut-down in the expenditure of government on education and social services and consequent commercialization of some hitherto government enterprises as conditionalities for the regime of Ibrahim Babangida to access International Monetary Fund (IMF) loan. SAP did not go down well with the grassroots people because of the devastating impact on Nigerians which included closing down of institutions of learning, payment of levies in schools, retrenchment of workers, and hike in prices of essential commodities and removal of subsidies on social services.

Opposition to SAP led to protests in 1986 that crippled the entire nation for some weeks. While different groups responded vehemently against SAP, the role of Nigerian students was most critical (Shettima, 1993). Although the labour unions were not left out in the protest against government’s surrender to an institution of Western hegemony and exploitation, government response was to ban them. Government highhandedness to the Nigeria labour caused intense strain and disorganization of labour movements that now manifest in sporadic industrial disputes and strikes which invariably hamper economic development in Nigeria (Danladi, Naankiel & Naankiel, 2016). Government responses to anti-SAP protests were largely adversarial, palliative and cosmetic. Inadequacies in government response at the time have further led to the collapse of social infrastructure and unassailable unemployment till today.

Odu'a Peoples' Congress (OPC) came up as a response to the annulment of the June 1993 elections by the country's military junta led by Ibrahim Babangida (Adebanwi, 2005). OPC became a violent group in Lagos, Ogun, Osun, Kwara, Ondo, Oyo states. The group engaged in violent protests at different times that allegedly resulted in deaths, maiming and other human rights abuses. The activities of members of the OPC have resulted in "violent" confrontations with the Nigerian Police Force at different times (Szajkowski, 2004). The use of force to suppress the organization resulted in clandestine activities. Although the group was outlawed in 1999, however, till today it still has cells spread across states of the southwest of Nigeria. Members are always available as foot soldiers any time there is protest against the state.

Militants in the Niger Delta of Nigeria constitute a major threat to peace and security in Nigeria. The region has turned into a boiling dark spot that has given successive regimes troubles and unsettled the existing political equilibrium in the country (Abang, 2014). Series of conflicts in the Niger Delta had their roots, initially in the protest against injustice, and in recent years in the quest for resource control (Ajodo-Adebanjoko, 2017). Beneath the agitation is the feeling of marginalization by the ethnic minorities that populate the region. Gleditsch and Urdal (2002:286) have rightly posited that the fight for resource control strengthens the segmentation around already existing ethnic or linguistic cleavages thereby escalating conflict. The struggle which started as a peaceful protest metamorphosed into armed conflict after the killing of Adaka Boro, Ken Saro-Wiwa and eight other Ogoni men.

The south-south region harbours the Niger Delta Vigilantes (NDV), led by Ateke Tom, and the Niger Delta People's Volunteer Force (NDPVF), led by Alhaji Asari Dokubo, the Movement for the Emancipation of the Niger Delta (MEND) and the Niger Delta Liberation Front (NDLF) who have unleashed mayhem at different times. Recently, there has been emergence of Niger Delta Avengers (NDA), the Red Egbesu Water Lions, Joint Niger Delta Liberation Force (JNDLF), Niger Delta Red Squad (NDRS) and the Adaka Boro Avengers. Their activities which include kidnapping of oil workers and expatriates, attacking of oil installation, vandalizing of crude oil pipeline and destructing of public utilities have led to loss of lives, properties and retardation of development in the area. Nigerian economy also loses billions of naira in crude oil revenue daily due to attacks on oil installations by militants.

Militarization of the region as a response to growing agitation has not yielded the expected results. The establishment of Amnesty Programme, Niger Delta Development Commission and the Ministry of Niger Delta has been a positive response. The various court awards to the people for the destruction of their ecosystem as a result of oil exploration, enactment of Petroleum Industry Bill and reclamation of damaged soil have also doused tension in the area.

Independent People of Biafra (IPOB) in the Southeast is a major secessionist ethnic organization led by Nnamdi Kanu that seeks session of its region as a constituent unit of the Nigeria Federation. IPOB is a splinter group that grew out of MASSOB. Its separatist agenda and movement have been a major challenge to the security architecture of the area. Despite the 30 months old civil war led Odumegwu Ojukwu and the proclamation of 'no victor, no vanquished' by Yakubu Gowon in 1970, fifty years down the lane, the Igbo people rightly or wrongly still feel marginalized in the political, social and economic equation of Nigeria. This feeling has led to resurfaced agitations for the independence of Biafra albeit with much vigor and different groups have rekindled the Biafran separatist agitation (Abada et al. 2020). Swedish Migration Agency SMA (2017) noted that IPOB now employs violent rhetoric through the transmissions of Radio Biafra and protests with inciting language and sentimental outbursts against other Nigerian nationalities. The use of inflammatory statements by the IPOB has exacerbated ethnic rancour mainly between the Igbo tribe and their Hausa/Fulani counterpart (Abada et al., 2020) .

The 2012 Anti-Petroleum Subsidy Removal Protest was also violent. Nigerian felt that because Nigeria is ranked the sixth primary oil producer among members of the Organisation of Petroleum Exporting Countries, refined petroleum products prices should be low. Therefore, downstream sector of the oil industry has remained problematic and volatile. Nigeria imports large quantity of refined petroleum products since her refineries are not functioning effectively. This has led to contentious petroleum product pricing and regulation by government agencies and this has weakened the evolution of vibrant downstream oil sector. Government has come to the rescue by introducing fuel subsidy to cushion the effect of rising refined petroleum products imported into the country. A subsidy scheme is when fuel customers pay less than the market price of fuel per litre with the aid of the government via subsidisation of oil prices to ensure fuel user-

friendliness for the residents (Babayomi, 2014). In resource-rich/energy exporting countries like Nigeria people view oil subsidy as part of the social contract ingredients.

The removal of fuel subsidy in early 2012 resulted in fierce protests between January 9 and 16 by many citizens (Ezeah & Abodunrin, 2016). The 2012 protests were triggered by a petrol price hike from N65 to N141 per litre by Jonathan administration. The whole country was set on fire until government reduced the price. At vanguard of the protest were Nigeria Labour Congress, Trade Union Congress, National Union of Petrol Energy and Natural Gas, PENGASSAN, reputable civil society groups and renowned activists and social critics.

Houeland (2020) contended that the 2012-protest against fuel subsidy removal in Nigeria was one of the biggest popular mobilisation in Nigeria's history, and possibly the largest in the wave of protests in Sub-Saharan Africa. In view of perceived oil-led economic growth which has not translated to an engaging sense of economic justice and real political participation by the citizenry, individuals involved in demonstration use the immediacy of their needs and the sustainability of collective action (Gustafson, 2019) as shown in the 2012 anti-fuel subsidy removal protest. As a result of the persistent protests, government offered ameliorative scheme tagged in Subsidy Reinvestment and Empowerment Programme (SUREP), with the mandate to utilise subsidy funds to provide basic amenities to the citizenry and cushion the effect of price hike. Also, the protest forced government to establish a panel of enquiry whose findings revealed unprecedented corruption and fleecing of nation resources by a few.

The 2011 fuel subsidy account revealed that about 1.2 trillion naira was expended by government. In 2011 alone, Nigeria's fuel subsidy cost the country an estimated \$8 billion and the price tag for 2012 was expected to be even greater (Moyo & Songwe, 2012). The fuel subsidy in 2011 gulped 30 percent of total government's expenditure amounting to about 4 percent of GDP and 118 percent of the capital budget of Nigeria. It turned out that some of these claims that accounted for this amount were fake; instances of round-tripping and even un-imported fuel vessels abound. Many of the economic sabotage cases are still being prosecuted in the law courts by the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission while some guilty ones have been sentenced to various terms of imprisonment, fines or forfeiture of ill-gotten wealth. Unfortunate, successive regimes continue to hike fuel price and claim to be spending

enormously on fuel subsidy. The regimes have also failed to fix the moribund refineries to provide for domestic consumption of refined oil products. Fuel price is still subject to international volatile crude oil pricing.

Most Nigerians perceive widespread corruption in the downstream oil sector and therefore advocated inclusiveness of labour in determining oil pricing regime. However, government opted for faster deregulation of the sector. The Petroleum Industry Bill when signed into law would expectedly address deregulation and consequent new pricing regime. 2020 #EndSARS Violent Protest was a mass action calling for a complete ban of the Special Anti-Robbery Squad (SARS) of the Nigerian police force. The bottled anger of many of the country's youths over unfair profiling and harassment by SARS in particular has found an outlet in protests across the country especially in the South and FCT. It started with no defined or any central leadership (Ojewole, 2020). Hitherto, the citizens have regularly accused the special police squad of harassment, intimidation and extortion of innocent youths. They have also been accused of extra-judicial killings, maiming and illegal incarceration of accused persons without authorization by a court of law. The squad has become a law to itself.

The #EndSARS protests represented a symbol for broader resentment and opened the path for marginalized Nigerian youths to vent bottled-up grievances against the government, though starting with the excesses of SARS other inadequacies in governance were added along the line. Congressional Research Service (2020) posited that the demonstrations started after a video went viral on social media showing an extrajudicial killing by members of the Special Anti-Robbery Squad (SARS). Footage of alleged SARS officers shooting a young Nigerian and driving off in his car went viral on social media on 3rd October 2020. Amnesty International (2020) recorded about 82 cases of abuses and extra-judicial killings by SARS operatives. Earlier in a 2016 report, Amnesty International asserted that SARS officers routinely committed torture and other abuses against detainees—many of whom were arrested arbitrarily, detained incommunicado, and forced to “confess” or pay bribes to secure release. SARS officers habitually failed to charge suspects before a court within 24 to 48 hours as prescribed under the Constitution and suspects were held for several days, weeks and months.

SARS is generally perceived as a brutal and inhuman sub-policing outfit. The perception of SARS as a lawless police outfit incensed the populace to resort to violent protest. Unfortunately, while the state governments were making efforts to douse tension, Federal Government that controls the police failed to respond on time to the demand of protesters; rather the security personnel were deployed to quell the riot. Security forces, including military personnel, reportedly killed dozens of protesters during government crackdown on protesters.

This approach further angered protesters and led to the destruction of police stations and other para-military security vehicles (Nkasi, 2020). Lootings and vandalism at several shopping malls in Lagos and state-owned buildings and facilities also followed. The looting and destruction of public buildings and private businesses led to the discovery of Covid-19 palliatives presumably kept in some warehouses across the Nation for personal use by the political and economic elites.

#EndSARS violent protest revealed division along ethnic divides. While the issues raised with regards to police brutality cut across the nation, the south remained the action spot, the northern youths responded by tagging it as a ploy to bring down the government led by a northern Fulani.

The riot was curtailed after the killings at Lekki Toll Gate and government response by setting up Judicial Panels of Enquiry on Police Brutality in all the states of the federation.

6. Conclusion

Since independence, Nigerian polity has witnessed many violent protests that have resulted in loss of many lives, maiming of persons, destruction of properties and widening of trust-gap among the disparate groups. Civilian and military regimes have not been spared of violent revolt by frustrated citizens due to different reasons that are connected to socio-political injustice.

Manipulated elections and imposition of unpopular government led to the operation 'wetie' in the west shortly after independence. The imbroglio led to the demise of the first republic and intervention of military in governance with the entrenchment of culture of violence in Nigeria.

Government embrace of the use of force and refusal to back-track on unpopular policies has been the breeding ground for public dissidence. For example,

despite opposition to SAP government went ahead to implement it dictates and unfortunately most empirical studies validated the apprehensions of Nigerians against SAP. Danladi, Naankiel & Naankiel (2016) rightly contended that the SAP policies led to the collapse of manufacturing and agricultural industries, heightened unemployment and social insecurity. In the same vein, Nnazor's (1999) survey revealed that implementation of SAP policies limited access to productive and reproductive resources as well as engendered socio-economic hardship in Nigeria.

Perceived injustice in the annulment of June 12, 1993 Presidential election brought about violent conflicts that led to the formation of OPC that unleashed mayhem on the southwest for years. Environmental degradation and inequality to resources form the bases of agitation in the Niger. Delta region. Perceived inequality in access to political and economic opportunities is the central factor in the agitation for secession in the southeast.

Neo-liberal economic policies which benefit mostly the rich and enables government to shirk responsibilities to the people under the guise of liberalization, deregulation, commercialization and public-private partnership frustrate the downtrodden masses that see such policies as failure to honour 'social contract' obligations. Protest against hike in the prices of petroleum products is situated within this theoretical frame.

Most of the protests in Nigeria are usually hijacked by opposition elements to push their own political or parochial ethnic agendas in an attempt to discredit government or wrest power. This postulation became obvious in the #EndSARS protest in 2020 as opposition parties and secessionist promoters gave financial and material supports for the elongation of the protest. This observation validates the elite complicity theory adopted for this study.

By and large, how government handles legitimate or genuine complaints from the people determines the course of political participation. Most protests against the state's actions, inactions or policies start as a peaceful action but the use of force or militarized policing often aggravates the protests to violent proportion. Thus, this study agrees with Ives & Lewis' (2019) thesis that protest escalates to violence where government has penchant to opt for repression and posits that poor handling of protest through repression and militarism is adversarial and unproductive. Rather, the state should embrace dialogue as a non-adversarial technique to douse

tension anytime there is genuine complaint by the people. It is also recommended that political actors should take the welfare of the citizens as the most important means of removing social exclusion. Also, using apparatus of state for self-enrichment and promotion of class or group hegemony with the tint of religion and ethnicity should be addressed frontally by all Nigerians.

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The Causes of the Rising Incidence of Terrorism Occasioning Deprivation of the Right to Life in Nigeria

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Abstract. Municipal and international laws prohibit killing a human being except where it is excused by law. However, the unfortunate monster of terrorism, which is currently ravaging the world, has turned many human societies within the global environment into slaughtering grounds where human lives are terminated with reckless abandon almost daily, especially in Nigeria. Though there are laws enacted to curb this heinous act, it has remained unabated. It is in this regard this study adopts a hybrid research method, which includes a doctrinal and non-doctrinal approach. Therefore, an online questionnaire survey was sent to 243 respondents (randomly selected) who live in Nigeria to ascertain the causes of the rising incidence of terrorism occasioning deprivation of the right to life in Nigeria and possible solutions. Therefore, the study found that a defective state policing system, poverty, illiteracy, and bad leadership are the causes of the current increase in terrorism in Nigeria. The study therefore concludes and recommends that the Nigerian government's reliance on legislation and the battle of arms may prove to be effective in tackling terrorism in the short run, but it will not completely subdue it. In this regard, eradication of extreme poverty, state policing effective policing system, and good leadership will aid in curtailing the monster of terrorism in the long run.

Keywords: Domestic terrorism, Freedom, Justice, Inequality, Liberation, The right to life, Terrorism.

1. Introduction

Africa, from Luanda to Mali, Maputo, Rwanda, Angola, Somali, and Sudan, to mention but a few, in recent times, has become a theatre of an act of termination of life and one of the most unstable environments in terms of insecurity to human lives and properties. Nigeria, which, hitherto, seemed immune to terrorist activities, is now witnessing horrendous acts of terrorism masterminded by various organizations like the Niger Delta militant groups, bandits, Fulani herdsmen, and, importantly, the dreaded Boko Haram, with deleterious consequences for the country's image, economy, general wellbeing and the right to life of the people (Aidonjio et al., 2021). It is important to state that countries of the world have, over the times, been encouraged to respect the right to life which is the most important of all the human rights that man enjoys through the standard of human behavior to one another as regulated and controlled by international and municipal laws since man needs to remain alive before any right can be useful to him (Egielewa and Aidonjio, 2021).

Section 14(2)(b) of the Nigerian Constitution provides that welfare and security of life rank first among the duties and responsibilities of a government in a civilized society. This is so since the government possesses the military capacity and the threat of force that members of the society have not. The task of protecting lives places on the shoulders of the government the responsibility to prevent the termination of the life of individuals and people, at all times, either by State or non-State agents (Aidonjio and Egielewa, 2020). To achieve this, a conducive atmosphere for law and order, justice, fairness, and the right environment for people to freely aspire for personal development needs to be put in place. Law enforcement agencies also need to be properly structured for effective functioning and adequately equipped to effectively deal with security challenges that may arise from time to time. There is also the responsibility to ensure that the country's military is professional and battle-ready to combat internal conflicts and ward off external aggressions.

It is the responsibility of any government to be proactive and take steps to prevent arbitrary deprivation of life, and where unauthorised death occurs, the State has a further responsibility to investigate it transparently, thoroughly, impartially, and ascertain its cause, and where any individual or group are found to be responsible for it in any way whatsoever, the State must hold such perpetrator accountable.

2. Methodology

In this study, we adopt a hybrid method of research which doctrinal and non-doctrinal research analytical methods. The doctrinal research method will enable the researcher to critically examine the issues and relevant legal framework as it concerns the current terrorism in Nigeria. In this regard, the researcher analyse laws, various literature such as; journal articles, textbooks, internet articles, and relevant materials as they relate to this study.

However, with regard to the non-doctrinal methods, the researchers used questionnaire surveys to collate extensive data. The study further adopts an analytical and descriptive method to statistical, mathematically and numerical analysing the data obtained through the questionnaire. The essence of non-doctrinal research is to enable the researcher to ascertain the causes and possible remedies as they relate to domestic violence in Nigeria.

3. Terrorist Acts Occasioning Deprivation of the Right to Life

The world, all over, is currently faced with horrendous acts of terrorism, and this has

significantly constituted a threat to the enjoyment of the right to life - The evils that nature will not do to us are done by our fellow men!. Various organizations such as the Islamic State of Iraq and Syria (ISIS), Taliban, Al-Qaida, Al-Shabaab, and recently, Boko Haram are masterminding various acts of terrorism in many countries of the world. Every country in the world, either developed or developing, has a share of an act of terrorism to varying degrees at one time or the other. The area of difference is how a country responds to it, especially through management of internal security through effective state policing and socio-economic re-engineering, which reduces want and neutralises abject poverty. In Nigeria, Boko Haram has documented a spate of attacks and killings (Aidonjio et al., 2021), ranging from the detonation of explosives to sporadic raids and shootings of people in high-level operations. Their activities also include the kidnapping of men and women, especially young school girls.

Banditry has also become a new phenomenon in Nigeria. Activities of Bandits have been particularly worrisome in states like Zamfara, Sokoto, Katsina, Niger, Kaduna, and Kebbi, with kidnapping, violent attacks, robbery, rape, cattle-rustling resulting in wanton deprivation of the right to life. Millions of people living in these states have been exposed to the danger of attack. Several children have been orphaned, women are becoming widows overnight, and more than 210,000 people have been internally displaced as of January 2021 (Odinakalu, 2021). In the Niger Delta, likes of the Ogonis and the Ijaws are dissatisfied with the operations of the foreign and local oil companies, who are alleged to be destroying the vast tracks of their farmland in the process of exploration and production of oil (Aidonjio et al, 2020). There is always, therefore, tension and volatility in the area leading to fuelled violence in the area causing militarization of nearly the entire region by ethnic militia groups, the Nigerian military, and the Nigerian Mobile Police, leading to wanton termination of lives (Obi, 2004).

Terrorism and wanton deprivation of the right to life have continued unabated despite the adoption of several international treaties and a series of enacted local laws to combat it. For instance, the United Kingdom has its anti-terrorism Act with constant updates to match emerging security challenges. There has been the Terrorism Act 2000, the Anti-Terrorism, Crime, and Security Act of 2001, the Terrorism Act 2006, and the Counter-Terrorism and Security Act of 2015. The United States of America also has its version of the anti-terrorism law, which is known as the Patriot Act. It is aimed at strengthening America

by providing appropriate tools required to intercept and obstruct terrorism acts. It also aims at deterring and punishing terrorist acts in the United States, across global environment, to enhance law enforcement investigatory tools and other matters connected thereto.

Nigeria's law for combating terrorism is the Terrorism (Prevention) Act of 2011 (as amended). The Act gives an all-encompassing definition of terrorism and prescribes severe varying penalties for different offenses under the Act. The penalties for terrorism range from imprisonment between five and twenty years to the death penalty. In *Adamu Ali Karumi v. the Federal Republic of Nigeria (2018) LPELR-40473 (CA)*, the Court of Appeal ruled that the courts have the power to exercise discretion in matters of a sentence, even death sentence, in respect of charges of an act of terrorism, and an appellate court will not interfere with the exercise of such discretion.

Where a person is standing trial for any action relating to terrorism, he will not be admitted to bail pending trial. This underscores the magnitude of the threat that terrorism constitutes to the nation's security. In the case of *Dokubo Asari v. the Federal Republic of Nigeria (2007) 12 NWLR (1048) 322, 358-359* the Supreme Court gave its nod of approval to the refusal to grant bail pending trial to the appellant on the ground of threat to national security. The court in Nigeria has also ruled in the case of *Ogwu Achem v. the Federal Republic of Nigeria (2014) LPELR-24202(CA)*, that where a person is found guilty of the act of terrorism by a court even though he retains his right to appeal such decision of the court against him, he loses his presumption of innocence guaranteed him under section 36(5) of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999 (as amended). He is, therefore, not entitled to bail pending the determination of his appeal except in very exceptional circumstances. Where a person declared as a suspected international terrorist is a Nigerian citizen other than by birth, such a person may be deprived of his Nigerian citizenship. The section 13 of the Act also contains provisions for the seizure of cash reasonably suspected to be intended for the use of terrorism or belonging to a terrorist.

As robust and comprehensive as Nigeria's anti-terrorism law is, it has not, in any way, deterred terrorism and carnage of deprivation of the right to life of the Nigerian people as activities of Boko-Haram terrorist group, bandits, especially in the northern region, and militancy have become nightmares. This is so because the fundamental causes of the heinous acts are yet to be addressed and given the serious attention that they truly deserve.

This paper seeks to interrogate factors such as poverty and systemic failure manifesting in ineffective state policing systems as the root causes of terrorism, especially domestic ones.

4. Terrorism, a function of poverty

Understanding how terrorism evolves in a particular setting and at a given period of time will go a long way in knowing how to fight and subdue it. This work, therefore, looks at the cause of terrorism from the angle of socio-economic factors and a defective state policing system. Some scholars (Abadie, 2005) find it difficult to see a direct link between terrorism and the above named societal factors. They rather consider factors such as political power play, political instability, extremism of ideas, personal beliefs, values, and struggle for control of resources as important causes of terrorism. For instance, Krueger, B. Alan and Laitin (Alan and Laitin, 2004) find no evidence suggesting poverty may generate terrorism. Their work suggests that among countries with similar levels of civil liberties, poor countries do not generate more terrorism than rich countries. Rather, richer countries seem to be preferred targets for transnational terrorist attacks.

Many scholars like Alberto Alesina (1996) and prominent personalities, especially in Africa, however, agree that it is difficult to discuss terrorism without sparring thought for socio-economic factors in the form of societal deprivation and uneven wealth distribution; and that many of these terrorist organisations are products of economic hardship and societal inequality. Former Ethiopian president, Girma Wolde-Giorgis, commented that poverty, injustice, instability, and absence of democratic governance are the primary causes of terrorism (Shinn, 2018). Poverty creates marginalized people who then become useful tools and fertile ground for terrorism. It is the same with former Mauritanian president, Maaouiya Ould Sid'Ahmed Taya, who also noted that the cause of terrorism is, most times, the result of the frustration brought about in men by poverty and ignorance.

In a place like Nigeria, as is the case in most African countries, where the vicious cycle of poverty ravages to the extent that the majority of the citizens cannot afford three square meals per day, fundamental rights, including the right to life, do not mean much. The vast majority are illiterates, dwelling in rural communities and completely absorbed in the daily rigors of the struggle for survival. More than seventy percent of the population live in abjectly poor conditions and are actually starving. They have

houses shelters unsuitable for poultry or piggery and are neglected and almost forgotten (Awolowo, 1981). While many are poor at one time or another during their lives, many Africans are poor all of their lives (Oputa, 1981). How can there be practical actualization and sustenance of peace, order, and human rights, including the right of citizens to live where there is so much volatility resulting from living below poverty and starvation level of millions which has subjected the majority to live in almost subhuman existence with their lives being one long unbroken story of want and destitution. Their only hope and aspiration are to witness a new socio-economic order in which there is a redistribution of opportunities and public wealth so that the substance of fundamental rights may become meaningful. Hard biting scourge of poverty has made many things, including life, mean nothing to millions of people in Africa who are or whose children are suffering and in some cases, dying of malnutrition and other preventable diseases associated with the poor. They, therefore, may be willing and ready to do anything, including being used as an instrument of terror killings and genocide in order to either survive or escape from their horrible existence to live beyond. For instance, just on the 2nd of April, 2021, an online news link revealed that one Adama Umar, a Nigerian, was apprehended by the Nigerian security agents in Taraba State following an intelligent report by security linking him as being the agent secretly procuring narcotics and other kinds of hard drugs for the Boko-haram insurgents in Nigeria.

The above situation is consistent with the observation of Alberto Alesina (1996) that poor economic conditions increase the possibility of political unrest, and that the people of the country may be induced to take to vices, including killings and the use of naked force, where they are denied the means to satisfy their basic human needs.

5. Ineffective System of Policing the Country

The system of policing in some countries, such as Nigeria, is complicated, myopic, grossly ineffective, lacks cohesion, and is highly lopsided. There is centralization and concentration of the control of the police and the army in the central government. The executive power of the federation is vested in the President. That of a state is vested in the state governor. That makes the president the chief security officer of the whole federation and a state governor the chief security officer of his state. Such executive powers may either be exercised by them or on their behalf. The President is also the Head of State, the Chief Executive of the Federation, and Commander-

in-Chief of the Armed Forces of the Federation, while the governor of a state is the Chief Executive of his state.

However, while the Nigeria Police Force is under the command of the Inspector-General of Police and an appointee of the president to whom he reports and is accountable, the same cannot be said of a state governor who does not have control over a state commissioner of police in his state despite been constitutionally the chief executive of his state. The governor of a state, though may give lawful direction to the commissioner of police in his state with respect to the maintenance and securing of public safety and public order within the state as he may consider necessary, and the commissioner of police has to comply with such directions or cause them to be complied with. However, before carrying out any such directions, the commissioner of police may request that the matter be referred to the president or any other federal government official acting on behalf of the president before such direction is complied with.

The implication of this is that if a state governor gives a direction to the commissioner of police for security purposes, the commissioner of police may have to clear with the Inspector-General of Police, who is an appointee of the president, before complying with such direction. This has made the security architecture of the country to be lopsided and centralized, with only the president of the federation having the power to police the entire country. This undoubtedly is one of the reasons the nation is witnessing the level of insecurity all over the country. This has made it difficult for the government to deal with the huge upsurge of terrorism leading to wanton termination of life in the country.

Over the years, state governors in Nigeria have come under heavy criticism over their inability to provide solutions to the fast declining insecurity in their various states making up the country. The criticism has been hinged on the argument that governors are the Chief Security Officers of their states and that, by virtue of their oaths of office, they have the responsibility to secure the lives and property of citizens and residents alike as the buck stops on their tables as long as securing the lives and property of residents of their states is concerned. A careful study of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999(as amended), which allocates executive powers between the president and state governors, will reveal that governors, being referred to as the title Chief Security Officer in his state, is a mere nomenclature that has no practical meaning since a commissioner of police in a state may

lawfully disobey the directive of a state governor on securing the state if such directive given by the governor does not have the blessing of the federal authorities. The effect of this is that a state governor is incapable of quickly resolving urgent security challenges in his domain before such snowball into full-blown terrorism because he lacks control over the security apparatus even of his state.

In *AG Ogun State v. AG Federation [1982] LPELR-11 (SC) p. 34-36, paras. a-b*, Fatayi-Williams, J.S.C, while considering the provisions of section 195 of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1979 with respect to the power of the commissioner of police to control the command of the Nigeria Police Force in his state, opined that the governor does not have the final say in that before carrying out directions of the governor, the commissioner of police concerned may request that the matter be referred to the president or the duly authorised minister for further directions. What this means is that a governor of a state has no exclusive power to give a commissioner of police in his state directions with respect to the maintenance and securing of public safety and public order within his State. He is actually at the mercy of the federal authority, which may disagree with such direction given by the governor. Once the federal authority does not agree with a governor's direction to the commissioner of police, such direction is stalled. The result of this is that the security of lives and properties in Nigeria become unfortunate and ineffective as the country is too big for only the president to police; hence the country becoming fertile soil in which seeds of terrorism are planted, and fruits of wanton deprivation of the right to life are harvested with reckless abandon.

6.2 Data Analysis

The data obtained through the online questionnaire (given the convenience of disseminating the questionnaire to the respondents) is, at this moment, analysed as follows:

Research Question One

What State do you reside in, Nigeria?
243 responses

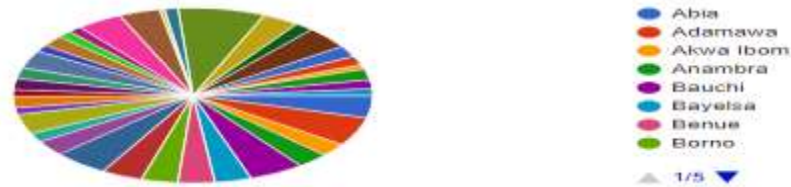


Figure 1: Identification of the various states the respondents reside in Nigeria

6. Presentation and Analysis of Data

Given the data generated from the online questionnaire, the following data is at this moment analysed as follows:

6.1 Sample Size and Techniques

The study utilised an online survey questionnaire generated through the use of Google Forms. The use of an online Google form will enable the researchers to disseminate the questionnaire (through various means of social media) to the randomly selected respondents residing in the various states in Nigeria. The respondents were selected by using a simple random sampling technique. The essence of adopting a simple random technique is a result of the fact that Aidonjio et al., in several of their studies (Aidonjio et al., 2021; Aidonjio et al., 2020; Aidonjio et al., 2022; Aidonjio et al., 2021), have argued that it is appropriate in selecting respondents from a heterogeneous nation like Nigeria. Furthermore, it has been argued that a simple random sampling technique has the following advantages:

- That it is a technique that is hassle-free in sampling a heterogeneous population.
- The researcher has little or no chance of being biased to influence or manipulate the outcome of the result as it reflects the respondents' response.

With regard to the sample size, 243 of respondents residing in the Federal Republic of Nigeria were randomly selected to respond to the questionnaire.

S/N	States in Nigeria	Responses of Respondents	Percent
1	Abia	10	4.1%
2	Adamawa	13	5.3%
3	Akwa Ibom	6	2.5%
4	Anambra	7	2.7%
5	Bauchi	12	4.9%
6	Bayelsa	8	3.3%
7	Benue	8	3.3%
8	Borno	8	3.3%
9	Cross River	9	3.7%
10	Delta	12	4.9%
11	Ebonyi	7	2.9%
12	Edo	4	1.6%
13	Ekiti	9	3.7%
14	Enugu	3	1.2%
15	(FCT) Abuja	5	2.1%
16	Gombe	Nil	Nil
17	Imo	5	2.1%
18	Jigawa	5	2.1%
19	Kaduna	8	3.3%
20	Kano	3	1.2%
21	Katsina	5	2.1%
22	Kebbi	Nil	Nil
23	Kogi	3	1.2%
24	Kwara	10	4.1%
25	Lagos	9	3.7%
26	Nassarawa	Nil	Nil
27	Niger	3	1.2%
28	Ogun	19	7.8%
29	Ondo	8	3.3%
30	Osun	4	1.3%
31	Oyo	10	4.1%
32	Plateau	5	2.1%
33	Rivers	4	1.6%
34	Sokoto	2	0.8%
35	Taraba	5	2.1%
36	Yobe	4	1.6%
37	Zamfara	3	1.2%

Table 1: Valid responses of respondents identifying the states residing in Nigeria

Figure 1 and Table 1 above is a data presentation representing the valid responses of respondents identifying the various states they reside in Nigeria.

Research Question Two

Do you agree that there is a current increase in terrorism in Nigeria?
213 responses



Figure 2: Respondents' identifying if they are cognizant of the rise of terrorism in Nigeria

	Response	Percent
Valid Yes	205	96.2%
Valid No	8	3.8%
Total	213	100%

Table 2: Respondents' if they are cognizant of the rise of terrorism in Nigeria

Figure 2 and Table 2 above are respondents identifying if they are aware of the rising cases of terrorism in Nigeria.

Research Question Three

What are the significant causes of the increase in terrorism in Nigeria? You can tick more than one option

239 responses

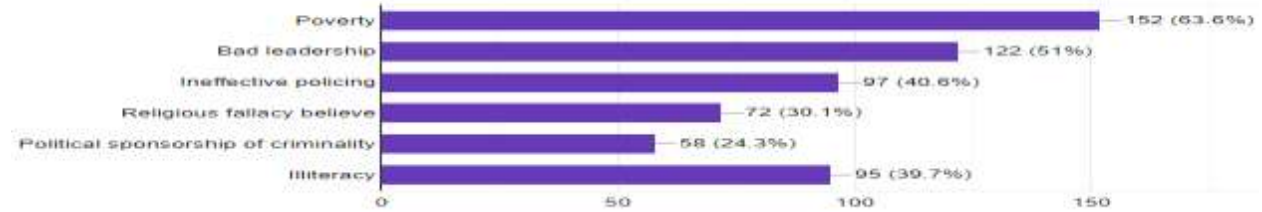


Figure 3: Respondents' cluster or responses in identifying the causes of the rising incidence of terrorism in Nigeria

Reasons for terrorism in Nigeria	Cluster of Response	Percentage
Poverty	152	63.6%
Bad leadership	122	51%
Ineffective policing	97	40.6%
Religious fallacy believe	72	30.1%
Political sponsorship of criminality	58	24.3%
Illiteracy	95	39.7%

Table 3: Valid Respondents' cluster responses in identifying the causes of the rising incidence of terrorism in Nigeria

Figure 3 and Table 3 are a cluster of responses by respondents identifying some of the causes of the rising incidence of terrorism in Nigeria.

Research Question Four:

Has the Nigerian government been able to curb terrorism over the years?

228 responses

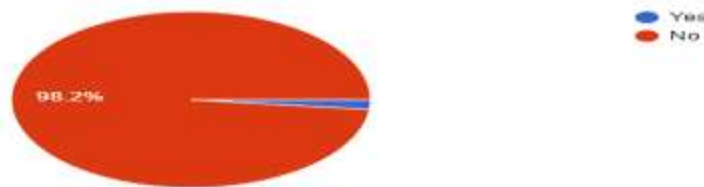


Figure 4: Respondents identifying if the Nigeria government has been able to curb the rate of terrorism

	Response	Percent
Valid Yes	4	1.8%
Valid No	224	98.2%
Total	228	100%

Table 4: Valid respondents' response stating if the Nigeria government have been able to curb the rate of terrorism

Figure 4 and Table 4 are valid respondents' responses identifying that the Nigerians have not been able to curb or curtail the rate of terrorism in Nigeria.

Research Question 5

What are the possible solutions to savage incidence of terrorism? You can tick more than one option

240 responses

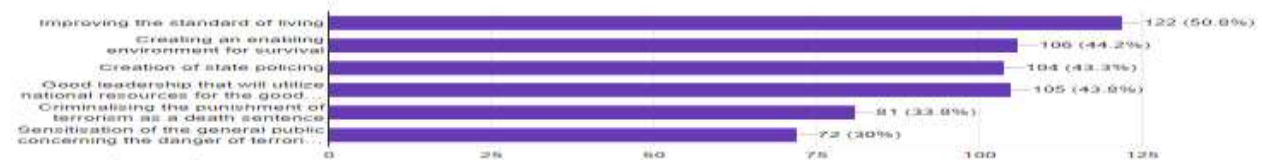


Figure 5: Identification of possible remedies in curtailing the risen incidence of terrorism in Nigeria

Possible remedy in curbing terrorism in Nigeria	Cluster of Responses	Percentage
Improving the standard of living	122	50.8%
Creating an enabling environment for survival	106	44.2%
Creation of state policing	104	43.3%
Good leadership that will utilize national resources for the good of all	105	43.8%
Criminalising the punishment of terrorism as a death sentence	81	33.8%
Sensitisation of the general public concerning the danger of terrorism	72	30%

Table 5: Valid cluster of respondents identification of some possible remedies in curtailing terrorism in Nigeria

Figure 5 and Table 5 represent respondents' valid cluster of responses in stating some of the possible remedies in curtailing the risen incidence of terrorism in Nigeria.

7. Discussion of Findings

Concerning the presentation and analysis of data above, figure 1 and table 1 aimed at determining if the respondents reside in the various states in Nigeria. The essence of research question one is aimed at ensuring that the respondents are well knowledgeable concerning the happening of terrorism in Nigeria. Also, it will enable the respondent to give reliable and informed responses to the questions.

However, in ascertaining if the respondents are aware of the current rising case of terrorism in Nigeria, a significant 96.2% of the respondents, as presented above in figure 2 and table 2, responded yes. These findings reflect the current issues of terrorism happening in Nigeria. This is concerning the fact that currently, kidnapping, banditry, book haram, ritual killings, etc. have become an easy mode of operation in Nigeria. However, figure 3 and table 3 represent the respondents' identification of Nigeria's major causes of terrorism. Some of the major reasons for terrorism in Nigeria, as identified by the respondents, are as follows:

- 63.6% of the respondents identify poverty as one of the major causes of terrorism in Nigeria
- 51% of the respondents stated bad leadership
- 40.6% of the respondents identify that there is an ineffective policing to curtail the incidence of terrorism
- 30.1% of the respondent stated that terrorism is also a result of religious fallacy belief of most Nigeria
- 24.3% further stated that the elite in Nigeria politically sponsors most terrorist acts
- 39.7% also stated that illiteracy is also contributing to the increased rate of terrorism in Nigeria.

Given the above findings, it is apt to state that in a country where terrorism has almost taken over a country or where there is an incidence of terrorism ravaging a country, it is expected that the country's government must or should be to curtail such

terrorism. In this regard, in figure 4 and table 4, as represented above, 98.2% of the respondents representing a significant number of the respondents, identify the Nigerian government has not been able to curtail the incidence of terrorism, thereby leading to the rise of terrorism. However, the respondents were asked what the possible solutions to savage the rising incidence of terrorism in Nigeria are; in figure 5 and table 5 above, and the respondents identified the possible solution to curtailing terrorism in Nigeria as follows:

- 50.8% of the respondents stated that improving the standard of living will aid in curtailing the incidence of terrorism
- 44.2% of the respondents identify that creating an enabling environment for survival
- 43.3% stated creation of state policing
- 43.8% of the respondents stated that there is a need for good leadership that will utilize national resources for the good of all, which in essence will aid in curtailing terrorism in Nigeria
- 33.8% of the respondents stated that criminalising the punishment of terrorism as a death sentence will curtail the incidence of terrorism
- Also 30% stated that sensitisation of the general public concerning the danger of terrorism

Given the above discussion of the findings, it suffices to state that the Nigerian government has a fundamental role in curtailing the incidence of terrorism in Nigeria. This is concerning the fact that it is not just a mere political manifesto to keep and ensure the nation is at peace at all times. Still, it is their constitutional responsibility to ensure peace, stability, and a conducive environment for the people of Nigeria.

8. Conclusion

War on terror is a battle of arms and a battle of ideas. In the short run, and in response to assaults from terrorists, the State may adopt the use of arms to

combat terror with an application of all instruments of national power and influence to kill or capture the terrorists; deny them safe haven and control over any part of a nation; dislodge and prevent them from communicating to one another; render potential terrorist targets less attractive by strengthening security, and cut off their sources of funding and other resources they need to operate and survive. In the long run, a successful fight against acts of terror will mean winning the battle of ideas through the advancement of effective democracy, submitting to the will of the people, enthronement of human rights, preservation of human dignity, provision of basic human needs in the society, freedom of religion, conscience, speech, assembly, association, and press, addressing causes of the conflict peacefully and sincerely by the government and authorised bodies, protecting independent and impartial systems of justice, punishing crime appropriately for deterrence, embracing the rule of law, resisting corruption and protecting the institutions of civil society.

There is a need for the nations and International Communities to take some concepts such as “justice,” “freedom,” and “liberation” very seriously. The majority of the crises bedeviling nations and the world as a whole are traceable to some groups’ feelings or sense of deprivation of one or all of these concepts. This is one of the reasons it is very difficult to give a consensual definition to the word “terrorism” as one man’s terrorist is another man’s freedom fighter. For some, the very idea of “terrorism” is a snare and delusion. It is a way of diverting the public attention from the failure of governments, a slick way of transforming the victims of injustice into its perpetrators.

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The Emerging Realities in Military Coups in Africa: An Explanation

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Abstract. The need to defend common interests necessitates the presence of the military in any state, including Africa. But the assumption of executive roles by the same military, through coup d'état, was a strange phenomenon till massive enlistment of Africans for the First and Second World Wars exposed these fledgling military groups to enhanced military operations worldwide, including intervening in the governance of a state, especially as they have all that is required: the military might, and gun. This study examines the constitutional role of the military and their penchant to meddle in African politics. We also assess the rules of disengagement within the context of civil-military relations. The methodology adopted in this study is descriptive in nature through secondary method of data retrieval, newspapers, journals and magazines. This is with a view to extract the emerging patterns of coup d'état across the continent, and the approaches in handling transitions from year 2000 to January 2022. The study reveals a recurring factor - failure in leadership, mass protests in reaction to bad governance, flawed elections – as basic causes for the new wave of coup d'état across Africa. We also recommend that the administration of a state is a sole role of the civilian, and the military should be confined to their role, being security.

Keywords: Coup d'état, Military Intervention, Military Organizations

1. Introduction

Between the 1950's and 1980's, as the Cold War raged among the Superpowers, a distinguishing feature of many of the Third World countries were coups and counter coups targeted at removing elected leaders from power. These incessant coups moved scholars on military studies to introduce new

theoretical frameworks to explain military intervention. Among these scholars are Sam Huntington, Morris Janowitz, S. N. Finer, Lucian Pye, Ali Mazrui, Robin Moore, Bing West, Zhuge Liang, Carl Von Clausewitz, J. F. C. Fuller, Sun Tzu, Rafiu Adeshina. Recurring themes in their works include military history, military intervention, military strategies and war. They were also all agreed on the fact that there are both internal and external issues in the explanation of military coups and the role of a professional or praetorian soldier.

Military formation is not new to Africa; Akhaine (2021) notes that:

African societies were patterned on the band, segmentary, acephalous, and centralised formations. It reveals that the military forces in the pre-colonial African societies had different organisational forms corresponding to the social organisation of each society. There were citizens' army, professional army, and evolutionary army. The citizens' army was more or less the type in which able-bodied men were mobilized for war in times of emergency, and thereafter disbanded. The professional army existed in more centralized societies such as Benin Dahomey, Oyo, and Sokoto Caliphate among others. The evolutionary army was identified with nomadic tribes which had to constantly adapt to the objective realities of their situation (Guardian March21, 2021)

What is new is the introduction of sophisticated weapons and training into African political system. Constitutionally, armed forces are to defend the territory of any state and it is an aberration when few military officers with ambition plot coups to remove an elected president from office.

The fact that Africa, in this instance, is the focal point prompts the crucial question: Can African military be judged professional in a democratic state? Democracy in Africa has been viewed to be weak by commentators following the manner the politicians failed to respect the rule of law, paving way for the resurgence of military coups. Coup d'état means a forceful removal of an elected leader from the seat of power. Jonathan Powell writes that "coup leaders almost invariably deny their action in an effort to appear legitimate" (Mwak, 2022).

Rafiu Adeshina (1999) analyzes in percentile the coups in Africa starting from 1961 when, according to his findings, 12 percent of all independent states of the world were under military rule. As at 1966, the figure rose to 19 percent and in 1973 it was 27 percent. These assertions are corroborated by Rabiou (1999) where he claims that a look at the Third World countries in 1968 alone showed that fifty six percent of the countries so identified had experienced military rule. Also, Rabiou lists countries ranging from Brazil, Venezuela, Argentina, France, Germany, Italy and in Spain, Greece and Portugal as having experienced this phenomenon. In the Middle East, Rabiou (1999) stresses that the frequency of military coups between 1936 and 1970 increased tremendously. Coming to the Asia countries, the military struck eight times between 1932 and 1962, in South Korea in 1961, Pakistan in 1956 and 1962 (Rabiou, 1999).

Africa witnessed its first coup in Egypt in 1952, followed by military uprising and the eventual overthrow of a monarch in Sudan in 1958. Other countries in the continent followed suit. The few countries that have been exempted from this social malaise include Kenya, Botswana, Tanzania, Malawi, and South Africa. The spate of military take-overs on the African continent became so overwhelming that concerns were raised, expressed in the form of the following questions: why are there incessant military coups in Africa? What are the causes of military coups globally? Can the military serve as a third force of intervention in Africa politics? We will attempt to answer these questions in the course of this paper.

2. Theoretical Discourse On Military Intervention

There are many theories of military intervention propounded by scholars like Samuel Huntington, Morris Janowitz, Ali Mazrui, Edward Luttwak, Lucien Pye, Rafiu Adeshina to mention a few. The

theories revolve on the following variables – military-inclined factors, cultural pluralism, personal interests, corruption, socio-economic structure, contagion theory and external influence or aggression. The purpose of examining these theories of military intervention is to view the implications of a military take-over in a society and why some military personnel are inclined to making policies and implementing them whenever they take over power in developed and developing countries.

Samuel Huntington, in *Soldier and the State: The Theory And Politics Of Civil-Military Relations*, explores the relationship between the military and civilians in a democratic state on the idea of civil control over the military. To S. E. Finer, military institutions are characterized by hierarchical, centralized decision making structure where commands flow from top to the bottom. In a situation when the military become praetorian, Huntington mentions four types of coups- the guardian coup, the veto coup, the anticipatory vetoes coup and the reforming coups

Another theoretical discourse is the position of Morris Janowitz who introduces the theory of convergence into the study of military intervention by saying that the military worldwide retain certain essentials different from the civilian as a professional group in combat. Janowitz argues that in spite of the tremendously slow swiftness of change in the society the military still change without external pressure. Commenting on these views of Huntington and Janowitz, Gautam (2013:131) identifies two dichotomies: first, that the "concept of politics has drastically changed in recent years and, secondly, politics in the Third World countries has not moved in a uni-linear pattern; thereby liberal democracy is automatically accepted either by the ruling class or civil society as the only model to address political problem".

Conclusively, the search for new contributions to study of military intervention has resulted in the introduction of academic disciplines named The Military And Politics or Civil-Military Relations in the universities and military institutions.

3. Military Organisation: A Sociological and Constitutional Approach

Military organization refers to the way the armed forces are structured to use their capability to defend the nation. In other words, it refers to an organisation or a group of people recruited collectively to work together to achieve a common goal by securing the territory of the state. In all organizations there is division of responsibility under a ranking system with

different function. First we need to understand that the military role is to provide force and to support the wider policies of the state and as such it becomes clear that the civil society might have difficulty to understand the military because of the role to control and manage violence (Chuter, 2011).

From the sociological perspective, Ashley (2009: 1) writes that sociologists were and still are interested in how change in the military affects the society. This pertains to such factors as who are the individuals recruited into the military, who among them entered the military voluntarily and why, and whether the military change would affect the representativeness of the military in a particular society. Ashley stresses that those sociologists that study the military choose to show interest in issues like military recruitment, race and gender representation, combat, military families, military social organization, war and peace, and military welfare.

Adekanye (2008) hinges his argument on the multi-ethnic and segmented state by presenting the typology of military organization classified into three separate approaches. These are the Ethnic Pluralizing approach, the Ethnic Dominant approach, and the Individual nationalizing approaches.

Constitutionally, the military is placed under the command of the president of the federation, who fronts as the Commander in Chief of the Armed Forces. Using Nigerian experience, as stated in 1999 constitution, chapter 41 part III (c) section 197, the armed forces are concerned with:

“i. Defending Nigeria from external aggression. ii. Maintaining its territorial integrity and securing its border from violation on land, sea or air. iii. Suppressing insurrection and acting in aid of civil authorities to restore order when called upon to do so by the president, but subject to such conditions as may be prescribed by an act of the national assembly section 198 specify the power of the president as the commander in chief of the armed forces (cited in Okereke 1997: 152).

For the power of the president over the military, section 218 of Nigerian 1999 Constitution states as follows:

i. The power of the President as Commander –in-Chief of the Armed Force of the federation shall include power to determine the operational use of the Armed Forces of the federation. ii. The powers conferred on the president by sub-section (1) of the section shall include power to appoint the Chief of Defence Staff, the Chief of Army Staff, Chief of Naval Staff, the Chief of Air Staff... iii. The President may

by direction in writing and subject to such condition as he may think fit, delegate to any member of the Armed Forces of the federation his power relating to the operational use of the armed forces of the federation(Olorunfemi, 2006: 22)

The essence of using the Nigerian constitution is to reiterate that the armed forces are bound to obey all legitimate operational directives and order of the president in both developed and developing countries. The military by their professional training and organisation is a regimented and disciplined force drawn into divisions, brigades, battalions, companies and platoons. These are the major units that form the traditional backbone of the armed forces.

For the civil-military relations, Okereke (1997) acknowledges Plato’s contribution, that military rule is an aberration because the society is conceived as a coordinated system of roles in which every member is assigned an appropriate function. The categories of functionaries are three: the artisan, the guardian and the philosopher king. The guardian is assigned the responsibility of protecting the state (which is where the soldiers fall into) and not to seize power from the elected leaders. For civilian supremacy to be achievable in any society civilians should not interfere in professional military affairs or interject political consideration into the armed forces, by promoting political loyalists or use the army for domestic political advantages. In the same manner, the military at any time must respect civilian order and control. .

4. Military Coups in Africa

Military coup or military intervention means a situation where the sovereignty of a nation is threatened directly through the removal of an incumbent government, or indirectly through the subversion of the government by force or coercive instrument (Ering 2005: 61). Scholars of military intervention have tried to develop theories to explain military interference in politics in both developing and developed countries. The theories range from contagion theory to convergence theory, socio-political and economic theories, and personal theory.

No single theory has been accepted as adequate in the explanation of military intervention. Janowitz has put forward what is now labeled the Internal Characteristics model. In this model, he suggests that one can explain military intervention in politics mainly from the angle of the “internal structure of the military, that is the social background of the officer, the skill structure and career lines, internal social cohesion and cleavages, professional and political

ideology within the military as important factors which help to explain direct military intervention in politics” (Oyediran 1984: 1)

In the counter argument, Samuel Huntington bases his argument on the contention “that the most important causes of military intervention in politics are not military but political”. In Huntington’s view, one specific manifestation of general politicization of the military is the politicization of social forces and institutions like politicized bureaucracies, politicized labour union, political institutions, and of course, politicized armed forces. All these groups tend to be involved in politicking which affect the society as a whole.

Other scholars base their argument on military intervention or take-over from the impact of

maladministration, mismanagement and corruption on the socio- economic development of the society. Either way, all the three debates or areas of arguments are meaningful to our understanding of military coups in Africa.

Adekanye (2008) uses conceptualization of multi-ethnic and segmented state in explaining military coup. He asserts that “i. A coup in a dispersed multi-ethnically segmented society is much easier to plan and execute, but once executed most difficult to succeed militarily as a state wide phenomena ii. A coup in a centralized society multi ethnic society more difficult to organize and effectual, but once effected also easy to succeed as a state phenomena” (Adekanye 2008:32)

Table 1: Coups in Africa from 1950-1999

S/N	NAME OF COUNTRY	YEAR OF COUP	CAUSES OF COUP
1.	Benin	1963, 1972, 1977.	i. Economic decline ii. To prevent civil war
2.	Burkina Faso	1966,1974,1980, 1982,1983, 1983, 1987	i. Demonstration against austerity, ii. Economic decline iii revolution introducing a leftist programme. iv. Officers' personal grievances.
3.	Gambia	1981, 1994	i. failed coup ii. decline in government legitimacy.
4.	Ghana	1966,1972,1975, 1978,1981	i. Economic decline incurred by high foreign debt ii. Ethnic and class differences iii corruption iv mal-administration v.. Military attitudinal cohesiveness.
5.	Guinea	1984	i. power struggle between Conte and members of his party.
6.	Guinea Bissau	1980	i. power struggle between Viera and members of his cabinet.
7.	Ivory coast	None	None
8.	Liberia	1980	i. Corruption ii. economic decline.
9.	Mail	1968, 1991.	i Economic decline ii. Domestic problem.
10.	Niger	1974,1995.	1974- i. political crisis in the single party system ii. Civil disorder iii. Misappropriation 1995- i. social and economic crisis ii. Conflict between the president and prime minister.
11.	Mauritania	1977, 1979,1980.	i. accusation of president Daddah’s participation in Western Sahara war ii. Economic decline.
12.	Nigeria	1966,1967,1976, 1983,1985,Nov 1990, 1993.	i. <i>Wetie</i> crisis in western Nigeria ii. Marginalization iii. Counter coup due to the first coup tagged Igbo officer organised coup ii Economic decline iv. domestic political crisis v. Officers' personal grievances vi. Corruption.
13.	Senegal	None	None
14.	Sierra Leone	1967, 1992, 1993, 1995,1997	i. armed forces dissatisfied with their low wages ii. Officers' personal grievances iii. corruption, mismanagement conspiracy leading to arrest of officers.
15.	Togo	1963, 1973	i. Officers' personal grievances, president Olympio rejected the plea of Sergeant Eyadema Etieme from the French army to join the Togolese army ii. Military attitudinal cohesiveness.
16.	Central African	1963	i. Corruption, slow economic growth, political rebels at the border.
17.	Burundi	1966,1993 abortive and 1996	i. Accusation of Ethnic cleansing due to assassination of the prime minister.
18.	Cameroon	1984	Abortive attempt.
19	Gabon	1964	Military uprising.
20.	Chad	1975	i. army mutiny, accusing president Tombalbaye of tribalism and disregard for the military.
21.	Congo	1963, 1986, 1977, 1979 and 1997	i. Congolese soldiers against their white Belgian commander at the Thysvillie military base for high pay ii. Economic decline iii. Political crisis.
22.	Equatorial Guinea	1979	i. fighting between loyalist and rebel ii accusation of genocide against Budi people ii External influence.
23	Rwanda	1979	i. Betrayal between the chief of army staff who is a friend to the president

			Kayibanda ii genocide.
24.	Zaire	1960, 1965, 1997	1960- i. division of power between the president and Parliament ii. Political instability 1965 - Popular uprising 1997- ii. Destabilization of the eastern part of the country.
25	Djibouti	None	None
26.	Ethiopia	1960, 1974	1960- i. attempted coup 1974- ideology, a non-ideological middle ranking officers abolished monarchy and adopted Marxism and Leninism.
27.	Kenya	1981	i. failed attempt.
28.	Somalia	1969, 1991	i. Economic decline ii Domestic political crisis iii. Officers' personal grievances.
29	Tanzania Zanzibar	1964	Failed coup.
30.	Uganda	1971, 1980	i. Officers' personal grievances- Idi Amin afraid that president Obote would dismiss him from the army. ii. Class action by the military.
31.	Angola	None	None
32.	Botswana	None	None
33	Lesotho	1970, 1986, 1991	1970- i. Coup was triggered by the victory of the opposition Bastoland congress party 1986 and 1990 Power struggle between General Lekhanya and the King Moshoehoe II iii. Military grievances.
34.	Malawi	None	None
35	Mozambique	1975	Failed attempt.
36	Namibia	None	None
37.	Swaziland	None	None
38.	South African	None	None
39.	Zambia	1997	Abortive attempt.
40.	Zimbabwe	None	None
41.	Cape Verde	1980,	i. Guinea Bissau coup led to the abandonment of the unification with Cape Verde.
42.	Comoro Island	1995	i. due to rotational presidency ii impoverished country.
43.	Madagascar	1972, 1975, 1992	i. political transition crisis ii popular unrest iii. abuse of power over the killing of hundred people.
44.	Mauritius	None	None
45.	Sao tome & Principe	1995	i. Military attitudinal cohesiveness due to six months delay in their salary ii. poor living condition of the soldier.
46.	Seychelles	1977,1980,1986,1995	1980 failed attempt ii external influence iii political crisis
47.	Egypt	1952	i. for political, economic and social change ii. Military attitudinal cohesiveness.
48.	Libya	1969	i. . Officers' personal grievances- al-fateh revolution carried out by 70 free unionist officers led by Col Gaddafi ii. Abolished the Libyan monarchy.
49.	Tunisia	None	None
50.	Morocco	None	None
51.	Algeria	1965	i. bad governance ii revolutionary army iii. Military attitudinal cohesiveness.
52.	Sudan	1958, 1968, 1990	i. Contagion from other regional coups, ii. Economic decline iv. Domestic political crisis v. Officers' personal grievances.
53.	Southern Sudan	None	None

Source: Column 2 and 3 was adopted from Adeshina 1999, Wikipedia. Time, Feb 2022, Africanews, Feb. 2022.

Powell and Thyne list the names of countries with the highest number of coups in Africa as follow - Sudan (17), Burundi (11), Ghana (10), Comoro (9), Burkina Faso (8), Benin (8), Guinea Bissau (8), Mali (8), Niger (8), Chad(8) and Nigeria (8) (cited in Mwai, 2021). This shows that African countries from 1950 to 1999 have conditions common for coups like poverty and poor socio-political and economic performance which reflect that ‘once a country has one coup, that’s often a forerunner of more coups’ (BBC News, October, 2021).

From the 53 states in table 1 there are different reasons advanced by the military for staging coups. Some are influenced externally and others are

sponsored by domestic bourgeoisie to topple the elected government. Dudley (1982) writes that the military will likely take over the civilian reign when the role of the political leadership falls short of expectations. Here we see the military feel that they are custodians of the constitution as the custodian theorist would want us to believe.

5. Emerging Issues and Realities in Coups in Africa from 2000- January 2022.

We in ECOWAS have experienced in just under a year, four coups d'état including attempts and it is disturbing because we felt we had put those things/

coup] behind us, and now they seem to be coming back (Osinbajo, 2022).

Africa was to experience a period of calmness, up till February 2003 when the next military coup hit Guinea Bissau, Sao Tome and Principe and Central African Republic. This was closely by series of other military take-overs to the point that the African Union, ECOWAS and the international community felt deeply concerned. In the face of the assumed tremendous gains of democracy as championed by the West, what could be the issues in the reappearance of coups? Following the collapse of the bipolar system, African states gradually moved on from the military incursions into leadership, to fledgling democracies, and promises of a better future. It is a known fact that a sustained democracy is the harbinger of prosperity and positive international relations. What could then explain this relapse into the coups as sprout up across the African continent, including Sudan, Zimbabwe, Mali, Chad and Burkina Faso? Adekoya (2021) proffers “poor socio-political and economic performance”, stressing that sub-Saharan Africa experienced 80 successful coups and 108 failed coups attempts between 1956 and 2001. Adekoya points at the attitude of the leaders as a cause of incessant coups. He writes: “African people no longer believe that election can remove non-performing leader because their “political system is gamed”. Another instance is Conde of Guinea who allegedly engineered constitutional change in 2020 to enable a third term as president.

This spate of military take-over that suddenly engulfed Africa compelled ECOWAS and the African Union to outrightly declare them as illegal, and placed sanctions to compel the coup plotters to surrender power to the civilians. The Lomé Declaration of 2000 and the African Charter on Democracy, Elections and Governance of 2007 both

define aspects of unconstitutional change of government. These include: a military coup against a democratically elected government; mercenary intervention to replace a democratically elected government; replacing a democratically elected government by dissident armed groups and rebel movements; or refusal of an outgoing government to relinquish power following defeat in free, fair and regular elections.

In addition, Article 23(5) of the African Union’s African Charter on Democracy, Elections and Governance (ACDEG) prohibits “Any amendment or revision of the constitution or legal instruments, which is an infringement on the principles of democratic change of government”.(Ndubushi, 2021:1). ECOWAS reaffirms its resolute commitment to upholding the zero tolerance for acceding power through unconstitutional means as enshrined in the 2001 ECOWAS supplementary protocol on democracy and good governance. This tells us that the military in Africa in as much they are professional in their duty they are praetorian in their action and service to the state.

The question is what is the new issue in military intervention in Africa? It is observed that majority of the recent coups in Africa are centred on democratic regression that fails to provide good governance. This has led to uprisings in Egypt (2011) and Libya, Burkina Faso (2014), Zimbabwe (2017), Sudan (2019), Mali, and Niger. In Adekoya (2021), the author laments that incessant coups in Africa in the 21st century threaten a reversal of the democratization process in Africa. Another issue is that the armed forces in Africa knowing full well that they would be condemned adopt a ‘barefaced approach’. By this I mean a daredevil attitude towards the frowning international community, seeing themselves as the third force.

Table 2: Records of Coup Resurgences in Africa, 2000 TO JANUARY 2022.

S/N	NAME OF COUNTRY	MONTH OF COUP	LEADER REMOVED BY THE COUP JUNTA
1.	Guinea Bissau	Sept 2021, Dec 2008	Overthrow of Alpha Conde Lansana due to corruption and criminality of the whole system
2.	Mali	August 2020	Overthrow of Ibrahim Boubakar due to militancy and insecurity
3.	Sudan	April 2019	Overthrow of Omer al – Bashir due to inflation
4.	Zimbabwe	Nov 2017	Overthrow of Robert Mugabe due to “treacherous shenanigans” of the politician and the military interests.
5.	Burkina Faso	Sept 2014, Oct 2014 January, 2022	i) Overthrow of President Blaise Compaore due to abuse of office by trying to change the constitution to favour another term in office ii) Overthrow of Paul –Henri Sandaogo Damiba was due to the fact that the military want their interests to protected
6.	Egypt	July 2013	Mohammed Morsi due to popular protest against the president that lasted for days
7.	Central African Republic	March 2012	Francois Bozize was accused of causing hardship for the population
8.	Mali	March 2012 July 2020	i) Amadou Toumani Toure due to promotion issue in the military, Tuareg insurgency in north of Mali ii) mass protest resulting in counter coup

9.	Niger	Feb 2010	Overthrow of Mamadou Tandja was due to his change of the constitution to allow him stay beyond his legal term.
10.	Madagascar	March 2009	President Marc Ravalomanana and the opposition leader Andry Rajoelina were in disagreement that caused political crisis in the country
11.	Mauritania	June 2003, August 2008	i) Failed attempt against Colonel Maaouya Ould Sid Ahmed Taga ii Overthrow of president Sidi Ould Cheikh Abdallahi due to dismissal of high ranking Generals for the office
12.	Togo	Feb 2005	Etienne Eyadime Deceased and the military put his son Faure Gnassingbe in power and the Africa Union condemned the move.

Source: w.w.w opsow.ton , Aljazeera news, Turkish news, Wikipedia, Dailythrust, 2022, Guardian, 2021

The new issues in Africa coup can be determined from the attitudinal approach of the military professionals that see themselves as custodian of the means of violence. The African soldiers believe that the civilians at any point in time are subordinate to them even when the constitutions stipulate their roles clearly as the defendants of the territorial integrity of the state. This attitude of the military at any time moves them to challenge the civilians basing their argument on national interest.

6. Conclusion

The ceaseless military coups that have ravaged the African continent have been attributed to many factors from disenchantment with the policies of a sitting president to sheer resolve to suppress an ethnic component of a country's population, these military coups have never expressed regard for any political leaning or form of government but have constantly swept across the continent with always one agenda in mind: to oust the incumbent government, and take over the reins of power. A look at tables 1 and 2 above shows clearly the states under military rule and also the states in the 21st century that the military force has forcefully seized power from them. Within the argument and counter argument for the results of staging coups among scholars there is a general position that the coup must be either through the internal characteristics of the military or the political interpretation of staging coups. This has raised the question of professionalism in the military in Africa.

It is the stand of this paper that military coups in their entirety are an aberration. It is more like an attitude problem which is unconstitutional. To curb this recurrent feature of Third-World politics, the following suggestions could be strongly considered in relation to anyone involved in a coup, military and civilian alike:

- Denying them the opportunity to contest election
- Stopping their retirement rights, including gratuities from being paid for committing an act against the constitution
- Subjecting them to public executions if need be.

On the other hand, the citizenry should stop applauding military incursions in politics. The worst civilian regime is better than a great military dictatorship. All that is needed is firm trust in the Constitution, and willingness to work with this document towards national interest and cohesion.

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Gender-Based Violence at Workplace: The Nigerian Experience

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Abstract. This study investigated Gender-Based violence at workplace in Nigeria. The study adopted the descriptive survey type of research design. The sample for the study consisted of 395 respondents randomly selected from ten (10) companies in two industrial estates in Lagos and Ogun states of Nigeria. The instrument used for data collection for the study was the questionnaire titled 'Gender-Based Violence Questionnaire' (GBVQ) which produced a reliability index of 0.824. Data collected was analysed using descriptive statistical techniques and the weighted mean score of 2.5 as a criterion mean score for decision. The hypotheses were analysed with ANOVA and Pearson moment of correlation. The study revealed that there is a positive and significant relationship between women protection law in restraining gender-based violence in workplace in Nigeria. The study also showed a positive and significant relationship between Adult Education and its programmes in fighting Gender-based violence in workplace in Nigeria (r -values = 0. P 70.05 since $P = .000$). Based on the result of the findings, it was recommended that both government and employers of labour should eliminate all forms of violence against women through reactivation of gender and equal opportunities bills and labour laws in Nigeria.

Keywords: Gender-Based, violence, workplace, Adult Education, women and Nigeria.

1. Introduction

The status of workplace in contemporary societies is the result of long historical process. Work plays a crucial role in people's lives and it is an important feature in structuring personal and social identity of an individual. It is obvious that work is a way of making money and thereby accessing a number of essential and non-essential goods and services. It is

regarded as a way of contributing meaningfully to the national income and promoting society cohesion and social identity. To show the importance of work to individual and the society. Bible encourages everybody be it male or female to work. 2nd Thessalonians 3: 10 says "if a man will not work, he should not eat". There is a proverb in Yoruba language that says "ona ofun oun ni ona orun" literally meaning "the way to the throat is the way to heaven". Work then can be seen as an important pillar of the existential organization of individuals. To this end, work is widely acknowledged to play a positive role as a source of well-being and social integration. Any effort to achieve any form of development without work must necessarily encounter a hitch. As beautiful as work is, millions of women are working in an intimidating, hostile and humiliating environment in Nigeria and experiences various forms of workplace abuse. It may not be out of place to assert that employees gender-based violence laws seems to be inadequate in Nigeria. The Nigerian labour act is silent on the issue of gender-based violence and this has left many employees in doubt as to what options are available to them. GBV is worsened where there is not explicit definition under the labour system of a jurisdiction.

As beautiful and important work is, workplace gender-based violence still persists in Nigeria. GBV are increasingly reported in Nigeria. The Global gender gap report (2017) released by the World Economic Forum (WEF) placed Nigeria in 122nd position out of 144 countries in closing the gender gap. While there is a gradual closing of the gender gap in Nigeria, women still face a range of obstacles in the workplace which prevents them from realizing their full career potential.

Annually, at least 2 million Nigerian girls and women experience gender based violence with an estimated

80 percent of Nigerian women having experienced some form of sexual harassment. Nigeria falls within the list of the top ten countries with the highest rape crime in the world. Nigeria has legislation against gender-based violence and this can be found in section 7 of the violence against persons prohibition act which states that “a person who compels another by force or threat to engage in any conduct or act, sexual or otherwise to the detriment of the victim’s physical or psychological well-being commits an offence and is liable on conviction to a term of imprisonment not exceeding 2 years or to a fine not exceeding N500, 000 or both. In Lagos State, like other major metropolitan cities around the world, women are prone to gender-based violence in workplace. Lagos State in its efforts to the advancement of gender-based violence at workplace, enacted the criminal law of Lagos State. Section 262 of the criminal law addresses gender-based violence stating that any person who sexually harasses another is guilty of a felony and is liable to imprisonment for three years. It goes further to describe what the offence entails, in case some people gets confused. The law states that “sexual harassment is unwelcome sexual advances, request for sexual favour and other visual, verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature”. This also includes (in terms of workplace gender-based violence) that implicitly or explicitly affects a person’s employment or educational opportunities or unreasonably interferes with the person’s work or educational performance”. The Ogun State government in its own effort domesticated bills providing protection to GBV in its violence against person’s bill (2016). This bill seeks to provide effective remedies for victims of violence. Gender-based violence (GBV) in the work place have severe effects on employees’ and employers health, dignity, employees’ relations and well-being. Gender-based violence can include encroaching to workers’ rights being sexually harassed or assaulted in any way or in any form and inadequate protection of women from a hostile work environment.

The sad reality is that many of the gender-based violence victims do not even know these laws exist to protect and when they do know, they are uninformed as to how to seek the appropriate means of reporting and accessing justice. The victims are fond of keeping quiet or leaving their predicament to fate. Hence, such workers or victims hold onto hurt and experiences that they should not be carrying because they should not have experienced the violation in the first place. The end result of this is that gender-based violence dampens employees’ morale and motivation to work, it also affect output and employees performances and also have negative impact on the

employees’ job or career in most cases leading to sickness or premature death if nothing is done or if the victims keep quiet.

1.1 Statement of Problem

The United Nation (UN) women’s country report (2008) on violence against women and girls in Nigeria presented empirical evidence of the pervasiveness of gender-based violence across Nigeria six geo-political zone and found out that GBV is one of the most oppressive forms of gender inequality posing a threat to equal participation at workplace in Nigeria. The bulk of this violence are found among women and are evidenced in abuse related forms such as violence, coercion, molestation, sexual harassment, bullying, emotional and physical intimidation or assault. These cases are more frequent in workplace. The causes and pattern of GBV seems to vary to include religion, racial prejudice, personal hatred, an attempt to frustrate or force employees to quit the job or grant sexual or monetary favour, apply illegal force or pressure to collect a bill or payment, or merely gain sadistic pleasure from making the employee fearful or anxious for nothing. The sad aspect of it is that the victims seldom reported the case. This may be due partly to lack of awareness on the women’s rights, rules, regulations and policies guiding them and their work and also fear of stigmatization and losing their jobs.

It is against this background that the researcher intends to provide information on the causes and patterns of GBV in workplace in Nigeria. The study will also identify the extent to which adult education and its programmes such as women, workers and labour education will equip female employees with the required potentials to solve gender-based violence at workplace and in their life related problems.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to find out the prevalence of gender-based violence at workplace in Nigeria. Specifically, this study sought to achieve the following purposes:

- To ascertain if GBV occur in workplace in Nigeria.
- To find out how adult education and its programmes such as, workers and labour education can be used to fight gender based violence in workplace in Nigeria.
- To ascertain the pattern and causes of GBV as perceived by female employees in their workplace in Nigeria.

- To find out if women protection law can be effectively used for restraining GBV in the workplace in Nigeria.

1.3 Research Questions

The following research questions were raised to guide the study:

- To what extent does GBV occur in workplace in Nigeria?
- In what ways will adult education and its programmes such as workers and labour education be used to fight GBV in workplace in Nigeria?
- What are the patterns and causes of GBV as perceived by female employees at workplace in Nigeria?
- To what extent will women protection law be effectively used for restraining GBV at workplace in Nigeria?

1.4 Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were formulated for the study and tested at 0.05 level of significance:

HO1: Adult education and its programmes such as workers and labour education will not significantly fight gender-based violence at workplace in Nigeria.

HO2: There is no significant relationship between women protection law and restraining of gender-based violence in workplace in Nigeria.

2. The Nigerian Experience in Perspective

In Nigeria, women are subjected to multiple forms of violence in the workplace. It is so worse that hardly can you find a woman in workplace who at one time or another had not experienced violence in form of sexual abuse or discriminated against on culture, age and religion. Gender-based violence has been reported as a persistent problem in Nigeria. Recent findings in Nigeria reported that sexual harassment booms within the Nigerian banking sector (Akinfala & Komolafe 2017, Bello 2016, Aloomo & Atadiose 2014 and Fapohunda 2014). Adenugba and Ilupeju (2012) in their study found out that 80.8% of the respondents were sexually harassed and 94.2% respondents agreed that female marketers face numerous risks in the course of executing and retaining their jobs. Precisely in March 2018, two young women health workers were executed by a Boko Haram faction in the northern state of Nigeria, Saifura Hussaini Ahmed Khorsa, 25 years and Hauwa Mohammed Liman 24 were both mid-wives

with the international committee of the Red Cross (ICRR) in the state of Borno and were abducted along with the UNICEF nurse Alice Loksha. The death of these two women was one of the few dangers faced by women when delivering and discharging their duties at work. Public Services International (PSI) (2018) observed GBV frequently occurred in the health sector affects the sector in Nigeria which has a predominantly female workforce. Such that the World Health Organization (WHO) calculates that violence in health sector accounts for 25% of all incidents at the workplace in Nigeria (PSI, 2018).

It was in this context and on the international day for the elimination of violence against women that PSI reiterates its commitment to the discussion and adoption of a convention and recommendation to end violence and harassment in the world of work by the International Labour Organization (ILO) in 2019.

Similarly, Aina-Pelemo, Mehanathan, Kulshrestha & Aina (2019) on their study on sexual harassment in workplace found out that female lawyers (68%) compared to 32% male have experienced sexual harassment at workplace. This suggest that even female lawyers who were supposed to know better are more vulnerable or prone to abuse in their profession. GBV is one of the most oppressive forms of gender inequality posing a threat to equal participation at workplace in Nigeria as it can be seen from evidences from the research findings. The subtle nature of workplace and the resultant economical and psychological effects on the employees and the employers as established by research over the years make this study of particular interest.

The International Labour Organization (ILO), the foremost international agency establishment of universal standard work practice does not expressly mention workplace GBV under the declaration of fundamental principles and rights at work. Similarly, in Nigeria, there are no national laws criminalizing gender-based violence and some federal laws allow such violence.

The federal government in his efforts commits to strengthening laws and implementing strategic actions aimed at ending GBV at workplace decided to broaden its campaign in sensitizing the public through policies and programmes of inter alia aimed at preventing and eliminating violence against women and girls. Meanwhile, the 1999 constitution of Nigeria prohibits discrimination on the ground of sex but customary and religion laws continue to

restrict women's rights. As Nigeria is a federal republic, each state has the authority to draft its own legislation.

A number of laws exist to protect women against violence, strengthened by the violence against persons (prohibition) act 2015 which shows a determination to tackle violence against women, provides stiffer penalties for a number of gender-based offences and make it easier for women to seek recourse and protection. The sad aspect was that laws were often not effectively implemented in practice coupled with under reporting and a reluctance among women to report abuse to the authorities duly because of stigmatization and fear of losing jobs. In addition to this, the Nigerian police are perceived as being reluctant to take violence against women seriously and pursue allegations prosecutions for domestic violence. The police are fond of telling the victims to settle amicably within themselves (Country information and guidance, 2015). Public services international (2018) on its own observed that the implementation of some of the gender specific laws and policies has been slower than anticipated. Both the PSI (2018) and the federal ministry of women affairs and social development (2014) agreed that the major challenges to reducing violence at work includes; socio-cultural barriers, inadequate funding, insecurity, gender violence and conflict, gender capacity deficits at state and local government levels and lastly, non-implementation of some of the gender specific laws.

3. Gender-Based Violence Conceptualized

Attempts to conceptualize gender-based violence have been problematic given the complexity inherent in the meaning as well as interchangeably usage of the term "violence and abuse". Hence, some researchers such as Mattice & Gaman (2010), Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf & Cooper (2011) and Unniff & Mostert (2011) defined GBV as overt or covert behaviour, aggressive communication and behaviour that usually escalates to stigmatization, victimization and eventually severe trauma for the victims. Gender-based violence as a concept has been defined and explicated from a different viewpoint.

The United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) (2004) define gender-based violence (GBV) as any act of violence that is directed against a woman or that affects women which is likely to results in physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or

in private life". Similarly, the World Bank's inter agency stand committee (2018) defines gender-based violence as an umbrella term for any harmful act that is based on socially ascribed (gender) differences between males and females. The facts remain that GBV affects both men and women but women are much more prone and vulnerable to GBV in Nigeria and it has become a fundamental barrier in women participation in social, economic, political and even religious activities in Nigeria. Whether violence occurs within the workplace or outside, the detrimental effect of GBV at the workplace are substantial. GBV is hindering national productivity as it is occurring amongst people in the active productive age group. The effect of GBV can be devastating. They pose as a serious danger to the mental health which consequently affects women performance in workplace. WHO (2010) explained that abused women are more likely to suffer depression, anxiety, psychomatic symptoms.

Gender-based violence according to Canadian Centre for Occupational and safety (2005) and European parliament (2001) explained GBV at work place can take any of the following forms:

- Assigning unreasonable duties or workplace that is unfavourable to a person in order to create unnecessary pressure
- Blocking application for training leave or promotion.
- Constantly changing work guidelines.
- Excluding or isolating someone socially.
- Gossips
- Intimidating a person, undermining or deliberately impeding a person's work.
- Intruding on person's privacy by pestering, spying or stalking.
- Not allowing to express one's self.
- Obscene, offensive jokes or teasing.
- Persistent criticism, undue criticism or constantly belittling a person's opinions.
- Physically abusing or threatening abuse.
- Public humiliation.
- Removing areas of responsibility and giving people menial or trivial tasks instead.
- Setting objectives with impossible deadlines.
- Spreading malicious rumour
- Taking the credit for other peoples' ideas.
- Tampering with a person's personal belonging or work equipment.
- Unwarranted (or undeserved) punishment.
- Verbal threats.
- Withholding information that is vital for effective work performance, and;
- Yelling or using profanity.

Nigeria like other nations of the world is not free from GBV in its different forms. GBV in Nigeria takes all the above forms. Looking at the conditions of workers in Nigeria, one will disapprove the degree of abuse and violence the workers are suffering from and exposed to on a daily basis. The workplace situation mostly for women is highly embarrassing and not at all friendly, neither is it motivating or encouraging for high productivity because the workers are demoralized and consequently dehumanized most in particular female workers. From the literature reviewed on the concept of GBV, it can be deduced that gender based violence is malicious actions directed by the superior employees to subordinate employees and it is frequently occurs daily, weekly and monthly. It can be said that GBV is an inappropriate and unwelcome verbal and non-verbal behaviours that a reasonable employee would find it to be abusing, humiliating, intimidating, harassing, bullying, degrading, offensive, insulting, threatening, frustrating, belittling, intruding and unwarranted. Hence, GBV in this study is “a persistent inflicting or exposure of employees mostly women to a hostile work environment through the use of overt and covert behaviour by superior officers or co-workers aimed at frustrating and intimidating the victims to surrender to the wishes of his or her abuser or perpetrators. The situation that women face in their places of work as a result of GBV is pathetic.

Truly, there is no telling the fact that gender-based violence in a workplace can adversely affect employees as well as even take its unpleasant toll on employees’ lives to unimaginable level of committing suicide. It can lead to reduction in job performance and in productivity level of the employees. In a real sense, GBV have serious implications for not only the employees but also the employers as well. It is against this background that this study seeks to empirically lend its credence to restraining GBV in workplace environment through adult education and its programmes such as workers education and existing literature on GBV.

4. The Role of Adult Education and its Programmes in Restraining Gender-Based Violence at Workplace Environment.

It has been established through literature that GBV exists in workplace in Nigeria. It has equally been established that violence victims are not well informed of the rules and policies guiding them and their work. Literature has equally confirmed that GBV hindered employees’ performance and that it is detrimental to individual employees, employers and

the nation as a whole. So how can the problem of gender-based violence at workplace environment be dealt with? How do we kill a multi-headed snake that keeps raising its ugly head in all areas of work situation? There is need for a mental shift.

A discussion on gender-based violence, without a correlative discussion of adult education and its programmes in restraining GBV will be inconclusive. Programmes in Adult education for workers protection and rights could be referred to as purposeful educational activity developed, organized and facilitated among workers (adult and the recipients) for finding solutions to existing workplace problems (GBV) and forestalling futures one. Some of the adult education programmes such as women education, workers education and labour education are discussed below.

4.1 Women Education

The deplorable state of women in workplace can only be improved through a functional and non-formal type of education that will give confidence and strength to women to refuse to submit to conditions of indignation and inhumanity. It must be an education that will enable women acquire training skills and knowledge for solving their problems be it social, political, economic, religious, civic and workplace situations.

Mbalisi & Nwoye (2011) defined women education as “education programme designed for women and used to empower them with knowledge, skills, attitude for improved self-concept, self-worth, value and dignity in the social, cultural economic, political and religious spheres”.

Women education is a synergy of the words “women and education”. Women according to oxford advanced learners dictionary (2010) are “adult female human beings”, the opposite sex created by nature in addition to men. The term education is derived from Latin words “educare” and “educere”, and education meaning to nourish, to bring up, to draw out and to lead forth. Therefore, women education in this study is “all purposeful activities organized and employed either by government or individual aimed at strengthening the potential competencies and capability of women in solving their daily problems. Women education must encompass all forms of training and development programmes geared towards enhancement of knowledge, skills, attitudes and all round development of women. This type of education will make women to be sensitive to happenings in their political, social, economic and religious environments.

4.2 Workers Education

Workers' education is one of the ambits of adult education programmes aimed at helping workers in understanding their problems and taking actions in solving them. In a very simple way, works are group of people or persons with similar or common philosophy or ideas who performs work regularly or temporarily for either public, private or informal sectors. The artisans, self-employed person belong to these group. They contribute to national income through production of goods and services in form of intellectual or physical labour and earned reward for the services rendered.

Yusuf & Bala (2013) defined workers education as that form of education offered to works with the intention to improve the efficiency and productivity of works and members of society. Workers' education can be described as education specially designed for workers to develop their potentials, productive capacities and knowledge, and to understand the day-to-day problems that may be confronting them in their workplace and to enable them contribute meaningfully and effectively towards their personal development and that of the society to which they belong or find themselves. Employees can learn their rights, rules and regulations as well as the policies guiding their work and how to protect themselves from harassment, intimidation, abuse and violence through workers' education. The main purpose of workers' education is to develop the workers' understanding of "labour problems" in the broad sense.

4.3 Labour Education

Labour education refers to education and manpower training programmes offered by labour unions to their members and representatives. Labour education is the attempt to meet workers need and interest as they arise from participation in union. Yusuf & Bala (2013) explained it, as education directed towards action. It intends to enable workers to be more effective as unionists to help them understand society and fulfil the obligations as citizens and to promote individual development. In essence, labour education is important in the achievement of industrial peace and harmony in the workplace.

5. Research Methodology

The descriptive survey research design was adopted in this study because it required the selection of a sample to represent the study population. The choice of descriptive research was based on the assertion by

Mason (2002) who described the design as one of the best available designs in collecting original data for the purpose of describing population characteristics that is fairly large. The descriptive survey research design was therefore considered appropriate for the study. The population comprises all the female employees in private organizations in Lagos state and Ogun state of Nigeria. The two states were chosen because of their cosmopolitan nature and their status as commercial and educational institutions in Nigeria. Ogba Industrial estate and Agbara industrial estate from both Lagos and Ogun states were purposively chosen as the study locations. The study locations are quite active in terms of industrial activities. Stratified random sampling technique was used in selecting seven (7) companies from the two industrial estates. Also, 448 female respondents were selected with the use of stratified random sampling techniques as sample size of the study. The researchers further used purposive sampling technique to select 64 female employees from each company selected giving a total of 448 respondents. The companies selected are Nestle Nigeria Plc, Beloxxi Industries, Unilever Nigeria Plc, Friesland Campina, WAMCO Nigeria, Evans industries limited and Guinness Nigeria Plc. The whole 448 respondents were purposively drawn from the seven companies. Fifty (50) respondents were between 20-30 years, 101 were between 31-40 years, 190 were between 41-50 years and 54 were between 51-60 years.

A questionnaire designed by the researcher tagged "Gender-Based Violence Questionnaire (GBVQ)" was used to collect data. The questionnaire was divided into two sections "A" and "B". Section "A" covers the bio data while section B consists of twenty (20) items designed to generate data on gender-based violence. All the 20 items were assigned four response options of "Strongly Agree (SA), "Agree (A)", "Strongly disagree (SD) and "Disagree (D).

The instrument was subjected to face validation by four experts in research methods. Two of them were from the department of adult education while two were from department of psychology, both from University of Lagos. In order to determine the reliability of the instrument, 50 copies of the instrument were given to 50 female employees in Vitamalt Plc and Cadbury Nigeria PLC in Agbara and Ogba industrial estates respectively. This sample did not form part of the sample size. Data collected from the respondents were used to establish internal consistence and reliability of the instrument using Cronbach alpha which yielded a grand reliability coefficient of 0.82 showing that the result was high and reliable.

Data collected from GBVQ was analysed using mean and standard deviation with the criterion mean of 2.50. Any item with the mean of 2.50 and above was accepted while any mean score below 2.50 was rejected. The two hypotheses were analysed using Anova and Pearson correlation at 0.05 level of significance. Out of the four hundred and forty eight (448) copies of questionnaire distributed, only three hundred and ninety five (395) which is 88 % of the

total questionnaire distributed were completed and returned. This formed the sample size. They were carefully examined and found usable for the analysis of data.

The decision rule for answering the research question was arrived at by finding the average of the four point scale thus; 4+3+2+1 which equals to 10/4 which equals to 2.50.

6. Result

Analysis of respondents’ responses based on questions.

Research Question 1: To what extent does gender-based violence occur in the workplace in Nigeria?

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics on GBV Occurrence in Workplace in Nigeria.

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
GBV OCCURRENCE	395	6.00	24.00	15.5139	.19392	3.85415
Valid N (listwise)	395					

Table 1 shows that the estimated mean = (Minimum + Maximum)/2 which is (6.00+24.00)/2 = 15.00 and the calculated mean is 15.5139. The calculated mean is higher than the estimated mean which implies that the extent at which gender-based violence occur in the workplace in Nigeria is high. That is, the respondent agreed that they have experienced unwanted and deliberate verbal threat in their workplaces, sexual harassment of female employees is a daily routine in workplace, workplace is not free of gender-based violence of any forms, and violence are usually from colleagues, supervisors and top managers.

Research Question 2: In what ways will adult education and its programmes such as women education, labour education and workers’ education be used to fight GBV in workplace in Nigeria?

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics on Adult Education Programmes in Fighting GBV

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
ADULT EDUCATION & GBV	395	6.00	24.00	15.3595	.20460	4.06638
Valid N (listwise)	395					

Table 2 shows that the estimated mean = (Minimum + Maximum)/2 which is (6.00+24.00)/2 = 15.00 and the calculated mean is 15.3595. The calculated mean is higher than the estimated mean which implies that the respondents agreed that adult education and its programmes exposed employees to their rights and decision making at work, workers education is used in educating ethical codes to fight GBV at place of work, workers education can be used in creating awareness on the rights of women to GBV at workplace, labour education at work place meet employees need and interest pertaining to workers union, and adult education programmes are tools to assist employees in learning their rights, rules, regulations and policies at work.

Research Question 3: What are the patterns and causes of GBV as perceived by female employees at workplace in Nigeria?

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics on the Causes of GBV as Perceived by Female Employees

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean		Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
CAUSES OF GBV	395	7.00	28.00	7938.00	20.0962	.32628	6.48472
Valid N (listwise)	395						

Table 3 shows that the estimated mean = (Minimum + Maximum)/2 which is (7.00+28.00)/2 = 17.50 and the calculated mean is 20.0962. The calculated mean is higher than the estimated mean which implies that the

respondents agreed asking questions about one’s sexual life and pressure for sexual activities is a common thing in workplaces, assigning unreasonable duties that is unfavourable to women in order to create unnecessary pressure is a pattern of GBV at workplace, superiors used undue criticism to belittle employees’ opinions, women are found of been physically abused and threatened at workplace, inadequate awareness of workplace rights and policies by employees are the major causes of GBV in workplace in Nigeria, women are abused because there is no national laws criminalizing GBV at workplace in Nigeria, and the fact that ILO does not mention GBV under the declaration of fundamental principles and rights at work makes violence a daily occurrence at Nigeria’s workplace.

Research Question 4: To what extent will women protection law be effectively used in restraining GBV at workplace in Nigeria?

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics on Women Protection Law for Restraining GBV at Workplace

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
WOMEN PROTECTION LAWS	395	5.00	20.00	13.9494	.22863	4.54392
Valid N (listwise)	395					

Table 4 shows that the estimated mean = (Minimum + Maximum)/2 which is (5.00+20.00)/2 = 12.50 and the calculated mean is 13.9494. The calculated mean is higher than the estimated mean which implies that the respondents agreed there is need for women protection law to stop GBV at workplace, women are traumatized and dehumanized because there is no labour law protecting their rights at workplace, the domesticated bills by Lagos and Ogun states is not adequate in restraining GBV at workplaces, victims of GBV did not know and not well informed of existence of any laws protecting them at work, and there is persistent GBV at workplace because of poor and slower implementation of gender laws and policies.

Testing of Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance:

H₀1: Adult education and its programmes (labour education, women education workers education) will not significantly fight, gender-based violence at workplace in Nigeria.

Table 5: ANOVA Statistics on Labour Education, Women Education and GBV

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	130518.605	6	21753.101	5150.226	.000
Within Groups	1638.802	388	4.224		
Total	132157.408	394			

Table 5 shows that the F-value is 5150.226 which is significant at 0.05 level of significance. This implies that adult education and its programmes will significantly fight gender-based violence at workplace in Nigeria. Thus, reject H₀1

H₀2: There is no significant relationship between women protection law and restraining of gender-based violence in workplace in Nigeria

Table 6: Correlation Statistics on Women Protection Law and GBV

		WOMENPROTECTIONLAWS	GBV
WOMEN PROTECTION LAWS	Pearson Correlation	1	.975**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	395	395
GBV	Pearson Correlation	.975**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	395	395

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table shows that the correlation statistics value (r) is 0.975 and significant at 0.05 level of significance. This implies that there is a positive and significant relationship between women protection law in

restraining gender-based violence in workplace in Nigeria. Thus, reject H₀2.

7. Discussion of Findings

The findings of this research revealed that gender-based violence is rampant in Nigeria. The calculated mean of 15.5139 is higher than the estimated mean of 15.00 which implies the extent at which gender-based violence occurred in the workplace in Nigeria. This corroborated the findings of Aina-Pelomo, Mehanathan, Kulshrestha & Aina (2019) on their study on sexual harassment in workplace. They found out that female lawyers at least (68%) have experienced sexual harassment at workplace in Nigeria. Also in the findings of Adenugba and Ilupeju (2012) on working conditions of female marketers in Nigeria, they posited that women faced numerous risks in the course of executing and retaining their jobs in Nigeria. The result emanated from study further revealed that Adult education and its programmes (labour education, women education workers education) will significantly fight, gender-based violence at workplace in Nigeria. This concurred with the view of Yusuf & Bala (2013) that workers and labour education are education directed towards action. The findings is also in consistent with Mbalisi & Nwoye (2011) that adult education and its programmes are designed to empower women with knowledge, skills, attitude for improved self-concept, self-worth, value and dignity in the social, cultural economic, political and religious spheres.

It was discovered from this study that inadequate awareness of workplace rights and policies by employees are the major causes of GBV in workplace in Nigeria. This is in line with the findings of Gbervbie, Osibanjo, Adeniji & Oludayo (2014). In addition the result also revealed a significant relationship between women protection law and restraining of gender-based violence in workplace in Nigeria, The results of the finding agreed with the view of Public services international (2018) that the implementation of some of the gender specific laws and policies has been slower than anticipated globally.

8. Conclusion

Based on the result of the findings, the following conclusions were drawn:

- Gender-based violence exist in workplaces in Nigeria and women are the major victims.
- Gender-based violence dehumanized and traumatized as all the women asserted to this.
- Organizations do not have policies that show GBV violates the right of employees.

- Majority of the employees are uninformed of their rights and how to seek justice for been abused.

9. Recommendations

Taking into consideration the findings of research work, the researcher made the following recommendations:

Since GBV is dehumanizing and traumatizing then it becomes imperative to both government and employers of labour to eliminate all forms of violence against women. This can be done through ratification of the gender and equal opportunities bill and enacting labour laws which will give effects to the constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria.

Government should make it mandatory to all organizations in Nigeria be it public or private to have a legal and moral duty in putting clearly articulated and visible policies in place that shows that workplace violence on any level violates the rights of the employees and as such will not be tolerated.

Women should constantly and regularly reinforce to upgrade and update themselves in adult education programs such as women, workers and labour education. This will help them to be informed and resist any form of oppression, intimidation and abuse of any form at work place.

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An Empirical Study of Criminalizing Minor Infractions of Tax Laws in Nigeria: The Need for Negotiated Punishments

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Abstract. Nigeria's Constitutions have always recognized the need for tax, and have empowered the legislature to make laws on taxes. However, it has been observed that there are civil and criminal sanctions for certain minor infractions of tax laws, and the usage of specific terms like 'offences,' 'guilty,' 'conviction' and 'imprisonment' conveys the idea of criminality. Therefore, the pertinent question is, what are the objectives of the punishments stipulated by the various statutes on tax? To be able to answer this, we made use of online questionnaires sent to 432 respondents residing in the various states of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. The essence of the empirical study is to ascertain the perspective of the general public in criminalizing minor infractions of tax laws and if any of ADR processes are preferably in resolving minor infraction. Descriptive and analytical statistic was use in analyzing the data generated from the questionnaire. The study therefore found that penalties imposed by the tax statutes with regard to minor infractions, are expected to produce common good than inflicting pain. That minor infraction of tax laws should not be criminalized. It

was therefore recommended that negotiation (a form of Alternative Dispute Resolution), which is regarded as being more advantageous than the conventional quasi-criminal litigation process, should be adopted in resolving minor infraction of tax laws.

Keyword: Tax, Laws, Minor-infractions, Negotiation, Criminal, Punishment

1. Introduction

Taxation is a fundamental contributor to revenue generation for the governments of most nations worldwide, and Nigeria is not an exception. The administration of taxes cut across various fields of endeavor and sub-sectors of the Nigerian economy. According to Ola, no major accountancy or tax legal problems can be satisfactorily solved without considering its tax aspects. This has necessitated the formulation of policies, legal and institutional framework for a successful tax administration. Since the inception of independence, Nigeria's Constitutions have always recognized the need for

tax and have empowered the legislature to make laws on tax. In Nigeria, taxation is a shared concern between the Federal and State governments, and it is also one of the matters slated under the concurrent legislative list for both the National Assembly and the State Houses of Assembly to legislate on, although each has its delimitations. In enacting tax legislation, the drafter of the law provides provisions that criminalize an act of tax infraction and instill punishment for such infractions. By paragraph 12 of the Fifth Schedule to the Federal Inland Revenue Service (Establishment) Act empowers the Attorney-General of the Federation or the Attorney-General of any State of the Federation or any relevant enforcement agency prosecute criminal tax offence. When a tax offender is prosecuted in criminal court conferred with criminal jurisdiction by the relevant laws, it often amounts to the imposition of the appropriate criminal sanctions on them, which will inflict pain and sad effect on the taxpayers.

It is apt to state that tax law is a technical area of law that most taxpayers do not have a comprehensive knowledge of their rights and duties as embedded in the various tax laws. However, it is very apt to state that the payment of tax is compulsory, but there are certain acts of infractions of tax laws that should not be criminalised, such as; failure to file a return, failure to meet-up with the payment of taxes. Furthermore, Failure to furnish a statement or information or to keep required records and Failure to comply with the requirement of a notice served on a taxpayer or failure to attend in answer to a notice served on taxpayer. In this regard, such minor infractions of tax laws can be best settled amicably by utilising an alternative method of dispute resolution, instead of criminalising such infractions to inflict pain on the tax offender.

Given the above, this study tends x-ray an empirical study of some infraction of tax laws in Nigeria and exponent the need for an alternative dispute resolution. However, before venturing into the discussion, some tax laws in Nigeria will be briefly discussed.

1.1 Methodology

Doctrinal and non-doctrinal methods of survey research approach were adopted for this study. The theoretical session is aimed at analyzing and theorizing various provisions of tax law that criminalized and provide for imprisonment as a punishment of infractions of tax laws. Furthermore, I also utilized descriptive and analytical quantitative research methods to gather data that is objective,

statistical, and numerical for analysis. These data were obtained through online questionnaire surveys. The quantitative method enable the collection and analyzing extensive data (respondents' responses to the questionnaire) to reach a specific generalization in ascertaining the level of taxpayer view concerning the provisions of the tax laws that criminalize the default of tax payment and providing for imprisonment as a punishment for tax defaulter.

1.2 Research Questions

- Does the Nigerian citizen pay tax?
- What are the various taxes (that criminalize minor infraction) often paid by taxpayers?
- What is the reaction of taxpayers towards criminalizing minor infraction of tax laws?
- Does the taxpayer prefer that minor infraction of tax laws be resolved via Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR)?
- Which of the various types of ADR and quasi-criminal proceedings will a taxpayer prefer in resolving tax disputes?

2. Theoretical Framework: The Jurisprudence of Punishment

The word 'punishment' has been aptly given its meaning by the Black's Law Dictionary as a sanction such as a fine, penalty, confinement, or loss of property, right, or privilege – assessed against a person who has violated the law and most especially criminal law. In further explanation of the term, it suffice to state that Punishment in all its forms is a loss of rights or advantages consequent on a breach of law. When it loses this quality, it degenerates into an arbitrary act of violence that can produce nothing but harmful social effects.

It is often said that where there is no law, there is no sin. That is, where no law describes a particular act or omission as an offence for which a penalty is stipulated as punishment, such act or omission cannot be called an offence. Concerning the jurisprudence of punishment, several scholars opinions or perceived rationale for stipulating or imposing punishments for certain conducts or misconducts in the society or any organization, to wit, what is the justification for punishments? had been similar and consistent that it should be aimed at producing good or corrections instead of instilling pain. Jeremy Bentham believes that "all punishment is mischief, all punishment in itself is evil". His theory is based on deterrence and that where the evil of punishment exceeds the evil of the offence, the punishment will not be profitable. As suggested in his Principle of 'Laissez-Faire,' the

purpose of punishment is to produce corrections and not instill pain. However, since most punishment is in itself a pain, it suffices to say that most punishment is in itself harm. Therefore, punishment can only be justified if this particular pain is outbalanced by reducing the pain (or increase of pleasure) it causes. In summary, punishment should not be more painful than the crime committed by the wrongdoer. The pleasure it produces for correction purposes should outweigh the pain.

Furthermore, Bentham also believed in Rehabilitation or Reform as one of the purposes of punishment. Under the concept of rehabilitation, the perpetrator of a crime is expected to know that what he did was wrong, and in order to remove the deviant in him, rehabilitation is imperative. Therefore, the essence of punishment should hinge on how such rehabilitation or reform can be achieved. Another aim of punishment is retribution; Kant and H.L.A. Hart believe in this theory to be punishment. This theory sees the primary justification in that an offence has been committed, which deserves the punishment of the offender. Kant was quoted thus:

Judicial punishment can never be used merely as a means to promote some other good for the criminal himself or civil society, but instead, it must in all cases be imposed on him only on the ground that he has committed a crime; for a human being can never be manipulated merely as a means to the purposes of someone else ... He must first of all be found to be deserving of punishment before any consideration is given of the utility of this punishment for himself or his fellow citizens.

Given the above statement and the opinion of Bentham, as stated earlier, the essence of punishment when there is an infraction of tax laws should aim at correction and rehabilitation, and it should outweigh the pain for an offence to be justifiable. Therefore, the penalties imposed by the tax statutes are expected to produce common good than inflicting pain on the offender. There are civil sanctions for certain infractions under the tax laws in Nigeria, and they deal with additional assessments and interests. However, the usage of specific terms like 'offences,' 'penalties,' 'guilty,' 'conviction' and 'imprisonment' conveys most of the idea of criminality in the sanctions prescribed by those statutes. Therefore, one needs to ask, what are the objectives of the punishments stipulated by the various statutes on tax?

3. Some of Nigeria Tax Laws that Criminalized (Offences and Punishments) Minor Tax Default

Generally, the infraction of tax laws is often aimed at preventing tax evasion and avoidance, although none of the legislations defines what tax evasion is except where it is mentioned in section 26 of the Value Added Tax Act. Tax evasion has, however, been defined as the deliberate act of non-compliance with the law to pay less than the actual tax owed, as at when due or in order to escape payment completely. However, It is not all the legislation relating to taxation or revenue that expressly makes non-compliance with the laws an offence or infraction that attracts punishment. However, some relevant provisions in some tax legislation refer to some minor infractions of tax laws as an offence and therefore prescribe criminal sanctions on such infractions. Some of these tax laws that provide for offences and punishment will be considered as follows;

3.1 Companies Income Tax Act

The Companies Income Tax Act is a tax law that regulates the payment of company income tax by companies operational in Nigeria, and it is collectible by Federal Inland Revenue. The current legislation was enacted to consolidate the Companies Income Tax Act of 1961. The former provisions under Part 1 of the Companies Income Tax Act 2004, has been repealed in 2007. By section 9 of this Act, tax is imposed on incomes and profits of the companies derived from various sources that include trade, rent, dividends, interests, royalties, fees, and allowances for services, among others. However, sections 92-95, the Companies Income Tax Act provides for offences that constitute infractions and penalties therein. It is relevant to state that some of the infractions that constitute a criminal offence are minor inaction offence. For example, section 92 of the Companies Income Tax Act stipulated for some of these offences, which are:

Where a company failed to furnish a statement or information or to keep required records of their income generated, it is deemed to be an infraction of the Companies Income Tax Act, which upon conviction, attracts a fine of ₦ 2,000.00 for the day of such failure occurred, and six months imprisonment in case of default of payment.

The Companies Income Tax Act also provides that if a company failed to comply with a notice tax assessment and demand notice or failed to attend to a

notice served on the company under the Act, shall be guilty of an offense and liable upon conviction.

Furthermore, section 92(1) of the Companies Income Tax Act generalize any infractions of the Companies Income Tax Act as a crime by providing that failure for a company to comply with the provision contain in the Companies Income Tax Act or any rules made there under for which no other penalty is expressly provided amount to an infraction, which upon conviction attracts a fine of ₦20,000.

3.2 Personal Income Tax Act

Personal income tax is very prominent; this is not far-fetched because of the subjects or targets of the tax. Section 1 of the Personal Income Tax Act provides for the imposition of tax on individuals, communities, and families and on income arising or due to a trustee or estate. By section 3 of the Personal Income Act, the income chargeable on every person includes (but is not limited to) gain or profit from any trade, business, profession or vocation, salary, wage, fee, allowance, or other gain or profit from employment including compensations, bonuses, premiums, dividend, interest or discount, any pension, charge or annuity, among others.

However, the Personal Income Tax Act provides for some minor infractions that constitute offences, and they include the following:

The Personal Income Tax Act stipulates that where a taxpayer failed to furnish a statement of account or failed to keep proper records of his business, such actions constitute an infraction. The taxpayer shall, upon conviction, be paid a fine of ₦ 100.00 fine for every day of such failure and six months imprisonment in case of default of payment.

Also, where a taxpayer failed to comply with the requirement of a notice served on him/her or failure to attend answer to a notice served on the taxpayer, such failure constitutes an infraction of the Personal Income Tax Act, and the taxpayer shall be held guilty of an offence upon conviction.

The Personal Income Tax Act also stipulates that if a taxpayer makes incorrect returns or giving incorrect information concerning the liability of tax, the taxpayer shall be held guilty upon conviction by a criminal court.

Section 94(1) of the Personal Income Tax Act further provides a general provision in criminalizing any act of infractions as an offence. The provision state that where a taxpayer failed to comply with any provision of the Act or any rules related to the *Personal Income Act*, such failure shall constitute an infraction and the taxpayer shall, upon conviction, be liable to a fine.

However, the payment of personal income tax is mainly divided into pay-as-you-earn (often paid by individual employed) and direct assessment on the profit made by large and small scale businesses. However, most businesses in Nigeria are mainly small or petty businesses that their profit is not even enough to cater to their personal need. Given this, the idea of criminalizing trivial or minor infractions will do more harm than correctional measures.

3.3 The Capital Gains Tax Act

Capital gains tax is profits realized from the disposal of any capital asset where the sale price exceeds the purchase price of the particular investment, and the regulation of such transactions is the objective of the Capital Gains Tax Act. The tax chargeable on such gains is 10%. The Capital Gains Tax Act does not expressly create offences under its Schedule. Reference is made to Part XIII of the Companies Income Tax Act, which provides for offences and penalties. Those provisions which have been stated above in Part XIII section 92-95 of the Companies Income Tax Act is also applicable to capital gains tax.

3.4 Stamp Duties Act

The Stamp Duties Stamp Duties are taxes paid to the Federal or State Government on documents. Stamp duty is a tax on commercial and legal documents that record and gives effect to specific transactions. However, where a taxpayer defaults in the payment of stamp duties, such infraction is enforceable. By, Sections 110, 111, 112, and 114 of the Stamp Duties Act, the Attorney General at the federal or state level is empowered to institute a summary criminal suit in recovery all duties, fines, penalties, and debts that are due to the government as specified under the Stamp Duties Act. In this regard, where there is a minor infraction, a criminal suit will be instituted against the offender, and if convicted by the court, the taxpayers become an ex-convict.

3.5 Tertiary Education Trust Fund (Establishment, Etc) Act, 2011

The extant law on the tertiary education trust fund is the Tertiary Education Trust Fund (Establishment, Etc) Act, 2011 (hereafter the TETFund Act). The Act was enacted to establish the TETFund Act charged with the responsibility for imposing, managing, and disbursing the Education Tax to public tertiary education institutions in Nigeria, and for other related matters. The Act imposes a tax on the assessable profit of a company at an annual rate of 2%, and such

assessable profit shall be ascertained in the manner specified in the Companies Income Tax Act or the Petroleum Profits Tax Act. The tax imposed by the Act becomes payable in 60 days after the Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS) has served a notice of the assessment on a company.

However, section 10 (1) of the TETFund Act provides for a general provision that criminalises action or inaction that contravenes or lead to an infraction of the act as an offence. Section 10 (2) and (3) of the TETFund Act expressly provide that it is a criminal offence for a company to fail to pay educational tax when due and failure to comply with demand notice of payment of educational tax. Furthermore, TETFund Act provides that a company that is guilty of an offence as contained or provided for by the provisions of the Act shall upon conviction be held guilty of an offence and shall be liable to 6 months imprisonment or with an option of fine of ₦ 1,000,000.00 for a first offence.

3.6 Federal Inland Revenue Service Act

The Federal Inland Revenue Service Act (hereafter the FIRS Act) established the body known as the Federal Inland Revenue Service saddled with the powers to assess, collect and account for revenues accruable to the government of the Federation and other related matters. The FIRS Act is also one of the tax laws that regarded minor tax default as a criminal offence and therefore prescribed harsh punishment for such infraction. However, some of the offences provided for by the FIRS Act, among others, are as follows:

Failure to deduct or remit tax by a person obliged to do so, which upon conviction makes the person liable to pay the tax withheld or not remitted in addition to a penalty of 10 percent of the tax not remitted per annum and interest at the prevailing Central Bank of Nigeria re-discount rate and imprisonment for a period not exceeding three years.

Given the above tax laws that criminalize minor tax infractions and thereby prescribe harsh punishment such imprisonment, it is apt to state that is against the intendment of the jurisprudence of punishment as emphasize by Jeremy Bentham and Hart. They stated that the essence of punishment is to instill correction rather than inflicting pain. Therefore, the punishment that ought to be prescribed for any minor infraction of any Tax laws should be civil and amicable concerning the fact that payment of tax by citizens and foreigners is just a civil responsibility and duties.

4. Preferable Alternative(s) to Litigation of Tax Cases: The Preferable ADR Method

The desire for alternatives to litigation, also known as Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR), has been on the increase for a long. Various ADR processes of arbitration, mediation, and negotiation are being presented as being more advantageous than the conventional dispute settlement process via litigation in the courts and tribunals. Litigation as a method of dispute resolution is rigorous, too formal or official and time-wasting. For example, an interlocutory appeal in the case of *Amadi V NNPC* lasted for 13 years before the Supreme Court ordered the case to be sent back to the trial court for hearing on its merit. Litigation is also expensive (in the long run), archaic, and most unsuitable, especially in resolving disputes in modern times.

Furthermore, litigation usually resulted (and still results) in a win-lose situation, even after the matter had been ‘settled’ there is still a scar and infliction of pain left in the mind of the parties involved, and the case may not be different in tax matters. These flaws, among others, have led to the emergence and adoption of alternatives, now referred to as Alternative Dispute Resolution, also known as ADR. However, it will, therefore, not be out of place to examine the concept of negotiation which is a form of ADR processes and which is also consider best that can be adopted in resolving tax controversies as an alternative to criminal litigations.

4.1 Negotiation as a basis for Resolving Minor Infraction of Tax Laws

Negotiation is a form of ADR that mostly involves direct discussions or communication (as it could be oral or in writing) between the concerned parties to resolve their differences or at least understand their different position. This method of dispute resolution does not involve any third party, unlike in mediation. Negotiation has been described as the basis of all consensual ADR activities. This is because it is usually held on a confidential basis and “without prejudice” to any legal recourse to which the parties may have a right. It also enjoys flexibility as parties can generally schedule negotiations on their own, avoiding the adversarial way of resolving their dispute. Parties to investment disputes would generally prefer first to explore negotiation, as their disputes may be resolved at that stage.

Furthermore, negotiation serves as a precursor to other settlement procedures, as the parties at that stage decide amongst themselves how best to settle their differences. It is, however, to be noted that

negotiations sometimes fail, as they depend on a certain level of mutual goodwill, flexibility, and sensitivity. Thus, a party to the dispute may be unyielding and maintain its position through the period of negotiation, and in such a situation, the negotiation is most likely to fail as the parties may not come up with any acceptable negotiable agreement.

Given the above relevance of negotiation, there is likelihood for the applicability of negotiation to resolving controversies arising from minor infractions of tax laws, especially with issues over the assessment of taxable income, filing of a return, and compliance with the notice of assessment. Disputes on assessments are bound to occur, especially in Nigeria, for an apparent reason(s). This is concerning the fact that Nigeria is at its early stage of economic development and the majority of owners of a business in Nigeria are predominantly small enterprises struggling with little or no profit. Furthermore, given the fact that most business enterprise in Nigeria is in a small scale with little or no profit, tax authority are often forced to assessed taxpayers based on a presumption of profit accruable in their business. Therefore, since some tax assessments are based on presumption, the affected taxpayers may express dissatisfaction with the tax authorities and challenge the basis for such assessments. It is in reconciling accounts with the reality of the actual income of the particular enterprise that negotiation may be employed in arriving at the actual tax due amicably, and the tax authorities collect the same without inflicting pain on the taxpayers. That is the ultimate of negotiation, that is, arriving at a win-win situation, considering the ultimate aim of taxation in *Independent Television/Radio v. Edo State Board of Internal Revenue*, Ogunwumiju, JCA noted thus;

The importance of taxation cannot be overemphasized, as it is a significant source of revenue for both Federal and State governments, thus being a financial source of many government projects and a chunk of its budget.

Given the above statement of Ogunwumiju, it simply implies that imposition of taxes is meant for the overall good of the citizenry, there is no direct victim in the event of infractions of the law, given the fact that the government is the receiver of the tax. Imposing punishment like fine and imprisonment may not be appropriate. What would be appropriate in the public interest is negotiation by reconciling accounts and arriving at the figure to be assessed for payment and remittance of the correct tax.

5. Data Presentation and Analysis

The following data below was obtain from respondents residing in the various states of the federal republic of Nigeria via the use of Google form given the social distancing observed in this Covid19 pandemic.

5.1 Sampling Technique and Sample Size

The researchers designed an online questionnaire (using Google form, which suits the purpose of ensuring social distancing due to the Covid19) distributed to respondents via various internet means of communication. 432 respondents were randomly picked from various states of the Federation Republic of Nigeria to provide both predetermined options and free opinions response. However, a simple random technique was used in selecting the respondents as it is considered best for this study, in order to arrive at a general conclusion, given the fact that the sample size focus is targeted at respondent within the various states of the Federation Republic of Nigeria, which is homogenous. According to Prof. (Dr.) G. S. Bajpai *et al.*, in their research work “Law Research Methodology: ‘Sampling Techniques’ stated that the advantage of simple random sampling techniques is:

- It is a hassle-free method of sampling population. It is homogeneous.
- There is no chance of a personal bias of the researcher to influence sampling.

However, to successfully arrive in an unbiased general conclusion, this study used a sample size of 432 respondents from the various states in Nigeria.

5.2 Data Analysis

The following research questions have been formulated for this study and data obtained are analysed as follows;

Research Question One: Does the Nigerian citizen pay tax?

Are you a taxpayer?

424 responses:

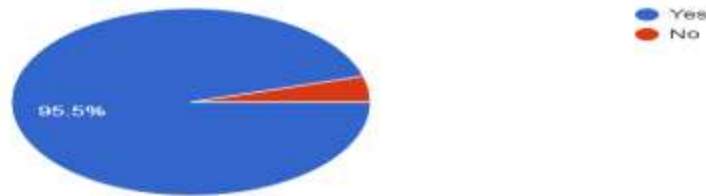


Figure 1: Respondents’ response as a taxpayer

	Responses	Percent
Valid Yes	405	95.5
Valid No	19	4.5
Total	424	100%

Table 1: Valid response of respondents’ responses if they are taxpayers

Figure 1 and Table 1 is a reflection of the respondents’ response on whether they are taxpayer. In ascertaining if they are taxpayer it will enable the researcher to appreciate the fact that the respondent can give an informed response to question required of them to answer.

Research question Two: What are the various taxes (that criminalise minor infraction) often paid by taxpayers?

Which of the following types of taxes have you paid? You can tick more than one

423 responses

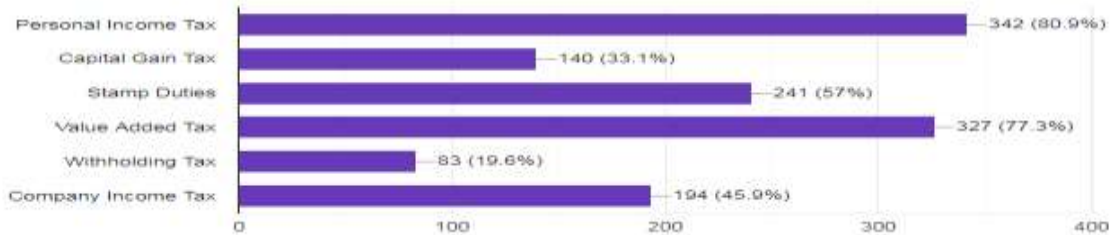


Figure 2: Respondents’ responses to the various types of taxes often paid

S/N	Cluster of Responses	Response	Percentage
1	Personal Income Tax	342	80.9%
2	Capital Gains Tax	140	33.1%
3	Stamp Duties	241	57%
4	Value Added Tax	327	77.3%
5	Withholding Tax	83	19.6%
6	Company Income Tax	194	45.9%

Table 2: Valid cluster of response from respondent stating the various taxes often paid to Nigerian

Figure 2 and Table 2 reflect a cluster of respondents’ responses identifying the various common types of taxes they often paid to the Nigerian government.

Research Question Three: What is the reaction of taxpayers towards criminalizing minor infraction of tax laws?

Do you agree with the provisions of the tax laws that criminalise minor infraction of tax laws and provide for imprisonment as a punishment for such infraction?

431 responses

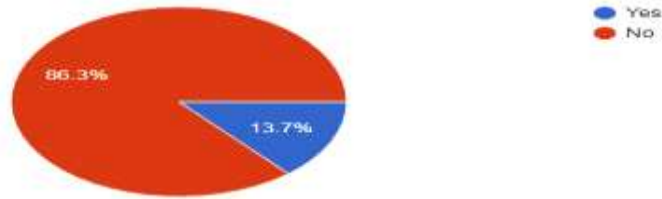


Figure 3: Showing Respondents advocating against criminalising minor infraction of tax laws

	Response	Percent
Valid Yes	59	13.7
Valid No	372	86.3
Total	431	100%

Table 3: Valid response of respondents’ preference of non-criminalising minor infraction of tax laws

Figure 3 and Table 3 is representation of the respondents’ response to research question three (3) stating whether they agreed to the provisions of tax laws that criminalise some minor infraction of tax laws.

Research Question Four: Does the taxpayer prefer that minor infraction of tax laws be resolved via alternative dispute resolution (ADR)?

Do you prefer that tax defaulting dispute should be settled out of court via Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR), rather than instituting a quasi-criminal suit against tax defaulters?

431 responses

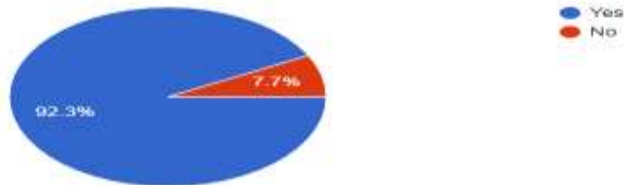


Figure 4: Showing respondents’ preference of ADR in resolving minor infraction of tax law dispute

	Response	Percent
Valid Yes	398	92.3
Valid No	33	7.7
Total	431	100%

Table 4: Valid response of respondents’ preference of ADR as an effective means for resolving minor infraction of tax laws

Figure 4 and Table 4 is a representation of the respondents’ response to question four (4), in stating if alternative dispute resolution is preferable in resolving minor tax infraction.

Research Question Five: Which of the various types of ADR and quasi-criminal proceedings will a taxpayer prefer in resolving tax disputes?

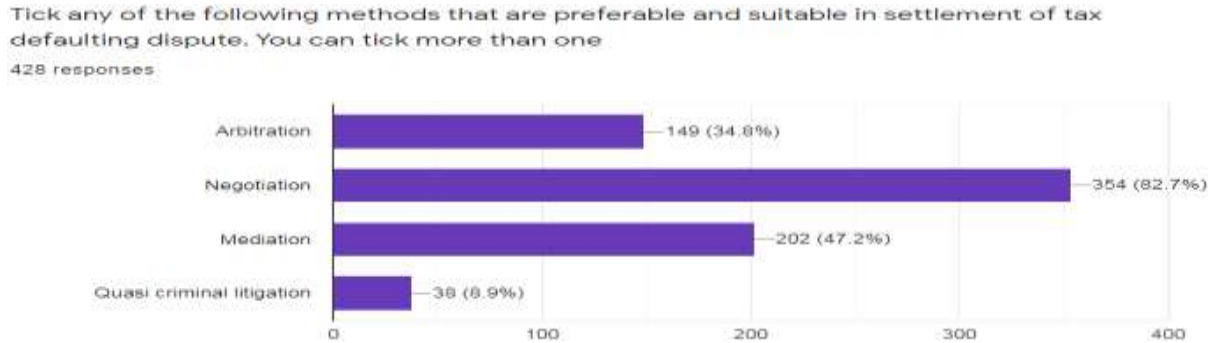


Figure 5: Respondents’ response to the preference of any of ADR method or quasi-criminal litigation in resolving minor infraction of tax law

S/N	Cluster of Response	Response	Percentage
1	Arbitration	149	34.8%
2	Negotiation	354	82.7%
3	Mediation	202	47.2%
4	Quasi-criminal litigation	38	8.9%

Table 5: Valid cluster of respondent stating their preference to any of the ADR method or quasi-criminal proceeding in resolving minor tax infraction

Figure 5 and Table 5 is a representation of respondents’ response to question 5, which requires the respondent to state their preference of any of the types of alternative dispute resolution process to be adopted in resolving minor infraction of tax laws or the usual quasi-criminal litigation.

6. Discussion of Findings

Given the above data presentation, it is evident that the respondents’ response as represented in figure 1 and table 1 shows that 95.5% (405 of the respondents) agreed that they are taxpayers, which is a reflection of the fact that an absolute majority of the respondents that responded to the questionnaire are taxpayers and they had a good understanding of the study being research. Furthermore, it also reflects the fact that they are well informed of the various tax laws that regulate the various taxes imposed by the Nigerian government. However, from data presented in figure 2 and table 2, it shows that majority of the respondents are not just taxpayer but reflect the various types taxes often paid by the respondents and these taxes are often criminalize. Furthermore, figure 2 and table 2 shows most of the respondent are involve in the payment of personal income tax (80.9 % of the respondents), capital gains tax (33.1% of the respondents), stamp duties (57% of the respondents), value-added tax (77% of the respondents) and

companies income tax (45.9% of the respondent). However, as discussed above, most of these taxes criminalize minor infraction and prescribe harsh punishment such as the imprisonment of such infractions. Given this harsh criminal punishment concerning minor infraction of tax law, the research question aims to ascertain if taxpayers prefer criminal sanction for minor tax law infraction.

Given the response of most of the respondents in stating the fact that they are taxpayers and the various types of taxes often paid to the Government. figure 3 and Table 3 which is a representation of the respondents’ response to research question three (3), shows that an absolute majority of 86.3% (431 respondents) prefer that minor tax law infraction such as; failure to file or submit a return, keep proper records of a statement of account, and to comply with a notice of assessment of tax or demand notice, should not be criminalized. This is because such infraction may not be deliberate, there may be a low return of income generated, and taxes are generally paid by taxpayers to the government for the provisions of basic needs and development of the society. In this regard, criminalizing minor infractions of tax laws contradict the sole aim and purpose of payment of taxes, and against Jeremy Bentham, Halt and Kant believe that where the evil of punishment exceeds the evil of the offence, the

punishment will not be profitable and the purpose of punishment is to produce corrections and not to instill pain.

Furthermore, having disregarded the criminalizing of minor infractions of tax laws as represented in figure 3 and table 3. Figure 4 and table 4 is a representation of the respondents' response to question four (4), which requires the respondents to respond in a yes or no if they prefer the resolution of minor infraction of tax laws to be resolve via alternative dispute resolution (ADR). In response, 92.3% (398 of the respondents) of the respondents prefer alternative dispute resolution as the most reliable means that should be adopted in resolving minor infraction of tax laws. This is concerning the fact that the use of alternative dispute resolution (ADR) had been adjudged to have many advantages over litigation. Some of this advantages include; it produces common good than inflicting pain on a tax defaulter, it avail both the Government and tax defaulter to decide amongst themselves how best to settle tax dispute by reaching an amicable settlement, it saves time and cost in resolving tax defaulting dispute when compared to quasi-criminal litigation. Furthermore, it accommodates the particular needs of the Government and the taxpayer in reaching common agreements, and it is usually held on a confidential basis and "without prejudice" to any legal recourse to which the parties may have a right.

However, given the fact that in figure 4 and table 4 shows that majority of the respondents' prefer ADR in resolving minor infractions of tax laws. The respondents were required to respond to question five (5) in stating which of the types of ADR or if it is the usual quasi-criminal litigation process will be preferable in resolving minor infraction of tax laws. Figure 5 and Table 5 which is a representation of the respondents' response to question five (5) shows that from the response of the respondents, 82.7% (354 respondent) representing majority of the respondents prefer "Negotiation" as one of the reliable means or methods that can be employed in resolving minor infraction of tax laws in Nigeria, 47.2% (202 respondents) and 34.8% (149 respondents) also prefer Arbitration and Mediation, respectively. However, a meager percentage of 8.9 (38 respondents) prefer a quasi-criminal method. It is apt to state that the essence of most taxpayer preference of the various ADR method, most especially negotiation, is concerning the fact that most taxpayers are aware of the various advantages of ADR in resolving tax disputes.

Given the above findings it will be apt to state that the criminalization of minor infraction of tax laws is generally not acceptable as a good and viable way of resolving minor tax dispute. This is given the fact that it inflicts more pain.

7. Conclusion and Recommendations

In this study, we have considered the various tax laws that criminalize minor infractions of tax laws vis-à-vis the need to adopt a subtle method (such as alternative dispute resolution) in resolving a minor infraction of tax laws. Furthermore, from the analysis of data gathered, it is very emphatic from the findings that the majority of the respondent would have preferred an amicable method of resolving minor infraction of tax laws such as the assessment of taxable income, filing of a return, and compliance with the notice of assessment, that may not be deliberate. Given the legal backing for taxation in Nigeria and the recognition of certain acts or conducts as offences, and the stipulation of punishments, it becomes a duty for every person (including a company) to comply with the provisions of the law. Despite the criminal nature that the infractions of many of the tax laws have in matters of minor infractions, it has not in any way ensured that there is due compliance with the tax law by the taxpayers. Given this, it is very relevant to state that the civil aspect of prosecuting minor infraction of tax laws by the taxpayer should be sustained, as civil prosecution will admit for negotiation more easily than in the criminal prosecution. In this regard, in allowing a civil method of resolving minor infractions of tax laws, a negotiation, which is an ADR method, can be allowed to resolve minor infraction of tax cases, especially when considered in the overall social and economic interest of the society.

Furthermore, It is also necessary to review the extant tax laws vis-à-vis the provisions on offences and penalties on minor infraction of tax laws and to possibly remove, as much as practicable, the criminal terms like 'conviction,' 'offence,' 'guilty,' 'imprisonment' and the likes to reflect the civil nature that taxation is meant to have in the resolution of minor infractions of tax laws. Finally, while it would be better to adopt a mild way of resolving tax issues through negotiations, retaining the criminal sanctions may still be necessary as a punitive measure for potential tax evaders who deliberately refuse to comply with the law and therefore exhibit some criminal act which grossly condemnable.

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Part Three
Creative Writing



Power in words: An Analysis of the Flaming Devices in President Vladimir Putin’s Speech Before the February, 2022 Attack on Ukraine

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Abstract. The importance language plays in interpersonal and in intergroup relations can never be over-emphasised. Language can be used to make things happen, and also to prevent things from happening. The aim of this study is to demonstrate that how language is used determines the outcomes of its usage in intergroup and interpersonal relations. Hinging on the affordance language has, this study examines flaming devices in ten excerpts purposively chosen from the speech of President Vladimir Putin—the President of Russia in his bid to explain the reason for the decision to wage war in Ukraine. The study adopts the analytical tools of Critical Discourse Analysis espoused in van Dijk (1998). The objectives of the study are: to identify the flaming items in President Putin’s speech; and to point out the potential danger President Putin advertently and inadvertently sends across through the identified flaming devices. The findings reveal that Putin’s used derogatory words, phrases and clause when referring to Ukraine, US, and Nato in his speech; these have flaming tendencies; the reference to Ukraine, US, and Nato at some point in the speech are overt, and covert. The flaming devices have the tendency to infuriate the target(s) of the speech, and elicit negative reactions. The study recommends that since the world has become a global village, discourses of prominent persons should be devoid of devices that have the propensity to infuriate the hearers and stimulate negative feelings and reactions.

Keywords: Flaming words, Us and them, derogatory words, Russia/Ukraine war.

1. Introduction

Language is vital in maintaining cordial relationships between individuals, groups and countries. A tense situation can be doused with the effective and positive use of language. When language is used in a

negative way, the consequences can be dire. The study examines the flaming devices in President Vladimir Putin of Russia, shortly before he waged war on Ukraine in February, 2022. The rift between Russia and Ukraine dates back to 2020 when Ukraine elected Viktor Yakunovych as president. The United States of America and the European Union (EU hereafter) seem not to be comfortable with the election because they saw the new president as too aligned to Russia. Before the election, Ukraine had a free trade deal with the EU, but in 2013, Yakunovych refused to sign the deal, favouring closer ties with Russia. In November 2013, the United States fomented a Colour Revolution which led to a coup in Ukraine in which Yakunovych was overthrown. Leaders in eastern Ukraine declared allegiance to Yakunovych, this led to anti-government protests and a referendum in Crimea where about 97% of persons voted to Return Crimea to Russia. Russia annexed Crimea from Ukraine in March 2014.

The new post-coup Ukrainian government proposed a Bill to remove Russian as an official language, this angered Russian speakers in East Ukraine arguing that ethnic Russians were in imminent danger. Russia in early 2014 started sending support to Russians in the eastern regions of Ukraine (Donetsk, Kharkiv, Zaporizhia, and Odessa) who now demanded independence from Ukraine. In April 2014, the mainly Russian-speaking regions of Donetsk and Luhansk broke away from Ukraine and proclaimed themselves as separate Republics.

Also in early 2014, Russia started performing military exercises on the eastern Ukrainian border just as North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO) was doing the same in Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia, who share borders with Russia. In September 2014, Ukraine and Russia signed ceasefire agreements in Minsk, Belarus, to end hostilities in east Ukraine.

Despite the Minsk agreements, from 2014 to date, continuous battles have been waged between Ukrainian forces and Luhansk and Donetsk separatists over territory in the Donbas region in violation of the agreements. The United States and the EU imposed International sanctions against Russia, this led to the collapse of the Russian currency, and economic damage to EU countries. In 2017, the UN published a report stating that the EU countries were losing about “3.2 billion dollars a month” due to Russia’s sanctions. In March 2021, President Putin ordered the Russian military to mobilise troops near its border with Ukraine and in Crimea. In November, Russia deployed vessels to the Black Sea to “observe” US warships. Putin said the US warships were “a serious challenge”. In November 2021, the Russian Ministry of Defence said “The real goal behind the US activities in the Black Sea region is exploring the theater of operations in case Kyiv attempts to settle the conflict in the southeast by force”. From January, 2022, the US suspected and started announcing that Russia would invade Ukraine, stating that an attack could begin before the conclusion of the 2022 Winter Olympics in Beijing in February.

In January 2022, NATO, and US began providing weapons including anti-armor missiles and other US-made weapons to Ukraine. The Netherlands and Spain also deployed forces to the region in support of NATO. The US in February sent soldiers to Germany and Poland to boost NATO's presence in Europe. Britain also deployed soldiers, warships and jets to eastern Europe. On 21 February, the leaders of the self-proclaimed Donetsk and Luhansk People's Republics, requested Putin to officially recognize the republics' independence. Putin agreed and signed Russia's recognition of the republics and ordered troops to be sent there.

On 22 February, Boris Johnson, the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom announced sanctions on Russian banks and individuals. Germany announced suspending the certification process of the Nord Stream 2 pipeline. EU foreign ministers blacklisted all Russians who voted in favour of the recognition of the breakaway regions. On 24 February 2022, President Putin in a televised speech—the speech analysed in this study announced the beginning of a “special military operation” in the Donbass region. The aim of the current study is to demonstrate that how language is used determines the outcome(s) of its usage in intergroup and interpersonal relations. The specific objectives of the study are: to identify the flaming items in President Putin’s speech; and to point out the potential danger President Putin

advertently and inadvertently sends across through the identified flaming devices. The central argument of this study is that most of human problems arise from the misuse of language and, if language is structured without flaming devices conflicts can be brought to the minimum.

Van Dijk (1997); Schäffner (1997 & 2010); Gee (2014); Ahmed (2017); affirm the importance of (critical) discourse analysis in dissecting language use in social relationships, social practices, power, equity, and abuses. It is in line with their thoughts that this study adopts the analytical procedure of Van Dijk (1998). This is presented in the section that follows.

2. Van Dijk and the “us” and “them” polarization

The analytical process of Critical Discourse Analysis as espoused by van Dijk (1998) is deployed in this study to show how President Putin polarized himself, his Russian people against the USA citizens clearly depicting the us and them polarization explained by (van Dijk, 1998: 267). van Dijk (1998) is suitable for the analysis carried out in this study, for the fact that he clearly captures in his propositions the two extremes of the human psyche (good versus bad). To van Dijk, humans always want to portray themselves in positive light, and portray others in negative light. Van Dijk (2000) in his ideological square formulates four principles to uncover the discursive reproduction of the ideology of “positive us” and “negative them”; explaining how people position themselves and other. The four ideological square which plays out especially in group conflict/competition are: Emphasize the positive things about Us; Emphasize the negative things about them; De-emphasize the negative things about Us; and De-emphasize the positive things about them. These four ideological square play important roles in the broader contextual strategy of positive self-presentation (us, we, our) and other negative presentations (them, they, their). In the positive self-presentation, positive things are said about “us”, no negative thing or attribute is ascribed to “us”; for the other negative presentations, negative things are said about the other, and no positive thing is said about the “other”. In other words, negativity, condemnation and other negative attitudes are used on the other.

Among a range of discursive strategies to fulfil the ideological square, van Dijk (1998: 276) mentioned ‘the distribution of agency, responsibility or blame.’. Discursive strategies are used by actors to pass negative or positive ideas depending on the one that suits them. Van Dijk (1998) method provides a

platform which uncovers the discursive reproduction of the ideology of positive “us” and negative “them”. The “us” mainly emanates from the source of a discourse, it could be from a group to another. The group represents its members as responsible actors, and the other group as irresponsible. Positive representing by “us” highlights “our good aspects” this is consistent with the first aspect of the ideological square, i.e. expressing/emphasizing information that is positive about us (van Dijk, 1998). Cognitive, social factors and consumption are involved with regards to ideological processing. Van Dijk (1995) explains that ideology controls the thinking of groups in the society which in turn show the main characteristics of groups based on their collective views, aims, standards, ideals, and available resources. As Seidel (1985, p. 45) notes, all kinds of discourse are political, because each discourse serves as a site of struggle, whereby there is a “semantic space in which meanings are produced and/or challenged”. In consonance with Seidel (1985), Weiss and Wodak (2003, p. 3) note that the way powerful people use language makes language to gain power. That is what happens in conflict and war situations, among others, as currently in Russia and Ukraine. All these fall within the realm of CDA, and are quite useful in the analysis carried out in this study.

3. Literature Review

Journal articles on Russia/Ukraine war are scarce as at the time of writing this article. What formed the works reviewed in this section are sourced from online press release and digital publications on the war by the mass media. As noted in the methodology, almost all traditional media (the mass media) now have online news platforms and websites. Accordingly, Russia is reported to have launched a punitive attack on Ukraine on 24 February, 2022 (Grajewski, 2022, p.1). The attack is said to be “the biggest military offensive in Europe since World War II” (Grajewski, 2022, p.1).

Avetisova (2015) examined Russia’s and the US behaviours and actions in the Ukraine crisis in order to understand why the conflict resulted in a geopolitical power struggle. Avetisova notes that the debate on the crisis is characterised by bias, subjectivity and propaganda and so for a comprehensive understanding of the involvement of conflict actors in it, qualitative approach is imperative to critically analyse sourced from books and articles. Adopted the qualitative approach, the study identifies diplomacy, economy and military as

the three factors behind Russia’s and US’ behaviours and actions in the Ukraine crisis.

Bebler (2015) examined the roles of three main parties directly involved in the Crimean conflict, and explains historic, demographic, legal, political and military strategic background of the Russian-Ukrainian dispute over Crimea. Ukrainian President Petro Poroshenko and Russian President Vladimir Putin, who both represent Slavic nations, were the two leaders involved in the newest conflict over Crimea. Bebler also explains the link the conflict has with the secessionist attempts in Eastern and Southern Ukraine. It highlights the ensuing deterioration of the West’s relations with the Russian Federation.

In what reflects the tenets of the offensive realism theory, Gromyko (2015, p. 49) noted that ‘in the past, the top of the pyramid of global influence was occupied by great powers. In their ranks, the most powerful were big empires.’ He goes on to inform that with time, they got ‘replaced by two superpowers, the United States (US) and the Soviet Union’ (Gromyko, 2015, p. 49). He explains that what majorly makes the difference between these two great powers and the previous heavyweights ‘consisted in the fact that they wielded unmatched capacity to project their influence almost in any corner of the world, and propensity for such a projection was limited mainly by mutual deterrence’ (Gromyko, 2015, p. 49). From the beginning of the 21st century, Russia has been evolving as an autonomous trans-regional centre of influence with elements of a global power (Gromyko, 2015, p. 49-50). This emergence is one of the root causes of the conflict and war Russia has got involved in. Although Russia is basically a European country, it has a transcontinental mentality and psychology.

Chivvis (2015, p. 36) pointed out that ‘Putin’s actions in Ukraine, especially against the backdrop of the 2008 Russia-Georgia War, have opened a Pandora’s box of problems across Central and Eastern Europe, where the political and economic accomplishments of the post-Cold War era are most endangered.’ Chivvis (2015, p. 39-41) regrets and explains danger that Russia’s attack on Ukraine poses to Baltic States and NATO. The danger is undoubtedly why NATO takes decisive actions and declares sanctions against Russia for its punitive actions against Ukraine, Crimea and other like nations.

Metre et al. (2015) analysed Russia’s war with Georgia, Crimea and Ukraine as well as its other forms of violence against its other neighbours. These

scholars insinuate that Russia is simply using its comparative advantages over its neighbours. New conflict dynamics continuously emerges between Russia and its neighbours. According to Metre et al. (2015), Russia's annexation of Crimea and the military operations in eastern Ukraine have brought to place post-Cold War norms that provided stability and development for the former Soviet that are now sovereign countries bordering Russia. Obviously, since no human activity can be carried out without the use of language, it is quite clear that language had been used in the annexation of Crimea and the military operations in eastern Ukraine by Putin and his allies.

Nitoiu (2016) examined the Ukraine crisis in relation to the co-operation dichotomy in EU-Russia relations over conflict. Nitoiu (2016, p. 1) affirms that Russia is a major contributor to the Ukraine crisis, noting that Ukraine's popular choice and enthusiasm for European integration, expressed clearly on the streets of Kyiv, appears to be what has made Russia to resort to taking up a (neo)revisionist attitude against Ukraine. Like Averre (2009), Nitoiu (2016) believes that relations between Russia and the EU as well as the West as a whole have been frozen and been directed on path towards conflict. Nitoiu's (2016, p. 1) work 'analyses how the traditional dichotomy between conflict and cooperation in EU-Russia relations was replaced by conflict in the context of the Ukraine crisis.' The central argument of the work is that 'the breakdown of the symbolic and peaceful cohabitation between the EU and Russia has been influenced by the fact that both actors have chosen to ignore key tensions that characterised their post-Cold War interactions' (Nitoiu, 2016, p. 1). The work identified three sets of tensions associated with the Ukraine crisis and Russia's invading actions against Ukraine, but fails to look at the role positive use of language can play in dousing tension.

There is mutual suspicion between Russia and Ukraine on one hand and between Russia and the EU on the other (Gromyko, 2015; Haukkala, 2010). The suspicion would have remained ever unknown and unfelt if language has not been used continuously to express fear of domination, marginalisation, distrust, superiority tendencies, cultural and ideological clashes.

On their part, Pikulicka-Wilczewska & Sakwa (2016 p. iv) observe that 'the intense and dangerous turmoil, provoked by the breakdown in Russo-Ukrainian relations, has escalated into a crisis that now afflicts both European and global affairs. Pikulicka-Wilczewska and Sakwa (2016) point out

that their work, investigates and reveals factors behind what has come to be known as 'Ukraine crisis'. Their work does so from the point of view of Russo-Ukrainian relations, upon which the perspectives of the various groups involved, are grasped. They also look at the discursive processes that have contributed to the developments in and interpretations of the conflict.

Grajewski (2022) pointed out that the attack in Ukraine by Russia on 24 February, 2022 is said to be "the biggest military offensive in Europe since World War II" (Grajewski, 2022, p.1). According to Grajewski (2022), the resistance to Moscow's incursion into the territory of its south-western neighbour and attempts to capture Kyiv and major cities thwarted President Putin's reported plans for a quick conquest and installation of a subservient government. Grajewski (2022, p.1) concludes that "Putin has moved Russia's nuclear force on to 'special alert'", sparking fear and renewed condemnation across the world.

Astrov et al. (2022) express uncertainty about Russia's invasion of Ukraine and the kind of sanctions (partial or full) to be imposed on Russia by the EU. Applying a stylised VARX model on Russian quarterly time series, Astrov et al. (2022) found that Russia is extremely vulnerable to a reduction in the price or volume of its energy exports. This option of truly nuclear sanctions likely has negative impact on both Russia and EU. Russia's economy will be greatly affected by the 'cutting Russian banks off from the SWIFT system and dollar markets, and bans on exports of high-tech goods to Russia' (Astrov et al., 2022, p. 1). The current war Russia has engaged Ukraine in will isolate its economy and mar its diplomatic and economic fortunes. According to Astrov et al. (2022, p. 1), Russia's current invasion of Ukraine 'will also likely accelerate EU moves towards energy diversification away from Russia.

The studies above have looked at the Russia/Ukraine hostilities from interesting angles; majorly the power tussle between Russia and Ukraine, the reason behind the hostilities, the danger of the continued hostilities, and the likely consequence of the war. Quite interesting as the studies are, they have left out important variable in their researches—how flaming devices in utterances of prominent personalities can stimulate hostilities.

4. Methodology

The study is descriptive and qualitative in nature. The data analysed were extracts of the speech of Presidents Putin from footage made available on

February 24, 2022 on the official website of the Russian president (kremlin.ru), as he addressed the nation at the Kremlin in Moscow. The speech came on the heels of his decision to recognise the Donetsk People’s Republic and Luhansk People’s Republic on February 21 and the signing of mutual cooperation agreements between Russia and the two breakaway regions. It was reported that in the early hours of Thursday, February 24, 2022, Russian President Vladimir Putin addressed his nation, announcing a “special military operation” against Ukraine. The data are as translated by Al Jazeera staff, released by the Russian presidency. The analytical tools of Critical Discourse Analysis by van Dijk were deployed to the excerpts, to tease out the overt flaming potentials of words, phrases, and clauses in the speech. In all ten excerpts were purposively extracted from the speech; at the analysis section, the extracts are put in bold fonts to distinguish them from the rest of the paper.

5. Data Presentation and Analysis

Excerpt 1: “I am referring to what causes us particular concern and anxiety – those fundamental threats against our country that year after year, step by step, are offensively and unceremoniously created by irresponsible politicians in the West.”

In the last line of this excerpt, the derogatory phrase “... irresponsible politicians...” as used by President Putin is a flaming device and has the tendency to send negative signals to the addressees, and rouse negative reactions. He pitches himself together with his Russians against the West, as he uses the pronoun “I” to refer to himself, “our”, to refer to his fellow Russians, then “irresponsible politicians” which is derogatory to refer to the West. He portrays himself and his fellow Russians as good people, who are being caused anxiety by the actions of the West who he portrays as “irresponsible politicians”.

Excerpt 2: “By the way, American politicians, political scientists and journalists themselves write and say that in recent years, an actual ‘empire of lies’ has been created inside the United States. It’s hard to disagree with that, as it’s true.”

Here, the phrase ‘empire of lies’ contains words with flaming tendencies. Questions arise as to who created the ‘empire of lies’, how, when and who are those that rule the abstract empire. Describing the abstract or purported empire as an actual empire is also questionable. These words accuse various categories

of personalities in the United States of being liars. Meanwhile, Putin makes no real reference to specific American politicians, political scientists and journalists who write and say so in recent years. Putin fails to give reason(s) to support his claim that “American politicians, political scientists and journalists themselves write and say that in recent years, an actual ‘empire of lies’ has been created inside the United States...”. Through his assertion, he, portrays US as bad through the flaming device “empire of lies”. These are flaming words which and can quite infuriate the addressee.

Excerpts 3: “...Therefore, with good reason, we can confidently say that the entire so-called Western bloc, formed by the United States in its own image and likeness, all of it is an ‘empire of lies.”

In this excerpt, Putin further affirms his belief that the “so called Western bloc, formed by the United States in its own image and likeness, all of it is an ‘empire of lies.” Here again, he used the pronoun “we” to refer to himself and his fellow Russians as “truthful people”, while “them” (Western bloc, formed by the United States) are “an empire of lies”. Even though Putin claims to have based his drawn conclusion on reason– logic (...Therefore, with good reason ...), he made hasty generalisation and thus commits fallacy of hasty generalisation. Also, the flaming words (empire of lies) condemn America’s hard-earned image, reputation and power. This total condemnation of a country’s collective image is capable of rousing the reactions of the Americans. Putin says good things about Russia, and bad things about USA.

Excerpt 4: ...In this regard, no one should have any doubts that a direct attack on our country will lead to defeat and horrible consequences for any potential aggressor.”

Putin in this excerpt, expressed confidence in Russia’s comparative advantage over many other nations in terms of military might and possession of weaponry. He chooses words from war lexicon which are flaming words: “attack”, “defeat” and “horrible consequences”. These words can arouse sentiments from the target to want to take measure that will disprove Putin of his claims. His words express his optimism that “horrible consequences” are bound to befall any “potential aggressor” of Russia. His use of “our country” foregrounds his positive position about Russia, while the West especially US is seen as a “potential aggressor”, who will face “horrible consequences”.

Excerpt 5: “They, of course, will crawl into the Crimea, just like in the Donbas, in order to kill, just as the gangs of Ukrainian nationalists, Hitler’s accomplices, killed defenceless people during the Great Patriotic War.”

Putin used the pronoun “they” to implicitly refer to USA, casting the USA in a negative light as the outgroup. The phrases “in order to kill”, points to a siege mission, USA aim of crawling into Crimea and in Donbas is “to kill defenceless people”. By implication, reflecting on this particular phrase beyond its semantic meaning, one realises and can rightly assert that Putin does to not only imply the killing by the leading NATO countries and extreme nationalists and Neo-Nazis in Ukraine, but also that which he and his military forces were to embark on in retaliation for the past killing by “gangs of Ukrainian nationalists”, who Putin considers to be “Hitler’s accomplices”.

The reflection on “the Great Patriotic War” in the last line of the excerpt presupposes the new war that will be like that past war, in which “the gangs of Ukrainian nationalists, Hitler’s accomplices, killed defenceless people.” In contrast, Putin insinuates that this time, the people will be defended. Referring to Ukraine as “Hitler’s accomplices” casts Ukraine in a negative light, as it calls to mind the massacre that took place under Hitler and his accomplices.

Excerpt 6: “The course of events and the incoming information show that Russia’s clash with these forces is inevitable. It is only a matter of time: they are getting ready; they are waiting for the right time. Now they also claim to acquire nuclear weapons. We will not allow this to happen.”

Putin continues his depicting and casting of USA in a negative light as he used and reiterates with the plural pronoun “they” to refer to USA, that they are getting ready ostensibly to attack Russia, he sets up the USA, as the bad by mentioning them first through saying “they are getting ready; they are waiting for the right time”. And in response “We will not allow this to happen”; shows Putin and Russian’s readiness to do all they can to resist the perceived enemy and others; and also sends a message to Ukraine and other targets to get ready for counter attack from Russia. The use of the pronoun “We” includes him and his fellow Russians, as he justifies while they are ready to respond to USA’s attack. The independent clause “Russia’s clash with these forces is inevitable” sends out the message that Russia was certain about clashing with the said forces. As such, Russia is fully ready to clash (war) with the forces (USA). Ukraine unfortunately, is the target for the planned clash.

Putin declares that even though Ukraine’s claim of the possession of nuclear weapon will not deter him. Putin’s flaming words are capable of triggering responses from Zelensky and Biden who are the main target of his speech.

Excerpt 7: We have been left no other option to protect Russia and our people, but for the one that we will be forced to use today. The situation requires us to take decisive and immediate action. The people’s republics of Donbas turned to Russia with a request for help.

Putin in this excerpt sort of seals and justifies the choice of words he had used in previous excerpts to defend himself and Russians, and castigate “the others” the USA, Ukraine and NATO. He justifies that the others have “... left him no other option to protect Russia and our people “but for the one that we will be forced to use today” to send a signal to them (USA, Ukraine and NATO) that he and Russians are ready to stand up to face the enemies. By saying that the situation required them to take decisive and immediate action, Putin rouses the consciousness of his people to be ready for war. He further justifies his pull to go to war because “The people’s republics of Donbas turned to Russia with a request for help”. Putin foregrounds that the empathy for “the people’s republics of Donbas who turned to Russia for help” is part of the reason why they are going for war, partly to defend Donbas who are “helpless”. This statement is capable of making Ukrainians hate Donbas that they remotely ignited Russia’s attack on them. Putin used the pronouns “we” and “us” to show collectiveness of the Russians to take the decision to wage war on Ukraine, indirectly setting up Ukraine as the “them” who need to be dealt with.

Excerpt 8: Its goal is to protect people who have been subjected to abuse and genocide by the regime in Kyiv for eight years. And for this we will pursue the demilitarisation and denazification of Ukraine, as well as bringing to justice those who committed numerous bloody crimes against civilians, including citizens of the Russian Federation.

Putin claimed that the goal of his war against Ukraine was “to protect people who have been subjected to abuse and genocide by the regime in Kyiv for eight years.” From the foregoing speech, it can be inferred that the people is referring to in this excerpt are the people of Donbas. In his effort to convince his military, other allies and Russians in general to see the need for his declared punitive war against

Ukraine. The utterance is flaming, and can incite the Ukrainians to want to stand up to Putin. President Putin justifies his reason and wants everyone concerned to see reason with him for waging war in Ukraine that he wants “to protect people who have been subjected to abuse and genocide by the regime in Kyiv for eight years”.

The independent clause “...we will pursue the demilitarisation and denazification of Ukraine” is flaming and capable of infuriating Ukrainians. By talking about demilitarisation, his Russian military automatically became charged in readiness for the task of demilitarisation of Ukraine, an avenue that would show its strength, gallantry, combat-readiness, capacity, expertise and the extent to which he shows his protection of Russia’s national interests and consolidate his stand as the President of Russia. Through his speech, he roused Ukraine to be ready for war. Putin’s statement of pursuing “the demilitarisation of Ukraine and denazification of Ukraine”. By implication, Putin labels Ukraine a Nazi country that has to be “denazified”, seemingly meaning that Putin and his forces were ready to treat Ukrainians as Nazis. The use of the phrase “denazification of Ukraine” is derogatory.

Excerpt 9: ‘Once again, I emphasise, all responsibility for possible bloodshed will lay on the conscience of the ruling regime in Ukraine.’

The polarisation of “us” and “them” is implicitly stated here by Putin. The implied “them” will be responsible for all possible bloodshed. Putin shifted the responsibility for the bloodshed he and/or his forces will cause in Ukraine to the Ukrainian ruling class.

Excerpt 10: Whoever tries to hinder us, or threaten our country or our people, should know that Russia’s response will be immediate and will lead you to consequences that you have never faced in your history. We are ready for any turn of events. All necessary decisions in this regard have been made. I hope that I will be heard.

Putin used threatening words to warn other nations from intervening or interfering in his punitive war against Ukraine. He boldly cautions “Whoever tries to hinder us, or threaten our country or our people, should know that Russia’s response will be immediate and will lead you to consequences that you have never faced in your history...”. This bold declaration of Russia’s might and power to face any nation by Putin portrays him as arrogant and proud. The declaration has the tendency to provoke other

nations who are overtly or covertly interested in impasse between Russia and Ukraine. Putin further warns that “We are ready for any turn of events”, that is, him and his fellow Russians are up to the task of quelling attacks that may arise from any quarters. He adds that “All necessary decisions in this regard have been made”, meaning that he had conclude arrangements to launch attack on any nation of the world that attempts to help Ukraine.

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

A positive use of language is very crucial in interpersonal relationships, otherwise of it leads to conflict. President Putin’s speech delivered on February 24, 2022, announcing a “special military operation” against Ukraine is full of flaming devices. Through the analysis made, it is clear that Putin’s has used derogatory words, phrases and clause in referring to Ukraine, US, and Nato in his speech. As revealed through the analytical procedures of CDA deployed in this study, Putin used negative and derogatory adjectives to refer to the “them” (Ukraine, US, and NATO). In some points in the speech, the mention of the “them” is obvious, and in some cases, it is implied. The “them” as revealed in the speech is full of evil and negativity.

The world is now a global village where people can be heard immediately when they speak from any part of the world, with this in mind, the study recommends that discourses of prominent persons should be devoid of devices that have the propensity to infuriate the hearers and stimulate negative feelings, and reactions. Views, feelings and thoughts pertaining a situation can be subtly passed across to the target of a speech. Further studies can be carried out on the speech and response of President Zelensky of Ukraine to Putin’s speech.

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Sentential Styles in Students' Writing

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Abstract. This study explored sentential styles undergraduates employ in their writing and their effectiveness in communication. The purpose of this exploration is to ascertain the degree to which they display knowledge of various sentential styles and their effectiveness in achieving clarity, precision and grace. Lawal's (2012) explication of style as choice from variant forms and style as idiosyncratic and constant forms was employed in the analysis. An essay topic written by selected second year students of the University of Education, Winneba formed the data. The result revealed significant difference in the sentential styles used by the students in their writing. The mixed sentence style was dominant, followed by loose sentence style. The next in rank was periodic sentence, while parallel and balanced sentence styles were absent. This clearly suggests that there is monotony in their writing style and monotonous writing is ineffective writing style. The paper concluded by recommending possible solutions to effective and elegant writing for effective communication and enhanced performance in English.

Keywords: Writing, Sentential style, Styles as choice, Effective Communication

1. Introduction

Language is a form of social behaviour that serves as a means through which speakers communicate their feelings, ideas and emotions to one another. However, in order to fully achieve the purpose of the user, appropriate style must be employed in the choice of the structures. The structural styles employed must equally be made consciously for different reasons to serve the desired goals in writing. Therefore, the choice of varieties of style of sentences in one's writing should be able to have these three qualities:

variety through the use of different structures and styles clarity through the use of meaningful

expressions style through the use of appropriate expression. (Yule, 2010)

Writing is a later historical development than spoken language and it is a complex activity that includes some diverse mechanics. Ekpe (2022) notes that producing a coherent, fluent, and extended piece of writing is probably the most difficult thing to do in language regardless whether the language in question is a first, second or foreign. The act of writing is ingrained in every aspect of human life and the ability to write effectively gives one the opportunity to share and influence thoughts, ideas, and opinions. Baiys & Wershoven (2001) opine that "writing is a skill and like any other skills, improves by practice". This suggests that writing is an ability that can only be improved by constant practice. A writer is required to express the content of writing into a good composition by considering the aspects of writing and by varying the sentence style in the writing.

2. Style and Stylistics

Style and stylistics like some other concepts in linguistics have been divergently defined by various scholars, each emphasizing different aspects. Norgaard et al cited in Israel (2018) define style as the way in which language is used in a given context, by a given person, for a given purpose and so on. This implies that style is not restricted to a particular area but can be considered as a feature of a situation, a character, a particular text or linguistic expression investigated over time. Worthy of note is that the subject matter, the audience as well as the purpose of communication largely influenced what is communicated and how it is communicated (Quirk et al, 1972 cited in Okoh et al 2012). This also includes "the choice of linguistic forms which proceed from our attitude to the hearer (or reader), to the subject matter, to the purpose of communication." Furthermore, O'Donnelland Todd (1974) cited in Okoh (2012) posits that:

The style of any given occasion is the product of many separate language choices made in response to a network of contextual factors without however any one-to-one correspondence between elements of the language on the one hand and elements of context on the other.

Very important in the above assertion is the reference to how user's language choices are predicted on a network of contextual factors. Commenting on the interface between language and context, Akmajian et al (2010) maintain that the context of an utterance is an expandable notion which encompasses the linguistic, that is, the context of an utterances in the text, the immediate physical and social environment (the place, time, people, occasion, etc.) as well as the general knowledge of the particular parts in the communicative event. And all these contextual variables influence the interpretation of utterances.

They espouse that the comments people make during conversation often reflect features of the context of utterance in the people, and that people "watch their language" by avoiding certain words or phrases. Besides and more subtly, users' language contains structural devices, regarded as stylistic variants that permit them to merge more easily into the flow of conversation. This connection between language use and context is aptly pointed out in Enkvist's (1973) definition of style as "variations that correlate with contexts and situations". Style is the way in which form is executed or the means in which the context is expressed.

Style is applicable in both spoken and written language. Style in its simplest form is defined as "the perceived distinctive manner of expression in speaking or writing just as there is a perceived manner of doing things..." (Wales, 2001). This shows that different styles apply to different situations and the same activity can give rise to different stylistic variations. In this direction, style can be referred to as variation in language use.

Wales (2001) maintains that style is "distinctive... the set or sum of linguistic features that seem to be characteristics of register, genre or period." This is in reference to the style of the text. It is important to note that every user of language employs the language at his disposal at the time of speaking/writing to achieve his set purpose. Style is associated with the peculiar manner in which the language of the text is expressed in order to achieve a striking effect. Style is thus a distinctive way of saying, writing, or doing things. It could be anything at all as in the style of a dress, an address, a book, a

haircut, a carving/painting etc. Style is a kind of art, both inherent and acquired, and is often associated with the creative imagination. This is why style cannot be regarded as an ornament, a kind of embroidery on a cloth to be employed at will. Rather style is motivated by the speaker's personal choice, belief system as well as socio-cultural factors at every level (Ebeogu, 1998; Carter & Stockwell, 2008 in Norgaard et al 2010).

However, from the linguistic Encyclopaedia, style means a consistent occurrence in the text of certain items and structures, or type of items and structures among those offered by the language, while stylistics is simply regarded as the study and a detailed stylistic analysis of any text at all. According to Freeman (1970), linguistic studies of style are usually approached in one of the following three ways: 1. Style considered as the habitual choices made by an author among available linguistic alternatives, 2. Style viewed as recurring patterns of a text possibly on several level woven together with different degrees of elaboration, relatedness and binding the work into harmonious section in unique and interesting ways. And 3. Style could be seen as the grammar of abnormalities and deviation employed in provocative and creative ways to produce a whole.

On the other hand, differentiating between literary stylistics and linguistic stylistics, Hendricks (1974) in Adeyemi (2014) expresses his preference for the word "stylo-linguistics" which he defines thus: *Stylistics is a form of criticism and literature in its focus. It is therefore imperative that definition of stylistics has to embrace all subjects in its study. i.e. style, linguistics, and literature. Consequently, we may define it as a critical study of the linguistic style and culture artefacts/basis of a literary work of art or any other discourse that uses language.*

From the discussion above, it is quite clear that stylistics as field of study is concerned with the study of style. This suggests that as a discipline, stylistic study is a chief means of identifying the deliberate selection of linguistic forms by users for expressing/achieving specific purposes.

2.1 Sentential Styles in English

Teachers of composition pay considerable attention to questions of how to craft sentences. Despite this, some of them do not teach sentential style much at all and, if they do, they often do so merely to enhance the "clarity" of students' prose (Connors, 2000).

Varying sentential styles does more than that. It enhances the effectiveness of writing. This has implication on effective communication, precision and clarity. It creates elegance and brings about freshness by eliminating all forms of clumsiness.

Sentential styles may be classified as follows:

Loose or cumulative, periodic, mixed, balanced, parallel, active and passive, subordination, figurative of rhetoric and others (McCrimmon et al 1984; Corbett & Connors, 1999; Maxine, 2013; Okeke & Chukwu, 2013).

a. Loose or Cumulative Sentence: It is a sentence that puts its subject and verb early. It is used to achieve immediate impression because the beginning of the sentence has the main information. Therefore, the loose sentence is a common sentence which consists of some variations of subject-predicator structure by retaining the common subject and verb, and by arranging the adjectives in series: E.g.

- i. He came late to school today because he missed the morning bus.
- ii. The internet provides an endless source of entertainment, because of the variety of websites, fun, games, entertaining videos, and Wikipedia.
- iii. Janet received the award despite the fact that she was not the best graduating student.

b. Parallel Sentence: A parallel sentence is the grammatical framing of the words, phrases, sentences, paragraphs to give structural similarity. It brings freshness and some form of elegance to writing: E.g.

- i. With hard-work, with sound education, with proper guidance, we'll surely excel.
- ii. He is a thief, a cheat and a liar.
- iii. Having paid their fees, having paid for their ticket, having paid for their food, it is not surprising that they voted for him.

c. Mixed Sentence: This sentence is one with incompatible elements that begin with one type of sentence and shift to another. The speaker starts off to say one thing and abruptly switches to another: E.g.

- i. Our aim is to finish up this job today but in any case, we have to break for the movie show at the conference room.
- ii. Our main objective in this party is to contest, win and take over governance but in addition to this, we are here to eat, drink and party.
- iii. Your job is to clean the house and wash the dishes but that notwithstanding, you have to join your friends to play.

d. Balanced Sentence: A balanced sentence contains two parts that are structurally the same. It employs parallel structures of approximately the same length and importance and reflects and support logical pattern. The regular rhythm of the matching clauses is always attractive to the reader. Like the parallel sentence, it brings about elegance and grace in writing.

- i. She called and we answered.
- ii. He came, saw and conquered.
- iii. Man proposes and God disposes.

e. Periodic Sentence: This is an opposite of loose sentence because the end part contains the major information. Periodic sentence can only produce complete meaning at the end of the structure. This is because, in it, the subordinate clause comes before the main clause. By so doing, it suspends its meaning until the end, usually with subject and verb wisely separated, and the verb as near the end as possible. Because a periodic sentence can makes complete sense only at the end of the structure, the structures can be clumsy at times: E.g.

- i. On getting home late in the evening, he found that the funeral had already taken place
- ii. Troubled by the stubborn son and unable to bear it any longer, the man ran away from his house.
- iii. As he visited his fiancée and waited outside for the whole day as she was not at home, Emeka decided to break off the engagement.

f. Other Sent types: Other sentence style includes active/passive, subordination, direct/indirect structures, figure of rhetoric sentences: E.g.

- (a) Ama's answers are wrong as usual.
- (b) Party shoes should not be worn to class, of course.
- (c) The students who had been good all year were given a price.
- (d) "The soccer is over", announced the referee.
- (e) She was a peacock.
- (f) She displayed herself as if she were a peacock.
- (g) Oh, what a life!

3. Objectives

The objectives of this study are to:

- identify and examine the sentential styles in the essays of selected 2nd year undergraduates of the University of Education, Winneba (UEW)
- analyze their effects in relation to effective writing
- suggest possible solutions to elegant and effective writing

4. Questions

This study is set to provide answers to the following questions:

- What styles do 2nd year undergraduates of UEW exhibit in their essays?
- How effective are these styles?
- What are the possible solutions to elegance and effective writing?

5. Theoretical Framework

This study is based on Lawal's (2012) explication of style as choice from variant forms and style as idiosyncratic and constant forms. Style as choice from variant form implies that every language has different varieties as a result of variables of location, time and situation and this invariably means that variety of language use is an inevitable fact of life. Style as idiosyncratic and constant forms derives from the sociolinguistic concept of "idiolect" and the influence of science and the computer/internet. This approach emphasizes the objective description of relative frequencies of style features in a piece of discourse.

Lawal (2012) views style from two major approaches:

Choice from Variant Form: The principle of this theory views style as deliberate choice from the variant and competing forms. As an approach, it's predicated on the selection possibilities and constraints which exist within each language with regard to the paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations among linguistic elements. The language user makes certain choices from an array of possible elements and their combination to express a particular attitude, mood and intention relevant to the particular situation.

Deviation from the Norm: This theory relies on the notion that language is both rule-governed behaviour

and accumulation of norms – "accuracy" (grammatical correctness) and "appropriateness" (social acceptability), which are the hallmark of the "standard" variety of any language. This norm "variety refers to a 'variety-less' or 'normal' or 'unmarked' set of grammatical structures, which account for features occurring with similar frequency and distribution in all varieties of the language". Beyond "grammar", there are norms at other levels of linguistic analysis such as: Graphological, phonological, lexico-semantic, morphological, syntactic and discourse rules of language.

6. Methodology

This qualitative study adopted a content analysis of the written composition of second year students of the UEW. The data was drawn from the writing course taught at the Department of English Education titled ENG233 – Advanced Composition and the academic year in was 2021/2022. This course is offered by three departments in the University namely, Department of English Education, Department of French Education and Department of Special Education. In the year in focus, 321 students registered for the course and through the purposive sampling technique, 30 scripts were sampled. Being the lecturer for this course and having taught the course for 6 consecutive years, the researcher decided to examine the sentential styles of the students to ascertain how effective or otherwise this contributes to their low performance in the end-of-year-examinations. The students were taught for 9 weeks out of the 13 weeks in the semester before this exercise. They were asked to write on the topic – Is Ghana ready for a female president? They were asked to write not more than 1000 words. The topic given to the students to write on was a familiar one as similar topics had been discussed in class during the teaching weeks; therefore, if all the variables were constant, the testing instrument was reliable because the test type was a mid-semester examination type for ESL students.

Analysis and Discussion of Findings

Question One: What sentential styles do 2nd year undergraduates of UEW exhibit in their essays?

Table 1: Summary of Sentential Styles in the Student's Essay

S/N	Sentential Type/Style	Total
1.	Number of sentences in the essay	1,058
2.	Complete sentences	873
3.	Fragments	106
4.	Comma Splice	21
5.	Run-together sentences	33
6.	Dangling Modifier	25
7.	Simple sentences	401
8.	Compound sentences	222
9.	Complex sentences	55
10.	Declarative sentences	76
11.	Imperative sentences	4
12.	Interrogative sentences	37
13.	Exclamative sentences	0
14.	Mixed sentences	28
15.	Loose sentences	41
16.	Periodic sentences	3
17.	Parallel sentences	0
18.	Balanced sentence	0

As we can see in the table above, apart from the traditional sentence types – structure and function, the sentential styles were not well exhibited in the essays. This shows their lack of understanding of how communicative effective sentential styles are to writing despite that this has been explained in classroom discussions.

Below are samples of a few sentential styles in the students' essay:

(a) Mixed Style

- i. Although we have concluded our work, we still have a lot more to accomplish; however, if I may ask, how many times did our opponent paid them a visit?
- i. The women folk is not to be troubled by those empty threats, but in any case, let me thank those of you who believe in us.

(b) Loose Style

- i. She gave us a good start, stating the plan, roadmap and the possible solution.
- ii. The president sent a passionate appeal to the members, making a dramatic language, extended metaphor, and pauses for emphasis.

(c) Periodic Style

- i. Pacing round the room and not knowing what next to do, the woman let out a shrill cry.
- ii. Driving through muddy road and unable to avoid the deep pothole in the middle of the road, we had an accident.

Erroneous structures abound in the students' writing. This can be seen from the numerous ill-structured sentences we have – fragments, comma splice, run-together sentences and dangling modifiers. Let's examine them:

(d) Fragments

Fragments are incomplete structures. If one is not careful to have both a subject and a predicate in the sentences and to express a complete thought, one will write sentence fragments instead of complete sentences.

Here are examples from the data:

- i. Who was the outstanding athlete of her class and also the best scholar.
- ii. Although she has been well recommended by her former employer.
- iii. Because women have all it takes to bring a positive change in Ghana.

(e) Comma Splice

Use of a comma between two independent clauses not joined by a coordinating conjunction is a major error called the comma splice (This term comes from the idea of splicing or “patching” together two clauses that should be more strongly separated). For instance:

Comma Splice: I enjoyed his company, I do not know that he enjoyed mine.
 Correction: I enjoyed his company, but I do not know that he enjoyed mine.
I enjoyed his company; I do not know that he enjoyed mine.

I enjoyed his company; however, I do not know that he enjoyed mine.

Examples from the students' essay:

- i. This is the 21st century, women must rise to the occasion.
- ii. She contested the election, she won by a land's slide.

(f) Run-together Sentence

The run-together sentence results from omitting punctuation between the two independent clauses not joined by a conjunction. Basically, the error is the same as that of the comma splice: it shows ignorance of sentence structure:

Twilight had fallen it was dark under the old Iroko tree near the house.

When you read the sentence just given, you have difficulty in getting the meaning at first because the ideas are run together.

There are, however, four reliable devices for correcting the run-together sentence:

Connect two independent clauses by a comma and a coordinating conjunction if the two clauses are logically of equal importance.

Twilight had fallen; and it was dark under the old Iroko tree near the house.

Connect two independent clauses by a semicolon if they are close enough in thought to make one sentence and you want to omit the conjunction.

Twilight had fallen; it was dark under the old Iroko tree near the house.

Write the two independent clauses as separate sentences if you wish to give them separate emphasis.

Twilight had fallen. It was dark under the old Iroko tree near the house.

Subordinate one of the independent clauses:

When twilight had fallen, it was dark under the iroko oak tree near the house.

Examples from the students' essay:

i. It was done at the party level the woman association needs to support the plan.

ii. A woman president is possible in Ghana political parties in the country must see the need to make this happen.

(g) Dangling Modifier

A modifier must always have a word to modify. A modifier is said to dangle when the word or expression it is supposed to modify is not present in the sentence. Such modifiers usually appear as two types of constructions — as verbal phrases and as elliptical clauses. (An elliptical clause is a dependent clause in which the subject and/or verb are omitted).

Examples of dangling modifiers:

1. *To play terms well*, the racket must be held properly.

2. *When only ten years old*, my father took me to London.

3. *Having gone round this morning*, the problem is more serious than I thought

4. *On getting home*, the burial had already taken place.

Sentences containing dangling modifiers can be corrected in one of two ways. One way is leave the modifier as it is and to reword

the main clause, making the subject a word to which the modifier logically refers, e.g.

To play tennis, one must hold the racket properly.

When only ten years old, I was taken to London by my father.

The second way is to expand the modifier into dependent clauses, e.g.

When I got home, the ceremony had already taken place.

Here are examples from students' essays:

i. On getting to the station, the voting had taken place.

ii. Having spoken so eloquently at the rally, the people cheered happily.

Objective Two: How effective are these styles?

In this discussing this, let us examine the component of the linguistic style in the essay. The components can be examined in 3 levels:

Diction

Syntax

Paragraph

Diction

Most words in the essays were simple, formal and denotative. Verbs tenses were simple present/past/present continuous forms. There were concord errors. There were pronouns, determiners, adverbs adjectives, prepositions and conjunctions but many of them were misused.

Syntax

Simple, declarative and mixed sentences dominated the structures. There were many declarative sentences. Many of which would have been regarded as complex sentences were all misused. A lot of sentences were fragmented. Comma slice errors, run-together sentences and dangling modifiers were rampant. Most of the structures were in active voice with SV, SVO, SVC, SVAA, SVOC pattern. Again, they used about 6 – 36 words per sentence. Many sentences were excessively long and incoherent.

Paragraph

Almost all the paragraphs in the essays were faulty. The paragraphs ranged from 5 – 14 lines. Most paragraphs lacked topic sentence and those with a topic sentence were not fully developed.

Out of 30 essays examined, only 7 essays had their thesis statements clearly stated at the introductory paragraphs. Many paragraphs had no linkers.

Question 3: What are the possible solutions to elegance and effective writing?

Every student/writer should bear in mind that effective writing depends heavily on the selection of appropriate words arranged in a particular order. Therefore, the following should be considered:

1. Learning and varying sentence structures in English using SVCOA paradigm is key. Example:

S V
(a) Uche cried.

S V C
(b) Uche became the leader.

S V O
(c) Uche bought the book.

S V A
(d) The children played in the garden.

2. Learning and varying sentence types is equally very important. Eg.

(a) The pupils submitted their homework. **Simple sentence**

(b) Jennet cooked the food and Ngozi washed the dishes. **Compound sentence**

(c) Why he did it is still a mystery. **Complex sentence**

3. Varying the sentential styles as have been listed and discussed above is very crucial in achieving effective communication, elegance and grace.

4. Learning and bring in artistry in writing also facilitate clarity, precision and grace. This can be achieved by consulting the dictionary often, learning new words and their spelling and applying them in ones writing.

5. Learning the writing techniques is also key. This could be achieved by avoiding the choppy style which causes the inability to subordinate and give writing an air of urgency. Again a writer must be conscious of appropriateness in the choice of words because though there are a lot of synonyms in English, for instance, there is no absolute synonymy.

6. Punctuate well. It is important to know that the punctuation marks in English are just like words. They say things the words do only that they say it more economically. The full stops end complete sentences and remarks while commas mark pauses. The first letters of proper names and names of places, rivers, mountains and identifiable landmarks are usually capital letters just as the first letter of the first word of a sentence is usually in a capital letter. Semi-colons are used to connect two closely related sentences which enjoy the status of main clauses.

7. Coherence and cohesion which brings unity in paragraphs must be noted. The length of the sentence/paragraph has nothing to do with its unity. A unified sentence/paragraph must be grammatically complete irrespective of what it says. Again learners should also know that the expression “fine writing” does not mean good writing. Nor does it refer to literary or poetic writing. Rather it has more to do with unity or completeness of thought in sentences.

7. Conclusion

Many students do not understand the various sentential styles available and therefore do not know how to vary these various styles to enhance the effectiveness of their writing. Their attention is largely on the sentences types (structure and function) which makes their essays monotonous and monotonous writing is not effective writing. This equally has a negative implication on effective communication and general performance in their use of English as their writings often times are tasteless, lack elegance and grace.

It is necessary for the L2 users of English to build an active vocabulary, learn the writing process and also be aware of different sentential styles available so that they can see the need to be selective as they express themselves. It is advisable also to pay attention not only to what is said, but to how (style) it is said. Attention to how, will go a long way in helping to eradicate many clumsy structures in their sentence construction.

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The Impact of Business Communication on Organizational Profitability

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Abstract. The Nigerian business environment have been opened to the outside world, hence organizations that cannot convey the message of its products to the consumers may be priced out of markets. The inability of organizations to effectively communicate their products has confirmed to reduce their income level thereby leading to low profitability. This is partly due to their inability to effectively communicate their business to their consumers of their products or services. These are attributable to factors such as a poor and ineffective communication between the producer or suppliers of products and the potential consumer (customer). Primary data were collected using detailed questionnaire and analyzed. With an R^2 of 51.9, it posits that 51.9 percent of profitability level is determined by effective communication. The study revealed that existence of effective business communication in an organization has a positive effect on goal achievement; enhancement of customer patronage and overall business development and this will lead to organizational profitability. The study therefore recommended that businesses should put in place effective communication system that will help in achieving higher rates of returns which will lead to higher profit.

Keywords: Business, Business Communication, Organization, Organizational Profitability.

1. Introduction

Often times, there is a great discrepancy between what we intend to communicate and what we actually say. Another essential problem arises when our messages are not decoded by the listeners as intended. Effective communication occurs only when the intended message of the speaker is clearly understood by the listener. Communication doesn't mean sending or receiving message only, it involve understanding also. Effective communication means how effectively we communicate with others in

simple way. For effective communication the receiver must understand the message in the same sense as intended by the sender. Effective business communication occurs between two or more parties to exchange business related information. With effective communication effective plans can be made. With effective plans business will grow in dynamic environment. With effective communication business not only communicates with its internal parties but it can also communicate with external party as well. Vast majority of national languages have ensured an everyday communication and it does not seem that these function should be taken over by different code.

Organizations are often faced with the problems of getting the right information in the right form to the right person at the right time. Effective communication is seen to be lacking within and outside most organizations which is affecting their sales and profitability level on the long run. Organizations are seen to have poor and ineffective internal communication among various departments, wide communication gap with customers, adoption of wrong channel of communication in reaching their customers and inability on the part of customers to understand some language of communication (Kadiri, 2019).

Communication touches every aspect of human activity. Business communication is any communication used to promote a product, service or organization with the objective of satisfying customers' needs and making profit on the long run. Messages are conveyed through various channels of communication. These may include Press, Electronic media, Internet, point of purchase, direct mail (Mathour, 2015)

Hence any act by which one person gives to or receives from any person or through any communication medium about that person's needs, desire is regarded as communication. Satisfying customers need is the overriding objective in

communication and can only be achieved if there is effective and efficient communication with the organization.

Communication is not only restricted to organizational premises but also to the outside world. For instance, the relationship between the organization and its customers, are perfected through effective communication. This is so because; the output of organizations must be communicated in terms of its quality and price to the consumers. They in turn will decide whether to purchase or otherwise. There is the urgent need to collectively communicate launch of new product modification in products, change in price and educating consumers on proper use of the products.

The objective of this study therefore is to examine the impact of effective business communication on organizational profitability. The research covered some selected retail business outlets in Minna, Niger State, Nigeria that have been in operations for the period of five (5) and above.

2. Review of Literature

Communication is the passing of ideas and information in business. This is done through advertising management. The contact may be between people, organizations, or places. Organizations need to be structured in such a way as to maximize the benefits of communication processes.

Good communication is an important skill in an organization. Employees are most likely to be well motivated and to work hard for organization where there are well organized multi- directional communication flows. (Stephen & Mary, 2013)

In recent years, communication has been tipped as a management function because of its growing importance in large organization and also because of it has been realized that communication is not forced but has to be learnt to enhance the productivity of every organization (Ronald & Jeane, 2007). Advertising which symbolizes communication an aura around products which hires customers to at least look at the product (Mathur, 2013). Communication can be targeted at local area, national or international audiences.

3. Conceptual Framework

3.1 Concept of Business Communication

The concept of communication is derived from the Latin word “communis” which means “common”. Therefore communication only takes place when there is common understanding between the sender and the receiver. Communication can be described as the process of passing information from the sender to the receiver in a manner that the receiver will be able to understand the message in which feedback is sent to the sender. (Heinz & Harold, 2016)

Communication has been widely accepted by scholars as the life hood of an organization because it is needed for exchanging information, exchanging opinions, making plans and proposal, reaching agreements, executing decisions, sending and fulfilling orders and conducting sales. (Heinz & Harold, 2016)

Society, business and technology are all dependent on effective communication. Without effective communication, there is confusion, dissatisfaction and misunderstandings. In order to operate a business properly, one must understand the basics of business communication and its essential role in creating success. Business communication therefore is any form of communication, verbal or nonverbal, that is used to relay a message, promote a product or service or share information (Chandan, 1987).

According to Kotler (2006), communication is the means by which firms attempt to inform, persuade and remind customers directly and indirectly about the products and brand that they sell. Drucker (1995) opined that communication as the process of transmitting ideas and thought from one person to another for the purpose of creating understanding in the thinking of the person receiving the message.

Williams (2018) on the other hand views communication as the process of transmission of the verbal and nonverbal information from the sender to the receiver through a medium. However Olasehinde (2013) was of the opinion that communication is the process of transmitting and exchanging information or messages by talks, gestures or writings.

3.2 Concept of Organizational Profitability

The main objective for the objective of any establishment of any entity is to make profit. The word profit is an absolute number which is obtained by deducting total cost from the total revenue.

Profitability on the other hand is a relative figure. It explains in percentages, the ratio between profit and total revenue (Chary, 2007). Hence, any organization that generates more revenue than its expenditure is said to be profitable. The higher the difference, the more profitable is the organization.

According to Prasanna (2005), profitability is the ability of an enterprise to get sufficient return on the capital and employees used in the business operation. An investment that earns a return to its use is said to be profitable. However, although, profitability is not a proof of efficiency, the latter is merely one of the factors on which profitability of an enterprise largely depends. (Khan and Jain, 2006).

Past studies have shown that the more workers are allowed to be participated in organizational activities through effective communication, the more efforts they exert to achieve organizational excellence.

4. The Purpose and Roles of Communication in an Organization

Communication has been said to be very significant in every human interaction. According to Chandan, (1987), Communication has both internal and external roles;

4.1 Internal Roles of Communication

Internal roles of communication can be examined by looking into the roles that communication plays within an organization. The internal roles of communication may include:

- Communication helps in establishing and disseminating goals. When realistic goals are to be set in an organization, members need to be aware of such goals setting through information dissemination to concerned individuals.
- Communication also plays an important role within an organization most especially by ensuring proper co-ordination of work activities among various levels of workers. Under normal circumstance, managers usually passed essential information to the subordinates and may also receive information from fellow managers or subordinates.
- Communication also simplifies means of performing managerial functions. The management functions of planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating and controlling of human and material

resources are done through effective communication.

- Communication also helps in making the organizational members to easily identify their duties and responsibilities. Communication as a virtual element assists each organizational member to be informed on the expected tasks to be performed and at time.

4.2 External Roles of Communication

Communication is not restricted to the organizational premises alone, but also helps the organization in its relationship with its environment. The external roles of communication may include:

- Communication helps in building good relationship between the organization and its customers. For instance, the organization gets the customer informed when demand will not be met, when price of goods is to be changed, when customers themselves passed essential information to the organization such as placing special requests for goods, information about product quality and goods supplied and so on.
- Communication also plays an immense role in making organization to be able to be aware of strategies and steps taking by the competitors. The organization needs essential information about competitors because every one of them seeks to become market-winner through application of relevant strategies.
- Communication makes business or company to easily adapt to changing circumstances. Many factors are relatively unstable such as political-legal, economic, technological, socio-cultural and demographic in which regular information is needed about them.
- Communication also builds an environment of good relationship between the organization and the supplier (s) of resources. Communication aids business transaction between the organization and suppliers of resources.

5. Theoretical Framework

Communications are concerned with collecting, processing, and disseminating information (Hill McShare, 2012).

Critical Theory: Conflict is a natural state that cannot be totally eradicated. There are tendencies that employees will resist managers attempt to reduce

operational costs. Hence, higher level management should strive to reduce unnecessary friction. This can be achieved through effective communication. (Kelvin, 2016)

Information theory: this theory according to Johnson explains the movement of information without distorting its facts. The basis imbibed in the information is protected against undue interference or manipulations. Also, the theory suggests that there should be feedback mechanism to confirm that information sent out are not altered. (Kelvin, 2016)

Transmission Model of Communication: The theory of communication evolved over the years, but the model of Shannon and Weaver (1949) is one of the first that explains the process of communication. The Shannon-Weaver model of communication has been called the "mother of all models." According to Shannon and Weaver's model, a message begins at an information source, which is relayed through a transmitter, and then sent via a signal towards the receiver. But before it reaches the receiver, the message must go through noise (sources of interference).

Although, all the theories are appropriate for this study, the critical theory due to its contribution on the reduction in operational cost to increase productivity is the most appropriate.

6. Empirical studies

The work of Gamble and Gamble (2005) frontiers the importance of communication as the hearth of management process. The view of the study was that the concern for employees' attitude and satisfaction stimulated their involvement in decision making

through effective communication. Vercueil (2004) in his opinion posits that strategic internal communication system leads to increased employee passion for, commitment to and alignment with the organizations strategic goals. The study conducted by Torrington and Hall (1991) concluded that lack of communication will lead to loss of business, customers, products, goods, employees turnover as well as productivity.

7. Methodology

7.1 Method of Data Collection and Analysis

The primary method of data collection was used. Detailed questionnaire was administered to the correspondents. The questions raised were in two categories, the first section of the questionnaire contains the demographic information about the respondents while the second section is to provide answers to questions earlier raised. A total of ninety-eight (98) copies of questionnaire were sent to the respondents. This represents the population as well as sample size for the study. This is because the population is not too large. Out of these, eighty-one (81) of the targeted respondents correctly filled and returned their questionnaires. This represented a response rate of 83%. The product moment Coefficient Correlation was adopted as the method of data analysis.

$$R = \frac{N\sum xy - (\sum x)(\sum y)}{\sqrt{\{N(\sum x^2) - (\sum x)^2\} \times \{N(\sum y^2) - (\sum y)^2\}}}$$

X = Independent variable

Y = Dependent variable

N = Sample size.

The significant level is 5%

Business Communication and Organizational Profitability

Options	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
SA	60	74.1	74.1	74.1
A	14	17.3	17.3	91.4
I	3	3.7	3.7	95.1
D	2	2.5	2.5	97.5
SD	2	2.5	2.5	100
Total	81	100	100	

Source: Research Survey, (2021)

The above table shows that 60 respondents which represent 74.1% of the total number of respondents strongly agreed that business communication has great impact on profitability. A total of 14 respondents that make up 17.3% of the total number of respondents also agreed. More so, 3 of the respondents are indifferent while 2 respondents making 2.5% of the total disagreed. Lastly, 2 remaining respondents representing 2.5% strongly disagreed. This implies that the majority of the respondents agreed with this position.

8. Data Presentation, Analysis and Discussion of Results

Ho1: Business communication does not have any impact on organizational profitability.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.638 ^a	.519	.507	.073

a. Predictors: (Constant), Effective Business Communication in place

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	22.946	1	22.946	39.768	.000 ^a
	Residual	45.596	79	.577		
	Total	68.542	80			

Source: Research Survey, (2021).

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(constant)	5.186	.536		9.674	.000
	Effective business communication in place	.144	.116	.638	1.238	.03

a. Dependent Variable: impact in achieving organisational profitability

Source: Research Survey, (2021).

The standardized co-efficient (β) of 0.638 indicates that there is a positive relationship between effective communication and the achievement of organizational profitability. R^2 as contained in table shows that 51.9% of variation in the achievement of organizational profitability can be explained by the extent of the effectiveness of business communication.

The global fitness of the model as given by the f-statistics of 37.42 with a p-value of 0.00 shows that the model is well fitted.

The co-efficient (β) is significant at 0.000 and tested at 5% level of significance. The null hypothesis that effective business communication does not have impact on organizational profitability is hereby rejected. The result therefore frontiers that effective business communication has impact on organizational profitability. Hence, we accept the alternative hypothesis.

9. Conclusions and Recommendations

Communication touches every aspect of human endeavour. Organizations that want to continue to exist must be able to communicate effectively both within and outside its organization. An effective communication will create a productive working environment and more customer patronage. The standardized co-efficient (β) of 0.638 as presented in the results shows that there is a positive relationship

between effective communication and the achievement of organizational profitability. More so, with an R^2 of 0.51, this explains that 51.9% of variation in the achievement of organizational profitability can be explained by the extent of the effectiveness of business communication.

However, effective communication is crucial to staying competitive, maximizing profit, keeping employees engaged and happy, and making sure everyone is focused on the right goals and objectives. When communication is done correctly, it means the same thing to both the sender and receiver. Effective communication at work is about knowing your employees and choosing the right message and channel for transmission. It may be necessary to develop a communications plan to outline strategies. The company’s culture is reflected in the nature of office communications, and business can hinge on effective communication. Communication is even more valuable in a business environment as there are several parties involved.

The study concluded that effective business communication is a requirement for continued profitability. More so, business communication plays a major role in influencing customer patronage. The following recommendations were drawn from the study:

- Organization that wants to be profitable must improve their line of communication
- Organizations are expected to keep a functional communication chart to show the flow of information within and outside the organization
- Messages/information to be communicated must be simple and easy for understanding
- Communication must carry the correct message at the right time so as to obtain the expected outcome.

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