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Editorial

This edition of *NIU Journal of Social Sciences* focuses on Development Administration and Educational Psychology.

The first part of the Journal addresses issues in Development Administration such as Fiscal Policy, Economic Repositioning, Social Corporate Responsibility, Rural Development, International Business, Tourism and so on. It is argued in one of the papers that corporate organizations that engage in philanthropic activities such as corporate social responsibility enjoy a sense of satisfaction and/or fulfillment by benefiting other people and developing the host community. As the solutions to the challenges Social Corporate Responsibility, the paper recommends among others that corporate entities should adopt the practice of corporate social responsibility by developing their host communities, employing people, creating jobs and advancing skill development.

Papers in the second section are on Educational Psychology. Using some private universities in Ogun State, Nigeria as case studies, one of the papers in these sections argues theoretically and demonstrates empirically that self-awareness related significantly to task performance of the academic staff of private universities. It is therefore recommended that the management of private universities should train their academic staff to acquire the competencies associated with self-awareness because a thorough understanding of oneself is an important determinant self-efficacy for improving personal performance.

In all, this issue of *NIU Journal of Social Sciences* features many interesting research papers. Some of these papers are empirical in nature while others have theoretical base. Each of them focuses on one specific social and management problem or the other; trying to proffer solutions to them. Readers are therefore advised to make proper use of the ideas presented by the various authors.

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Part One

Development Administration



Prices of Oil, Trend of Inflation, and Macroeconomic Performance in Nigeria Revisted

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Abstract. The study tested the validity of forecasting inflation in the short run through a Phillips curve inflation model or whether it follows a non-linear and asymmetric flow through its effects on changes in prices of oil, inflation and consequently on macroeconomic performance using Nigerian data from 1986 to 2020. Using the Autoregressive Distributive Lag Model (ARDL) approach, our results showed that there is cointegration among the variables and the existence of a relationship in the long run. So also, decomposition significantly affects the rate of interest and prices of oil in the long run. We therefore conclude with available data that prices of oil affect inflation and macroeconomic performance and thus follow an asymmetric non-linear flow. It therefore remains a better alternative in inflation forecasting unlike the Phillips forecasting model.

Keywords: Trends in Inflation, Prices of Oil, Macroeconomic Performance, DARDL, Phillips Model.

1. Background

The consequences of high inflation rates on macroeconomic performance as seen in negative interest rates, devalued currencies, reduced returns on investment, high rate of unemployment and reduced standard of living has led to the pursuit of stability in prices by most central banks. The impact of oil prices fluctuations influence the economies of emerging

countries that are susceptible to the influences of external shocks especially as regards to changes in inflation and economic performance and is a subject of growing concern for macroeconomic and monetary policy modelling.

Stability of price and control of inflation has been a revolving issue for the government and policy makers in most economy. Simultaneously, the government in pursuant of its macroeconomic objectives of sustainable economic growth and stable domestic price level aims at improving the standard of living of their citizen. Conversely, inflation hinders the mechanisms of a market economy through welfare costs which alters efficient allocation of resources and discourages household savings and firms' investment by creating uncertainty about future prices. Hence, inflation reduces a country's international competitiveness and reduces long-term economic growth (Frimpong & Oteng-Abay, 2010; Ezeanyeji & Ugochukwu, 2015).

The government of Nigeria in attempt to stimulate aggregate demand through huge fiscal expenditure and monetary control in post recessionary period was also faced with persistent inflation and unstable domestic price level. Obviously, the Nigerian government have employed different measures-fiscal, monetary, exchange rate to mitigate the problems of inflation, but the measures had little or no success in achieving the expected macroeconomic objectives.

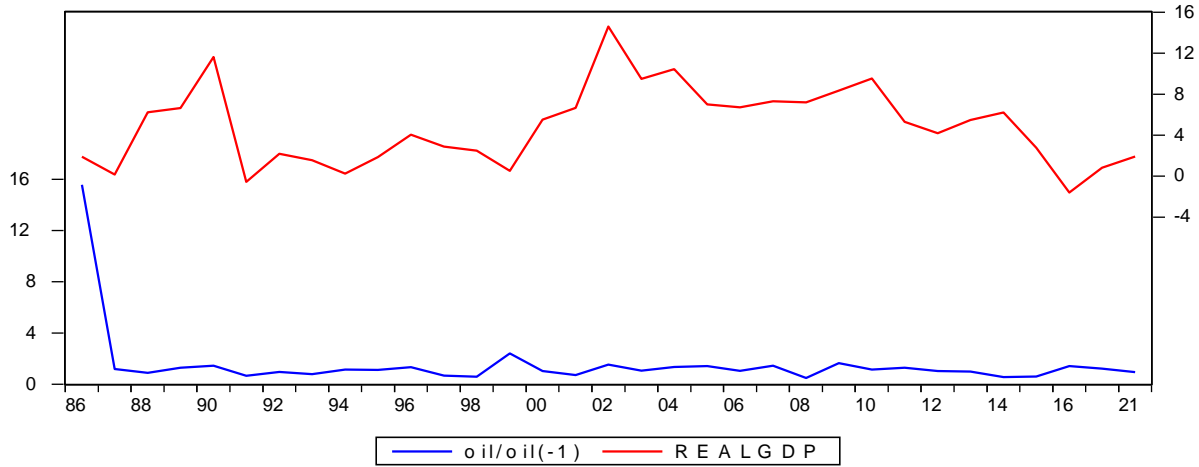


Figure 1: Trends in annual growth rate in oil price and Economic Output, 1986-2021, Authors Computations, 2021).

Theoretically, the pass-through effect used in measuring the percentile changes in inflation as a resultant effect of changes in oil prices has been sufficiently to applied in the literature with evidences showing the weakening of the cost transmission channel argument due to the monothetic nature of most oil producing economies and their inability to withstand unmitigated economic shocks, presence of rigid labour markets, and the low energy intensities of their industries (Arinze, 2011; Bobai, 2012; Valcarcel and Wohar, 2013).

In addition, the extant literature is replete with differing attempts in forecasting inflation especially the demand-side through the mechanism of a Phillips inflation aggregate model or the recently used supply-side ARDL dynamic average selection models (Koop and Korobilis, 2012; Stock and Watson 2007). However, monetary policy responses to rising dynamics in inflation and oil price shocks have led to a mix of macroeconomic policy measures aimed at boosting macroeconomic performance with focus concentrated on managing the exchange rate policies necessary to stem the the deleterious impact of prices of oil fluctuations on inflation and the macroeconomy.

Thus, the study aims to test if forecasting inflation in the demand-side through the Phillips curve inflation models or through the effects of changes in prices of oil on inflation and consequently on macroeconomic performance follows a non-linear and asymmetric flow using Nigerian data (Salisu et al, 2017). The remainder of the paper is structured as follows: section two reviews the theoretical literature on inflation and macroeconomic performance; section three reviews the empirical literature, section four presents the model and research methodology;

section five presents the analysis and results; and section six provides the conclusion.

2. Theoretical Review

There are different school of thoughts on the nexus between inflation and macroeconomic performance from the earliest Classicals to Keynesians, Monetarist, Neo Classicals and Endogenous economists.

The classical theory propounded by Adam Smith (1987) recognized three factors of production such as land, labour, and capital. The production function is expressed as:

$$Y = f(L, K, T) \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

Where Y is output, L is labour, K is capital and T is land. The theory considered saving as the most important factor affecting the growth rate.

Keynesian theory of inflation viewed increase in the aggregate demand to cause demand pull inflation, occasioned by government intervention of the market economy when the total demand for goods and services exceeds the aggregate supply of goods and services in the economy (Olu and Idih, 2015).

The monetarist led by Milton Friedman (1956) opined that money supply determines levels of price in an economy and manages the growth rate of money supply relative to the growth rate of output in the long run. Friedman (1956) believed that inflation occurs when money supply increases at a rapid pace than the rate of growth in output. The Fisherian identity of exchange equation is therefore stated as follows:

$$\frac{MV}{PT} = \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

With M representing money supply; V denoting the velocity of circulation; P representing the price level in the economy; T denoting the level of transactions in the economy and used to measure output and as such is often substituted for Y (national income).

Neo classical theorist were of the view that, inflation raises macroeconomic output growth rate permanently through capital accumulation as households tends to hold less in money balance and more in other asset (Solow,1956; Swan,1956; Mudell, 1963; & Tobin 1965).

However, an opposing view championed by the Stockman Model showed a negative relationship between inflation and macroeconomic output with rising inflation levels resulting in lower steady state level of macroeconomic output and decline in welfare (Stockman, 1981).

3. Empirical Review

The concomitant effect between prices of oil, trends in inflation and macroeconomic performance has attracted both theoretical and empirical arguments in the literature. There is no consensus among the theorist, from the classical, Keynesian, Structuralist, and monetarist. The bipolar divides has been between the role and causality of inflation on macroeconomic performance (Doguwa, 2012; Friedman, 1973; Stockman, 1981). The empirical findings of several studies are also inconclusive, while some studies found positive relationship (Osuala, & Onyeike, 2013); others like Ngouhou and Nkemgha, (2018) found a negative relationship between these two macroeconomic variables.

Empirically, Hussain and Malik (2011) investigated the relationship and determine the direction of causality between inflation and economic growth in Pakistan using annual data from 1960 to 2006 through the error correction model and found that inflation granger causes growth and thus establishing a positive relationship between inflation and economic growth.

Babatunde and Shuaibu (2011) developed a monetary growth model for Nigeria by examining the existence of a long run relationship between money supply, inflation and growth whilst identifying through determinants of portfolio holdings between 1975 and 2008. Their study employed error correction mechanism (ECM) and the bounds testing approach for cointegration tests within an autoregressive

distributed lag (ARDL) framework with results showing a positive relationship between money supply, capital formation and economic growth in Nigeria and a negative relationship between inflation and growth.

Bakare, Kareem and Oyelekan (2015) looked at the impact of inflation on economic growth in Nigeria between 1986 and 2014 using secondary through the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) technique adopted to test the unit root property of the series while Granger causality was used to test the causation between GDP and inflation. Their analysis showed a fluctuating trend in inflation rate and causality suggests that GDP Granger cause inflation and not inflation causing GDP. The results concluded that inflation rate had a negative impact on economic growth of Nigeria.

Chude and Chude (2015) studied the impact of the relationship between inflation and economic growth in Nigeria with Consumer price index (CPI) proxied for inflation and the GDP proxied for economic growth with study covering a period of 2000 to 2009. Ordinary least square method and t-test were employed to test the variables most likely to impact on economic growth in Nigeria due to inflation and discovered the existence of a strong relationship between inflation and economic growth in Nigeria; with the exchange rate having a positive impact on economic growth and that high interest rate discourages investment and hence forestalls economic growth.

Enejoh and Tsauni, (2017) studying the effect of rise in prices on economic growth in Nigeria for the period 1970 to 2016. The unit root properties of the series were tested. The result shows that the variables were I (0) and I (1). Therefore, they employed ARDL approach to co-integration and error correction mechanism (ECM) to test both the short and long run impact of inflation on economic growth. The result showed that inflation and foreign exchange have positive impact on economic growth both in the short and long run.

Riyath, (2018) whilst examining the long run causal relationship between the inflation and economic growth in Sri Lanka over the period from 1960 to 2015 deploying the Johansen co-integration technique and Vector Error Correction Model (VECM) with results confirming a bi-directional causality between the inflation and Economic growth. However, there was no short run causality between inflation and economic growth.

Ngouhouo and Nkemgha (2018) examine a comparative analysis of the effect of inflation on growth between Cameroon, French speaking Central Africa Country where inflation is not a big concern and Ivory Coast. Using the Least Squares methodology, they found that inflation have no effect on economic growth in Cameroon during the study period. However, inflation has negative and significant effect on economic growth in Ivory Coast. Also, the analysis of the causal relationship between inflation and economic growth using the Toda - Yamamoto framework and the Vector Autoregressive model show that there is a unidirectional causality from inflation to economic growth in Ivory Coast, while there is no causality between these variables in Cameroon.

Akinsola and Odhiambo (2017) evaluates the impact of inflation on economic growth in Nigeria, using time series data spanning thirty years (1986-2016) obtained from the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN). The nature of relationship existing between the focused variables- economic growth (proxy by real Gross Domestic Product, GDP) and inflation rate was explored. They used Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) to test for the stationarity of the variables while the granger causality test was employed to ascertain the direction of influence between inflation and economic growth in Nigeria. They found no evidence of causal relationship between inflation and economic growth in Nigeria. Again, there was no leading variable in the relation between inflation and economic growth in Nigeria. They therefore concluded that inflation does not stimulate economic growth and vice versa.

4. Model and Research Methodology

4.1 Model

Adapting Salisu et al (2017) using a variant of asymmetric and symmetric benchmark models to describe the effects of oil prices and inflation and consequently economic output;

$$\lambda \dot{g}t = \alpha + \pi t + yPt + \epsilon t \dots\dots\dots(3)$$

Where $\dot{g}t$: $\dot{g}t = \log (yt/\bar{y}t)$ (4) is the computed growth rate in real GDP and it's a difference between real economic output potential economic output, πt : (CPI = $\log (cpit/cpit - 1)$); denotes the growth rate of the log of consumer price index and $Pt = \log (oilpricet/oilpricet-1)$(5) capturing both the supply and demand side of inflation forecasts.

In addition, following Shin et al, (2014); Van Hoang et al, (2016), the asymmetric variant of our model involve the decomposition of oil prices through the instrument of an Autoregressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) model which becomes:

$$\pi t = \alpha + \delta i\pi t - 1 + \lambda j\dot{g}t - j + yjPt - j + \epsilon t \dots\dots\dots (6)$$

With variables remaining as earlier defined. The decomposition of prices of oil as a variable as seen in Myse (2018) is based on the consideration that macroeconomic agents such as households, firms and government react differently to fluctuations in oil prices and defined theoretically as:

$$Oil_t^+ = \Delta Oil_j^+ = \text{Max} (\Delta Oil_j, 0) \dots\dots\dots (7)$$

$$Oil_t^- = \Delta Oil_j^- = \text{Max} (\Delta Oil_j, 0) \dots\dots\dots (8)$$

With the long run effect of the model estimation only possible with the presence of cointegration of variables involving a Bound-test distribution with null hypothesis of no cointegration amongst variables represented as $H_0 = \alpha_1 = \alpha_s = 0$ against an alternative hypothesis of $H_1 : \alpha_1 \neq \alpha_s \neq 0$ and Wald test to prove the existence of asymmetry in the short run and long run (Olofin & Salisu, 2017; Fasanya, Odudu & Adekoya, 2019).

4. 2. Research Methodology

The paper adopts ex-post facto research design, since the researchers has no direct control over the variables involved. This is because the issues investigated relates to events that have already taken place and for which a causal- comparative evaluation was carried out to analyze the objectives of the study. The paper makes use of secondary data, which are annual time-series. The data covered a period of 34 years, 1986 to 2020. Data was sourced from Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) various statistical bulletins, National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) Annual Reports and International Financial Statistic (IFS) data. The variables that was used in this study were selected on the basis of their theoretical importance, usefulness as a measure of the key construct of the study namely, inflation and economic growth, and findings from their usage in previous empirical literature. The E-views 10 econometric software package was used to analyze the data.

In a bid to analyse the impact of prices of oil on inflation and economic output in Nigeria, we specified the following econometric model. The independent variables are growth rates of consumer price index as a proxy for inflation (Salisu, Isah,

Oyewole, and Akanni, 2017); growth rates of oil prices, interest rate and exchange rate while the dependent variable is economic output. The model is stated as follows:

$$GDP = f[(\log(\text{growth rate of consumer price index, interest rate, exchange rate, } \log(\text{oilprice/oilprice}_{t-1})). \dots \dots \dots (9)$$

5. Presentation of Results

5.1 Descriptive Statistics

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of Variables

Variables	CPI	ER	IR	OILPRICE	REALGDP
Mean	3.85	101.95	7.33	1.54	4.85
Maximum	72.50	306.08	18.80	15.56	14.60
Minimum	0.02	2.02	1.41	0.49	-1.58
Jarque-Bera	1041.32	2.39	4.69	1129.08	1.24

Authors Computations (2021)

The descriptive statistics shows that the average value of exchange rate for our observation period was sufficiently greater than those of other variables and this could be traced to the impact of the different exchange rate regimes and interventions employed in the country in the last decades.

The maximum values of both the growth rate of consumer price index as seen in (Burdekin and Burkett, 1996); and exchange rate were also sufficiently greater than the values of other explanatory variables with their values greater skewed around their means.

Lastly, the test statistics for normal distribution to show if our variables are normally distributed rejects the null hypothesis at 10% level of significance.

5.2 Unit-Root Test Results

Table 2: Unit Root of Log (CPI/CPI (-1)), ER, IR, Log (OilP/OilP (-1)), Real GDP

Variable	Unit-Root without Structural Break						Unit-Root with Structural Break	
	DFGLS			Ng-Perron			Perron (2006)	
	Level	First Diff	I(d)	Level	First Diff	I(d)	Coefficient	t-test
LogCPI/CPI(-1)	-2.64 ^{a*}	-2.65 ^{a*}	I(0)	-8.10 ^{b*}	-17.3 ^{b*}	I(1)	-1.36	-8.58
ER	-2.63 ^{a*}	-3.96 ^{b***}	I(1)	-5.70 ^{a***}	-14.2 ^{b***}	I(1)	0.05	0.05
IR	-2.63 ^{a*}	-3.19 ^{b**}	I(1)	-5.72 ^{a***}	-14.2 ^{b***}	I(0)	-0.06	-0.06
Log(OilP/OilP(-1))	-1.61 ^{a***}	-1.95 ^{a**}	I(0)	-5.72 ^{a***}	-14.2 ^{b***}	I(0)	-1.035	-1.035
RealGdp	-3.19 ^{b**}	-3.77 ^{b*}	I(1)	-13.8 ^{a*}	-17.3b ^{**}	I(1)	-0.47	-0.47

Source: Authors Computations (2021)

Note: ^a indicates model with intercept without deterministic trend; ^b is a model with intercept and deterministic trend with the Schwarz Information Criterion determining the exogenous lags. ***, **, * represents series stationary at 10%, 5% and 1% respectively. DFGLS denote Dickey-Fuller GLS Unit Root test. The null hypothesis for DFGLS and Ng-Perron and Phillip-Perron is that an observable time series is not stationary (i.e. has unit root).

Time series analysis recommends unit-root testing. We used the Dickey-Fuller GLS, Ng-Perron, and Phillip-Peron tests that accommodated for structural breaks. The integration properties of variables vary between I(0) and I(1) thus exhibiting non-stationarity and justify our choice of the Autoregressive Distributive Lag (ARDL) model.

5.3 Robustness and Diagnostics Tests

5.3.1 ARDL Regression Results

Dependent Variable: Real GDP

Variable	Coefficient	Std Error	t-test	Probability
REALGDP(-1)	1.026602	0.328783	3.122428	0.0123
REALGDP(-2)	-0.369730	0.220304	-1.678275	0.1276
REALGDP(-3)	-0.372956S	0.235260	-1.585292	0.1474
LOG(CPI_CPI_1_)	-0.750085	0.704969	-1.063997	0.3150
LOG(CPI_CPI_1_(-1))	2.949316	0.724555	4.070524	0.0028
LOG(CPI_CPI_1_(-2))	1.547640	0.875597	1.767526	0.1109
LOG(CPI_CPI_1_(-3))	-1.189776	0.831684	-1.430564	0.1863
ER	0.083135	0.070777	1.174605	0.2703
ER(-1)	-0.001212	0.101030	-0.011992	0.9907
ER(-2)	-0.303245	0.127013	-2.387506	0.0407
ER(-3)	0.232562	0.075644	3.074442	0.0133
IR	1.050524	0.478803	2.194061	0.0559
IR(-1)	-1.478687	0.534279	-2.767633	0.0218
IR(-2)	1.050794	0.598575	1.755495	0.1131
IR(-3)	-1.384187	0.683580	-2.024909	0.0735
IR(-4)	0.920521	0.617792	1.490017	0.1704
LOG(OIL_OIL_1_)	-0.066454	1.893639	-0.035093	0.9728
LOG(OIL_OIL_1_(-1))	10.88082	3.867568	2.813349	0.0203
LOG(OIL_OIL_1_(-2))	9.276496	3.654288	2.538523	0.0318
C	1.280412	7.338053	0.174489	0.8653
R-squared	0.948945	F-statistic	8.804208	
Adjusted R squared	0.841162	Durbin-Watson stat	2.592458	

Authors Computations (2021)

**5.3.2 Coefficients Diagnostics/Bound Test
ARDL Long Run Form and Bound Test**

Variable	Coefficient	Std Error	t-test	Probability
LOG(CPI_CPI_1_)	3.570942	2.403380	1.485800	0.1715
ER	0.015697	0.053796	0.291780	0.7771
IR	0.221993	0.720161	0.308255	0.7649
LOG(OIL_OIL_1_)	28.05656	11.65653	2.406938	0.0394
C	1.788075	10.05890	0.177760	0.8628
Test Statistic	Value	Significance	I(0)	I(1)
F-statistic	4.704397	10%	2.2	3.09
$EC = REALGDP - (3.5709 * LOG(CPI_CPI_1_)) + 0.0157 * ER + 0.2220 * IR + 28.0566 * LOG(OIL_OIL_1_)$				

Authors Computations (2021)

5.3.3 Wald Test Estimation

Test Statistics	Value	Degree of Freedom	Probability
F-statistic	6.060739	(5, 9)	0.0100
Chi-square	30.30369	5	0.0000
Normalized (=0)	Value	Standard Error	
C(2)	-0.369730	0.220304	

C(3)	-0.372956	0.235260	
C(4)	-0.750085	0.704969	
C(5)	2.949316	0.724555	
C(6)	1.547640	0.875597	

Authors Computations (2021)

5.3.4 Asymmetry Wald Test Estimation

Variables	Wald Statistics		Is there Presence of Asymmetry	
Real GDP	-0.3697* [0.2203]	No evidence of long run relationship	No	No evidence of long run relationship
Log(CPI/CPI(-1))	-0.3795** [0.2353]	No evidence of long run relationship	No	No evidence of long run relationship
ER	-0.7500* [0.7049]	No evidence of long run relationship	No	No evidence of long run relationship
IR	2.9493** [0.7246]	2.9493 [0.7246]	Yes	Yes
Log(OilP/OilP(-1))	1.5476** [0.8756]	1.5476 [0.8756]	Yes	Yes

*, ** indicates significance at 1% and 5%.

Authors Computations (2021)

6. Conclusions

Our calculated F-statistics is sufficiently greater than the critical value bound for both the lower bound I(0) and upper bound I(1) and therefore we conclude that is cointegration among the dependent and explanatory variables in the long run i.e there exist a long run relationship.

Thus, we accept the alternative cointegrating hypothesis that $H_1: \alpha_1 \neq \alpha_2 \neq 0$ and the assumption of asymmetric behaviour of oil prices as it affects inflation and macroeconomic output.

The Error Correction regression helps to capture the long run equilibrium of our estimating model and also depicts the lag in time it takes for the Nigerian economy to adjust to shocks in oil prices in the long run (Swaray & Salisu, 2018).

The Wald test restrictions also helps to ascertain the eligibility of our explanatory variables and the asymmetry in our estimating model both in the short and long run. The asymmetry test result conducted to test the null hypothesis of the non-significance of the impact of decomposed oil prices on our explanatory variables proved insufficient and was rejected as against the alternative hypothesis that decomposition of oil prices economic output which was accepted.

Our results showed that decomposition significantly affects interest rates and oil prices in the long run. We therefore conclude with available data that the effect of oil prices on inflation and macroeconomic output follows an asymmetric non-linear flow and remains a better alternative in inflation forecasting unlike the traditional Phillips curve model.

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Historicising Domestic Terrorism and Boko Haram Insurgency in the North East, Nigeria: Issues and Trends

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Abstract. Since the return to civil rule in 1999, Nigeria has been battling with series of violent agitations from various geo-political zones in the country. These violent agitations which have taken terror dimensions have contributed to national security threat that is capable of disintegrating the country. Terrorists' attacks have resulted in the killings of hundreds of people and wanton destruction of property that worth billions of naira through bombings. The major thrust of this paper is to investigate the challenge of domestic terrorism with major emphasis on the activities of the dreaded militant Islamic sect, popularly known as Boko Haram. The paper argues that most of the circumstances that led to this criminality are not unconnected with frustration caused by high rate of unemployment, poverty, weak governance and so on. It therefore suggests that Nigeria needs to re-evaluate her domestic and foreign policy directions and objectives towards combating domestic terrorism. It asserts that Nigeria's domestic terrorism has external connections aid that the country could also be exporting terrorism to other countries in the nearest future if not checked. Thus, every patriotic Nigerian, civil society organizations, government and non-governmental organizations should brace up to the reality and challenges domestic terrorism has on national security and must be fought through collective collaborations.

Keywords: Terrorism, domestic terrorism, national security, domestic policy, foreign policy, counter-terrorism

1. Introduction

It is a common knowledge that Nigeria since her return to civil rule in 1999 faces some national security challenges across the six geo-political zones in the country. The spate of bomb blasts, kidnapping, pipeline vandalism and other forms of criminalities in recent times in various parts of the country are emerging trends of domestic terrorism. This view was also shared by Minister of Police Affairs, retired Navy Capt. Caleb Olubolade, when he acknowledged that the nation now faced new security threats that were quite different from what we used to know. "I will rather say that we are facing new threats different from what we used to face before." But as these threats confront us, we will find solutions to them; it is now a period to look forward and overcome the challenges that face us."(NAN, 2011)

In fact, the high rate of kidnappings, armed robbery and political assassinations, are added dimensions to the security challenges, which are stretching the nation to its limits, sometimes constitute a great threat to the very fabric of its existence. A number of analysts have variously attributed the disturbing trend to political dissatisfaction, ethnic and religious differences, perceived societal neglect and pervasive poverty among the people. For example, while youth restiveness in the Niger Delta area and parts of the South East, occasioned kidnapping and disruption of oil installations, activities of members of the Odua's People's Congress (OPC) in the South West and that

of Boko Haram saga in the northern states; have also been worrisome since 1999. In considering the activities of various ethnic militias that have emerged in both southern and northern parts of the country, which have resulted in the mass trail of human and physical destructions was mind-boggling and reprehensible to the generality of the populace. The trend of domestic terrorism in the country especially with activities of the dreaded Islamic sect popularly known as Boko Haram has become a major concern for both the Nigerian government and the international community.

Significant stakeholders in the country have offered suggestions on the need to check the new security challenges posed by the dreaded Islamic sect in particular in the country. While some suggested that a holistic approach be adopted, others called for collaboration with world leaders and international organizations as strategies to rid the country of terrorists. Some also suggested the need for dialogue with the sect. It is against this background that this paper tends to investigate the challenges of domestic terrorism in the country since 1999 with major emphasis on the activities of the dreaded Islamic sect, called- Boko Haram. Thus, the paper is divided into five parts. Part one deal with introduction; second part focuses on the history of domestic terrorism in Nigeria since 1999; the emergence of Boko Haram, issues, trends and activities is the third part; the fourth part addresses national security and the management of domestic terrorism in Nigeria: A case study of Boko Haram, while the fifth part is the conclusion.

2. Historicising Domestic Terrorism in Nigeria since 1999

It is important to say from the outset that there is no universally agreed definition of terrorism. However, the activities of terrorists involve bombings, assassinations, hijackings, hostage taking, and other violence, in order to intimidate nations into changing their policies or their leaders or surrendering parts of their territory. Terrorism has existed for at least 2,000 years and is likely to remain a fixture on political agendas, both domestic and international, for years to come. Historically, the first known acts of what we now call terrorism were perpetrated by a radical offshoot of the Zealots, a Jewish sect active in Judea during the 1st century AD. The Zealots resisted the Roman Empire's rule of what is today Israel through a determined campaign primarily involving assassination. Zealot fighters used the sica, a primitive dagger, to attack their enemies in broad daylight, often in crowded market places or on feast

days—essentially wherever there were people to witness the violence. The Jewish zealots used terrorism to resist the Romans by killing many Roman soldiers and destroying Roman property. Between 1090 and 1272 an Islamic movement known as the Assassins used similar tactics in their struggle against the Christian Crusaders who had invaded what is today part of Syria. The Assassins embraced the same notions of self-sacrifice and suicidal martyrdom evident in some Islamic terrorist groups today. They regarded violence as a sacramental or divine act that ensured its perpetrators would ascend to a glorious heaven should they perish during the task (Rapport 1984)

Until the French Revolution (1789-1799), religion provided the main justification for the use of terrorism. This situation changed, however, as nationalism, anarchism, Marxism and other secular political movements emerged during the 1800s to challenge divine rule by monarchs. Modern terrorism was initially antimonarchical, embraced by rebels and constitutionalists during the late stages of the French Revolution and in Russia by the People's Will (Hoffman, 1998).

In the 18th century, the word terrorism was first used in France to describe a new system of government adopted during the French Revolution (1789-1799). During this period, Maximilien Robespierre of France introduced government sponsored terrorism in order to maintain power and suppress opposition to the government. The regime de la terreur (Reign of Terror) was intended to promote democracy and popular rule by ridding the revolution of its enemies and thereby purifying it. However, the oppression and violent excesses of the terror transformed it into a feared instrument of the state (Hoffman, 1998). From that time on, terrorism has had a decidedly negative connotation. Meanwhile, the word, did not gain wider popularity until the early 20th century when it was adopted by a group of Russian revolutionaries during the Soviet Revolution in 1917 to describe their violent struggle against tsarist rule. Thus, Lenin and Stalin, evolved government sponsored terrorism as a useful tool to maintain government control. These two important personalities systematically used the act of terrorism to intimidate and frighten the entire society. According to them, both terror and fear were veritable instruments for governmental operations (Danjibo, 2009)

During the 1920s and 1930s, terrorism became associated more with the repressive practices employed by dictatorial states than with the violence of non-state groups like the anarchists. The word

terrorism was used to describe the wanton violence and intimidation inflicted by the Nazi, fascist, and totalitarian regimes that respectively came to power in Germany, Italy, and the Soviet Union. The repressive means these governments employed against their citizens involved beatings, unlawful detentions, torture, so-called death squads (often consisting of off-duty or plain-clothes security or police officers), and other forms of intimidation. Such practices by governments against their own citizens continue today. Recent history records the use of such measures by the military dictatorships that took power in Argentina, Chile, and Greece during the 1970s. But these state-sanctioned acts of violence are more generally termed terror to distinguish them from violence committed by non-state entities (Encarta, 2009)

The modern terrorism especially right from the late 1960s, 1970s, 1980s and up till the 1990s has taken different trends and dimensions. It is therefore important to briefly examine these trends and dimensions with a view to discussing its situation in Nigeria. Basically, there are about three main trends in modern terrorism. First, it is loosely organised, self-financed and internationalised network of terrorists. Another trend in terrorism is that which is religiously or ideologically-motivated. For instance, radical and fundamentalist group, or groups use religion as platform to pose terrorist threats of varying kinds to many nations' interests (Ojukwu, 2011). A third trend in modern terrorism is the apparent growth of cross-national links among different terrorist organizations which may involve combinations of military training or funding, technology transfer or political advice. In fact, looming over the entire issue of international terrorism is a trend toward proliferation of Weapons of Mass Destruction (WMD). For instance, Republic of Iran, seen as the most active state sponsor of terrorism, has been aggressively seeking a nuclear arms capability. Iraq under Saddam Hussein was thought to be stockpiling nuclear weapons chemical and biological. North Korea recently admitted to having a clandestine program for uranium enrichment. Also, there are unconfirmed indications that the Al Qaeda organization attempted to acquire chemical, biological, and radiological and nuclear weapons before the death of Osama Bin Laden (Bagaji A.S.Y et al, 2011).

Modern terrorism equally has some dimensions. Prominent among the dimensions of terrorism include, state-bound; non-state terrorism and terrorism across national boundaries. The state-bound terrorism deals with the orchestrated and aided by

states. This dimension of terrorism could be in the form of intimidation, selective political assassination, abduction and kidnapping. Examples of this dimension include the ethnic cleansing and genocidal activities the Nazi regime carried out against the Jewish population between 1939 and 1945, and the Stalinist purge of the peasant class of Kulaks in Ukraine that led to the death of millions of civilians carried out by individuals or groups who feel it is no longer worth it to accomplish political objectives within the law, a law which to them represents the power of an immoral and or illegitimate regime or government. These individuals are contemptuous of the society's political institutions and practices (Slann, 1998). A good example of non-state dimension of terrorism was the Maitatsine activities in the 1980s as well as the on-going Boko Haram attack in Nigeria. A number of factors were said to be responsible for the non-state terrorism. These include relative deprivation- asymmetrical allocation or distribution of public resources, poverty, political frustration and religious intolerance or fanaticism (Adeniran, 1996; Ojukwu, 2011). The third dimension of terrorism is across national boundaries. This dimension has external and international connections. A vivid example of this dimension of terrorism is Al Qaeda whose activities are mostly drawn on external factors (Ojukwu, 2011).

Having seen brief history of terrorism and its dimensions and trends over the years, it is essential to give some definitions of terrorism from different perspectives. Terrorism is generally defined as politically motivated violence by clandestine groups or individuals against civilians or noncombatant personnel. The United States Department of State has adopted the definition found in Title 22 of the United States federal code, which defines terrorism as "premeditated, politically motivated violence perpetrated against noncombatant targets by sub national groups or clandestine agents, usually intended to influence an audience."(Encarta,2009). Terrorism is by nature political because it involves the acquisition and use of power for the purpose of forcing others to submit, or agree, to terrorist demands

Legal statutes in most countries around the world regard terrorism as a crime. Yet there is considerable variation in how these laws define terrorism, even in countries whose laws derive from a common origin. In the United Kingdom, for example, legislation titled Terrorist Act 2000 states that terrorism is "the use or threat of action . . . designed to influence the government or to intimidate the public or a section of the public . . . for the purpose of advancing a

political, religious or ideological cause.” The legal system and code of law of the United Kingdom has influenced those of the United States, Canada, and Israel. (Encarta, 2009).

United States federal statute defines terrorism as “violent acts or acts dangerous to human life that . . . appear to be intended (i) to intimidate or coerce a civilian population; (ii) to influence the policy of a government by intimidation or coercion; or (iii) to affect the conduct of a government by assassination or kidnapping.” This definition appears in United States Code, Title 18, Section 2331 (18 USC 2331). (Encarta, 2009).

Canada’s Anti-terrorism Act (Bill C-36) designates “terrorist activity” as “an act or omission . . . that is committed in whole or in part for a political, religious or ideological purpose, objective or cause and in whole or in part with the intention of intimidating the public, or a segment of the public, with regard to its security, including its economic security, or compelling a person, a government or a domestic or an international organization to do or to refrain from doing any act, whether the person, government or organization is inside or outside Canada” Israeli law does not address terrorism specifically. But in the Prevention of Terrorism Ordinance No. 33, it defines a terrorist organization as “a body of persons resorting in its activities to acts of violence calculated to cause death or injury to a person or to threats of such acts of violence.” (Encarta, 2009).

There is no doubt the fact that terrorism or terrorist acts has increasingly become widespread criminal violence in different countries of the world and each of them has its own unique way of perpetrating the act. While some terrorists take to bombing and hijacking of airlines, some make use of device such air missiles. In Nigeria for example, the terrorists settle with hostage taking, abduction, kidnapping and bombings of multinational oil pipelines and churches, wonton destruction of property and so on. Of all these on the part of Nigeria, kidnapping and bombings are the most devastating.

It should be emphasized here that terrorism could be domestic and international. For example, if an Israeli insurgent kidnap and kills an American Ambassador, it is an act of international terrorism. At the same time, if the attack is targeted on Israeli government officials, it is domestic terrorism. Also, if an Israeli bomb an Israeli Embassy in any country outside Israel, it is domestic terrorism. Therefore, the kidnapping of government officials and other Nigerians, bombing of oil companies, pipeline

vandalization by the militants in the Niger Delta region and the recent bombings in the Northern part of Nigeria by Boko Haram is a domestic terrorism.

With the return to civil rule in 1999, Nigeria has been confronted with series of security challenges which cut across virtually all the six geo-political zones. The act of terrorism in the country was mainly carried out by the militant in the Niger Delta area and the Boko Haram in the Northern part. For example, before 1998, the Niger Delta people have adopted series of strategies as a means of getting themselves out of socio-political marginalization, lack of infrastructural facilities, environmental degradation, and lack of corporate social responsibilities. Among these strategies are, petition, litigation, protest, and violence and mass mobilization. The last phase of Niger Delta agitation which began in 1998 to the present was marked with the emergence of terror strategies which included, outright confrontation, violent, pipeline vandalisation, bombing of oil installation, armed resistance against the agents of the Nigerian state and the transnational oil companies operating in the region, kidnapping and hostage taking. (Ogbogbo, 2004).

The adoption of this act of terrorism in the region was necessitated by the emergence of various youth militias. Among the prominent militias in the region are, the Ijaw Youth Council (IYC), the Egbesu Boys, the Niger Delta Peoples Volunteer Force led by Alhaji Asari Dokubo, the Isoko National Youth Movement (INYM), the Movement for the Emancipation of the Niger Delta (MEND) led by Henry Okah, Niger Delta Vigilante (NDV) led by Ateke Tom, Niger Delta Liberation Force (NDLF) among others. The activities of the Youth restiveness in the Niger Delta area against the Nigerian state on one hand and the transnational oil companies operating in the region on the other have constitute a major threat to national security. In fact, before the adoption of Amnesty Programme by the late President, Alhaji Umaru Musa Yar, Adua in 2010, as a positive measure to put an end to domestic terrorism in the region, the region has remained the most dangerous zone to live in the country (Adesote, 2010)

It should be retreated that before the adoption of Amnesty Programme, various successive governments have responded in one way or the other toward finding solutions to the problems of the people of the region. Some of their positive responses include, increase in revenue sharing, establishment of special commissions and agencies such as Oil Mineral Areas Development Commission, Niger

Delta Development Commission and the Ministry of Niger Delta Affairs (also set up by Late Alhaji Musa Yar,Adua). The prolong agitations in the Niger Delta region since 1960 up till 1998 was as a result of the repressive approach being adopted by various successive governments against the people. This same approach was equally adopted when the country return to civil rule in 1999. Thus, the adoption of the act of terrorism in the region especially since 1999 up till 2010 forced the Nigerian state to change her tactics by withdrawing the stick and offering the carrot in form of amnesty. One can therefore conclude that to certain extent, Amnesty Programme remained the most effective approach of the Nigerian state toward ending domestic terrorism in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria (Abimbola & Adesote, 2011)

Another major challenge of domestic terrorism that is currently facing the country which is the major focus of this discourse is the emergence of dreaded Islamic sect popularly called Boko Haram in the North East geo-political zone of Nigeria, which comprises six states of Borno, Yobe, Adamawa, Gombe, Bauchi and Taraba. The activities of the Islamic group, especially since 2009 in the area, have not only constituted a major security threat to the nation but has also made the area the most dangerous place to live in the country. The activities of this sect are capable of disintegrating the country. Thus, the need to find lasting solution to the grievance of this Islamic group is very paramount.

3. The emergence of Boko Haram Terrorism in the North East, Nigeria: Issues, Trends and Activities

It is important to state from the outset that an attempt to forcefully impose religious ideology or belief on the Nigerian society since her independence in 1960 especially in the Northern part is not new. The first major attempt in the post colonial period was led by the leader of the Maitatsine sectarian group in 1980s and eventually led to large scale uprisings. Thus, it can therefore be said that the emergence of this dreaded Islamic sect popularly known as the Boko Haram had its root and inspiration from colonial period as well as from the “Maitatsine” uprisings of the early 1980s in particular. Although Boko Haram could be compared in terms of philosophy or ideology and objectives to the Maitatsine sectarian group, its organizational planning, armed resistance, and modus operandi is Taliban (Danjibo, 2009)

During the colonial era, a revolutionary Mahdism which received little elite support but attracted “radical clerics” disgruntled peasants and fugitive

slaves sought unsuccessfully to overthrow the British colonial regime which controlled the Sokoto Caliphate founded after the jihad of Usman Dan Fodio. With stark resonance to today, northern Muslim elites made a pact with the British colonialists that they would rule indirectly in return for British education not being imposed on the protectorate (Dearn, 2011)

The Maitatsine uprisings of the early 1980s, inspired by Cameroonian dissident preacher Muhammadu Marwa, catalyzed by massive socio-economic inequality and, following on from constitutional debates in 1977 which polarized the country, were the first incidence of Islamic fundamentalist agitation against the secular state. At around the same time, two other Islamic fundamentalist groups emerged, Jama’atu Izalatil Bidi’a Wa’iqamatic Sunna (“Society of Removal of Innovation and Reestablishment of the Sunna”), founded 1978 in Jos and known as “Izala”, and the Islamic Movement of Nigeria, a Shiite movement led by Sheikh Ibrahim El-Zakzaky, funded by Iran and in which Yusuf was thought to be a “major player” - exactly how and when Yusuf was involved and how this related to his links with Sheikh Jafar is unclear (Dearn, 2011)

Though some people have argued that both groups have been associated with Boko Haram’s modern incarnation, there is no substantial evidence to justify this. In 2009, the Islamic Movement of Nigeria rebutted claims that El-Zakzaky was the founder of Boko Haram, arguing it could never be so against Western education when it owns 300 schools in Nigeria which teach a mixture of Islamic and Western education. Izala threatened legal action against publishers of pictures of its members labelled as Boko Haram foot soldiers. What is clear is that the combination of constitutional debates in the 1970s, military rule under successive despots – including the jailing of El-Zakzaky by Sani Abacha’s regime entrenched poverty in the areas where such groups are active and have been grist to the fundamentalists’ mill (Dearn, 2011)

The time that this Islamic militant group emerged in the country is yet unknown. There were series of conflicting reports on their emergence in the northern part of the country. Information at the disposal of the different security agencies pieced together by Sunday Tribune of 12th February, 2012 indicated that contrary to the widely-held belief that the Boko Haram started around 2003, the group has been existing since 1995. It was, however, confirmed that the entry of slain Mallam Mohammed Yusuf successfully radicalized the group and opened it to

foreign collaboration, especially with the Al-Qaeda in Islamic Maghreb (AQIM). Details obtained by investigators revealed that the Jama'atul Ahlus Sunnah Lidda'awati Wal Jihad (Brethren united in the pursuit of holy war), also known as Boko Haram, started off its activism in 2001, under the leadership of the late Yusuf. From that year, the group had intensified its propagation of an extreme Islamic doctrine, which sees Western education and democracy as corruptive and immoral (Sunday Tribune, 2012).

In 1995, the group was said to be operating under the name Shabaab, Muslim Youth Organization. It operated from the Indimi Mosque, located along Damboa Road, Maiduguri, Borno State and had one Mallam Lawal as leader and another Mallam Usman as secretary. It was learnt that in 1999, Lawal left Nigeria for further studies at the University of Medina, Saudi Arabia, thereby yielding the leadership of the group to the man known as Mustapha Modu Jon, commonly called Mohammed Yusuf. Yusuf's leadership was said to have opened the group to political influences and increased popularity. Although Yusuf's religious activism was linked to Kano, where he had brushes with popular Islamic clerics, he was said to have laid the foundation for the growth of the organisation. Details about the late Yusuf, however, indicated that, first, he was a favourite student of prominent Nigerian Islamic scholar Sheikh Jafar Mahmud Adam and hailed from Gingir village in Jakusko Local Government Area of Yobe State. He was born on 29 January 1970, married four wives and had 12 children. By year 2000, Yusuf had won the respect and confidence of some clerics and youths at Indimi Mosque. He started presiding over some mosque activities and along the line; he upstaged all the teachers to emerge a leader. Many youths who followed him saw the older clerics as secular and anti-Sharia. According to the report, majority of his followers were largely illiterate youths who engaged in petty trading or had dropped out of school (Danjibo, 2009)

As time went on, Yusuf then established his own mosque in an area called Railway Quarters in Maiduguri, while also extending his preaching to the mosques located at Kandahar, Unguwar Doki (near Monday Market) and Millionaire's Quarters. Investigators were also told that by early 2004, the Islamic sect had grown in states of presence with Borno, Yobe and Bauchi being notable and that some of the converted youths abandoned their studies to join the group. The ready-made army of followers were, however, said to be the Almajiri. It was after

2004 that the sect leaders were said to have established links with the Algerian Salafist Group, now known as Al-Qaeda in Islamic Magreb, (AQIM), which gave them training on combat and use of Improvised Explosive Devices (IEDs). From trainings acquired in AQIM, it was gathered that members of Boko Haram were able to show dexterity in handling of weapons and manufacture of what is called "dirty bombs" through IEDs (Danjibo, 2009, Nigerian Tribune 30, January, 2012)

It was reported that many Islamists were not satisfied by the adoption of Sharia law in 12 northern states between 1999 and 2001. They believed that its introduction has been watered down. It was also perceived by these Islamic fundamentalists that an imported system of government based on "Western values" has resulted in ostensible corruption, poverty, unemployment and the continued suppression of "true" Islam in northern part of the country (Danjibo, 2009). Therefore, the best approach to understand the ideology and philosophy of the movement is by explaining the two key words- Boko and Haram. In Hausa language, the word boko is an equivocal term which means either book, Western or foreign; while the word haram is an Arabic derivative meaning forbidden, ungodly, or sinful (Danjibo, 2009. 7; Adesoji, 2010.100). If the words are literally pieced together book haram means book is sinful. But it's deeper meaning is that, forbid everything Western and Western education- Western education is sinful, sacrilegious or ungodly and should therefore be forbidden (Danjibo, 2009; Adesoji, 2010). What can be drawn make from the above is that, the movement is not only characteristically opposed, but outrightly rejects Western education, Western culture and modern science. Alternatively, it embraces and advocates the propagation of and strict adherence to Islam by all and sundry regardless of anyone's personal wishes. In line with this objective, the movement seeks to impose Sharia across all Nigerian states (Bumah, 2009).

The former leader Mohammed Yusuf said education "spoils the belief in one God". The sect – full name Jama'atu Ahlis Sunna Lidda'awati wal-Jihad ("People Committed to the Propagation of the Prophet's Teachings and Jihad") – seeks to create an Islamic state governed by Sharia law in Nigeria by, seemingly, whatever means it has at its disposal and at whatever human cost it deems necessary (Bumah, 2009). The intent of the movement is aimed at replacing modern state formation with the traditional Islamic state, because Western values run contrary to Islamic values. Umma Mahammadiya-Muslim faithful and Dar-ul-Islam- Islamic community cannot

be compromised in the face of Western influence in the Nigerian secular society. Therefore, the moral decadence and evil in the society is as a result of the embrace of Western civilization, and thus, in order to curb such evil, an Islamic society must be entrenched by destroying modern political institutions and infrastructures. The philosophy goes hand in hand with the entrenchment of the Shari'a law in the society. The embedded philosophy of the Boko Haram movement can be inferred to explain the reason why police and armed forces formations, government establishments and properties are the target of destruction by the movement. In addition, it is also an ideological belief of the movement that, any member who fight and die- either by suicide bombing in the process of establishing a Sharia state by destroying modern state formation and government establishment would automatically go to Aljanna- paradise or heaven (Danjibo, 2009). One could then understand the reason why the movement has large and committed followers among the Almajiris- Qur'an trainees who depend on their Mallam- teacher for knowledge, inspiration and their daily survival.

The ideology and philosophy of Boko Haram movement was aptly captured by Tell Magazine thus: The mission of the sect was to establish an Islamic state where:

orthodox Islam is practised. Orthodox Islam according to him (Yusuf Mohammed, leader of the sect) frowns at Western education and working in the civil service because it is sinful. Hence, for their aim to be achieved, all institutions represented by government including security agencies like police, military and other uniformed personnel should be crushed (Tell, 10th August, 2009, p. 34).

Another major issue about this Islamic sect has to do with the strategy being employed in carrying out its activities which have taken series of dimensions since its emergence. This development has made a number of scholars and stakeholders in the country as well as international community to conclude that the sect has different kinds of support from known terrorist nations of the world. First, the modus operandi of the Boko Haram movement, which has been

fashioned after the Taliban in Afghanistan, has made some to conclude that the sect must have sent its members to Afghanistan, Lebanon, Pakistan, Iraq, Mauritania and Algeria for training. Other argued it could be that the Boko Haram modelled itself after the Taliban simply to acknowledge its source of inspiration. Some equally said that it was meant to attract sympathy and support from the Taliban or related groups. Another view was that, it could also be that the links actually exist. For instance, the Operation Sawdust that was carried out in 2005 by the military and the police and which covered North-East geo-political zones of Borno, Bauchi and Yobe, led to the arrest of some Islamic fundamentalists whose activities posed a threat to the security of the Nigerian state. Among those arrested was Yusuf Mohammed, the leader of the Boko Haram movement. These arrests provided the first clues about the links between Boko Haram and the Al-Qaeda terrorist group as those arrested along with Yusuf Mohammed revealed they had been trained in the act of terrorism in Afghanistan, Lebanon, Pakistan and Iraq. Items recovered during the operation included maps and diagrams of government establishments and of some directions to specific government buildings in Abuja (Tell, 17th August, 2009, p. 69; Danjibo, 2009, p.15).

Recent reports in the Nigerian and foreign press about the activities of such groups as the Salafist Group for Preaching and Combat (SGPC) in Algeria, Tablighi clerics from Pakistan, and Wahabist missionaries from Saudi Arabia in Northern Nigeria, as well as the report of the training of some fundamentalists in Al-Qaeda camps in some foreign countries, offer proof of Boko Haram's links with fundamentalist groups around the world are to certain extent true (Adesoji, 2010).

It is abundantly clear from the available evidence that the sect is against anything that has to do with western values in the country in general and northern part in particular. This could be seen in a large number of attacks being unleashed on the Nigerian State with a view to achieving their objectives. It is pertinent to have a glimpse of the attacks.

Major Incidents of Boko Haram Attacks since 2009-2012

Date	Casualties
July 26, 2009	Boko Haram launches mass uprising with attack on a police station in Bauchi, starting a five-day uprising that spread to Maiduguri and elsewhere.
September 7, 2010	Boko Haram attacked a prison in Bauchi, killed about five guards and freed over 700 inmates, including former sect members.
October 11, 2010	Bombing/gun attack on a police station in Maiduguri destroys the station and injures three by the group
December 24, 2010	The group carried out a bomb attack in Jos killing 8 people.
December 28, 2010	Boko Haram claims responsibility for the Christmas Eve bombing in Jos that killed 38 people

December 31, 2011	The group attack a Mammy market at Army Mogadishu Barracks, Abuja, 11 people died
April 1, 2011	The group attacked a police station in Bauchi
April 9, 2011	The group attacked a polling center in Maiduguri and bombed it
April 20, 2011	A bomb in Maiduguri kills a policeman.
April 22, 2011	The group attacked a prison in Yola and freed 14 prisoners
April 24, 2011	Four bombs explode in Maiduguri, killing at least three.
May 29, 2011	Bombings of an army barracks in Bauchi city and Maiduguri and led to death of 15 people
May 31, 2011	Gunmen assassinate Abba Anas Ibn Umar Garbai, brother of the Shehu of Borno, in Maiduguri.
June 1, 2011	The group killed Shehu of Borno's brother, Abba El-kanemi
June 7, 2011	A team of gunmen launch parallel attacks with guns and bombs on a church and police stations in Maiduguri, killing 5 people.
June 16, 2011	Bombing of police headquarters in Abuja, claimed by Boko Haram. Casualty reports vary.
June 26, 2011	Gunmen shoot and bomb a bar in Maiduguri killing about 25 people
August 16, 2011	The Bombing of United Nations Office in Abuja, killing over 34 people by the group
December 25, 2011	Bombing of St. Theresa's Catholic Church, Madalla, killing over 46 people
January 6, 2012	The Sect attacked some southerners in Mubi killing about 13 Igbo
January 21, 2012	Multiple bomb blast rocked Kano city , claiming over 185 people
January 29, 2012	Bombing of Kano Police Station at Naibawa Area of Yakatabo
February 8, 2012	Bomb blast rocked Army Headquarters in Kaduna
February 15, 2012	Koton Karife Prison, Kogi State was attacked by the sect and about 119 prisoners were released and a warder was killed.
February 19, 2012	Bomb blast rocked Suleja Niger State near Christ Embassy Church, leaving 5 people seriously injured
February 26, 2012	Bombing of Church of Christ in Nigeria, Jos leading to the death of about 2 worshippers & about 38 people sustained serious injuries.
March 8 2012	An Italian, Franco Lamolinara and a Briton, Christopher McManus, who were Expatriate Staff of Stabilim Visioni Construction Firm were abducted in 2011 by a splinter group of Boko Haram and were later killed.
March 11, 2012	Bombing of St. Finbarr's Catholic Church, Rayfield, Jos resulting in the killing of 11 people and several others wounded.
April 26 2012	Bombing of three media houses (Thisday Newspaper in Abuja killing 3 & 2 security officers & injured 13 people; Thisday, the Sun & the Moments newspapers in Kaduna killing 3 persons & injured many others
April, 29, 2012	Attack on Bayero University, Kano, killing 13 Christian Worshippers, a senior non-academic staff & two Professors
April 30, 2012	Bomb explosion in Jalingo, claiming 11 persons and several others wounded.

Sources: Punch 17, June, 2011, Punch 27, February, 2012, Punch 23, February, 2012, Guardian 20, February, 2012, Guardian 12, March, 2012, Nigerian Tribune 30, January, 2012

The above foregoing analysis of the activities/attacks of the dreaded Islamic sect, Boko Haram has revealed that not less than 1,200 persons, including the civilians, security personnel have been killed since its emergence up to February, 2012 (Punch 16, February, 2012, p2). Also significant in the analysis is that, the activities of sect over the years have taken different trends and dimensions. The sect has graduated from cruel drive by attacks on beer parlous to bombing of security buildings, public buildings and Christian institutions.

4. National Security and the Management of Boko Haram Terrorism in the North East

The maintenance of law and order in Nigeria in recent times has been very challenging such that the ability and capacity to manage our National Security by the Security Agencies is being doubted by the citizenry. Primarily, the Federal Government is charged with the responsibility of using the military, police and other security agencies to protect every citizen from all forms of security threats and incidents like armed robbery, kidnapping, civil disorder, large scale violence, insurgency, killing, bombing and other forms of security breaches.

However, the opposite appears to be the case, judging from the spate of unfortunate series of violent attacks, killings and bombings being carried out by the so-called Boko Haram since 2009. The negative impact of this ugly situation on the country generally cannot be estimated on the economy as well as human lives and property. In fact, the state of affairs of the country over the activities of the dreaded Islamic sect is now a big source of worry to all lovers of the country, especially, the Security Agents who are receiving all sorts of odium from the top Government brass and the citizens. It is therefore pertinent to ask this question, what went wrong?

The finding of a study by some private security experts has identified militancy mismanagement as part of the causes of the prevailing insecurity in Nigeria. From the position of Cesare Lambroso on causes of crimes, it is evident that certain crimes are committed as a means of protesting against the state or establishment rather than being biological (Cited in Dearn, 2011). Simply put, only below ten percent of the society population will naturally have the passion and pride to commit any type of crime. The same is applicable to Nigerians, after all it is said that we are the happiest in the world. The issue here is

that our brothers and sisters who have taken to domestic terrorism, in the Niger Delta region through the formation of various youth militias and that of Boko Haram in the northern part of the country are saying that since nobody wants to listen and engage them, perhaps, violent as a means of expressing their grievances may be the best option. Of course, this has proved to be a truism because once these groups carried out their attacks, the Government will be calling for a dialogue. Research has also revealed that in Nigeria, the militant incidents have been targeted mainly at Governments and her Institutions and Officials, although, with innocent Nigerians and sometimes, Foreigners as casualties. To a large extent the remote causes of the violent crimes is inherent in failure of good governance by the political elites and their collaborators since the return to civil in 1999.

For example, before the government could response to the agitations of the people of the Niger Delta, through Amnesty Programme, over the years the people have suffered from neglect, political marginalization, environmental degradation as a result of oil spillage and oil exploration without adequate compensation by the Nigerian State and the Transnational Oil Companies operating in the region through the provision healthcare, schools, infrastructures and other corporate social responsibilities (Adesote, 2010). The same case is applicable to Jama'atu ahlus sunnah led da'awati popularly known as Boko Haram. According to its founder, Muhammed Yusuf, in an interview, "the law enforcement agents are fighting me because of my faith in Islam and belief that Western education is a sin". Recently, the Group demanded the trial of the former Borno State Governor, Alhaji Buhu Sherif and institutionalization of Sharia in the 12 core States of Northern Nigeria, prosecute those who killed their leader, among others. As can be deduced, the Group is making some demands which they believe that is real and achievable (Dearn, 2011)

Despite the fact that most of their demands are certainly not achievable, they deserve attention. The Boko Harm may have a point here because as they claimed purest Islamic Group, they are disenchanted the way their political leaders whom they had respect for now practice Islam. Contrary to Islamic injunctions, their political leaders, we can agree with them, have resorted to barbaric acquisition of wealth, indecent personal life styles which are offensive to Islamic culture, their political and economic subjugation and social alienation of them. Since they could not have access to the perceived "Islamic dissidents" to lay their complaints, domestic terrorism becomes their only means of venting their anger to

the Governments and the helpless Nigerians (Dearn, 2011)

Since domestic terrorism is now the major security challenge facing Nigeria, then, how best can we abate it? According to Dr Ade Abolurin, the former Commandant-General, National Security and Civil Defence Corps (NSCDC), security was everybody's business; hence no citizens must be apathetic to matters related to enhanced security in the country (NAN,2012). As a way out, the country, especially the Government at all levels must embrace Democratic Policing instead of Militarized Policing of the Nigerian Polity. In practicing Democratic Policing, all the civil courtesies are accorded to the Citizens. By this we mean that our Leaders must sufficiently interact and dialogue with them irrespective of their perceived jaundiced reasoning and behaviours so that their bottled up angst will never result to violent complaints in the name of killing, bombings, among other heinous crimes committed against the State and the innocent citizens (Dearn, 2011).

The Government and Security Agents should understand that Preventive Security Management is now in vogue worldwide and as such efficient and effective Security Management is no longer measured with the quantum of Armed Personal Carriers, APC, hilux pick up vans with siren, assault rifle, canisters, and so on that are deployed in major streets. For example, the former Inspector General of Police (Mr. Hafiz Ringim) after receiving costly security equipments from the Borno State Government declared that the days of Boko Haram were numbered, and in fact within few days they struck to totally demystify him and his men by taking the war to his office, thereby justifying the above assertion (Nigerian Tribune, 12 January,2011). This is to say that Governments and the Security Agencies should deploy more financial and human capital resources to the management of security intelligence and surveillance. After all, these criminal elements are living among us. In other words, no matter their operational modalities, some members of their community know who they are, what they are doing and how they operate; which simply means that with proper security public enlightenment programmes and projects, they can be easily fished out and dealt with according to law before they can cause security breaches.

An important institution that has crucial role to play in resolving conflicts that usually result to militancy attacks is the National Orientation Agency (NOA). Based on the demands of the Islamic sect, of which

some of them may not be feasible, we think that, the first, assistance they need is re-orientation. Perhaps based on the earlier indoctrination they had received; they need to be engaged by NOA and be re-oriented and re-integrated into the Nigerian Agenda which is based on Unity in Diversity. They should be made to understand that they do not have any other country than Nigeria and as such, they stand to gain more in a united, virile, and strong Nigeria than disintegration. They can simply be reached and engaged via their community and enlightened religious leaders since they appear to have lost confidence and trust in their political leaders, who in their opinion have desecrated Islam.

The Federal Government, on the other hand, should be more determined and proactive in facing the current challenges through revisiting her domestic and foreign policies. First, suspected Nigerians who were said to be sponsors of this dreaded Islamic sect in this present security quagmire should be tried according to the law. A situation where suspects and intelligence reports suspect some people and they are not questioned and/or tried, simply because they are highly placed does not augur well for the nation. Certain facts are obvious if we must solve these security issues totally! For example, we must determine who recruits, brainwashes, feeds, trains, harbour, arm and protect these young lads who unleash these mayhems. Not until these real enemies of the country are fished out, prosecuted and punished, if found guilty, most of the efforts of the Government would be nothing but smokescreens and hogwash (personal analysis).

The need to fight domestic terrorism in Nigeria generally calls for re-evaluation of her foreign policy most especially on national security. The government must establish cordial relations with developed countries such as the U.S, U.K, Australia, Germany, and the United Nations in wiping out terrorism through different programmes and approaches. For instance, in February 14, 2003, National Strategy for Combating Terrorism in the U.S emphasized the role of international cooperation, law enforcement and economic development in countering terrorism. [<http://www.whitehouse.gov/news/releases/2003/02/20030214-7>. For example, Australian government have developed programme towards fighting terrorism in their country. Some of these programmes centered on the need to fight against poverty through promoting conducive environments to growth and effective delivery of services , addressing problem of weak governance and the establishment of a programme which focuses on building counter-terrorism capacity such as border control and regional co-operation (www.ausaid.gov.au/publications).

Other country in the crusade against terrorism is the United States of America. With the attack of September 11, 2001 which led to the bombing of World Trade Centre and Pentagon in Washington D C by Al-Qaeda led by Osama Bin Laden, the American President, Mr George Bush took frantic effort to tackle terrorism by declaring onslaught against terrorism and terrorists (Nigerian Tribune, Monday 12 March, 2012, pp 1-2)

Our leaders, especially, the political elites should have a total re-think in terms of delivery of dividend of democracy to the electorate and comporting themselves while holding public office. As pointed out earlier in this paper, the failure of western democratic system was said to be one major reason for this ugly situation. The region where this dreaded Islamic sect originated from has the highest poverty rate, and thus the poorest region in the country. According to Dr. Yemi Kale, Statistician General of the Federation said at a Press Conference in Abuja that North West and North East geo-political zones recorded the highest poverty rate in Nigeria with 77.7% and 76.3% respectively (Nigerian Tribune, Tuesday 14th February, 2012, pp1-2). A situation where Nigerian politicians only associated with barbaric acquisition of wealth and property through public corruption and to the chagrin of the impoverished Nigerians is now part of the violent reaction by the people. Undoubtedly, this flagrant and wanton display of this ill-gotten wealth relatively induces some weak-minded citizens to take to criminality and violence as means of survival in a society that does not have any plan for them. As a result, at any slightest provocation, people resort to violent crimes as an alternative means of complaint. Besides, one could equally be tempted to engage in act of criminality as alternative means to survive. Thus, it is high time our leaders lived up to their constitutional responsibilities to the citizenry. The Anti-graft agencies are expected to be proactive rather than remain as toothless bulldogs.

Another important strategy of combating domestic terrorism in the country is for the government to reevaluate her domestic policies. First, for the purpose of promoting national security in the country, the adoption of holistic approach which includes both preventive measures and long-term measures towards addressing conditions conducive for the spread of domestic terrorism be pursued vigorously. In fact, it is expected that these two elements should form a key compromise among the parliamentarians in the National Assembly by adopting the strategy through consensus. It could reiterate that conditions conducive for the spread of domestic terrorism

include: “poverty, prolonged unresolved conflicts, lack of rule of law and violations of human rights, ethnic, national and religious discrimination, political exclusion, socio-economic marginalization and lack of good governance. Therefore, effective implementation of this strategy would result in “commitment to the realization of the Millennium Development Goals and the determination to pursue and reinforce development and social inclusion agenda at every level , especially on youth unemployment, and as well could reduce marginalization and the subsequent sense of victimization that propels extremism and the recruitment of terrorists (United Nations General Assembly, *United Nations General Assembly Resolution 60/288*, A/RES/60/288, New York, 8 September 2006, Pillar I).

More so, the need for partnership between governments, civil society and civil society organization (CSO) towards shorter-term preventive counterterrorism in the country is paramount. For example, interaction between governments and CSOs on the issue of small arms and light weapons can help to check its proliferation in the country. Similar efforts can also flourish between government and non-governmental experts seeking to address the threat of illicit transfers of biological, chemical, and nuclear materials to potential terrorists in the country if government re-evaluates its domestic policies. In other developed countries where the CSOs have been integrated into counter-terrorism, they are now making conscious and significant contributions on measures to prevent terrorism in the implementation and monitoring of security sector reform activities, which are linked to a state’s ability to carry out effective law enforcement and other security-related counterterrorism measures. Some CSOs, especially research organizations, also foster closer, cooperative initiatives involving states and other stakeholders to improve and raise awareness of threats and encourage collective action to address vulnerabilities (<http://www.sgpproject.org>).

The UK Department for International Development, for example, has noted that:

Improving civic awareness of security issues is a starting point for improving relations between the security forces and the public, creating a national consensus on a reform programme, and building political coalitions to sustain the process. Civil society can also play more specific roles by facilitating dialogue, monitoring the activities of the security forces, and expressing views on security policy as well as providing policy advice. This may be particularly useful where state capacity is weak:

the role of legislatures or other government departments in analysing security issues, for instance, can be greatly enhanced by assistance from specialist external campaigning groups or think tanks providing research and analytical support (<http://www.dfid.gov.uk/Pubs/files/supportingsecurity.pdf>)

Professional associations, Non-Governmental Organization (NGO), are critical sources of technical expertise and can act as independent contractors and carry out underground implementation of much counterterrorism-related capacity building. They are seen by many people as independent and reliable partners in the promotion of national security. The capacity-building effort and the capacity-building assistance channeled through them offer many advantages over government-to-government assistance. A Professional association such as the Nigerian Bar association is crucial to strengthening the rule of law in the country. For example, in America, the American Bar Association conducts relevant rule of law programs worldwide on, among other things, anti-corruption, criminal law reform, human rights and conflict mitigation, and legal education reform. The International Legal Assistance Consortium (ILAC), an umbrella organization for associations of legal and human rights experts with experience in rebuilding justice systems, for example, works to conduct assessments of the legal and judicial systems in wartorn countries and to implement programs to help rebuild those systems. ILAC has recently carried out counterterrorism (specific training) on behalf of the government of Sweden (Eric, Alistair, and Jason, 2008). This is a challenge to the Nigerian Bar Association.

Development of good partnership between the NGO and the CSO towards fighting terrorism in the country is crucial. They both help to increase public awareness and understanding of human rights issues in the context of waging an effective campaign against terrorism, including by undertaking research and action at the local and national levels. By promoting the rule of law, engaging the media, sharing best practices, and disseminating other information, they help to bring attention to human rights abuses and encourage governments to improve their own adherence to human rights norms. As acknowledged in the “Club de Madrid Series on Democracy and Terrorism,” “human rights organizations have continued to monitor the situation in most countries, and the information at their disposal has formed a valuable database for analyzing the long term repercussions of momentarily devaluing respect for human rights in favour of short-

term security .Civil society actors on their own can articulate how respect for human rights and the rule of law is an essential part of any effective strategy to address the complex terrorist threat and its different forms and manifestations. (Asma Jahangir and Fateh Azzam, 2005)

On a final note, government can equally curtail the menace of the militants generally by engaging non-serving security experts, especially, retired military, police and paramilitary officers who live in all the communities of the country, mostly in the areas of security intelligence and surveillance. These ex-officers who have various security expertise and experience arising from their previous trainings and exposures while in service are in better positions to educate and re-orientate members of their communities on the negative impact of militancy on our collective existence and national development.

5. Conclusion

The foregoing discussion has clearly revealed the challenges of domestic terrorism and the national security in the country. It is equally obvious that domestic terrorism in the country especially since the return to civil rule in 1999 has constituted a serious threat to national interest, peace and national security and as well led to internal population displacement, violation of fundamental human rights among others. Therefore, having known a number of factors responsible for this ugly situation among which include, failure of good governance, issue of neglect, poverty, high rate of unemployment especially among the youth, and so on, what is expected is that the government in particular should brace up to its constitutional responsibilities by addressing the problem through critical appraisal of the suggestions advocated for in this paper.

It is interesting to note that if the government is not proactive towards addressing the challenge of domestic terrorism, most importantly with the trends and dimensions with which the dreaded Islamic sect popularly known as Boko Haram is carrying out its nefarious activities in the country, it is likely the country experience another civil war which may invariably lead to disintegration. In addition, the business of security is everybody's responsibility. Thus, every responsive and patriotic Nigerian who believes that he/she has no other country except Nigeria should co-operate with the Nigerian State in finding lasting solution to this ugly situation. For instance, in America, the issue of security is seen as a concern to every patriotic American. For example, if a crime is being committed in America and a passer-by sees it and refuses to report the incident to the law

enforcement agents, and may be later on, it was discovered that there was a passer-by that the camera caught seeing that crime being committed and never reported the case, that passer-by is as guilty as the person who committed the crime. This shows that everybody has a role to play in the promotion of national security.

The need for adequate collaboration and partnership between the governments, Non-governmental organizations as well as the civil society organization as advocated in this paper is also critical in the crusade towards addressing the challenge of domestic terrorism in the country. The re-evaluation of the country's domestic and foreign policies is also advocated as means of combating the menace of domestic terrorism in the country.

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Empirical Analysis of the Effect of Corporate Social Responsibility on Host Community Development among Selected Manufacturing Firms in Southwest Nigeria

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Abstract. For enterprises to be socially accountable to their host communities and stakeholders there is a self-regulatory paradigm known as corporate social responsibility (CSR). The study examined the effect of corporate social responsibility on the development of host community of selected manufacturing firms in South West, Nigeria. The study employed a descriptive research design and the data for the study were collected through the administration of a well-structured questionnaire. The population of the study consisted of 515 employees of International Brewery Plc Ilesa of which 183 were senior and management staff; Nigeria Brewery plc Ibadan with a total population of 490, of which 165 were senior and management staff and Guinness Nigeria Plc with a total population of 580, of which 210 were senior and management staff. Stratified sampling technique was used to arrive at the sample size for the study. The Taro Yamane (1973) formula was use to arrive at a sample size of 304. A total of 304 copies of the questionnaire were administered on the respondents, out of which 255 were retrieved and analysed. Regression and Correlation Analyses were employed in analyzing the data collected. Findings of the study revealed a positive relationship between corporate social responsibility and development of host community. Furthermore, the R^2 value = (0.237), implied that philanthropic activities have statistical significant effect on the development of host communities in South West, Nigeria and a statistically significant correlation existed between economic activities and development of host community at 95% confident limit and sig 0.000. The study concluded that corporate organizations that engage in philanthropic activities such as corporate social responsibility enjoy a sense of satisfaction and/or fulfillment by benefiting other people and

developing the host community. The study recommended that corporate entities should adopt the practice of corporate social responsibility by developing their host communities, employing people, creating jobs and advancing skill development.

Keywords: Corporate Social Responsibility, Development, Host Community, Philanthropic, Economic.

1. Introduction

People or groups of people build different communities when they have similar attitudes and interests. A community can be thought of as a set of individuals working together towards the same purpose and resolving interdependent issues in order to meet needs and realize objectives. In addition to supporting attempts to bring about social change, the community offers a sense of interdependence, belonging, direction, and association (Bettez, 2013). Every town should ideally work to improve its residents' overall wellbeing by providing them with healthcare, training, education, and other services. The community's development is facilitated by such tactics. Efforts made by a community with outside organisations' assistance are referred to as community development initiatives. These initiatives strive to empower individuals and groups by offering them the knowledge and tools required to effect positive changes in their own neighborhood (Maimunah, 2009).

The main goal of a business organisation in the society is to act responsibly toward stakeholders as well as to generate profit (Harrison, & Freeman 1995

as cited in Ahmad, Hajah & Muhammad 2020). Businesses located in a community can support initiatives as well as activities that would see to the well-being of the community being one of its stakeholders (Nwoba & Michael, 2016). Organisations must make conscious, deliberate efforts to support host community development. These efforts are made through corporate social responsibility (CSR). All community stakeholders must be willing and prepared to collaborate in order to build the community. Businesses must be prepared to contribute to the welfare of society because they do not operate in a vacuum.

The idea of CSR as an academic concept was first developed in the 1950s, but it only really got attraction in the 1970s and 1980s as a result of heightened public exposure and attention on the image of organisations. This led to an increase in the statistic of elements used to operate, estimate, communicate, and reinforce corporate social responsibility. The ranges of activities that make up CSR initiatives is broad and up for discussion, but most definitions contain the three fundamental pillars of social improvement, community development, and economic growth.

Adapting private and public sector practices to address social values, such as eliminating excess packaging, valuing human resources, such as personal development training and occupational health & safety programs and improving environmental performance through recycling and pollution abatement, such as emission reductions, are all components of CSR. Supporting community activities is another element, which may include promoting a local sporting club, event or competition. CSR focuses on the overall approach taken by a corporation to strike a balance between its responsibility to key stakeholders and its external environment (Ebert & Griffin, 2017).

CSR is thought to be distinct from philanthropy. When successfully implemented, it has a positive impact on how a firm conducts business and becomes ingrained in the principles and culture of the organisation. CSR becomes embedded in an organization's vision and brand thereby influencing its marketing and promotion strategies. Corporate organisations actively engage in CSR activities assess their general performance to include facing cultural and social challenges, with the aim of improving their goodwill and broadening their reach. In addition to boosting sales and profits, CSR models encourage global advancement and change, which constantly involves rendering assistance to those with limited or

no resources. If the company is currently carrying out its plan, the CSR model is advantageous to it. Contrarily, making ambiguous assertions that providing help to those in need can bring about social change could result in public censure.

A company's brand and financial health are at stake if it ignores corporate social responsibility. Having a poor reputation in the social and environmental spheres can have a significant negative impact on a company's overall profitability and success. This is because consumers today prefer to buy goods and services from businesses that share their values and adhere to moral business practices. Companies that choose to disregard this trend do so at their peril.

Despite all the advantages that stakeholders can derive from CRS, there are a few flaws that might cause organisations to hesitate in acting in the host community's best interests; spending a large portion of revenue on the host community has thus become a terrible idea because businesses are constantly under pressure from various stakeholders. For example, employees are under constant pressure to recognise certain employee rights at work, consumers want businesses to set fair prices and produce safe products, the community and the environment expect businesses to not endanger the safety of the host community (Harrison, & Freeman, 2001). It is unavoidable for firms to turn to CSR due to the numerous stakeholder pressures. As a result, the society has high expectations and the poor corporate attitudes have led to hostility, a lack of peace and harmony between the host communities and organisation. Generally speaking, corporate organisations are motivated by a desire to increase profits at the expense of the local population.

Furthermore, some corporate organisations are unaware of the value of CSR activities in fostering the growth of host communities. As a result, they are unable to determine what can be done to foster community growth, refuse to devote significant resources to CSR initiatives and see CSR as a waste of resources. Additionally, philanthropic, economic and legal activity in host communities has not been used to gauge CSR.

Moreover, there is barely any indication of corporate social responsibility in most neighborhoods; unemployment seems to be very high and there is little to no growth of human capital in terms of education and finances, in addition to poor roads and a lack of basic utilities. This has had a significant impact on host communities and has impeded their development.

Meanwhile, some researchers had expressed concern about the CSR's effectiveness or lack thereof. For instance, Carlsson and Akerstom (2008), Odetayo, Adeyemi, & Sajuyigbe (2014), Ojo (2010), Uwaloma and Egbide (2012), Adeboye and Oslawale (2012), and Adeyanju (2012) have examined various aspects of the relationship between CSR and host community development. However, little has been done to examine the effects of CSR activities using philanthropic, economic, and legal activities as variables on host community development in South West, Nigeria. It is against this backdrop that this study examined the effect of corporate social responsibility on host community development in selected manufacturing firms in South West, Nigeria.

1.1 Research Questions

The following questions were formulated for the study:

- To what extent do philanthropic activities influence the development of host communities among manufacturing firms in Southwest, Nigeria?
- What are the relationship between economic activities and host community development of manufacturing firms in Southwest, Nigeria?

1.2 Objectives of the Study

The broad objective of the study was to examine the effect of corporate social responsibility on host community development among manufacturing firms in Southwest, Nigeria. The specific objectives were to:

- investigate the influence of philanthropic activities on development of host communities among manufacturing firms in Southwest, Nigeria.;
- determine the relationship between economic activities and host community development among manufacturing firms in Southwest, Nigeria.

1.3 Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were generated for the study:

H₀₁: There is no significant effect of philanthropic activities on the development of host communities among manufacturing firms in Southwest, Nigeria.

H₀₂: Economic activities have no significant effect on host community development among manufacturing firms in Southwest, Nigeria.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Concept of Corporate Social Responsibility

Corporate social responsibility, also known as corporate responsibility, corporate citizenship, or responsible business, refers to an organisation's independent decisions, strategies, and initiatives that seem to enhance societal well-being beyond its immediate financial interests and legal responsibilities (Alafi & Al Sufy, 2012). According to the idea of CSR, businesses have obligations beyond those to treat investors fairly and abide by the law, including moral, ethical, and charitable duties (Ijaiya, 2014). CSR highlights an organisation's capacity to operate and engage in philanthropic work beyond what is required by law, ethics, and morality. The topic of corporate social responsibility (CSR) in business is not new. According to Steiner and Steiner (2006), CSR dates back to the philanthropic efforts of affluent businessmen John D. Rockefeller and Andrew Carnegie, who donated huge amounts to charitable organisations. According to the literature, there are two main schools of thought that define CSR. First, there are theorists who contend that businesses have a duty to maximize profits while taking ethical considerations into account (Levitt 1995 as quoted in Ahmad, Hajah, and Muhammad 2020), secondly, there are those who maintain an extensive variety of commitment towards society (Carroll, 1991).

Despite the fact that businesses are beginning to recognise CSR more and more, the idea of CSR is still a topic of public discussion because certain large organisations have to be challenged to act responsibly for the benefit of society. The majority of academics concur that corporate organisations have duties to society beyond maximising profits (Carroll, 1999). Many argue that corporations have obligations to a wide range of stakeholders than just their shareholders and investors, including employees, suppliers, communities, the government, and the society (Jamali, 2008).

2.2 Philanthropic Activities

Philanthropy is the practice of performing charitable deeds or other commendable deeds, such as giving of your time or energy to others or improving society at large. For some, philanthropy is making financial contributions, frequently sizable ones, to support or establish research institutes, university buildings, or

scholarships for four-year colleges. Others define charitable deeds as an annual gift to a community theater, food bank, or school. Large-scale charity donations to deserving causes are a component of philanthropy, but it encompasses much more. Rich people occasionally create private foundations to support their philanthropic endeavours. Philanthropy is an endeavour undertaken by an individual or organisation out of an altruistic goal to increase human wellbeing (Adam, 2022). From a small-scale to a large-scale level, there are many ways to donate to charity. Both corporate and individual donors do this. Altruism, tax benefits, or a combination of the two may motivate someone to give to charity. Anyone who donates their talent, time, money, or abilities qualifies as a philanthropist (Adam, 2022).

Greek society is where philanthropy first emerged. For instance, the renowned philosopher Plato directed his nephew to utilize the revenues of the family property to support the academy he created in his will in 347 B.C. The funds were used to support the academy's staff and students. A large portion of the finances for a Roman school for young students were provided by Pliny the Younger some 150 years later. The rest was to be provided by them; he told the students' fathers. The intention was to prevent young Romans from attending foreign universities. John Winthrop of the Massachusetts Bay Colony instructed Puritan migrants in 1630 that the wealthy should aid the poor because they were unable to help themselves. And John Harvard founded Harvard University in 1638 after leaving the school a half-interest in his estate. Moving on, renowned benefactors over the ages include Mother Teresa and Norman D. Rockefeller. People and businesses, such as Warren Buffett, Melinda Gates, and Dolly Parton, continue to engage in philanthropy in the twenty-first century (Adam, 2022).

2.3 Economic Activities

When certain commodities or services are produced, an economic activity occurs when resources like labour, manufacturing processes, capital goods, and intermediary items are integrated. As a result, the characteristics of an economic activity are an input of resources, a production process, and an output of products (goods or services). Economic activities are human endeavours that result in financial gain. Primary, secondary, and tertiary economic activities are generally categorised. (George, 2020).

Since primary activities involve using the earth's resources, such as land, water, building materials, and minerals, they are thus entirely reliant on the

environment. Due to the outside nature of their employment, individuals engaging in primary activities are referred to as red-collar workers. By converting raw materials into valuable products, secondary activities increase the value of natural resources. Thus, Secondary activity is concentrated in the manufacturing, processing, and building (infrastructure) industries. Workers in blue-collar jobs are individuals who perform supplementary tasks. Production and exchange are both included in tertiary activities. The "supply" of services that are "consumed" is a component of production. Exchange entails the use of facilities for trade, transportation, and communication to cross physical distances (George, 2020).

Quaternary activities in the "Knowledge Sector" are specialized tertiary activities that necessitate a different classification. Demand and consumption of information-based services have grown significantly, from mutual fund managers to tax advisors, software engineers, and statisticians. This group of services includes employees who work in offices, elementary schools, university classrooms, clinics, theaters, hospitals, and brokerage firms. Quinary activities are businesses that create, reorganise, and interpret both new and old ideas as well as assess data and make use of and evaluate new technologies. The so-called "gold collar" professions, which include senior company executives, government officials, research scientists, financial and legal advisors, etc., represent another part of the tertiary sector. They are significantly more significant than they are in the structure of advanced economies. Quinary activities are carried out by the top tier of decision- or policy-makers (George, 2020).

2.4 Host Community Development

Community is defined as group of individuals with same interest and purpose, who are interdependent for satisfaction of certain needs, live in close vicinity and interrelate constantly (Maimunah, 2009). Development, according to the United Nations as cited by Omale and Ebiloma (2005), is a process whereby the people's efforts are combined with those of the government or other organizations to improve the social, physical, economic, and cultural circumstances of communities and to integrate these communities into the national mainstream. and to enable them to have a part in the growth of the nation. Community development (CD) refers to initiatives launched by the community in alliance with corporate organizations or corporations to empower individuals and groups of people by equipping these groups with the relevant skills they

need to champion changes in their communities. Enwereonye Ugorji, Alozie, & Awurumibe (2015). The definition of CD that is most frequently used is the one provided by the United Nations (United Nations, 1971), which states that CD is the coordinated effort of people in a community organized so as to help meet communal challenges with little assistance from outside groups. Governmental and non-governmental organizations, as well as businesses of all shapes and sizes, including small and medium-sized businesses (SMEs) and global corporations, are considered external organizations (MNCs). For corporate organizations, community development is of utmost importance.

3. Theoretical Review

3.1 Legitimacy Theory

This study was anchored on the legitimacy theory to explain the relationship between CSR and host community development. This framework was chosen for this study because it infers that there is an interlinkage between groups and society and it also stresses the nexus between the organisation and its operating environment

Legitimacy theory was developed by Dowling, J. and Pfeffer, J. in 1975. The legitimacy theory is regarded as a widely acknowledged idea that can throw light on a company's social reporting practices. According to this, businesses will take steps to make sure that their operations are clear to be legal from the perspective of the society that the organisation is presumed to function in. In other words, they will make an effort to make societal values that are directly or indirectly related to their actions and the standards of proper conduct in the larger social system to which they are part. Therefore, the legitimacy theory suggests that managers would not partake in any activities that society will view as being illegitimate. By participating in social reporting; they tend to increase the financial statements and profits' relevance by fostering confidence in the accuracy of the information included therein and by offering extra details on topics other than earnings and financial data. However, this can divert users' attention from the revenue total.

As long as the economic entity satisfies societal expectations, it is presumed that it will have the "legitimate" right to carry on operating in society. Otherwise, the social contract between the entity and society would have been broken, and sanctions, such

as fines, legal action, and a decline in the market for its product, will be implemented. For instance, under legitimacy theory, not only are investor rights taken into account but also a much larger picture of the public at large, society may decide to revoke the organisation's "license to function" or provide it a contract to continue operating.

3.2 Empirical Review

Ibrahim and Abubakar (2020) examined how CSR influences organizational image, using selected food and beverage companies in Nigeria. The survey research design was employed which covers Federal Capital Territory. The findings of the study revealed that CSR activities are the principal factors in organizational image building. Szegedi, Khan, and Lentner (2020) examined the relationship between CSR and financial performance evidence of Pakistani listed banks. The findings showed an improvement in CSR disclosure that will lead to increased accounting-based financial performance of the listed banks. Similarly, Al-Samman and Al-Nashmi, (2016) explored the relationship between CSR and non-financial organisational performance using public and private enterprises in Yemen. They found that the four dimensions of CSR (economic, legal, ethical, and philanthropic) had a significant relationship with financial and non-financial organisational performance.

Mohamed, Reham, and Ehab (2014) used cross-sectional data gathered from non-financial enterprises in Egypt to investigate CSR and its effect on firm performance. Regression analysis was used to investigate the associations between the two variables. The study's findings showed a strong and favorable correlation between corporate social responsibility and business performance. In the study approved by Bofo and Kokuma (2016) on the impact of CSR on organizational performance, using Vodafone Ghana limited. The study which was designed as a descriptive survey design found that CSR activities can bring a good image to the organisation.

Mining companies in Ebonyi State were studied in terms of community development, social corporate responsibility and the growth of their host communities by Nwoba, et al (2016). The study used a descriptive survey design and a range of qualitative research techniques which was based on Edward Freeman's Stakeholders Theory of 1948. For a better understanding of the practical aspects of CSR, the competencies needed by CSR managers were examined. The fundamental step for resolving the issue between mining firms and host communities in

the state was suggested through effective collaboration between mining corporation managers and community leaders.

4. Methodology

The study adopted a descriptive survey research design, based on the data obtained from selected respondents comprising of employees of three breweries in the South West, Nigeria. The population of the study consisted of 515 employees of International Brewery Plc Ilesa of which 183 were senior and management staff; Nigeria Brewery plc Ibadan with a total population of 490, of which 165 were senior and management staff and Guinness Nigeria Plc with a total population of 580, of which 210 were senior and management staff. Stratified sampling technique was used to arrive at the sample size for the study. The Taro Yamane (1973) formula was use to arrive at a sample size of 304. A total of 304 copies of the questionnaire were administered on the respondents, out of which 255 were retrieved and analysed.

The 5-point Likert scale of agreement was adopted using: 1- Strongly Disagree (SD); 2-Disagree (D); 3- Undecided (U); 4-Agree (A) and 5-Strongly Agree (SA). Inferential statistics in the forms of regression and correlation analysis through the use of SPSS were used to test the hypotheses. The sample size for the study was arrived at through the application of the Taro Yamane (1973) formular as follows:

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

Where;

n = sample size

N = population size and

e = level of confidence or error term (0.05).

Sample size drawn from International Breweries Plc Ilesa:

$$\begin{aligned} n_1 &= 135/ 1+135(.05)^2 \\ &= 135/ 1+135(.0025) \\ &= 135/ 1+0.3375 \\ &= 135/1.3375 \\ &= 100.934579 \\ &= 101 \text{ approximately.} \end{aligned}$$

Sample size drawn from Nigeria Breweries Plc Ibadan:

$$\begin{aligned} n_2 &= 118/1+118(.05)^2 \\ &= 118/1+118(.0025) \\ &= 118/1+0.295 \\ &= 118/1.295 \\ &= 91.1196911. \\ &= 91 \text{ approximately.} \end{aligned}$$

Sample size drawn from Guinness Nigeria Plc, Lagos

$$\begin{aligned} n_3 &= 155/1+155(.05)^2 \\ &= 155/1+155(.0025) \\ &= 155/1+0.3875 \\ &= 155/1.3875 \\ &= 111.7117712 \\ &= 112 \text{ approximately.} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, total sample size = n₁ + n₂ + n₃ = 101+91+112 = 304

Table 1: Sample Size Drawn from Each Stratum

S/N	Department	Int. Breweries	Nig. Breweries	Guinness Nig.	Total
1	Production	55/135 x 101 = 43	55/118 x 91 = 42	64/155 x 112 = 46	131
2	Purchasing	18/135 x 101 = 13	15/118 x 91 = 12	22/155 x 112 = 16	41
3	Quality Control	16/135 x 101 = 12	10/118 x 91 = 08	18/155 x 112 = 13	33
4	Store	08/135 x 101 = 06	09/118 x 91 = 07	11/155 x 112 = 08	21
5	Finance	18/135 x 101 = 14	16/118 x 91 = 12	20/155 x 112 = 15	40
6	Logistic	10/135 x 101 = 08	08/118 x 91 = 06	10/155 x 112 = 07	21
7	Marketing	07/135 x 101 = 05	05/118 x 91 = 04	10/155 x 112 = 07	17
	Total	101	91	112	304

Source: Researchers’ Field Survey (2022)

Test of Hypotheses

H₀₁: There is no significant effect of philanthropic activities on the development of host communities among manufacturing firms in Southwest, Nigeria.

Independent Variable: Philanthropic Activities

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.487 ^a	.237	.094	.57143

Source: Researchers’ Field Survey (2022)

In Table 2, regression coefficient of R = 0.487 or 48.7% indicated that there existed a relationship between independent variables and dependent variables. This was supported by coefficient of determination R² = 0.237 or

23.7% or 24%. This implied that 24% of the variation in development of host communities in South West Nigeria was explained by philanthropic activities. The standard error of estimate indicated that on the average, observed development in host community deviated from the predicted regression line by a score of 0.57143. This was attributed to measurement error in independent variables as well as other factors that influenced the development in host community.

Table 3: ANOVA Result of Hypothesis 1

ANOVA						
Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	10.119	5	2.024	6.198	.000 ^b
	Residual	80.000	245	.327		
	Total	90.120	250			

Source: Researchers’ Field Survey (2022).

From Table 3, the results indicated that the overall model was statistically significant. These results implied that independent variable (philanthropic activities) was a good predictor of the dependent variable (development of host community) in South West Nigeria. This was supported by F statistic of 6.198 and p value of 0.000 which was less than the critical p of 0.05. In this work, lower-tailed test was adopted. Decision rule for lower-tailed test is to reject the null hypothesis when test statistic is less than given critical value, which in this work, was 0.05. Hence, the null hypothesis which stated that, there is no significant effect of philanthropic activities on the development of host communities among manufacturing firms in Southwest, Nigeria, was rejected. It was therefore concluded that philanthropic activities have statistical significant effect on the development of host communities among manufacturing firms in Southwest, Nigeria.

Table 4: Regression of Coefficient Result of Hypothesis 1

Coefficients ^a						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant).	1.795	.217		8.272	.000
	Long-term strategic planning	.126	.048	.163	2.623	.009
	Charitable gifts report	.007	.043	.011	.163	.878
	fostering self-sufficiency	-.058	.046	-.087	-1.261	.213
	Creating jobs & promoting skills development	.161	.046	.225	3.515	.001
	Improving project quality	.118	.047	.162	2.511	.013

a. Independent Variable: Philanthropic activities b. dependent variable: Development of host community

Source: Researchers’ Field Survey (2022)

The results of the regression of coefficients in Table 4 showed that philanthropy involves a long-term strategic planning, creating jobs, promoting skills development, and providing assistance in employment and voluntarily participation in projects aimed at improving the quality of community life were positive and significantly related to their various predicted variables. Charitable gifts report was positive but not significantly related with $r = .007$ and $p = .878$. Fostering self-sufficiency has no relationship with the development of host community and was not significant ($r = -0.058$ and $p=0,213$ which was greater than 0.05). Generally, since p-values of three out of five predictors were less than 0.05, the null hypothesis was rejected. This implied that philanthropic activities have significant influence on the development of host communities in South West Nigeria.

H₀₂: Economic activities have no significant effect on host community development among manufacturing firms in Southwest, Nigeria.

Table 5: Correlations Analysis to Measure the Relationship between Economic Activities and Development of Host Community.

Correlations		Development of the host community	Legal provisions	Awareness campaign.	Quality assurance frame work	Community on air quality	Coordination body
Development of the host community	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	1 255					
Legal provisions	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.449** .000 255	1 255				
Awareness campaign	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.514** .000 255	.449** .000 255	1 255			
Quality assurance frame work.	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.437** .000 255	.494** .000 255	.524** .000 255	1 255		
Community on air quality	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.692** .000 255	.243** .000 255	.235** .000 255	.244** .000 255	1 255	
Coordination body	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.720** .000 255	.335** .000 255	.398** .000 255	.381** .000 255	.485** .000 255	1 255

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: Researchers’ Field Survey, 2022

Table 5, shows a significant positive relationship between economic activities and the development of host community among manufacturing firms in Southwest, Nigeria. Legal provision has the correlation value of .449 with development of host community. Awareness campaign has correlation value of .514. Quality assurance frame work has a correlation value of .437. Community on air quality has a correlation value of .692 and coordination body has correlation value of 720.

Table 5 further revealed the variables measured for economic activities that have positive relationship with the development of host community of the selected manufacturing firms in Southwest, Nigeria. The variables were statistically significant at 95% confidence level and sig 0.000. This implies that a significant correlation existed between economic activities and the development of host community in Southwest, Nigeria (about 44.9% legal provision; 51.4% awareness campaign; 43.7% quality assurance; 69.2% community on air quality and 72.0% coordination body). This revealed that there is a positive correlation between economic activities and development of the host community in Southwest, Nigeria. The results were statistically

significant at sig = 0.05 and 0.01. The null hypothesis was rejected. It was concluded therefore, that there is a significant relationship between economic activities and development of the host community in selected manufacturing firms in Southwest, Nigeria.

Discussion of Findings

The main objective of this study was to examine the effect of corporate social responsibility on the development of host community among selected manufacturing firms in Southwest, Nigeria. In order to achieve this objective, analysis was conducted based on the data obtained in line with the formulated hypotheses.

The study revealed that development of host communities is significantly influenced by philanthropic activities of the selected manufacturing firms in Southwest, Nigeria. This implies that, corporate organisations should voluntarily take part in initiatives that could impact the quality of community life by generating jobs, making philanthropic contributions, fostering the development of skills, assisting individuals in finding employment, and many more.

Moreover, the findings on whether economic activities have a significant relationship with the development of host community revealed a significant correlation between economic activities and the development of host community. The variables were statistically significant at 95% confidence level and sig = 0.000. This implies that the conduct of economic activities in the selected manufacturing firms was governed by laws, quality assurance framework, public awareness campaign, well established committee for feasibility studies and a coordination body for the planning and organising of the economic activities established in the host community.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

Having empirically examined the effect of corporate social responsibility on the development of host community among the selected manufacturing firms in Southwest, Nigeria and in line with the findings of the study, it was concluded that a significant relationship existed between corporate social responsibility and the development of host community. The study further concluded that, there is a sufficient evidence to show that corporate organisations who engage in philanthropic activities as a form of corporate social responsibility have a sense of satisfaction and/or fulfillment by serving as benefits to other people and developing the host community. It therefore becomes imperative that a coordinating body should be established to plan and organise economic and philanthropic activities in the host communities.

Based on the conclusion and findings of the study, it was recommended that:

- Corporate organisations should concentrate on charitable endeavours that will enhance the standard of living for residents in their host community
- Corporate entities should help their host communities employ people, create jobs, and advance skill development.
- A coordinating body for the planning and management of the economic activities should be established in the host community.
- A committee should be established by a corporate organisation in the host community to do feasibility studies on the local air quality.

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The Nigerian Civil War of 1967-1970 and the Rwandan Civil War/Genocide of 1994: A Comparative Appraisal of Post-Civil War Peace Building in Nigeria and Rwanda

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Abstract. The end of colonialism brought about the emergence of independent African states. Since independence, a number of African states including Nigeria and Rwanda have experienced civil wars among other crises. While the Nigerian Civil War ensued and lasted from 1967 to 1970, the Rwandan Civil War cum Genocide was experienced in 1994; 24 years after the Nigerian Civil War. While these wars were fought and won on the perceived premise of ‘no victor, no vanquished’, the Federal Military Government of Nigeria and the Hutu ethnic group of Rwanda were the actual victors while the people of Eastern Nigeria then known as Biafra and the Tutsi of Rwanda were the vanquished. How these countries have fared in their post-civil war peace building processes have not been placed side by side. It is for this reason that a comparative appraisal of post-Civil War peace building in Nigeria and Rwanda after their civil wars becomes necessary. Nevertheless, years after these civil wars, Rwanda unlike Nigeria adopted workable efficient policies and strategies that enabled her to carry out an effective national reconciliation for overall national integration, growth and development of post-civil war Rwanda. To say the least, Rwanda has overcome the overall ills of the crises unlike in Nigeria, where the causes and factors that brought about the civil war are still very much present. The study is comparative and analytical and adopts both primary and secondary sources. It concludes therefore, that the Nigerian Government should study and adopt some of the policies and strategies adopted by Rwanda in ensuring efficient and effective post-civil war peace building which has placed Rwanda on the track of overall national development.

Keywords: Civil War, Nigeria, Peace Building and Rwanda

1. Introduction

Since independence from the shackles of colonialism, a number of African states including Nigeria and Rwanda have experienced the scourge civil wars among other crises. While these crises and eventual ended, post-civil war peace building posed another challenge. While some of these countries managed to put the causes and events of the wars behind them by ensuring a post-civil war peace building and charting the course of common nation integration, growth and development, some are still living with the causes and events of the war, years after. Nigeria and Rwanda therefore, are examples of African states that have experienced civil wars with clear and divergent indices of post-civil war peace building which have affected positively or negatively, their national integration, growth and development.

The Nigerian Civil War of 1967 to 1970 is one of the significant events in the history of Nigeria. It was a three-year conflict which claimed the lives of thousands of soldiers and over two million civilians. The Nigerian government led by Gen. Yakubu Jack Gowon fought to prevent the secession of the Eastern region which was led by Gen. Chukwuemeka Odumegwu. Ojukwu.

Similarly, Rwanda, a sovereign state lying between Central and East Africa and one of the smallest countries on the African mainland, experienced a civil war and genocide in 1994. Rwanda is located a few degrees south of the Equator, bordered by Uganda, Tanzania, Burundi and the Democratic Republic of Congo. Rwanda is in the African Great Lake region and is highly elevated. Its geography is dominated by mountains in the West and savanna to the East, with numerous lakes throughout the

country. The climate is temperate to sub-tropical, with two rainy seasons and two dry seasons each year.

Nigeria and Rwanda have experienced Civil Wars which are arguably, said to have ended without a victor or a vanquished. In Nigeria, “no victor no vanquished” was the slogan at the end of the war. However, at the end of these wars, both the people of Rwanda and the people of Nigeria have continued to exist as members of one country respectively. However, whereas Rwanda have been able to manage their differences and put the past behind, the people of Nigeria have not been able to address the factors the caused the Civil War despite the fact that their war ended almost 24 years before the Civil War in Rwanda. This study therefore, examines the Nigerian Civil War of 1967 to 1970 and the Rwandan Civil War/Genocide of 1994 with the view to comparatively, appraise the nature of post-civil war peace building in these countries.

2. The Nigerian Civil War of 1967-1970: An Overview

The Nigerian Civil War was as a result of many factors, such as the coup and counter coup of 1966, killing of the people of Eastern region especially the Igbo, General Ironsi’s unitary system of government and the failure of the Aburi accord among others. The inability to address the eruption of violence throughout the country by the Nigerian Head of State then Lieutenant Colonel (Lt.Col) Yakubu Jack Gowon and Intransigency of then Lieutenant Colonel Emeka Odumegwu Ojukwu, the Governor of the Eastern region acted in concert to cause the Nigerian Civil War.

In an attempt to reconcile the differences between the Federal government and the Eastern Region, a summit was held from 5th January 1967 in Aburi Ghana. The summit was attended by senior military and police officers and government secretaries. It is worthy to mention that much of what was agreed at the summit was not implemented on getting back to Nigeria. By march 1967, two months after the Aburi summit, the Aburi Accord resolution had yet to be implemented, and there was growing tensions in the Eastern Region that Gowon had no intentions of implementing the details of the summit. The government of the Eastern Region issued a warning to the Federal government that the repeated failure to act on issues pertaining to Nigerian sovereignty could lead to secession.

To worsen the situation, on 27th May 1967, Gowon created 12 States out of the then existing four regions

of Nigeria and the Eastern region was divided into three states. Part of the reasons for this was to attenuate the territory under Ojukwu as new military governors would be appointed for the newly created states leaving only the East Central state for Ojukwu. The state creation was seen as the last straw that broke the camel’s back. At this point, there was no going back from the path of war. Meanwhile, even before the balkanization of the territories under Ojukwu, the Eastern Consultative Assembly had mandated the Military Governor to pull the Eastern region out of the federation as soon as possible. What the state creation of the 27th May did was probably to hasten the pulling out. Sequel to this, on May, 30th 1967, three days after states creation, Ojukwu declared Eastern Region an Independent and sovereign state of Biafra. By seceding from the federation of Nigeria, the condition for the journey to the slaughter house in the name of Civil War was created. The war was officially declared on 6th July, 1967 and ended on 15th January 1970 following the surrender of the secessionist forces by the Biafran Chief of staff, Major General Philip Effiong. The Nigerian Civil War is believed to have cost over 3 million lives with properties worth millions of naira destroyed.

3. Rwanda Genocide of 1994 in Historical Perspective

The Rwanda Civil War of 1994, no doubt was well organized, well informed, well-motivated and well prepared by the Hutu majority from the available evidence such as several hate speeches from prominent Hutu indigenes and nepotism from the administration of then president. Ethnic rivalry between the Hutu and Tutsi was one of the reasons for the genocide. Some scholars argue that racist ideology contributed to the war, some claim that the genocide was solely the responsibility of the Hutus intent to exterminate the Tutsi minority group, others posit that it was the responsibility of both Hutu and Tutsi groups. Going by the manner in which the killings were conducted, it will not be totally out of place to argue that it was well organized, well informed and well-motivated to exterminate the Tutsi ethnic group. In fact, given that high ranking officials in the local and national government, the army, the Presidential Guard, para-military and Hutu extremism all played active roles in the genocide. it was indeed a well-organized crime. Lemarchand even argued that the institutional apparatus of the genocide was already in place by 1992. The killings followed instructions from the highest level and looking at the sequence of the massacre one would not be totally wrong to say that it was well planned and organized.

However, the circumstances that led to the genocide can be traced back to pre-independence era. During the colonial period, Rwanda and Burundi were colonized by Belgium and the Colonial Masters referred to the area as Ruanda- Urundi. The Hutu were the majority and Tutsi minority, both speaking the same language, share the same customs and share the same hillsides. In pre-colonial period, the royal elites, chiefs and aristocracy of the Tutsi minority, cattle owning people, had established themselves as a feudal ruling class over the Hutu majority, that were mainly agriculturists. During the period, the Hutu majority were required to submit to bond labour services known as *Uburtwa*, while the Tutsi were not expected to perform this kind of labour service. What appears to have kept the people together is the institution of the *Uburtwa* a highly personalized relationship between two individuals of unequal social status. This patron/ client relationship involved reciprocal bonds of loyalty and exchange of goods and services. It provided a place, a status, within a hierarchical system. The patron was mostly Tutsi but the client could be Hutu or Tutsi of inferior social status. One person could be a client as well as a patron. Theoretically, the only person ultimately not a client of this system was the Mwani (Chief) himself. Thus, most Tutsi were clients and some Hutu patrons. At the top, however, there were always Tutsi and at the bottom always Hutu and/or Twa. This institutionalized relationship was reinforced under colonial rule and lasted until it was brought to an end in the 1950s.

The *Uburtwa* system and social order were predominant in central Rwanda, where Tutsi had their strongest influence. In the regions dominated by Hutu in the northern and south-western areas, different systems, mostly based on land-lease contracts or donation of agricultural products were developed; the patrons were often Hutu. However, the dominance of cattle as a form of disposable wealth meant that the Tutsi cattle chiefs were able to dominate central Rwanda. To mobilize the military funding was required, funding came only in the form of livestock, and Tutsi controlled the cattle. In these parts, Hutu was almost synonymous with client.

The *Uburtwa* did have some important effects. First, it institutionalized the economic differences between the mainly cultivating Hutu and the cattle-breeding Tutsi. Secondly, it was an instrument of control that turned Hutu into socio- economic and political clients and Tutsi into patrons. Lastly, it led to a process of "ethnic" amalgamation, particularly among Hutu. The result was an "ethnic" Hutu-Tutsi dichotomy,

following the socio-economic and political process engendered by Tutsi extension and occupation.

Due to long practice, the discrimination between them became normal due largely to the economic class between them. In physical description, the Tutsi were taller and slimmer than the Hutu, with longer faces and narrower noses. However, due to intermarriages, occupation and migration, the difference may not be easily noticed by someone who is not conversant with their history. Here, it is pertinent to note that both the Hutus and the Tutsis were all loyal to the Tutsi kings. As head of the late 19th century Rwandese state the Mwani owned all land and cattle. He ruled despotically, but had a political board of great chiefs and a permanent council of abiru (ritual specialists) who advised him about the divine obligations connected to his office. Although, there could be few Hutu who were also kings, but the general belief is that all bami (plural of Mwani) were Tutsi.

As earlier said, the Hutu and the Tutsi had different statures, they had the same culture and spoke the same language. The seed of discord was further widened during the colonial period when the colonial masters saw them as different people and therefore treated them differently. During colonial rule, first by Germany, and in 1916, Belgium occupied Ruanda-Urundi as a result of the World War I East African campaign against Germany. The two kingdoms of Rwanda and Burundi had only been marginally administered from Berlin (via Dar-es-Salaam) since 1899. In 1914 there were just six German civil servants in Burundi and five in Rwanda, i.e. a total of eleven officials for a territory twice the size of Belgium. Having discovered that the existing Mwani kingdoms already functioned as fully- fledged nations before the arrival of the Europeans and also, undoubtedly because of a shortage of colonial personnel, the Germans decided from the very beginning to favour a policy of indirect rule. The occupation came about through protectorate "treaties" negotiated between the Germans and the Mwani. This meant that full use was to be made of the existing political system, which was much stronger and more centralized in Rwanda than in Burundi. After World War I, the League of Nations mandated Belgium to administer Rwanda and in 1946 the country became a Belgian trust territory under the United Nations.

The colonial masters preferred working with the Tutsi people and therefore appointed them to occupy different positions in the government thereby making, indirectly though, the minority ethnic group to

become the 'majority' group. In education, government, and important positions the Tutsi were favoured and regarded while the Hutu were ignored and disregarded. In the words of Monsignor Classe "you must choose the Batusi (Tutsi), because the government will probably refuse Hutu teachers...., In the government positions, every branch of the administration, even the unimportant ones, will be reserved henceforth for young Batusi." As a result of this colonial policy, the Hutus were regarded as subordinate to the Tutsi minority, and by 1930s, the collective identity that existed between the Hutus and Tutsis disappeared.

Meanwhile, from 1950s, things started taking different dimension, the Hutu majority began to protest, agitate and question the activities of the Belgians. These protests were carried out by a group of intellectuals from Hutu majority, nine in numbers, they were all former seminarians. They published what they called a BaHutu manifesto (this was a document drafted by nine Rwandan Hutu intellectuals in 1957. It was a political document that called for Hutu ethnic and Political solidarity as well as the political disenfranchisement of the Tutsi people) agitating and demanding for change in the practice of the Belgians by favouring and giving the Tutsi superior sense of identity, in state of the Hutu majority. They protested against the political monopoly of one race, the Tutsi race, which also gave rise to economic monopoly of the Tutsis. The Belgians seeing that the protest was serious and could not be stopped or ignored, proposed that the official use of the terms Hutu and Tutsi should be abolished, this proposal was rejected by the Hutu majority due to the fact that their majority identity will be at stake and will be of no use. Also, this too would prevent the statistical law from establishing the reality of the facts. Gradually and steadily, ethnic sentiment took over Rwanda and political parties were formed along ethnic lines. The Hutu also demanded that monarchical system of government in Rwanda should be abolished and replaced with Republican system of government.

In November 1959, the first major clash between the Hutus and Tutsis occurred. This was as a result of assaults of Hutus sub-chief by the Tutsi militants. This assault did not go well with the Hutu, who retaliated by destroying and killing every Tutsi they could lay their hands on. In the conflict, many Tutsi people were killed and their properties destroyed. The Belgians inability to control and curtail the chaos favoured the Hutu majority who sacked the Tutsi chiefs and replaced them with the Hutu. The new Hutu chiefs immediately ordered for the execution of

the dismissed Tutsi chiefs and the Tutsis, and this led to mass exodus of the Tutsi out of Rwanda to neighbouring countries like Congo, Uganda, Burundi and Tangayika.

In 1960, elections were held, and the Hutu won several seats and this singular event enhanced the potency of their voice in the government. As the crisis remained unabated, in 1961, the government decided to abolish monarchy in Rwanda and replace it with a Republic. This development of course further led to Hutu supremacy and domination. According to UN Trusteeship Commission report in 1961, "the developments of these past eighteen months have brought about the racial dictatorship of one party...an oppressive system has been replaced by another one...it is quite possible that someday we will witness violet reactions on the part of the Tutsi". The international organization foresaw what was coming and warned against it, but the warning was ignored. On 1 July 1962, Rwanda became an independent state under a Republican government championed by Gregoire Kayibanda, a politician and committed Hutu who believes in Hutus majority, domination and Tutsi subordination to the Hutu ethnic group.

4. The Rwanda Genocide of 1994

The Rwanda genocide lasted from April 7 to July 15 1994. It was between Hutus and Tutsis groups. It was a genocide against the Tutsi minority by the Hutu majority. Without fear of contradiction, the Rwanda genocide of 1994 shocked the whole world, in fact, it was regarded as one of the inhumane killings witnessed after the Nazi extermination against the Jews. The genocide started as a result of hate speeches, hate campaigns, hate preachment and nepotism against the Tutsi minority. Prominent Hutu leaders on several occasions openly called for the elimination of the Tutsi minority, they perceived as a threat to achieving their political and economic supremacy. The press played an important role in the genocide, because the press was constantly used as a channel to preach hate speeches, hate statements and inciting statements. One of the champions of hate campaign against the Tutsis, Hassan Ngeze, an editor of *Kangura* and specialist in propaganda was quoted in his article popularly referred to as "the Hutu Ten Commandment" published in December 1990, to have stated that "any Hutu who married a Tutsi woman, befriended a Tutsi woman or employed a Tutsi as a secretary or a concubine was to be considered a traitor since all Tutsi women worked only for the interest of their own ethnic group. For similar reasons, any Hutu involved in any business

dealings with Tutsi was also deemed a traitor.” Hassan also urged Hutu to be firm and vigilant against their common Tutsi enemy. Hutu were encouraged to man and take strategic positions in government, in administration and economy. He emphasized that only Hutu should be employed in the armed forces. This publication was widely circulated in Rwanda. In fact, community leaders read Hutu Ten Commandment in public meetings. The most used and known commandment was the number eight which stipulated that the Hutu must stop having mercy on the Tutsis. Also, Hassan immediately after the Rwanda Patriotic Front (RPF) attack, again, was alleged to have called for the extermination of the Tutsis through hate speech, he was quoted as thus “we say to the *inyenzi* (cockroaches) that if they lift up their heads again, it will no longer be necessary to go fight the enemy in the bush. We will start by eliminating the internal enemy, they will disappear”. By internal enemy, Hassan was referring to the Tutsi group, because RPF was a Tutsi militant group.

Similarly, Mugesera, a university lecturer in 1991 openly called for the elimination of the Tutsis. He was not only targeting the RPF but their accomplices, the political parties opposed to the ruling party and the Tutsi minority. He openly called for the extermination of the Tutsi. He preached to his audience never to show mercy to any Tutsi irrespective of age and gender. He perpetrated this under the excuse of RPF trying to undermine the armed forces and overthrow the ruling party. With the excuse that RPF is trying to exterminate the Hutus majority, he warned his audience to rise up and defend themselves. He closed by saying “know that the person whose throat you do not cut now will be the one who will cut yours.” These incessant incitements by the Hutu elites generated a conflict in 1992 where few Tutsi were killed but the situation was quickly brought under control but there was no remarkable effort to deal with the real cause of the conflict. It was the inability to deal with the root cause of the conflict that created the condition for the event of 1994.

Although, one of the reasons for the inability of the government to deal with the root cause of the conflict and in fact, one of the things that baffled the people of the world was that all these incitements had the full support of the president of Rwanda who could not hide his emotions and therefore gave in to the agitations of his Hutu people. The president gave his full support by sponsoring some of these individuals, and by favouring the Hutu majority in government appointments and developments. Put it differently, he encouraged nepotism in governing Rwanda.

Unfortunately, there was no serious intervention by the United Nations and the Great powers. The reason for the late intervention of the United Nations to quell the genocide is still controversial. However, it is better late than never. It was the public outcry and the intervention of the global body that contributed in the stabilization of the situation. In 1994, two missiles were fired from a hill just outside the airport perimeter of Rwanda and the plane crashed into the presidential palace. There was no survivor from the plane crash that killed the presidents of Rwanda, Habyarimana (a Hutu) and the president of Burundi, Cyprian Ntaryamira, who asked for a lift from president of Rwanda, after a one-day summit of African leaders in Darussalam, Tanzania in 1994. Following the crash, violence flared beginning the genocide of over 1,000,000 Rwandans of mainly Tutsi minority and moderate Hutus. Victims of the massacre were butchered to death and pointedly gunned down in villages across Rwanda, mostly by their Hutu neighbours and friends. According to Uwayijenga, one of the victims of the genocide, a militiaman came up to kill me. I was astonished because he was a friend. He used to come to our house every day. He farmed my father’s fields and he received salary. My mother gave him food. We used to play with him and he was like a brother to us, even though we were not from the same family. I asked him why he wanted to kill me when I had done nothing to hurt him. I begged him to take pity on me. He said nothing but just hit me on the head with a machete. He had bits of wood in his hands which stuck into my face. When he thought I was dead, he left.

The news of the brutal killings spread widely across the world. Dead bodies littered the streets, vultures and dogs fed on them. According to Nteziryago “I ran like some sort of animal. I had to eat the twigs from the trees. I saw the corpses of my relatives on the hills. Sometimes, I would stumble upon someone who had been hit by a machete but who was still breathing.” Many families lost all members of the family. Many children lost their parents and guardian. Victims of the genocide in Rwanda carried the trauma for a long period and most people did not believe their loved ones were killed. They always believed it was a dream that someday they might come back home. It is safe to note that the effects of the genocide were enormous and fatal.

It is alleged that an estimated 1,000,000 people were massacred within the period of 100 days, and about 70 percent of the Tutsi population was recorded to have been savagely sent to their creator. Numerous Tutsi women were reportedly rape in a sexual

violence. Some were subsequently killed after being raped by their abusers. The massacre ended with the intervention of RPF (Rwanda Patriotic Front) and United Nations Forces in July 1994.

5. Post-Civil War Peace building Activities in Nigeria and Rwanda: A Comparative Analysis and the Panacea for Nigeria's Debilitating Unity

With the victory of Rwandan Patriotic Front in the Civil War, they assumed control of the affairs of government. They took over the government positions and formed a new government. The Rwandan Patriotic Front was renamed as the Rwandan Patriotic Army (RPA) and it became a national army. Paul Kagame, one of the leaders of the Rwandan Patriotic Front served in dual capacities as the Vice President of Rwanda and Minister of Defence. Pasteur Bizimungu, a Hutu served as the president. Bizimungu had some control over domestic affairs but Kagame remained commander-in-chief of the army. In 2000, Paul Kagame, took over the presidency from Pasteur Bizimungu and began a large-scale national development drive, launching programmes to develop Rwanda as a middle-income country by 2020.

The country began developing strongly on key indicators, including the human development index, health care and education. Annual growth between 2004 and 2010 averaged 8% per year, the poverty rate reduced from 57% to 45% between 2006 and 2011, and life expectancy rose from 46.6 years in 2000 to 64.3 years in 2018. A period of reconciliation began as well as the establishment of courts for trying genocide suspects. These included the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda (ICTR) and Gacaca, a traditional village court system reintroduced to handle the large caseloads involved. Women represented a larger share of the post-war population and were not as frequently implicated in the genocide. They were entrusted by the regime with more tasks of reconciliation and reconstruction.

However, Rwanda is one the African countries that have managed its crisis without the assistance of foreign countries or organisations. Today, Rwanda is one of the developed nations in the world attracting investments from a lot of investors. In fact, Rwanda has become a destination for billionaires and celebrities. Given the level of destruction and hatred in Rwanda during the genocide it is difficult to believe that Rwanda would survive without a doubled Marshal Plan. However, Nigeria fought a Civil War that lasted from 1967-1970, yet Nigeria and

Nigerians are still living with it. There are still ethnic, regional and religious tensions, corruption and nepotism after many years of the war. Nigeria is still experiencing almost all the factors that led to the Civil War. Nigeria should learn from the peace building and reconciliation mechanisms of Rwanda. Many thought that it would take more than a generation for Rwanda to recover from the genocide but they have been able to disappoint a lot of people and live happily as Rwandans and no longer as Hutus and Tutsi. Rwanda applied various mechanisms which helped in healing the wounds and made the people to live above their differences.

5.1 Political Peace Building in Rwanda

The one advantage enjoyed by the Rwanda Patriotic Front in the Civil War was that its military victory was total. This gave them the vantage position during negotiation. This allowed the RPF to consolidate its power across the country over the next few years. It persuaded former enemies and ordinary Hutus to change allegiances; dealt militarily with the numerous threats to the new political dispensation, including former génocidaires (those who were guilty of genocide due to their involvement in the Civil War) within and outside its borders; and defined a post-conflict future for Rwanda.

After Rwandan Patriotic Front victory in 1994, it held national consultations known as "Urugwiro Village discussions," named after and held at the presidential residence, took place over several months in 1998 and 1999. Firmly guided by RPF leaders but involving representatives of all parts of society, the discussions helped frame the government's vision and policies for building peace and reconstructing the country (enshrined in law a few years later), which became manifest in some of the key transformations of the country. Of overarching importance was the commitment to align all initiatives to the aim of strengthening national unity. A National Unity and Reconciliation Commission was established in 1999 to educate, sensitize and mobilize the population in areas of national unity and reconciliation. Also notable was the strong emphasis placed on independent and homegrown solutions. The pledge to make the RPF the motor of government that would bring about real change in the country. Decentralization has been a central subject in post-genocide governance in Rwanda, non-partisan elections are held at the local level, where all citizens can participate in community planning and initiate processes to hold civil servants accountable. In the case of Nigeria, it is on record that after the Nigerian Civil War, nobody from the South Eastern

region has been the president of the country. In fact, only Dr. Alex Ekwueme from Anambra state from the South Eastern region has been the vice president of Nigeria. It is alleged that the region which is mainly Igbo is punished for their role in the civil war. Yet after the war it was declared, “No victor, No vanquished”. Evidence on ground suggests that some Nigerians are Nigerians while some Nigerians are in Nigeria meaning that some Nigerians are not totally acceptable as Nigerians. In fact, in the political development, important positions are being occupied by the people that won the Civil War. It is not out of place to say that in theory, the war was “No Victor and No Vanquished but in practice the “Winner Takes it All”. No wonder factors that led to the war are still manifesting today in Nigeria. There are still ethnic agitations for an independent country due to marginalization and nepotism. There has not been proper reconciliation between the South and the North. This is evident in the hate speeches between the two regions even after decades of civil war. For instance, Dr Junaidu Mohammed from the northern region was alleged to have said that “it must be a northerner or no Nigeria...if Goodluck Jonathan wins PDP’s endorsement to contest the 2011 presidential election, there would be violence.” Also, Asari Dokubo, the leader of the Niger Delta People’s Salvation Force (NDPSF) was alleged to have said “they (northerners) are wasting their time. We own them. We are feeding them. They are parasites. A beggar has no choice... they are beggars and parasites.” If 50 years after the war some Nigerians are still claiming to be the real owners of the country or that leaders should not come from certain region(s), it means that the circumstances that led to the war are still much present with us.

5.2 Security Sector

The reform of militaries and security institutions in post-conflict environments is one of the most difficult parts of peace building. Often, such reforms fail to achieve their targets. More damaging, they are also exploited in struggles over state power between emerging actors, creating new triggers for instability. Post-1994 Rwanda faced an additional challenge: one side of the reform equation had committed genocide against the other. Between 1997 and 2007, 60,000 ex-combatants were demobilized. This included the ex-FORCES Armées Rwandais (FAR, the pre-1994, largely Hutu, Rwandan government army) and the various armed groups involved in the genocide, the former génocidaires most of whom had fled to the Democratic Republic of Congo, then eventually returned to Rwanda.

During this period, the Rwandan Defense Force, (RDF), the name given to the new national army in 2002 was considerably reduced. In broad terms, the reintegration of ex-fighters back to civilian life has been successful compared to other African countries that experienced crisis. Integration of the different forces in the RDF served as a conflict management strategy in Rwanda. Ex-FAR soldiers and rebels now serving in the RDF were deployed near their native communities to help establish trust in the new dispensation among wary locals. Also, workshops based on the traditional Rwandan concept of *Ingando* a military encampment or assembly area were used to instill a sense of national identity and overcome mutual fear and suspicion. *Ingando* was both an ethos and a means for promoting stability, reconciliation, and professionalization within the armed forces. By the late 2000s, the RDF was in the vanguard of peace building. The Rwandan Armed Forces were regarded as heroes at home and abroad. The soldiers had become an example for reconciliation to other countries because of their growing international reputation: professional, disciplined, and courageousness.

In the case of Nigeria, it was very recently and during the administration of President Goodluck Johnathan that an Easterner was appointed the Chief of Army Staff. Before then, very few Igbo indigenes was deemed fit to occupy the position despite their contributions and efforts to the armed forces. Yet, after the Nigerian Civil War, the government claimed they have absorbed the Biafran soldiers into their armed forces. Nepotism and corruption are regarded as one of the factors that led to Nigerian Civil War of 1967. General Ironsi was alleged to have surrounded himself with his kinsmen, and also favouring them with critical decisions and appointment. Yet, after the civil war, Nigeria has refused to learn from history. It is worrisome and indeed a threatening situation that since 2015 till date, almost all heads of security agencies are from a particular part of the country. The president has severally been accused of favouring his kinsmen in job opportunities into strategic and important security organisations in Nigeria. The President refused to listen to the calls of some well-meaning Nigerians like Chief (Dr) E.K. Clark and Colonel Dangiwa Umar (retired), in separate open letters to President Buhari on the 14th June, 2020 and 30th may, 2020, respectively, which warned the president of the danger of nepotism, and corruption. For proper reconciliation, equal opportunities should be given to all irrespective of their roles in the war just like Rwanda and was honoured for her discipline, professionalism and courage. Nigeria should learn to accommodate all

Nigerians irrespective of their tribe, ethnicity, region and religion.

5.3 In the Area of Justice

Rwanda's official policy of unity and reconciliation exalts rather than merely emphasizes Rwandan-ness. One of the steps taken by Rwanda to restore peace in war torn country was to abolish ethnic nationalism and wipe out ethnic consciousness in the people of Rwanda. The idea of referring to some as Hutu or Tutsi was discouraged. They were made to see themselves as Rwandans. In fact, open discussion of the genocide was banished and was seen as law against the land. While the government kept the memories of the war for historical purposes, it was a taboo for individuals to discuss the issues around the war. Consistent with other government initiatives, officially aimed at overcoming tribalism and building a national identity, Ndi Umunyarwanda (I am Rwandan) is also about shoring up a single narrative of the country's past, present, and future.

Ndi Umunyarwanda (I am Rwandan) was established in 2013, a year after the community-based Gacaca courts finished their work. Following the Urugwiro Village discussions, the RPF turned to Gacaca, a traditional forum meaning "justice on the grass" out of practical necessity. Before this, no conventional means to hold ordinary Rwandans who committed genocide accountable existed. There were simply too many cases; nearly two million, or about 1 in 5 Rwandans were implicated. The majority of trials ended in convictions, with crimes against property resulting in fines paid to victims or community work; and prison sentences for murder and other serious crimes. At a minimum, masses of isolated Rwandans finally had their pain and frustration recognized.

In the case of Nigeria, till now, no individual was punished for his or her role in the Nigerian Civil War despite almost all evidence showing that both sides committed war crimes. The Asaba massacre, economic blockade, Onitsha killings and killing of some non-Igbo Biafrans and others did not attract any penalty after the war. Only the Biafran soldiers who were in the army before the war but fought on the side of Biafra were punished. The punishment was according to someone's level of participation. Some were outrightly sacked while some were reintegrated with loss of seniority. On the whole, there not been any serious efforts to punish those who committed war crimes. After the counter coup of July 28, 1966 in the three-month following it, over thirty thousand Easterners living in the north were attacked, robbed and killed by northerners and over one million left

their businesses and properties and returned to the east. While in Rwanda, those who took active part were tried and convicted and that served as a great lesson to the promoters of hatred and violence but in Nigeria, no one has been tried or punished for his role in the war. This is part of the reason why conflicts often erupt in Nigeria because perpetrators often go free. Furthermore, the economic blockade which blocked the flow of all food and ammunitions supply by land, air and sea. With this move by the federal government, it is regarded as the single most destructive political decision in the whole of West African history as it led to the dead and malnourishment of over two million civilians most of whom were children. According to France and other foreign powers, it was a genocide aimed at exterminating Igbo people once and for all. Yet, nobody has been punished or held accountable for the war crimes. How then do one say that the war was without victor and vanquished? In fact, the victors keep reminding the vanquished not to allow the repeat of the war because they will not hesitate to do so. More so, after the war, millions of Igbo was bereaved, homeless and unemployed. To worsen the situation, Nigeria changed her currency during the war and many Easterners who still had the old currency were left in a very critical position. Nigerian government awarded every Easterner a grand total of 20 Nigerian Pound regardless of how much money the person had prior to the war. Yet the war was declared no victor, no vanquished. It is obvious that justice has not been served for the innocent citizens that were killed during the Nigerian Civil War. To avoid a repeat of 1967 to 1970 civil war, Nigerian government must learn how to reconcile her differences by learning from the Rwanda approach. It should come from the hearts and actions of the people.

5.4 Economic Development

"Vision 2020" which was launched in 2020 was another important outcome of Urugwiro Village. Unlike most countries' strategic frameworks for their future development, which involve changing course, building on or reversing existing projects, the RPF essentially had a blank slate. The Vision 2020 document and subsequent policies oriented to it were critical to building peace and consolidating the RPF's legitimacy. The rhetoric of an investment-friendly, modernizing economy was supported by substantial policy shifts like regional integration between neighbouring countries like Uganda and Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC). But regionalization of the Eastern Africa has also demanded a fundamental shift in people's minds. The adoption of a new economic

identity, tech-savvy, service oriented, outward-looking, and linked strongly to East Africa has placed a strain on the rhythms and culture of Rwanda's countryside, historically closed to the outside world. For some time yet, public officials needed to convince local populations that rapid, dislocating economic change will be beneficial to them in the long run. During his first two terms in office, President Kagame proved exceptionally adept at managing a frequent scourge of one-party dominated states: patrimonial politics. Described by some scholars as "developmental patrimonialism,"

In Rwanda between 2001 and 2015, overall poverty reduced by 19.8 percent while extreme poverty declined by 23.7 percent. Rwanda became one of the world's fastest growing economies year on year; the only low-income country in the World Bank's top 30 "easiest places to do business;" and a mini tourism mecca, increasing revenues from visitors from US \$27 million in 2000 to US \$438 million in 2017. Donors also lauded the government on delivery: Rwanda walked the talk on corruption as almost no other aid recipient did. Donors praised the government's seemingly ceaseless attention to accountability, transparency, and efficiency in deploying its scarce resources to key sectors of the economy.

In Nigeria's case, regions are carefully selected for developmental projects. After the war, Nigeria hardly developed despite her enormous natural and human resources. Recently, Nigeria was regarded as the headquarters of poverty. Similarly, corruption, bad leadership and nepotism have derailed the country from the part of development. The economy of Nigeria since the civil war has been going back and forth and recently, downward with no clear direction.

5.5 Reconciliation of Women

As it is in most cases in wars, the Rwandan women suffered disproportionately in the violence of the early 90s and especially the genocide. It is estimated that between 250,000 and 500,000, mostly Tutsi women were exposed to some form of gender-based violence, mainly rape. Two-third of the raped victims later tested positive for the HIV/AIDS disease. In the aftermath of the genocide, women were more numerous up to 70 percent of the population in Rwanda due to the higher rates of death, exile, or imprisonment of men. Women's mental health and economic well-being were shattered. Hutu women faced the added burden of being socially excluded and shamed due to their husbands' suspected role in the killings. A seemingly hopeless situation opened

the way for women to play leading roles in repairing a broken society. Without much planning or coordination, at least initially, women began to distribute assistance and relief to communities, mediate and resolve disputes, and advocate for peace. Women increasingly became involved in shaping policy, driving socio-economic change and even serving as judges on Gacaca, once the exclusive preserve of "wise and respected old men" (inyangamugayo). The emergence of women in important and non-traditional roles after the genocide stirred and intersected with conversations at the national level. Ideas and experiences were eventually co-opted into the RPF's policymaking as a core tenet. Set in Rwanda's 2003 Constitution, a law requiring that women hold a minimum of 30 percent of elected positions was improved upon in practice in ways that may never have been foreseen. In 2018, 49 women sat in Rwanda's parliament, which represented 61 percent of total seats, the highest proportion in the world. Four of the seven Supreme Court seats were also held by women in 2018. The centrality of women to all parts of Rwanda's peacebuilding and post-conflict recovery is distinct in the African context. In doing so, it has accelerated the process of overcoming the entrenched patriarchy once common in Rwanda and still pervasive across the continent. With all these mechanisms, Rwanda was able to reconcile the two major ethnic groups and forged ahead for uncommon development.

In Nigeria, despite the fact that women were the most affected and traumatized group during the war, Nigeria has not really given women a reasonable role in leadership, political representations and national development. The few women that had the opportunity to serve performed admirably. For a proper reconciliation and peace building, women should be given equal position or even more positions than men just like in Rwanda.

Like Rwanda, Nigeria should call for national conference where all parts of the country will be represented to deliberate on the way forward of the country. New constitution that will capture the agitations of the minorities should be encouraged. Women should be given more percentage in leadership, political representation and national development. Until Nigeria follow in the footsteps of Rwanda's peace building process, it may continue to experience underdevelopment, corruption, ethnic and religious tensions, and marginalization of women in elective positions.

6. Conclusion

Nigeria and Rwanda experienced civil wars 1967 to 1970 and 1994 respectively. These wars were fought, won and lost by the warring factions in both Nigeria and Rwanda. Ironically, the wars were said to have been fought and ended with “no victor and no vanquished.” Nevertheless, the trust and perceived harmonious existence among the major ethnic groups or warring factions of these countries vanished. However, it was expected that these countries would set the ball rolling at the end of the wars for efficient strategies for effective peace building for overall national reconciliation, integration, growth and development.

By and large, for two countries (Nigeria and Rwanda) that experienced civil wars at different times, 1967 to 1970 and 1994 respectively and 24 years after the Nigerian Civil War, the countries or at best, the former, would have recovered through efficient policies and effective peace building mechanisms for the common good of the country. Between the two countries, Rwanda has overcome the cause, events and consequences of the Rwandan Civil War and Genocide while Nigeria years after the war, is still enmeshed in the debilitating situations that have continued to set the country against the path of national reconciliation, integration, growth and development.

For a country as blessed as Nigeria in both natural and human resources to continue to express feelings of marginalization, nepotism, corruption from the federal government decades after the civil war is disheartening. There have been continuous calls for restructuring of the country in such a way that will give power to each region but many forces that are benefitting from the woes of the Nigerian state are against this considered approach for positively addressing the challenges of peace building in post-civil war Nigeria. All of these highlighted above, are no longer present in Rwanda and to a large extent, are also no longer tenable in Rwanda. Rwandan post-Civil War/Genocide development and unity should be a lesson for Nigeria. To avoid a repeat of the 1967 to 1970 civil war, Nigerian government should study the post-civil war and genocide peace building policies, strategies and framework that the Rwandan Government employed in ensuring the liberation of Rwanda from the overall ills of the 1994 Rwandan crisis.

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IPPIS Policy and the Challenges of its Implementation in the Nigerian Universities: A Conceptual Discourse

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Abstract. The Integrated Personnel and Payroll Information System (IPPIS) programme was introduced by the Nigeria Federal Government supported by the World Bank as one of the measures of Public Service Reform. Prior to the introduction of this scheme, Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs) received their recurrent costs on monthly basis as subvention. The above arrangement gave room for the MDA's to disburse money sent to them whenever and however they deemed fit. This therefore according to records led to financial misconduct in the Nigerian Civil Service. The huge amount spent on recurrent expenditure, if not monitored and cut down through appropriate government policy, could lead to cases of corruption the civil service. Hence, the need for Nigerian Government to provide accurate and correct number of civil servants under her care and to an extent minimize budget estimate via IPPIS programme. This research work examined the benefits and problems of incorporating the university system into IPPIS programme by Federal government of Nigeria. The paper undertakes a theoretical grinding of critical issues under study by adopting a review of periodic publications, journals and related secondary materials. The research used qualitative method in the study. The study revealed that, university system does not reject IPPIS but argued that IPPIS do not adequately capture its flexibility and peculiarities. So, there is the need to take into consideration its demand in the IPPIS software application via UTAS software. The study also discovered many shortfalls and benefits of incorporating university system in to IPPIS programme by the federal government. The study therefore recommends that the implementation of IPPIS policy by federal government should adequately capture the flexibility and peculiarities of the University System; and that, both parties (Federal

government and University community) should consider likely consequences of their misunderstanding which might negatively affect the general public.

Keywords: IPPIS Policy, UTAS Software, Federal University Gashua-Nigeria, Government, Employees

1. Introduction

In Nigeria all the Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDA's) draw their personnel costs from the Consolidated Revenue Fund (CRF). The exert number of personnel being paid in the nation cannot be easily ascertained due to non-availability of required and necessary information. As a result of none availability of the exert number of public servants in the country, it has become difficult for government to have an accurate wage data for planning and budgeting purpose. The Integrated Personnel and Payroll Information System (IPPIS) project seeks to resolve this and also reduce the Federal Government of Nigeria expenditure on overheads.

In October 2006, the federal government embraced the Integrated Personnel and Payroll Information System (IPPIS) to provide a reliable and comprehensive database for the public service to address ghost workers syndrome, facilitate human resource planning, eliminate manual record and payroll fraud, facilitate easy storage, update and retrieve personnel records for administrative and pension processes, and facilitate convenient staff salary administration payment with minimal waste and leakage (Public Service Institute of Nigeria, 2011).

Amongst the objectives of the reforms of government is to entrench transparency and accountability in the public service Human Resources (HR) records and payroll administration. This is because successive governments have observed gross inadequacies in the payroll and personnel records in the public service. Several efforts have been made to reduce these challenges, but they tend to worsen with time, resulting in greater incidence of accessing reliable data for human resources planning and management, chaotic state of pension administration; ghost worker syndrome and various forms of payroll and credential fraud.

Manual computation of salary and documentation of personnel information has been compounding the problem of transparency and accountability. This also affects accuracy in computation of salary giving room to overpayment or underpayment of salaries, omission of staff name in monthly payment, wrong calculation of promotion and pension that is due to staff and ex-staff as the case may be. The introduction of the Integrated Personnel and Payroll Information System scheme, it was felt that if properly implemented and managed, would go a long way in eradicating or at least bringing the above mentioned problems to the barest minimum. Policy implementation in the public service of the third world countries has become an interesting topic. The success of the policy requires the availability of resources, intergovernmental structure relations, and local government commitments in providing reports to the central government, the influence of policy opponents, the interpretation of objectives, and the community itself as the determinant of policy success (Paulus, et al. 2018).

Corruption is a major societal problem in the 21st century. It is prevalent in developing countries as well as in the developed ones. During the 1980s and 1990s, major banking frauds and corruption scandals occurred in many countries. Nigeria has experienced its fair share of such scandals, especially during the military era and even in the current democratic dispensation. The impact of corruption on our national economy has manifested in different types of political, social, and economic vices. This led to the formation of the EFCC by the Obasanjo administration to find ways of tackling and eradicating corruption in our society (Anifowoshe, 2002).

Agboola (2009) observed that corruption is so pervasive in Nigeria that it has turned public service for many into a kind of criminal enterprise. Graft has fueled political violence, denied millions of Nigerians

access to even the most basic health and education services and reinforced police abuses and other widespread pattern of human rights violations. One of the most common kinds of corrupt practices in the Nigerian public service is the payroll fraud which is the use of “Ghost workers” to divert money to sham identities. According to Association of Certified Fraud Examiners (2006), a ghost worker is someone recorded on the payroll system, but who does not work for the business. This ghost worker can either be a real person who is placed knowingly or not on the organisation’s payroll or it could be a factitious person invented by a dishonest employee. They explained further that ghost worker fraud is commonly perpetrated in organisations when the number of employee are large, particularly when the employees are spread out of the headquarters through the field administration across the geographical locations and payroll operations are less likely to be exposed to such fraud.

Idris, Adaja & Audu (2015) agreed that small businesses can also fall victims if payroll operations are being managed by single person who, unfortunately, happens to be a fraudster or who does not ensure stringent checks on the payroll process. The deceitful worker will compromise and need access to the payroll system in order to add the ghost that is, the person who has some form of direct access to the payroll system. They explained further that the purpose of ghost workers is for the fraudster (worker) to collect the salaries that are being paid out to the ghost workers. The annual salaries paid to any worker in a year can be quite a significant amount, the cumulative monetary loss by the government, due to several ghost workers can be a robust amount if the fraud goes undetected over the years

According to World Bank, as cited in Agboola (2018), employees responsible for human resources and payroll often deal with some information, such as employee identification information, employee salary information and employee status. Payroll is the sum of all financial records of salaries for an employee’s wages, bonuses and deductions. In accounting, payroll refers to the amount paid to employees for services they provided during a certain period of time. Two separate departments gathering, that is, storing and using the same information independently make for duplication of efforts, possibility for human error and more liability because of the sensitive nature of employee information. An integrated payroll system is one that allows both human resources and payroll staff to access the same information without duplicating paperwork or files,

creating efficiencies that save time and money and reduce liability of human efforts.

2. Conceptual Clarifications

Integrated Personnel and Payroll Information System (IPPIS) is a department within the office of the Accountant General of the Federation (AGF) of Nigeria which is responsible for payment of salaries and wages directly to government employees' bank accounts with appropriate deductions and remittances of 3rd party payments such as: Federal Inland Revenue Service, State Boards of Internal Revenue, National Health Insurance Scheme, Pension Fund Administrative, Cooperative Societies, National Housing Fund, Bank Loans and Associations Dues (Department of IPPIS, 2012). The IPPIS is an IT-enabled facility being put in place to establish a reliable and comprehensive database for the public service, facilitate manpower planning, eliminate record and payroll fraud, facilitate easy storage, update and retrieval of personnel records for administrative and pension processes and staff remuneration payment with minimal wastages and leakages (Enakirerhi & Temile, 2017).

Aderounmu (2017) states that information system is a set of tools, processes and methodologies (such as coding/programming, data communications, data conversation, storage and retrieval, systems analysis and design, systems control) and associated equipment employed to collect, process and present information. An information system is the information and communication technology that an organisation uses, and also the way in which people interact with this technology in support of business processes. Aderounmu, Adagunodo & Akinde (2012) cited in Olumuyiwa (2018) observed that information systems have become the backbone of most organisations that bank could not process payments, governments could not collect taxes, hospitals could not treat patients, and supermarkets could not stock their shelves without the support of information systems. In almost every sector especially government, information systems play a vital role in IPPIS in payment of employee salaries. Everyday work, communication, information gathering and decision making all rely on information technology. When they visited bank to make an electronic payment inquiry, they interact with bank's information system rather than with personnel of the bank. They argue for advantages of viewing an information system as a special work system and a work system is a system in which human or machines perform processes and activities using resources to produce specific products or services for customers.

According to Aganga (2011), Integrated Personnel and Payroll Information System (IPPIS) is one of the Federal Government reforms initiative conceived to transform the Nigerian Public Service and make it more efficient and effective in service delivery. The IPPIS initiative is aimed at improving the public financial management and providing a centralized payroll system in the country. IPPIS is designed to enroll into the platform, all federal government ministries, departments and agencies, that draw personnel cost fund from consolidated revenue fund. The AGF said when fully functional, the system will help solve the challenges of lack of efficiency, central control, central management, edition of figures and the elimination of replacement of personnel costs in the country.

Okonjo-Iweala (2011) opined that the objectives of the IPPIS policy amongst others are to centralize payment of workers' salaries, facilitate convenient staff remuneration payment with minimal wastage, facilitate easy storage, updating and retrieval of personnel record for administrative and pension processing. It also enhances manpower planning and budgeting and ascertains actual personnel emoluments of the federal government employees. She explained further that IPPIS has actually reduced corruption by virtually eliminating ghost-worker syndrome where applied, thereby reducing the cost of governance. Since the inception of the policy in 2007 to December 2014, it saved government ₦185 billion representing the difference between the money that government would have released to MDAs based on their estimated nominal roll submissions and the amount actually paid through the IPPIS platform. A breakdown of this shows that ₦416 million was saved in its first month of operation and at the end of three years ₦2 billion was realized. IPPIS successfully enrolled 237,917 members of staff and willed out 60,450 ghost workers. Furthermore, it reduced the red-tape involved in manual payroll in salary administration (Okonjo Iweala, 2011).

Enakirerhi & Temile (2017) explored the Integrated Personnel and Payroll Information System (IPPIS) in Nigeria by looking critically at the challenges of implementation of IPPIS; benefits to be derived when IPPIS is fully implemented and what the future holds. The study which is descriptive in nature outlined that accurate and reliable personnel information, reduction or elimination of corrupt and sharp practices, facilitation of modern scientific and accurate budgeting and forecasting are the major benefits of IPPIS. These benefits are, however, threatened by skills transfer problem, poor supporting infrastructure, technological barriers for infer MDA

transfer, resistance from stakeholders and lack of will for accelerated implementation.

Enakireehi & Temile (2017) cited in Agboola (2018) agreed that the Integrated Personnel and Payroll System is a good programme no doubt. The whole world is now in the era of technological knowhow and Nigeria cannot afford to be left behind. The Nigerian government regards the implementation of a computerized system as the most critical component of addressing the huge amount of personnel cost and it will accelerate improvement of human management effectiveness, increase confidence in government payroll cost and expenditure management, improvement in overall management reporting and planning, etc. to an extent that it can be achieved, if adequate care is taken to ensure proper implementation of the programme in Nigeria.

2.1 Stakeholders and Their Roles in the IPPIS Project

According to Nwosu (2010), a stakeholder is a person who has interest (stake) in a system or who is affected by or who can influence but not directly involved with the system. From the above, it means that in carrying out the IPPIS project some people or group of people are directly concerned and each of them must contribute his/her quota at one stage of the project or another until it successfully roll-out service-wide. She further observed that IPPIS has some stakeholders which can be categorized as follows: The custodian of the IPPIS system; Civil Servants; Operators/Schedule officers; MDAs Personnel/Salary Managers; Control Agencies; and the Third Party Agencies.

2.2 The Custodian of the IPPIS System

The custodian office has a core responsibility of ensuring the successful delivery of IPPIS so that the set objectives and aims of the system can be achieved. This office carries out this duty by:

- Liaising/connecting with all other stakeholders involved in the delivery of the pilot.
- Ensuring subsequent roll-out of the system until a service-wide implementation is achieved.
- Providing general visibility and awareness of the IPPIS programme within the entire public sector.
- Ensuring the gains envisaged by Government are achieved and sustained.

Office of the Accountant General of the Federation is the office of the government that is saddled with the

above responsibility and so it is the custodian of IPPIS (Nwosu, 2010).

2.3 Operators/Schedule Officers

The operators/schedule officers are the technical people who have been trained to operate the IPPIS on daily basis to perform/record personnel and payroll activities that occur in the database at the various data centres of the MDAs. The quantity of data being captured into IPPIS and the accuracy of staff emoluments that are paid into salary bank accounts of civil servants are being determined by the operators/schedule officers' skill. This set of people needs training and re-training not just once but on a regular basis so that they can perform optimally.

2.4 Civil Servants

These are people whom IPPIS is meant to reform. They are the major entity whose records are being stored and managed by the IPPIS. The project is centered on the civil servants; therefore they are directly or indirectly affected by the success or failure of the operation.

2.5 MDAs Personnel/Salary Managers

These are the middle/top level technocrats that use the information generated by IPPIS for decision making and management reporting. They too, are greatly affected by the quality of data inputted into IPPIS as wrong data will automatically lead them into wrong decision making. People here are the Head of Salary and Personnel records sections and Directors of Personnel/Finance of MDAs. They supervise and interact directly with the operators of IPPIS.

2.6 Control Agencies

As the name implies, they are the government departments that examine carefully the information generated from IPPIS before they exert some measures of control as a way of putting checks and balances into the system. Their work is to make sure that the information recorded is consistent and if not, alarm is raised. The control agencies can effectively plan, monitor and control information flow with comprehensive database of personnel records. They make sure that the performance of IPPIS to bring about the desired gains for which it was implemented is achieved. The control Agencies includes the following: Office of the Head of Service of the Federation (OHCSF), Budget Office (BOF), Office of the Auditor General for the Federation (OAGF),

Central Bank of the Nigeria (CBN) (Flag off and Sensitization of IPPIS, February 7, 2011).

2.7 Third Party Agencies

The third party agencies to IPPIS are: Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS), State Board of Inland Revenue services (BIRS), Pension Commission (Pen-Com), Cooperative Societies, Unions and Associations. However, Office of the Accountant General of the Federation (OAGF) generates mandate and salary remittance. The OAGF is directly in control of the implementation of IPPIS, hence the custodian of the system. They perform the following roles:

- Maintenance and control of the IPPIS database which contains the personnel records of all Federal civil servants.
- Supervision and management of IPPIS implementation for attainment of its set objectives.
- Prescription of standard and uniform infrastructure for the capturing of employment biometric data and processing of payroll.
- Prescription of internal control and guidance and ensuring their compliance to the operation of IPPIS.
- Organization of periodic training for operators/users of IPPIS.
- Provision of cash backing mandates to the CBN in respect of warrants issued by BOF for the payment of staff salaries.
- Attending to queries and complaints arising from IPPIS implementation.
- Analyzing report generated by the MOAs and BOF with a view to identifying areas that need further attention.

In addition, Federal Civil Service Commission (FCSC) is responsible for maintenance of ICT and termination of appointment into Federal Service (Flag off and Sensitization of IPPIS, February 7, 2011).

Also, Nigeria Information Technology Development Agency (NITDA) is responsible for maintenance of ICT infrastructure on which the IPPIS runs; while, Office of the Head of Civil Service of the Federation (OHCSF) is responsible for establishment control and Cadre Management. They design the organization structure of the Federal

Civil Service and provide a framework for which employees are placed when employed, promoted or transferred. Their roles are summarized as follows:

- Keeping records of career progression, that is, movements of all staff, either by way of promotion/demotion, transfers or termination of appointment.
- Maintaining detailed personnel records of Federal Civil Servants.
- Liaising with MDAs and Pool office in the compilation and custody of personnel records. Once more, Office of the Accountant General of the Federation (OAGF) is responsible for mandate generation and payroll process to CBN. The following constitute the processes that take place in (OAGF).
- Principle system Analyst OAGF-receives notification of closed payroll run, payroll report and the warrant from Director Funds, OAGF.
- Generates transaction files for each payment type example, salaries, tax payment, pension contributions, union dues, loans repayment etc.
- Prepares payroll transaction files for transfer to CBN on electronic media (e.g.CD).
- Generates report for mandate generation. Some of these reports include payroll summary, bank analysis, payroll register, End of month analysis and management summary report.

Office of the Auditor General for the Federation is responsible for audit and control oversight. They examine closely all the financial transactions that are recorded/performed with IPPIS by the operators to ensure compliance with laid down rules and regulations.

Budget Office (BOF) is responsible for payroll warrant release, using the information available from IPPIS; they plan ahead the recurrent expenditures to be incurred on personnel emoluments in the incoming year. They also compare actual salary payment with what has been budgeted for. Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) sends the mandate to NIBSS for e-payment into individual employee's bank accounts. Funding of salary payments is done through banks' settlement account with the CBN. Nigeria Inter-Bank Settlement System Plc operates Automated Direct Credits Service to facilitate the payment of civil servants' salaries nationwide through banks. They deliver payment instructions to all banks electronically and ensure that they credit beneficiary same day (Flag off and Sensitization of IPPIS, February 7, 2011).

3. Empirical Review of IPPIS Policy in other Countries

Government of Rwanda since 2008 developed and implemented an Integrated Personnel and Payroll Information System (IPPIS). This is an in-house developed solution. The IPPIS replaced the legacy

payroll system with added functionalities to assist in human resource management. Detailed user manuals and high-level technical documentation were written and modeled using internationally accepted standards. In 2014 the Rwandan government got assistance from the World Bank to improve the system functionality. This requirement was necessary as a result of changes in the operational environment and also changes in the standard governmental procedures related to human resource management (Rwanda's PFMRS, 2013, 2014) cited in Ibanichuka, (2019).

Schwalbe (2007) said "Just as Information Technology Projects have poor track record of meeting projects goals, they also have poor record in meeting budget goals. Adams, et al, (1992) cited in Ibanichuka (2019), replicated the work of Davis (1989) to demonstrate the validity and reliability of his instrument and his measurement scales. The main problem, with the implementation of the IPPIS being implementation of all modules which include Career Development and Succession Planning, Job Evaluation, Grievance Management, Disciplinary Process Management, Employee Contract Management, Organization Structure and Talent Management which were not initially planned in the initial design. To address this problem and to ensure the identified requirements are integrated, the Government sorted assistance of a consultant to work with MDAs, and developed a detailed requirement analysis which involved all stakeholders, documented all workflows and processes, identified and documented business interfaces with external systems, defined the expected input and output for business processes.

In 1999, the Tanzania's Government through the Public Service Management started implementation of a HR and payroll system. In 2010, a business process review was conducted and presented to stakeholders that additional system development was necessary to improve the system functionality. Upgrading of the Lawson system was carried out under many challenges including lack of donor support that had initially supported development of the system. Several reviews of the IPPS identified that the system do not meet the basic requirements for managing both HR and Payroll data. The reviews identified weak implementation strategy that made the system centralized at the Ministry of Public Service. Since then, this has changed and the system decentralized in MDAs (PSRP reports, 2006, 2007, and 2010) in Ibanichuka, (2019).

Adopting information systems could be impeded by laws and regulations but also poor system support. The integrated personnel and payroll information system and integrated financial management and information system have been able to enhance accountability and transparency in the management of government resources. More so, the Ministry of Finance observed in 2013 that the (IPPIS) has enhanced efficient personnel cost, planning and budgeting as personnel cost was based on actual verified aim and not estimates (Idris, Adaja & Audu (2015).

Uganda has been implementing an Integrated Payroll and Personnel System (IPPS) since 2009. The current Oracle database, licenses and operating system have never been updated since 2009. The system was reviewed in 2015. Results from the review indicate that the system data is incomplete; there were inaccuracies between actual payroll data and the IFMIS system. Human Resource Officers were not aware of actual payments made and whether they tallied with the figures computed in the IPPS Payroll. IPPS currently has no alternative Business Continuity & Disaster Recovery Capability. DRS Server has no functional storage as it was taken to replace storage at the production site which had crashed with no replacement as yet. DRS is not connected to the network therefore replication is not working and no back-ups stored in offsite location (Uganda IPPS, (2015) cited in Ibanichuka, (2019).

4. Brief History of IPPIS Policy in Nigeria

Integrated Personnel and Payroll Information System (IPPIS) was first initiated by the Federal Government of Nigeria in the year 2006. The intention was to improve the effectiveness and efficiency in the storage of personnel records and administration of monthly payroll in such a way to enhance confidence in staff emolument costs and budgeting. IPPIS is a child of the Federal Government Reform Programme which was conceptualized at the Bureau of Public Service Reform (BPSR) for the purpose of centralized payment of all civil servants in the employment of the Federal Government. The IPPIS project started in April 2007 with the enrolment of the seven pilot Ministries, Departments and agencies (MDAs). It was financed through a World Bank facility of about USD 4.9 million. It was finally transferred to the Office of the Accountant General of the Federation in 2008. The seven pilot Ministries were: Federal Ministry of Education, Federal Ministry of Works, Federal Ministry of Finance, Budget Office of the Federation, Federal Ministry of Information and Communication, Ministry of Foreign

Affairs, and National Planning Commission (Nwosu, 2010).

The intention was that the system would be implemented in accordance with parts of the world where Information and Communications Technology (ICT) is used to improve management reporting and information. At the initial stage of formulation and planning of the project, Bureau for Public Service Reforms was the custodian of the IPPIS. The scope of the project was to cover the administration of the FGN's human resources beginning with establishment control and cadre management. It would cover all the activities that have to do with recruitment, promotion, transfers, and career movements until appointment termination. The system was to track all the financial transactions that are related and linked to personnel emoluments. For the sustenance of the system, the Federal Government commissioned a formidable consortium of ICT firms that have world class professional capabilities in networking, connectivity, software development and integration for the implementation of the project (Nwosu, 2010).

According to Aganga, (2011), the Integrated Personnel and Payroll Information System (IPPIS) is one of the Federal Government Reforms Initiative conceived to transform the Nigerian Public Service and make it more efficient and effective in service delivery. The IPPIS initiative is aimed at improving the public financial management and providing a centralized payroll system in the country. IPPIS is designed to enroll into platform, all federal government ministries, departments and agencies, that draw personnel cost fund from consolidated revenue fund. The AGF said when fully functional, the system will help solve the challenges for lack of efficiency lack of central control, lack of central management and lack of rendition of figures. Besides, he said, the elimination of replacement of personnel costs in the country.

The huge amount of ghost workers in the previous years is alarming and berating but IPPIS is only objective for pragmatic solution of ghost workers from the payroll system. For example, the federal government has recovered 23, 846 non-existent employees from its payroll according to Festus Akanbi, a Special Adviser to Finance Minister, Kemi Adeosun. Consequently, the salary bill for February 2016 reduced by 2.293 billion naira (10.5 million euros and to \$11.5 million) when compared to December 2015 when the BVN audit process commenced. He explained further that the Ministry announced that it would undertake periodic checks

and utilize computer-assisted audit techniques. The ministry was working with the financial crimes agency and the National Pension Commission to identify irregularities and the aim was to recover salaries and pension contributions related to the ghost workers in the service (Sunday Punch, 2016).

5. Theoretical Foundation

This study on the implementation of IPPIS policy in the Nigerian Universities by Federal Government is based on the Equity theory, which suggests that employee perceptions of what they contribute to the organization, what they get in return and how their return-contribution ratio compares to others inside and outside the organization, determine how fair they perceive their employment relationship to be. Adams in Gerhart, (1995) opined that perceptions of inequity are expected to cause employees to take actions to restore equity. Unfortunately, some such actions like quitting, lack of cooperation especially in form of fraud may not be helpful to the organization.

Cowherd & Levine in Gerhart (1995) added that individuals often compare their pay to that of people higher in the organization structure. If lower level employees feel inequitable treated, they may seek to reduce their effort to achieve equity. In government organizations, government spending and taxation are key tools of fiscal policy. Government expenditure refers to the recurrent and capital expenditure incurred by the public sector for the absorption and maintenance of its resources (Anyaduba, 2013).

Recurrent expenditure is the ongoing expenditure of an organization or expenses that occur repeatedly which involve the payment of salaries, travelling expenses and other miscellaneous expenses. It is paid from the Consolidated Revenue Fund (CRF) and no such expenditure may be incurred except on the authority of a warrant duly signed by the Minister of Finance (Ani, 1998). This means that salaries are paid from recurrent expenditure of government and they are monitored using fiscal policy to avoid over spending. It is used by governments in an attempt to maintain economic growth, high employment and low inflation (Ibanichuka, et al. 2019). The policy is based on the theory of British economist John Maynard Keynes also known as Keynesian economics. This theory basically states that governments can influence macroeconomic productivity levels by increasing or decreasing tax level and public spending. It in turn, curbs inflation, increase employment and maintains a healthy value of money (Heakal, 2013). According to Weil (2008), cited in Ibanichuka, et al (2019), fiscal policy is said to be tight or contraction when revenue is higher than

spending (government budget in surplus) and loose or expansionary when spending is higher than revenue (budget is in deficit).

6. Challenges of Implementing IPPIS Policy in the Nigerian University System

According to Academic Staff Union of University (ASUU), Lagos Chapter (2019), the Integrated Payroll and Personnel Information system has the following challenges:

6.1 IPPIS Violates the University Autonomy

Universities operate differently from the civil service and as such cannot be seen as appendages of Ministries, Departments and Agencies of Government. It is on this premise that, in addition to the Act establishing each University, there is the Universities Miscellaneous Provisions (Amendment) Act 2003 which clearly states in section 2AA that the power of the council shall be exercised, as in the Laws and Statutes of each University and to that extent, establishment circulars that are inconsistent with the laws and statutes of the University shall not apply to the Universities.

Furthermore, the 1992 Act establishing the Federal Universities of Agriculture Section 8 (1 and 4) of the first schedule states that "Subject to the provisions of this Act relating to the visitor, the Council SHALL be the governing body of each University and SHALL be charged with the general control and superintendence of the policy, finance and property of the University. The Council SHALL ensure that proper accounts of the University are kept and that the accounts of the University are audited annually by an independent firm of auditors approved by the Council" From the foregoing, it is clear that aside from the release of the approved budgetary provision, the OAGF has no business in the superintendence, financial control and cost saving measures in the University. This power and responsibility is vested on the Governing Council of each Federal University. The Presidential directive that all employees of Federal Government in MDAs that fail to enroll in IPPIS by October 2020 would not receive salary is not in line with the establishment laws of the Universities and it is a ploy to forcefully enroll our members into IPPIS. By the establishment law, University staffs are employees of their respective Councils. Therefore, the said directive cannot be applied to Universities. The notion that Government is Council and Council is Government as being argued by AGF is incorrect as all members of the Council are not government appointees. It is our

sincere belief that the President will not violate his Oath of Office to abide by the Constitution and the Law of the land when he stated during his swearing into office "...that in all circumstances, I will do right to all manner of people, according to law..." Therefore, where there is conflict between the law and policy/directive, the law takes precedence.

IPPIS is a breach of ASUU-FGN Agreements of 1992, 2001 and 2009: "It was agreed that the Universities should be allowed to operate in compliance with their enabling laws, statutes, rules and regulations in conformity with due process and within the laws of the land" paragraph 5.10, 1992 ASUU-FGN Agreement. "Circulars from ministries SHALL be deemed invalid to the extent that they are inconsistent with the laws and regulations of the Universities and the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria" 2001 ASUU-FGN Agreement (item iv under Powers of Council "Each University SHALL arrange its own cost saving measures" (2009 ASUU-FGN Agreement. pp 25).

IPPIS does not recognize nor adequately capture the flexibility and peculiarities of the university system in terms of replacement/recruitment of staff, movement of staff (visiting, adjunct and part-time), the process of promotion of academics in professorial cadre, retirement age of 65 and 70 years for academics who retired before reaching professorial cadre and those on professorial cadre respectively, remuneration of staff on sabbatical, external examiners, external assessors and earned academic allowances (EAA). Technically speaking, IPPIS is a scam. It creates more problems than it resolves to buttress. The IPPIS system only recognizes staff members that are on permanent and pensionable appointments. "The IPPIS restricts the ability of universities to employ much-needed staff at short notice. Such staff, when recruited, may not be paid until cleared by the Office of the Accountant General of the Federation (OAGF), thus creating avenues for corruption. The dynamism associated with staff recruitment will become cumbersome with the introduction of IPPIS," (Chairperson, ASUU, Lagos Chapter, 2019)

In addition, Mr Ogunyemi who addressed the Senate President described IPPIS as a scam and threat to national security. He also said the payment system violates university autonomy. He noted that contrary to the law expressly backing the Governing Councils of each Federal University to exercise full control over the finances of the universities, IPPIS "lacks constitutional backing; neither is it supported by any Act of the National Assembly" (Premium Time,

2019). The ASUU President said one of the biggest challenges of IPPIS is that it poses great threat to 'national security. The system, he said, is not strategic for a sovereign nation in a world system where almost all countries are vulnerable to sabotage by international cybercriminals and states. He also added that "The IPPIS is not a home-grown initiative; rather it is a prescription of the World Bank, which ultimate consequence is to create anarchy and therefore, retard the growth and development of Nigeria" (Premium Time, 2019).

The union leader said 'IPPIS cannot address specific processes of promotion of academics. For example, the promotion exercise in the professional cadre, which is subject to external assessment that may last for several months; in such cases, when the outcome of the exercise is returned positive, the beneficiary is paid arrears from the beginning of the assessment process; but this cannot be captured by IPPIS' Premium Time (25th Sept. 2019). Implementation of IPPIS in Nigerian Universities will further localize their operations and perspectives, thus negatively impacting their ranking in the global academic community," he added (Premium Time, 2019).

7. Conclusion

The study discovered that university system does not reject IPPIS but argued that IPPIS does not adequately capture its flexibility and peculiarities. Thus there is the need to take into consideration its demand in the IPPIS software application. To help government to achieve, the Academic Staff Union of Universities has developed what it called University Transparency Accountability Software. This software accommodates the peculiarities of the University system with the added advantage of addressing fraud in the payroll system. From the foregoing, we can also conclude that the implementation of IPPIS and UTAS will to a great extent reduce the capacity and opportunity of fraudulent individuals who perpetrate payroll fraud by including names of ghost workers in the payroll of governments at all levels.

In addition, IPPIS does not recognize nor adequately capture the flexibility and peculiarities of the University System in terms of replacement/recruitment of staff, movement of staff (visiting, adjunct and part-time), the process of promotion of academics in professorial cadre, retirement age of 65 and 70 years for academics who retired before reaching professorial cadre and those on professorial cadre respectively, remuneration of staff on sabbatical, external examiners, external assessors and earned academic allowances. It was

also discovered that proper implementation of Integrated Personnel and Payroll Information System will significantly eliminate payroll fraud thereby reducing government recurrent expenditure. The IPPIS policy is likely to offer good results in the society if properly implemented and managed. Hence, it will go a long way in eradicating ghost workers and double-dealings in the Nigerian public service which is minimal in the university system.

8. Recommendations

The Integrated Personnel and Payroll System is a good programme no doubt. The whole world is now in the era of technological knowhow and Nigeria cannot afford to be left behind. Government goals for introducing IPPIS programme which includes improved human management effectiveness, increase confidence in government payroll cost and expenditure management, improvement in overall management reporting and planning, etc. can to an extent be achieved if adequate care is taken to ensure proper implementation of the programme in the university system.

Since IPPIS does not recognize nor adequately capture the flexibility and peculiarities of the University System in terms of replacement/recruitment of staff, movement of staff (visiting, adjunct and part-time), the process of promotion of academics in Professorial Cadre, retirement age of 65 and 70 years for academics who retired before reaching Professorial Cadre and those on Professorial Cadre respectively, remuneration of staff on sabbatical, external examiners, external assessors and Earned Academic Allowances. This study therefore, recommends that the implementation of IPPIS should be replaced by University Transparency and Accountability Software to cater for the needs and peculiarities of the University System.

Government should make sure that they improve on the programme by making use of feedback from people. This can be achieved by ensuring that the IPPIS office receives both civil servants complaints and that of the concerned parties like ASUU and equally attend to them. Government wants the Integrated Personnel and Payroll Scheme to succeed in Nigeria as it did in other developed countries, this can be achieved if only more efforts is put to careful implementation of the project with the co-operation of the civil servants.

However, the fact remains that there are people who are expert in negative acts in every society, Nigeria is

not an exception. Nigeria is one of the countries where people, instead of developing new ideas and improving on existing technology, will rather develop on how to scatter and destroy other people's effort. Government should therefore enact laws and decrees that will be guiding the programme. Offenders of the law should be punished without fear or favour. This will act as a deterrent to others.

The general principle of control in the payroll department is evident amongst many of the best practices of payroll standards. Payroll systems should never be solely handed by one employee. For instance, the employee running the system should be different from the approving the payroll. There is need for rotation of the responsibility of payroll operations between a numbers of people to reduce any opportunity for fraudulent activities. It is difficult to entirely eliminate ghost worker fraud, implementing stringent controls and frequent checks can reduce the risk of such payroll fraud and save the organization on unnecessary monetary losses and time

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Impact of Oil Price Bubble and Economic Growth in Nigeria

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Abstract. The study examined the impact of oil price bubble on economic growth in Nigeria for the period of 1990-2020. Secondary data was collected from World development indicators and CBN statistical bulletin. Descriptive statistics, unit root test, co-integration test, granger causality test, variance decomposition and vector autoregressive model were conducted. Findings revealed that oil price bubble does not have significant effect on economic growth in Nigeria. The study recommended that there is need for policymakers to concentrate on policies that will fortify/balance out the macroeconomic structure of Nigeria with specific emphasis on diversification of the national income base as a means of limiting dependence on oil. Also, after an oil shock, appropriate fiscal policy should be utilized to stabilize Nigerian domestic economy and as exporter and importer of oil, the government of Nigeria needs to set up more refineries and ensure that the current ones are in great condition of repair to reduce the importation and bend the accumulations of the instability.

Keywords: Oil Price Bubble, Economic Growth, Nigeria

1. Introduction

The relationship between oil price changes and macroeconomic activities has continued to attract the attention of researchers and policy makers across the globe. This is as a result of the observed overwhelming importance of crude oil worldwide. Researchers and scholars see oil price changes as important determinants that control macroeconomic activities and, eventually, stock market indices in different parts of the world (Siddique, 2014). The much attention currently given to oil price changes is justified by the imperative roles that oil prices play in

the modern economy. This arises from the revelation by several studies that the price of crude oil, which is the primary fuel for industrial activities, plays a significant role in determining the shape of countries' economic and political developments (Siddique, 2014; Berk). It performs such function by influencing aggregate indicators directly and, also, impacting operational costs and revenues. Cunado and Garcia (2003) as well as Cologni and Manera (2008) project oil price changes as a variable which impacts significantly on domestic price levels, gross domestic product, investment and savings. Consequently, irregular price movements in the energy markets have become an issue of serious concern among both economists and policy-makers (Eksi, Senturk & Vildirim, 2012).

The impacts of crude oil price changes on economic variables have been a controversial but fascinating topic over the past years. The controversy stems from the fact that different and divergent results have been obtained amidst the dire necessity to reduce the negative results of oil price oscillations on the economy (Elias, 2020). Many questions have continued to be asked concerning the direct and indirect relationships between these variables. In an effort to unravel this, many researchers have used several measures in different dimensions to examine this trend. All of these arise from the fact that the impact of the oil price changes varies from country to country depending on whether the country is an importer of oil or an exporter of oil. The magnitude of the direct effect of a given oil price increase depends on the share of the cost of oil in national income, the degree of dependence on imported oil and the ability of end-users to reduce their consumption and switch away from oil (Elias, 2020). In Nigeria, where oil is the major source of income to

the country, its price significantly shapes the economic status of the country.

Crude oil price increased on the average from US\$ 24.36 per barrel in 2002 to US\$50.59 per barrel in 2005. This rising trend in the price of crude oil in recent years reached a record nominal high of US\$ 109.45 in mid 2012 and recorded a sharp drop to US\$69.78 a barrel in 2018 and went further down to US\$50.3 in 2020. After which, it jerked up a little bit to US\$65.62 in 2021 (CBN 2021). This performance has generated increasing concerns about its macroeconomic implications for many countries. As it were, Nigeria is highly vulnerable to fluctuations in the international oil market despite being the 14th largest oil producer in the world. This is due to the fragile nature of the Nigerian macroeconomics and the heavy dependence on crude oil proceeds. Nigeria is presently going through an economic recession partly brought about by the Corona virus pandemic and a slump in the global price of oil, its' primary export product. This study is motivated by the fact that Nigeria relies heavily on crude oil export revenues; representing about 90.0 per cent of total earnings and on an average of 70.0 per cent of government revenues in annual budgets. The distortion in the price of crude oil is bound to affect the pace of economic growth in Nigeria.

2. Review of Literature

2.1 Conceptual Clarifications and Theoretical Underpinnings

Oil price bubbles are predominantly defined as price fluctuations resulting from changes in either the demand or supply side of the international oil market (Wakeford, 2006). These changes are unexpected and unpredictable and have been traditionally traced through the supply-side disruption. Oil price volatility creates uncertainties in terms of firm profitability, valuations and investment decisions. Considered from one perspective, oil is an essential input for industries that consume petroleum products made from crude oil. For companies not involved in the oil industry, increasing oil prices increase business costs. In the absence of an offsetting increase in revenues, increasing such costs would result in a reduction in profits. Viewed from another angle, oil is an essential output for oil exploration and production companies. For such companies, an increase in oil price is a potential increase in profits. For this reason, oil price changes play an important role in the strategic investment decisions of the oil exploration and production companies. Soyemi et al. (2017) propose that, among the several basic global

commodities, crude oil occupies a peculiar position because every country, one way or another, relies on it either as a producer or a consumer. Consequently, fluctuations in crude oil price ultimately affect the global economy. Kilian (2009) asserts that the price of crude oil is influenced by changes in global crude oil supply, aggregate demand for all industrial commodities, and oil specific demand. A boost in crude oil price leads to a reduction in domestic demand and stock prices. For oil exporters such as Oil Mineral Producing Countries (OPEC), the reverse is the case. According to Angelidis, Degiannakis and Filis (2015), oil price changes exerts significant effects on stock markets through a number of channels apart from affecting the world economy. They explain that oil price changes possess incremental ability in predicting the state of the stock market.

2.2 Empirical Review

Ikechi, and Anthony (2020) examined the study made use of secondary data covering the period from 1990 to 2019. The Augmented Dickey-Fuller unit root test was used for preliminary analysis; ordinary least square (OLS) regression analysis was used for short-run estimates. A combination of Johansen Co-integration test, Vector Auto Regression analysis, Granger causality test, Variance Decomposition, Impulse Response tests and the ARCH/ GARCH modelling techniques were used for long run estimation All the tests helped to confirm the integrity of our models. The findings of the study indicate that, in the short run, there was sufficient evidence to show that oil price changes have a significant effect on economic growth. For the long run test, the Trace statistics and Max Eigenvalue tests point to a case of non-integration.

Agbo and Nwankwo (2019) examined the effect of oil price volatility on the volatility of Nigeria's market capitalization. The study used monthly frequency data for the period from January, 1997 to December 2016. Average monthly inflation and exchange rates were introduced in the model as control variables. The results suggest that oil price volatility has a positive and weak effect on the volatility of market capitalization.

Kelikume and Muritala (2019) examined the impact of oil price on African stock markets. With quarterly data from five selected oil producing countries with stock market presence, from Q1:2010 to Q4:2018. The study deployed dynamic panel analysis technique for a model consisting of stock returns, real gross domestic product growth rate, exchange rate and OPEC basket price. One of the the findings show

that an adverse effect of oil prices existed on stock markets in Africa that the negative impact is attributable to fragmented and underdeveloped capital markets.

Afees and Salisu (2017) examined the relationship between oil and stock markets in 13 countries by using a nonlinear panel autoregressive distributed lag model over the period 2000-2015. The study found that there is a positive relationship between changes in oil and stock prices for both oil-exporting and oil importing countries. However, they found that the former exhibit a larger impact.

Ebele (2015) examined the consequence of oil price instability on the economic growth of Nigeria between 1970 and 2014. The study utilized an aggregate demand framework that cautiously linked investigative variables rather than only debating productivity performance by oil price and a collection of variables, as was the case with other analysts. The Engel-Granger test for cointegration and Granger Representation equation were conducted to analyse the connection between oil price instability and the growth of the economy. The analysis indicated that oil price instability has an adverse influence on Nigerian economic growth, although; oil revenue and oil reserves positively influence the economy.

Akinlo and Emmanuel (2014) examined the relationship between changes in oil prices and market capitalization over the period 1981-2011. The study used the vector error correction modelling approach to carry out the analysis. The results suggest a long-run relationship between oil price, exchange rate and market capitalization. A unidirectional causality runs from oil price change to stock market capitalization. The study found that impulse response function shows that oil price has a temporary positive impact on stock market capitalization and that market capitalization is very dependent on oil price fluctuation.

2.3 Theoretical Framework

Following the earlier studies, we base our model on the theoretical underpinning of the Arbitrage Pricing Theory (APT), which assumes the following linear relationship:

$$r_i = \lambda_i + \beta_i R + \epsilon_i \tag{1}$$

Where r_i denotes the return on asset i , λ_i represents the unconditional expected return, R is the vector of different risk factors, β_i is the vector measuring the response of asset return to each risk factor and ϵ_i is

the error term for residual effect of the returns. Nonetheless, our study limits the different risk factors to only oil price shocks. Hence the reduced form of the above APT depicted in Eq. (1) is as follows:

$$r_i = \lambda_i + \beta_i p + \epsilon_i \tag{2}$$

Where p denotes oil price shocks measured by sudden changes in oil prices. However, recent studies conclude that the effect of oil price shocks on the Nigeria private sector could be asymmetric: negative oil price shocks do not have an equivalent effect with positive oil price shock (Salisu & Isah, 2017). Hence, we decompose the oil price shocks into positive oil price shocks and negative oil price shocks, thus modifying the above equation (2) as follows:

$$r_i = \lambda_i + \beta_i p^+ + \beta_i p^- + \epsilon_i \tag{3}$$

Where p^+ measures the positive oil price shocks and p^- measures the negative oil price shocks.

3. Research Methodology

This research employed the following methods for analysis: Descriptive Statistics, Unit Root test, Co-Integration test, granger causality test, variance decomposition and vector autoregressive model.

3.1 Data description

The study utilised secondary data sourced from, world development indicators and CBN statistical bulletin for the period 1990 to 2020. In this study, gross domestic product was used to proxy economic growth while fluctuation in oil price per barrel, kerosene pump price fluctuation, diesel pump price fluctuation and petrol pump price fluctuation were used to proxy oil price bubble

3.2 Model specification

The baseline model estimated for this study is presented as follows:

$$GDP = f(FOPPB, KPPF, DPPF, PPPF) \tag{4}$$

This model was adopted from Antony, Charles and Kevin, (2018) and Akan, and Agbogun (2021). The function in equation (1) is transformed to natural logarithms as follows

$$CRP = \beta_0 + \beta_1 FOPPB + \beta_2 KPPF + \beta_3 DPPF + \beta_4 PPPF + U \tag{5}$$

Where:

GDP = Economic growth

FOPPB = Fluctuation in oil price per barrel

KPPF = Kerosene pump price fluctuation
 DPPF = Diesel pump price fluctuation
 PPPF = Petrol pump price fluctuation
 $\beta_0 = \text{constant}, \beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_4 = \text{the coefficients of the regression equation}$
 U = Stochastic error term.

3.3 Apriori Expectation

Theoretically, the coefficient will take the following outcome:

$\beta_1 > 0, \beta_2 > 0, \beta_3 > 0, \beta_4 > 0$. Thus, real oil price fluctuation proxies should have a positive effect on gross domestic product which is a proxy for economic growth.

3.3.1 Unit root test

The estimation of variable-series that are non-stationary will thus lead to estimates that are spurious and thus render the coefficients unreliable for policy prescription and usage. This entails that the investigation will thus carry out the conventional unit root tests on each of the variables to be used in this analysis. The stationarity test will be carried out with the application of Augmented-Dickey Fuller Statistic. The test involves the estimation of the following regression equation. $x_t = a + bt + x_{t-1} + \Sigma t$ (3)

Where x is the variable under consideration. Thus the ADF unit root test states that **H₀**: $b = 0$ and **H₁**: $b < 0$, where the ADF statistic was compared with the observed Mackinnon critical values. A series that exhibits a stochastic trend will not be stationary and cannot be forecast far in the future. Stationary series will constantly return to a given value and no matter the starting point, in the long-run, it is expected to attain the value.

Given an auto-regressive AR (I) process as follows: $Y_t = m + PY_{t-1} + \Sigma t$, where m and P are parameters and Σt , is the white noise assumption. Y is a stationary series if $-1 < P < 1$. However, the above description is valid only if the series is an AR (1)

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

Table 4.1: Descriptive Statistics

	GDP	DPPF	FOPB	KPPF	PPPF
Mean	41974648	79.09935	55.80581	83.50319	64.09135
Median	37474949	48.00000	50.30000	50.00000	65.30000
Maximum	81363026	334.8750	116.8800	414.6590	192.9320
Minimum	19199060	0.500000	0.550000	0.400000	0.630000
Std. Dev.	21059893	90.78474	35.43453	110.5167	54.73270
Skewness	0.452521	1.318776	0.363925	1.727573	0.722804
Kurtosis	1.768575	3.868904	1.844953	4.951602	2.595020

process. (Dickey & Fuller, 1981). A non-stationary series could be made stationary by differencing once or twice.

3.3.2 Co-integration test

In this research, the Johansen (1991) co-integration method was adopted. A non-stationary series could be made stationary by differencing once or twice. This is called an integrated series. It could be integrated of order I which is often denoted as I(1) or order 2 represented by I(2). The stationary linear combination of the variables under consideration is called co-integration equation. Variables are co-integrated implies that they share a long-run relationship and will move closely together over time, meaning that the differences between such variables are stable over time and there is some degree of convergence in the long-run.

Testing for unit root is a formalization approach of differencing. The analysis and testing for unit roots naturally lead to the theory of co-integration (Iyoha & Ekanem, 2002). This is because, co-integration deals with methodology of modelling non-stationary time series variables and the idea rests on the fact that even though two time series variables may not themselves be stationary, a linear combination of two non-stationary time series are said to be co-integrated.

4. Empirical Results and discussion

This section begins with the descriptive statistics and correlation matrix analysis of the various variables used in estimating our regression model. Also, the unit root test, co-integration test and granger causality test were conducted. The Vector error correction model was conducted. Furthermore, diagnostic tests such as Cholesky VAR normality residual tests, Serial correlation and Heteroskedasticity test were conducted to ascertain the credibility of our model.

Jarque-Bera	3.016696	9.960911	2.407537	20.33959	2.911145
Probability	0.221275	0.006871	0.300061	0.000038	0.233267
Sum	1.30E+09	2452.080	1729.980	2588.599	1986.832
Sum Sq. Dev.	1.33E+16	247256.1	37668.19	366418.0	89870.04
Observations	31	31	31	31	31

Source: Author’s computation (2022) using Eviews

The table above shows the descriptive statistics of the variables used in estimating our regression model. It is revealed that credit to the private sector (GDP) has an average value of 41974648 with a standard deviation of 21059893. Diesel pump price fluctuation (DPPF) is seen to have an average value of 79.09 and a standard deviation of 90.78. Fluctuation in oil price per barrel (FOPB) was seen to have an average value of 55.80 with a standard deviation of 35.43. Kerosene pump price fluctuation (KPPF) was seen to have an average value of 83.503 with a standard deviation of 74.18141. Petrol pump price fluctuation (PPPF) is seen to have an average value of 46.31557 with a standard deviation of 46.71955.

4.2 Correlation matrix

Pearson Correlation depicts the strength of linearity among variables under investigation. Thus the result of our Pearson correlation is given in table 4.2 below.

Table 4.2: Correlation matrix

Variables	GDP	DPPF	FOPB	KPPF	PPPF
GDP	1.000000	0.923293	0.600600	0.877855	0.901779
DPPF	0.923293	1.000000	0.438798	0.943061	0.907126
FOPB	0.600600	0.438798	1.000000	0.257335	0.436805
KPPF	0.877855	0.943061	0.257335	1.000000	0.898628
PPPF	0.901779	0.907126	0.436805	0.898628	1.000000

Source: Author’s computation (2022) using Eviews

Table 4.2 above reveals the correlation between the variables used in the model. It is seen that fluctuation in oil price per barrel, kerosene pump price fluctuation, diesel pump price fluctuation and petrol pump price fluctuation have a positive correlation with credit to the private sector which is a proxy for the Nigerian private sector.

4.3 Unit Root Test

Most time series data are not usually stable in nature; hence they are most times not suitable for forecasting purposes. Thus, the need arises to check the stationary status of the data used. This test was carried out using augmented dickey-fuller ADF test and Phillip-perron test.

Table 4.3: unit root test result

Variables	ADF Levels	ADF First diff	ADF Second diff	PERRON Levels	PERRON First diff	PERRON Second diff
GDP	0.7874 98 (0.9920)	-1.931032 (0.3142)	-7.791875 (0.0000)	2.803832 (1.0000)	-1.805665 (0.3704)	-12.43437 (0.0000)
DPPF	1.714666 (0.9994)	-4.521708 (0.0012)	-3.481623 (0.0192)	5.372374 (1.0000)	-4.535816 (0.0012)	-19.54229 (0.0001)
FOPB	-1.387747 (0.5749)	-5.031788 (0.0003)	-6.970731 (0.0000)	-1.387747 (0.5749)	-5.019290 (0.0003)	-21.44456 (0.0000)
KPPF	4.692430 (0.0000)	-0.622685 (0.8495)	-8.707778 (0.0000)	9.411118 (1.0000)	-3.329304 (0.0226)	-14.35016 (0.0000)
PPPF	-0.827843 (0.7965)	-7.970517 (0.0000)	-7.226164 (0.0000)	-0.118985 (0.9384)	-10.02793 (0.0000)	-37.86082 (0.0000)

Source: Author’s Computation (2022) using Eviews

The table above shows the unit root result of the variables used in the model. It is revealed that using ADF test all the variables were not stationary at levels. However, all the variables became stationary after second difference. Also, using Philip-Perron test, all the variables were not stationary at levels but they all became stationary at second difference.

4.4 Co-Integration test

It is important we consider the relationship among macroeconomic variables in the long-run. If a long run relationship exists among the variables then policy formulation will be reliable based on the perceived relationship among them. Against this backdrop, the Johansen integration test was conducted to examine the presence of long-run relationships among the variables.

Table 4.4: Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Trace and Maximum Eigenvalues)

Null hypothesis	Trace Statistics	Maximum Eigenvalue
R=0	74.69317**	27.65392
R=1	47.03924	24.90411
R=2	22.13514	12.85521
R=3	9.279927	9.225240
R=4	0.054687	0.054687

Source: Author’s computation (2020) using Eviews; ** significant at 5%,

From table 4.4 above, it is observed that trace test statistic indicate one co-integrating equation at 5% level of significance while the Max-Eigen value test indicates no co-integrating equation. Based on the evidence above, we can safely accept the null hypothesis (Ho) which says that there are no co-integrating vectors. Thus, we can conclude that a long run relationship does not exists among the variables.

4.5 Granger-Causality Test

Since impact analysis does not suggest causal relationship, the Granger causality test is employed to determine the causal link between maternal mortality rate, income inequality, health investment, incidence of HIV and literacy rate in Nigeria. The granger causality result is presented in table 4.5 below

Table 4.5: Granger causality test

Null Hypothesis	Observations	F-Statistic	Prob.
DPPF does not Granger Cause GDP	29	0.07395	0.9289
GDP does not Granger Cause DPPF		2.12800	0.1410
FOPB does not Granger Cause GDP	29	0.34560	0.7113
GDP does not Granger Cause FOPB		3.17934	0.0596
KPPF does not Granger Cause GDP	29	0.11998	0.8875
GDP does not Granger Cause KPPF		0.93052	0.4081
PPPF does not Granger Cause GDP	29	0.15513	0.8572
GDP does not Granger Cause PPPF		5.79659	0.0088
FOPB does not Granger Cause DPPF	29	0.19980	0.8202
DPPF does not Granger Cause FOPB		0.56288	0.5769
KPPF does not Granger Cause DPPF	29	3.97853	0.0322
DPPF does not Granger Cause KPPF		1.17448	0.3261
PPPF does not Granger Cause DPPF	29	0.89335	0.4225
DPPF does not Granger Cause PPPF		4.11352	0.0291
KPPF does not Granger Cause FOPB	29	2.10529	0.1437
FOPB does not Granger Cause KPPF		1.20700	0.3166
PPPF does not Granger Cause FOPB	29	0.07004	0.9325
FOPB does not Granger Cause PPPF		0.00777	0.9923
PPPF does not Granger Cause KPPF	29	0.41064	0.6678
KPPF does not Granger Cause PPPF		4.82091	0.0174

Source: Author’s computation (2022) using Eviews

The result revealed a unicausal relationship between credit to the private sector and diesel pump price fluctuation. Unicausal relationship between credit to the private sector and fluctuation in oil price per barrel. A unidirectional relationship exists between Petrol pump price fluctuation and Kerosene pump price fluctuation.

4.6 Regression Result and Interpretation

Table 4.6: Vector Autoregressive Model (GDP)

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	probability
Constant	515314.8	631600.9	0.815887	0.4252
D(DPPF(-1))	2594.686	6697.500	0.387411	0.7030
D(DPPF(-2))	-1568.690	7447.223	-0.210641	0.8355
D(FOPB(-1))	-261.0848	9704.532	-0.026903	0.9788
D(FOPB(-2))	5890.969	11120.07	0.529760	0.6028
D(KPPF(-1))	-900.2096	9649.610	-0.093290	0.9267
D(KPPF(-2))	1695.600	8363.421	0.202740	0.8416
D(PPPF(-1))	2853.995	6898.838	0.413692	0.6840
D(PPPF(-2))	-1644.094	6789.917	-0.242138	0.8114
R-square	0.99	N/A	N/A	N/A
F-stat/Prob	2256.5/0.0000	N/A	N/A	N/A

Source: Author’s computation (2022) using Eviews

The table above shows the result of the vector error correction model estimation. According to the result, first and second period lag of diesel pump price fluctuation (DPPF) have positive and negative effect on economic growth. First and second period lag of fluctuation in oil price per barrel (FOPB), have negative and positive effect on economic growth respectively. First and second period lag of kerosene pump price fluctuation (KPPF), have negative and positive effect on economic growth. Lastly, first and second period lag of petrol pump price fluctuation (PPPF) have positive and negative effect on economic growth. The individual variables are not significant at 5% level. However, the f-statistic shows that the overall model is significant at 1% level while the R-square value of 0.99 shows that all the independent variables can jointly explain 99% variation in economic growth in Nigeria.

4.7 The Cholesky VAR normality residual tests

One of the requirements of regression model is that the error terms of the observations are normally distributed. The study employed the Cholesky (Lutkepohl) test to ascertain this. The results are presented below table

Table 4.7: Cholesky VAR normality test

Component	Test criterion	Joint chi-square	Probability
5	Skewness	45.12713	0.000
5	Kurtosis	117.2741	0.000
5	Jarque-Bera	162.4012	0.000

*Source: Author’s computation (2022) using Eviews ** Chi-square test significant at 5%*

Results from Table 4 show that the residuals are normally distributed as the Skewness, Kurtosis and Jarque-Bera statistics passed the chi-square test at 1%.

4.8 Serial correlation and Heteroskedasticity test

A variety of diagnostic tests were carried out to further ascertain the credibility of the model. The model was tested for autocorrelation (Breusch-Godfrey serial correlation LM test), and VEC Residual Heteroskedasticity test

Table 4.8: Serial correlation and Heteroskedasticity test

Test	Value	Probability
Chi-sq (Heteroskedasticity)	304.1815	0.4219
LM-Stat (serial correlation)	14.37762	0.9547

Source: Author’s computation (2022) using Eviews

Considering the null hypothesis of “there is autocorrelation”, the result in table 5 above indicates that the probability value of (0.9547) is not statistically significant which rejects the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis of “there is no auto correlation. Also, given the null hypothesis that “the variables are Heteroskedastic” the result in table 5 above reveals that the probability value of (0.04219) rejects the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis of “the variables are Homoskedastic. Therefore, residuals are serially uncorrelated, homoskedastic and normally distributed which means the model is valid and can be used for policy recommendations.

4.9 Forecasting Error Variance Decomposition

To further examine the short-run dynamic properties of the model, the forecast error variance decomposition (FEVD) was examined. Akinbobola (2012) believed that the statistical efficiency of the coefficients estimates from Vector Error Correction Model (VECM) cannot be guaranteed, hence most scholars resort to the interpretation of dynamic simulations of Forecasting Error Variance Decomposition (FEVD). The FEVDs is presented in Table 4.9 below.

Table 4.9: Forecasting Error Variance Decomposition

Period	GDP	DPPF	FOPB	KPPF	PPPF
1	100.0000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
2	99.51414	0.264560	0.005047	2.08E-06	0.216249
3	99.06176	0.508243	0.238846	1.76E-06	0.191146
4	98.41169	0.895906	0.522129	0.031753	0.138521
5	97.66183	1.428947	0.739602	0.061186	0.108439
6	96.90181	2.058574	0.881480	0.077191	0.080950
7	96.20848	2.673832	0.963222	0.093988	0.060478
8	95.63921	3.204048	0.994877	0.115330	0.046537
9	95.19199	3.646269	0.984701	0.140208	0.036836
10	94.83921	4.018548	0.944692	0.167582	0.029972

Source: Author's computation (2022) using Eviews

In Table 4.9 the FEVD for the variable gross domestic growth (GDP) for ten periods is presented. Analysis revealed that the variance of CRP is principally driven by own shock. In the period 1, GDP accounted for 100% of its own variance. However, its variance decreases consistently throughout the period until the 10th period to 94.8%. One variable that made significant impact on GDP are DPPF, FOPB and KPPF. By the tenth period, DPPF, FOPB and KPPF contributed 4.0%, 0.94% and 0.167% to GDP respectively. However, PPPF made insignificant contribution to the variance of GDP, which stood at 0.029% by the tenth period.

5. Discussions and Policy Recommendations

This paper examined the effect of oil price bubble on economic growth utilizing annual time series data for the period of 1990 through 2020. The study revealed that first and second period lag of diesel pump price fluctuation (DPPF), fluctuation in oil price per barrel (FOPB), kerosene pump price fluctuation (KPPF) and petrol pump price fluctuation (PPPF), which are proxies for oil price bubbles do not have significant effect on the Nigerian economy as they were not statistically significant at 5% level. Hence, an oil price bubble is not sufficient in influencing the Nigerian economic activities. The result supports the findings of Oriakhi and Osaze (2013) which stated that oil price does not affect economic growth directly. Also, the result supports the findings of Akpan (2009) which stated that there is a marginal effect on the economic growth due to instability in oil price. Ismail and Adegbemi (2013) also found that oil

price shock does not directly contribute to output in Nigeria. Lastly, the findings of Ikechi, and Anthony (2020) indicate that, in the short run, there was sufficient evidence to show that oil price changes have a significant effect on economic growth while for the long run test, the trace statistics and max eigen value tests point to a case of non-integration.

The non-significance impact of oil price bubble on economic growth could be as a result of the influence of the policy variables in stimulating growth in the short run, hence re-directing the impact of oil price shocks in Nigeria. The result of variance decomposition indicated that diesel pump price fluctuation (DPPF) and fluctuation in oil price per barrel (FOPB) are the largest source of variation in GDP apart from self-shock. The contribution of the other oil price bubble proxies (kerosene pump price fluctuation (KPPF) and petrol pump price fluctuation (PPPF)) is minimal compared to that of (DPPF) and (FOPB).

All the variables used for estimating our model were found to stationary at second difference. The LM serial correlation result shows that the model has no sign of serial correlation which means the assumption of the linearity of the model has not been violated because of the superiority of the autocorrelation test in accepting of alternative hypothesis. Also, the Vector Normality test is also considered to show if the model is normally distributed. From the estimation result the Skewness, Kurtosis and Jarque-Bera statistics values which are significant at 1 percent also corroborates the normality assumption of

the specified model. Another test considered by this study is the vector heteroskedasticity test confirms each of the specified equations has a constant variance.

The findings have implications for the Nigerian government. There is need for policymakers to concentrate on policies that will fortify/balance out the macroeconomic structure of Nigeria with specific emphasis on diversification of the national income base as a means of limiting dependence on oil. Also, after an oil shock, appropriate fiscal policy should be utilized to stabilize Nigerian domestic economy and as exporter and importer of oil, the government of Nigeria needs to set up more refineries and ensure that the current ones are in great condition of repair to reduce the importation and bend the accumulations of the instability. Lastly, to guarantee the growth desire of Nigeria, appropriate accountability and corporate administration ought to be cultured as centre values by all partners.

6. Conclusion

This study assessed the impact of oil price bubble on Nigerian economic growth. Using the VAR model, annual time series data for the period 1990 to 2020 was obtained from the CBN statistical database and utilized in this study. The study assesses the following variables: Real Gross National Income, Inflation Rate, Real Government Expenditure, Real Oil price and Real Effective Exchange Rate, while the estimation comprises the unit root, co-integration, Vector autoregressive model, variance decomposition and Granger causality. Based on the results of empirical analysis, it was ascertained that there was sufficient evidence to indicate that oil price changes does not have significant effect on economic growth in Nigeria. The trace statistics and the max Eigen value test also indicate a case of no co-integration. Thus, the study attests to the fact that the relationship between oil price bubble and economic growth in Nigeria is unstable and insignificant in the long run. In conclusion, it can be said that oil price bubble does not drive economic growth in Nigeria.

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Assessment of Wildlife Conservation and Educational Visits at University of Ilorin Zoological Garden, Nigeria

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Abstract. University of Ilorin Zoological garden, serves as a tourism destination to both pupils/students and general public; especially during the festive period. However, little study has been done on the assessment of the perception of visitors to wildlife conservation of the zoological garden. The study assessed wildlife conservation and educational visitation to University of Ilorin Zoological Garden. Data obtained through a pre-tested questionnaire and was analyzed using descriptive statistics. The findings revealed that 58.0% of the respondents were females and 42.0% were males. The highest age group lies between 25-34 years old. 69% of the visitors are from Kwara State, 28% from others state and 3% are foreigners. Students were the highest category (66%) of visitors while 29% represent civil servants. Majority of the respondents had visited other zoological gardens; and the major reason for the visit was for excursion and recreation purposes. 38% got information about the place from their various school, follows by family with 31% and the least are through media(4%). Result further shows that 75% of the respondents were satisfied with the development of Zoological garden while only 7% are indifferent; and 92% of the respondents are ready to visit the Zoological garden again. 57% of the respondents were aware of wildlife conservation through their school, 33% from friends and 10% from family members. University of Ilorin Zoological garden is a good recreation centre that needs to be publicized in the mass media, since the level of awareness from other sources other than from school and friends ranked the lowest.

Keyword: Wildlife, Conservation, Zoological garden, Ilorin

1. Introduction

Generally, zoological gardens are places where wild animals are kept for genetic resources conservation,

domestication and captive breeding, research, educational training, recreation and for economic reasons (Sijuade, 1977; Owolabi, 1986; Ayodele et al., 1999). At times, strange domestics and companion animals are also on display. There is a long tradition of maintaining some wild animal species in captivity. However, few species were kept on a large scale. This has changed over the last half century, with breeding groups of a wide range of wild animals having been established. The reasons for this include commercial, scientific, conservation and welfare factors.

Wildlife conservation education is a process of spreading information and knowledge about the sustainable use of wildlife products/resources and the aims is to provide learners with the opportunity to gain an awareness of wildlife and their environment. This knowledge and experience surrounding the sustainable use of wildlife, to acquire a set of values and positive attitudes is to obtain the required skills to identify and solve wildlife related problems. Both formal and non-formal education is indispensable to changing people's attitudes in this regard (Jacobson et al., 2006; UNESCO, 1992). This highlights the importance of education as a critical tool for achieving sustainable development both at formal and non-formal level, thus its inclusion as part of the curriculum. In Nigeria today, wildlife conservation implementations are being taught in school, especially from the area of biology, ecology, geography, history, and nature conservation (Ayodele et al., 1999).

Zoos are not only for a collection of animals but can also be reflection of the past, present and future of the animals, thus providing recreation serving as an entertainment and educational centre, where people of all ages can visit and enjoyed the sighting of different species of animals (Kuuderet al., 2013; Uloko, 2004; Borokini, 2013; Corazon, 2008). The

major focus of zoological garden therefore is to provide educational information on conservation in order to influence attitudinal changes towards wildlife conservation. And to achieve this effectively, care and maintenance of the pseudo habitat of the animals in captivity must be maintained (Rabb, 1994; Knowles, 2003). Good measures of this indicator are visitors who can make a good evaluation of the animal welfare. Visitors to zoological gardens make judgment about animal welfare on the basis of what observe during their visit (Hassan, 2015). This study assessed wildlife conservation and educational visits at university of Ilorin Zoological Garden with the aim of providing information on the levels of awareness amongst the visitors. As well as provide insights for the management and conservation of wildlife in Nigeria.

2. Research Methodology

2.1 Description of Study Area

University of Ilorin Zoo was established in 1985 to complement the University’s biological sciences departments in teaching and research. It is located at the main gate of the University within latitude 8°30’N and longitude 4°35’E, with a children playground and picnic grounds. A major attraction to

the zoo is the 150meters long and 45meters high suspended canopy walkway which has continued to draw visitors to the zoo. The fact that most of the forest vegetation has been left undisturbed and the presence of a stream which flows through the zoo creates a serene and near natural environment which makes the zoo unique. The zoo drew over 55,000 visitors annually comprising schools, religious bodies, clubs and societies on excursion and picnics as well as families and individuals.

2.2 Data Collection and Sampling Method

One hundred and twenty (120)copies of structured questionnaire were administered to visitors using a random sampling technique for the period of the study.100 questionnaires were recovered at the end of the period. Accidental approach were adopted in the administration of the questionnaire followed by a secondary gathering of information from records and files while interviews with experienced zoo staff was used to augment data generated from questionnaire.

2.3 Data Analysis

Data obtained were analyzed using descriptive statistics where results were expressed in tables, frequency and percentage.

3. Results

Table 1: Demographic Characteristic of the Respondents

Demographic	Variables	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	42	42.0
	Female	58	58.0
	Total	100	100.0
Age Group	≤14	7	7.0
	15-24	23	23.0
	25-34	41	41.0
	35-44	19	19.0
	45 and Above	10	10.0
	Total	100	100.0
Residency	Kwara State	69	69.0
	Others State	28	28.0
	Foreign	3	3.0
	Total	100	100.0
Major Occupation	Students	66	66.0
	Civil Servant	29	29.0
	Others	5	5.0
	Total	100	100.0
Level Of Education	Primary	4	4.0
	Secondary	45	45.0
	NCE/ND/HND/Bsc	51	51.0
	Total	100	100.0
Religion	Christianity	36	36.0
	Islam	64	74.0
Total		100	100.0

Socio-economic characteristics of the respondents in table 1, shows that majority (58.0%) were females, while 42.0% represented the male. The age range of the respondents reveals that most (41%) of them falls between the ages of 25-34, follows by 15-24 with 23% while the least (7.0%) fall between the ages of ≤14years old. The

residency status of the respondents indicates that 69% are from Kwara State, 28% are from others state and only 3% are foreigners. The major occupation of the respondents indicated that 66% are students while 29% are civil servants. Educational level of the respondents shows that 51.0% are tertiary holder certificate, 45% secondary school certificate holder and only 4.0% are primary school certificate holders. The table also revealed that 64.0% are Muslim while 36% are Christian.

Table 2: Checklist of Some Animals at the University of Ilorin Zoological Garden

Species	Scientific Name
Baboon	Papioanubis
Civet Cat	Nondiniaspp
Common Eland	Tragelapusroryx
Common Jackal	Canisavrius
Crocodile	Crocodile spp
Crowned crane	Balericapavonina
Domestic Pigeon	Columba domestica
Donkey	Equusasinus
Dove	Strepopeliadeciplers
Giraffe	Giraffe comelopardalis
Hooded Vulture	Neophonnonachus
Lion	Pantheraleo
Marabou Stark	Leptoptiloscrumeniferus
Monitor Lizard	Niloticusspp
Nile Monitor	Veranus spp
Ostrich	Struthiocamelus
Owl	Tyto alba
Patas monkey	Erythrocebuspatas
Python	Python sebae
Spotted Hyena	Crocutacrocuta
Stripped Hyena	Hyaenahyaena
Tortoise	Testudosuicata
White Stork	Ciconiacionia

Source: Field Survey 2019

Table 3: Visitation and conservation education variables

Variables	Variables	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Purpose of visitation	Recreation	39	39.0
	Research	12	12.0
	Excursion	49	49.0
	Total	100	100.0
How did you know about the Zoo?	Friends	27	27.0
	Family	31	31.0
	Media	4	4.0
	School	38	38.0
	Total	100	100.0
Level of satisfaction?	Yes	72	72.0
	No	21	21.0
	I don't know	7	7.0
	Total	100	100.0
How was the reception from the zoo staff?	Hostile	5	5.0
	Warm	79	79.0
	Indifferent	16	16.0
	Total	100	100.0
	Who sponsored your trip?	Individual	81
Contribution			
School		19	19.0
Management			
Teacher/Lecturer		0	0.0
Will you visit again?	Total	100	100.0
	Yes	92	92.0
	No	8	8.0
	Total	100	100.0

Table 3 shows that the reason for visiting the zoological garden was for excursion (49%), recreation (39%) while research purpose 12%. The source of information about the Zoological garden shows that 38% get to know through their various schools, 31% from family and friends and only 4% are through the media. The table further reveals level of satisfaction derived from the development of Zoological garden in which 72% are satisfied and 7% are

indifferent. 79% of the respondents had a warm reception from the staff while 5% indicated a hostile reception and 16% are indifferent. The table further reveals that 81% of the respondents were self-sponsored while 19% accounted for school management sponsored; with 92% of the respondents willing to visit the Zoological garden again. Figure 1 shows that 66% of the respondents indicated that they had visited other zoological garden apart from Unilorin Zoological Garden indicated while 44% had visited no other zoological garden before.

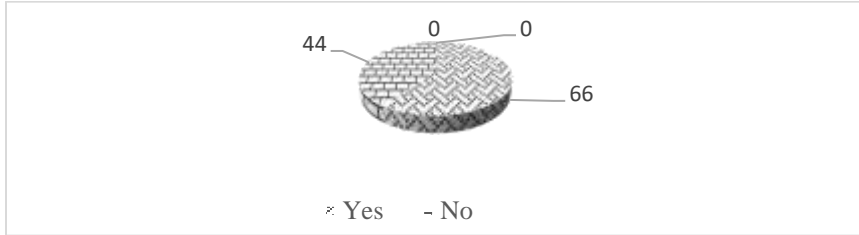


Figure 1: Visitation to other zoological garden

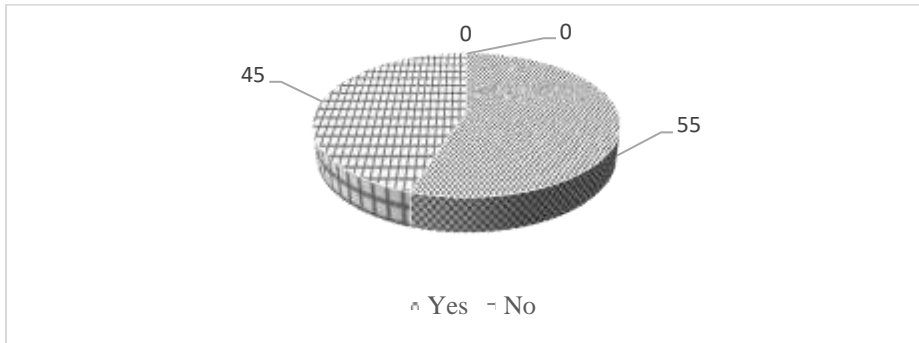


Figure 2: Awareness of Wildlife Conservation

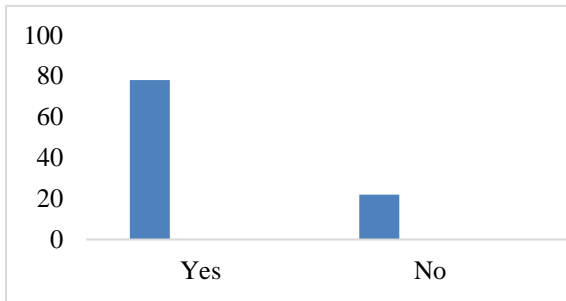


Figure 3: Willingness to Support Wildlife Conservation

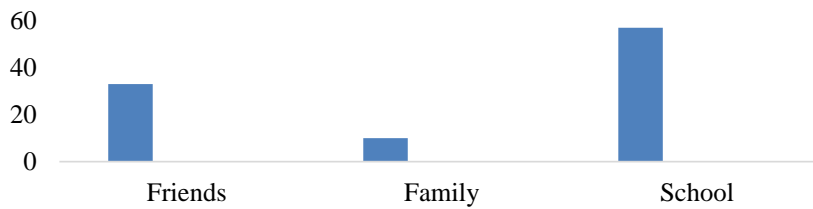


Figure 4: Source of Information about Wildlife Conservation

Figure 2: shows that 55% of the respondents are aware of wildlife conservation while 45% are not aware. Figure 3 shows that 78% of the respondents are willing to support wildlife conservation while 22% are not willing. Figure 4 shows that majority of the respondents got their knowledge of wildlife conservation through their school (57%), follows by friends (33%) and the least is through family with 10%.

4. Discussion

The study shows that more females than males visited the zoo within the study period. This is not in accordance with Alarape et al., (2015) which opine more males seek for recreation than their female counterparts. Many of the visitors fall within age group 25-34 years and 15-24 years. This clearly indicates that youths are more interested in conservation activities, and can be carriers of wildlife conservation message if adequate awareness is created among them. The result is in agreement with Edet et al., (2017) which reports that more youths visit zoological garden than the old age counterparts. More of students (66%) visited the zoological garden than other forms of vocations this is in agreement with the work of Ojo (2019) whose result indicated that 65% of the respondents were students which happened to be the highest.

Most (69.0%) of the respondents were residents of Kwara State. This calls for more awareness in the mass and social media as this will go a long way in promoting the activities of University of Ilorin Zoological garden outside the State.

The educational levels of visitors are more within tertiary and secondary educational level. This is further reflected in the higher percentage of students (66%) visiting the zoo for recreational, excursion and research purposes. The result agrees with Mohan et al., (2015) which reported high number of students visiting Zoo in Nairobi. Excursion and recreation rank the highest reason for their visit to the zoo with majority of the respondents (66.0%) indicating that they have visited others zoo. This gave them a broad knowledge about zoological garden and the opportunity to compare University of Ilorin Zoological Garden to others Zoological garden in Nigeria and Other countries that they have visited. According to Jacobson et al., (2006) the aims of conservation education is to provide learners with the opportunity to gain an awareness and become sensitivity to wildlife and their environment, so as to gain knowledge and experience of the problems

surrounding the sustainable use of wildlife, as well as to acquire a set of values and positive attitudes.

According to Falk et al.,(2007) visitors are good evaluators of conservation areas like zoological gardens; larger percentage of the respondents were satisfied with the level of development in the zoo while reception in form of hospitality from zoo staff was ranked very warmly (79.0%). This level of satisfaction and perception show that the University of Ilorin Zoological Garden is a good tourist destination and have the capability to actualize basic concepts and objectives of the establishment of zoological gardens. The larger percentage of individuals (81%) willingness to sponsor themselves to the study area as well as desire to visit again (92%) is an indication level of satisfaction, because happy visitor will tends to visit the same destination again. This is in line with Ijeomah et al., (2005) who stated that people visit the zoo to satisfy their natural curiosities. It is hoped that visitors leave the zoo with a positive change of mind towards the support of conservation because of the impact of the zoo and its officials on their psyche as they become environmentally informed.

Visitors heard about the zoo through friends (27.0%), family (31.0%), school (38.0%) and media (4.0%). This implies that the experiences from family and friends have positive impact in generating more interests for intending visitors and tourists to the zoo. The level of awareness on wildlife conservation amongst the respondents, as well as willingness to support wildlife conservation may be due to the level of education among the respondents; and with majority being students, many of the respondents got their awareness from schools.

University of Ilorin Zoological Garden attracts more people within the age bracket 15-34 years and the major purpose was for recreation and excursion. The willingness amongst the respondent to revisit the zoo suggest that the facilities provided at the zoological garden was satisfactory as well as a warm reception. This makes the zoo a good location to propagate wildlife conservation knowledge through the guide.

It is therefore recommended that awareness of University of Ilorin Zoological Garden should be made known to the neighboring states through mass media. Additional animal should be procured especially Elephant to increase attraction to the place especially for the foreigners.

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International Business and Nigerian Economic Growth

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Abstract. This study examined the relationship between international business and Nigerian economic growth from 2010 through 2019. The study specified linear model by expressing economic growth measured by GDP as a function of international business measured by the value of export, import, forex allocation for import business and exchange rate. Quarterly data were collected from the various editions of CBN's statistical bulletin and SEC's statistical bulletin. Analysis of the data was done by employing Autoregressive Distributed Lags Model. The result revealed that in the short run, export trade was negatively and insignificantly related to economic growth while import was positive associated with economic growth. Furthermore, foreign exchange allocation to import business also had negative and insignificant relationship with economic growth while exchange rate maintained positive and significant relationship with Nigerian economic growth. Based on the findings, it was concluded that international business has mixture of insignificant positive and negative relationship with Nigerian economic growth and recommended that government should wade into the export development policy and review it objectively to facilitate easy and cheaper entrance into export business reversing the trends of negative relationship between Nigerian economic growth and her international business.

Keywords: International business, Relationship, Export, Import

1. Introduction

It cannot be over emphasized that international trade is important and beneficial to underdeveloped countries of the world while it plays significant roles in contributing to Gross Domestic Product, generation of employment opportunities development

of economy and reduction of poverty is notable (Okenna, 2020). In line with the submission of Yusuf, Nchom, Osuji and Udeorah, (2020) what international trade entails is that, with the advent of globalization, it is an irrefutable fact that with respects to production and consumption of all goods and services, no nation can exist in isolation and independence of the other nations. Hence, there must be exchange of what each country produces with the other's so as to ensure development and sufficiency as countries differ with respect to resources and other constraints (Stephen & Obah, 2017). To this end, international business relationship suggests that in order to generate revenue to cater for goods and services which cannot be locally produced, and hence imported into a country, such country must export goods and services to other countries

When a country is not engaging in international trade will suffer the risk of low rate of economic growth due to strong reason that no country is endowed with all resources required for its sustainable growth and development. International trade, which can be interchangeably called international business, encompasses the import and export of goods and services in a country. Thus, it has been posited by Li, Chen and San (2010) that imports and exports from a country represent a huge share of her Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and as result of this, there exists a correlation between international trade and economic growth. They concluded that in an open economy, growth of Gross domestic Product is greatly impacted by the development of international trade.

Obviously, because of the above position of Chen and San (2010), Mike and Okojie (2012) as cited in Elias et al. (2018) assert that for a long time, factors that are responsible for differences in growth rate as well as the level of wealth achieved by different countries of the world have remained the keen

interest of the Economists. According to them trade is one of those factors; and international business transactions form a significant proportion of the Nigerian aggregate output. By implication, one of the macro-economic variables to measure the success of failure of any economy is balance of trade, which is an offshoot of international business transactions engaged in by that economy. Nigeria as a developing country relies so much on other countries to satisfy some of her local needs by importing goods and services (technology, expertise, transportation, vehicles, etc.) from other countries where they can perhaps be produced cheaper and efficiently than Nigeria. Nigeria, in return also exports some of the locally produced goods and services (cocoa, rubber, banking, transportation, etc.) to other countries that cannot produce them cheaper than Nigeria. If the foregoing is true, Nigerian government, just like every other nations have embraced international trade as one of the bedrock strategies to achieve development and growth due to the implied belief in the potency of trade when it comes to job creation, market expansion, income generation, stimulation of competition and knowledge exchange (Ogbaji & Ebebe, 2013).

To lend credence to the submission of Ogbaji and Ebebe (2013), trade which is categorized under service sector has been the second largest contributor to Nigerian GDP in the last 5 years with crop production under agriculture being the highest contributor. The contribution of trade to economic growth measured by real Gross Domestic Product in the last 5 years has been the N11,697.59bn, N11,669.06bn, N11,546.45bn, N11,473.79bn and N11,430.55bn, constituting about 17%, 17%, 17%, 16% and 16% for 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018 and 2019 respectively (Central Bank of Nigeria, 2019). Similarly, the total export trade for these years stands at N10,011.52bn, N7,752.75bn, N9,264.29bn, N11,184.04bn and N20,121.42bn, constituting 14.5%, 11.4%, 13.5%, 16.02% and 28.19% of Nigerian GDP for the aforementioned years (Central Bank of Nigeria, 2019). The foregoing attests to the existence of a relationship between international trade or business and Nigerian economic growth.

As posited by Arodoye and Iyoha (2014), it has become difficult to arrive at empirical consensus regarding the relationship between international business and economic growth due to divergence in the natural resources, size, and trade policy in different countries of the world. Certainly, a great deal of research has been conducted in an attempt to establish a link between international business and economic growth. However, all the existing studies have concentrated their attentions on the collection of

annual time series data and their findings have been based on these annual data. This might have accounted for why there is no consensus concerning the relationship between international trade and Nigerian economic growth among the scholars. Thus, unlike existing studies, this study collects and analyzes quarterly data and therefore, offers different perspective on the relationship between international trade and Nigerian economic growth. Furthermore, existing studies have not accounted for the effect of forex allocated to exporters and importers on economic growth on annual basis; and unless this is done, the complete effect of international business on economic growth cannot be said to have been accounted for and this will aid the problem of lack of consensus to linger on in the literature. Hence, this study thus considers the effect of forex allocated for international business purposes on Nigerian economic growth.

The studies formulate questions in order to guide the study such as; (i) What is the relationship between export business and Nigerian economic growth? (ii) What is the relationship between import business and Nigerian economic growth? (iii) What is the relationship between international trade-bound forex and Nigerian economic growth? (iv) What is the relationship between exchange rate and Nigerian economic growth?

The overall objective of this study is to examine the relationship between international business and Nigerian economic growth. Other specific objectives are to examine the relationship between export business and Nigerian economic growth, evaluate the relationship between import business and Nigerian economic growth, Investigate the relationship between international trade-bound forex and Nigerian economic growth, Find out the relationship between exchange rate and Nigerian economic growth.

The hypotheses of this study are presented in a null form (i) Export business has no significant relationship with Nigerian economic growth (ii) Import business has no significant relationship with Nigerian economic growth (iii) International trade-bound forex has no significant relationship with Nigerian economic growth (iv) Exchange rate has no significant relationship with Nigerian economic growth.

2. Literature Review

2.1 International Trade

Abebe (1995) views Trade as a series of exchange of goods and services via transactions that take place

in the market; should the trading activities involves two or more countries, it is called international trade or business. Consequently, an arrangement by which countries exchange (i.e import and export) goods, services and capital among themselves is called international trade (Samuelson & Nordhaus, 2002) according to them, expansion in opportunities to trade, involvement of different countries and exchange rate are three factors that distinguish domestic trade from international trade with. According to Ingram and Dunn (1993), the motivation for involvement in international business is that it brings about specialization, which in turn raises productivity.

Babatunde, Jonathan and Muhyideen (2017) posit that International trade influences economic growth of nations by attracting foreign direct investment. Lall (2000) and Te Velde (2001) as cited in Babatunde et al. (2017) assert that international trade is the conduit through which countries have access to foreign direct investment for promotion of economic growth.

2.2 Export

Elias, Agu and Eze (2018) see export as the gross amount of goods and services produced within the geographical boundary of a country and which are sold to other countries. To them, export which constitutes inflows into an economy has the potency to boost competition, allow manifestation and harvest of the benefits of comparative advantage and aids achievement of favourable balance of payment by an economy. Furthermore, according to Arthar et al. (2012) and Konya (2004), the consensus in the literature is that export affect economic growth through economies of scales which enhance efficient allocation of resources and improve productive capability of the economy. There has been no consensus in the literature as to the nature of relationship of export with Nigerian economic growth as existing findings have mixture of negative and positive relationship derived from collection and analysis of annual data. Hence, this study aims to establish the relationship between export and Nigerian economic growth.

2.3 Import

The summation of the value of goods and services that are consumed and used by the residents of a country and which are produced and supplied by other countries is referred to as import. It constitutes a withdrawal from an economy and hence, import is always expected to impact negatively on the

economy (Elias, Agu & Eze, 2018). They concluded that a country that hopes to grow her economy and enjoy favourable balance of payment needs to prune down the quantity of her imports in comparison with export quantity. To confirm the forgoing conclusion, this study aims to measure the relationship of import with Nigerian economic growth.

2.4 Benefits of International Business

The comparative cost theory has posited that greater advantage would be obtained by countries if they specialized on the production of those goods and services they can produce at cheaper cost than other countries. Hence, there are many benefits accompanying international business which helps the economic development of a country. Along this line, Stephen and Obah (2017) highlight some benefits associated with international business as follows:

- Increase in total world aggregate output of commodities and service, and this brings about increase in the various goods and services available to consumers and positively affects their standard of living.
- Stimulation of competition by opening up economy for such determination of prices is done by market forces.
- International business allows transfer of technology and ideas globally.
- Nigeria has benefited from international business via importation of machineries, equipment, vehicles which has helped to increased productive capacity and by extension economic growth.

2.5 Economic Growth

Yusuf, Nchom, Osuji and Udeorah (2020) Meanwhile, economic growth is the increase in the volume of commodities and services manufactured by an economy over a specified time frame. It is usually measured as the percent rate of increase in real gross domestic product. Growth is usually calculated in real terms, that is, inflation adjusted terms, in order to net out the effect of inflation on the price of goods and service produced. Saibu, et al. (2011) point that real gross domestic product is calculated by dividing the gross domestic output by the consumer price index.

2.6 Heckscher-Ohlin Theory

Theoretically, whereas Hechscher-Ohlin posits that if nations should produce and export goods in which they have factor endowment advantage and take the reserve on import. This theory was developed by two Swedish economists namely: Eli Heckscher and Bertil Ohlin in the early 1900s. Later

and up till today, this theory is known as Heckscher–Ohlin model. The crux of this theory is that the pattern of foreign trade is a function of the differences in the factor endowments of the countries in the world. It thus advocates that countries should export those goods and services the factors of which are locally and cheaply available why goods that make intensive use of factors that are scarce locally should be imported. They predict that if the foregoing is achieved, international trade will promote economic growth based on the following main assumptions:

- Labor and capital moves freely between sectors and across sectors within a country.
- Different countries have different amount of labor and capital
- The level of technology is the same across the countries
- There is no differences in the tastes among the countries

Since the focus of this study is on the relationship between international business and economic growth, this theory is insightful in the understanding of such relationship and hence, it is employed as the theoretical foundation of this study.

2.7 Empirical Review

Stephen and Obah (2017) examined the effect of international trade on the economic growth of Nigeria from 1981 to 2015. The model specified in this study expressed economic growth measured by gross domestic product as dependent as a function of international trade proxied by non-oil imports, oil imports, Non-oil exports, and oil exports as the independent variables. The study sourced Secondary data from CBN statistical bulletin and employed multiple linear regression estimation techniques for data analysis. Findings for this study revealed existence of significant positive impact of international trade on economic growth in Nigeria; specifically, while non-import and non-export had significant positive effect on economic growth, oil export had significant negative effect and oil import had insignificant positive effect. Based on this finding, it was recommended that over-dependence on oil exports by government should be reduced while increase and diversification of export base should be encouraged to shore up revenue.

Adeleye, Adeteye and Adewuyi (2015) assessed the impact of international trade on economic Nigerian economic growth in Nigeria between 1988 and 2012. Net export and Balance of Payment were used as proxies for international trade which is the explanatory variable while Gross Domestic Product

represented economic growth as the dependent variable. The study collected annual time series data from secondary sources and employed co-integration and Error Correction Modeling techniques to establish the long-run relationship between economic growth and international trade. It was revealed that only total export maintained positive and significant relationship with economic growth while others maintained negative and insignificant relationship with economic growth. Based on this finding, it was recommended that government should therefore pursue aggressive by diversifying the economy by setting up policies and incentives that will boost non-oil export, the manufacturing sector and overall promote the growth of industry in Nigeria.

Azeez, Dada and Aluko (2014) empirically examined the effect of international trade on the economic growth of Nigeria in the 21st century covering a period from 2000 to 2012. In this study, the dependent variable was the economic growth which was measured by GDP while international trade as the independent variable was proxied by imports, exports, and trade openness. Annual time series data were collected Central Bank of Nigeria Statistical Bulletin while estimation of the specified model was done by Ordinary Least Square technique. Findings from this study revealed that international trade had a significant positive impact on economic growth. In effect, while Imports and Exports had significant positive effect on the Nigerian economy, Trade Openness maintained significant negative effect on Nigerian economic growth. The study subsequently recommended that government should endeavour to reduce excess dependence on oil exports, increase and diversify the level export base so as to increase revenue base of the country.

Elias, Agu and Eze (2018) carried out a study to evaluate the impact of import trade on the growth of Nigerian economy. GDP was used to proxy Nigerian economic growth as dependent variable while the value of import and export were used to proxy international trade as independent variables. Annual data for this study were obtained from the CBN statistical bulletin. Analysis of the data was carried out with multiple regression analysis technique. The finding of this study revealed that export had significant positive impact on the Nigerian economic growth while import had an insignificant negative effect on the Nigerian economic growth. Based on these findings, they recommended that efforts should be made by Nigerian government. Moreover, this study recommended export diversification and oil sector export minimization which also aligns with the

recommendation made by Azeez, Dada and Aluko (2014).

Awujola (2013) evaluated the impact of external trade on Nigeria economy from 1970 – 2010. The sum of import and export as total trade was used as the dependent variable while gross domestic product, inflation rate, capacity utilization, exchange rate, government expenditure, interest rate, import and export were the independent variables. Time series secondary data were extracted from the Central Bank of Nigeria, International Financial Statistics as well as the World Bank. Data were analyzed by employing ordinary least square regression technique and the result revealed that GDP, inflation rate, capacity utilization exchange rate and export were all positively and significantly related international trade while government expenditure, interest rate and import had negative relationship with international trade. Consequent to this finding, it was recommended that essential actions that will stimulate productivity and competitiveness of Nigerian enterprises in the export part should be taken by the government while necessary infrastructures such as technology, human capital development and other resources that could stimulate international trade should be looked into.

Ijirshar (2019) investigated the impact of trade openness on economic growth among ECOWAS countries by collecting annual time series secondary data from 1975 to 2017. GDP was the dependent variable to measure economic growth while foreign direct investment, gross fixed capital formation, trade openness, labour force, government expenditure and exchange rate were the explanatory variables. The data collected in this study were analyzed by non-stationary heterogeneous dynamic panel models through the application of Pooled Mean Group and Mean Group estimators since time dimension was more than cross-sections. Results from this study showed that trade openness had positive effects on economic growth in ECOWAS countries in the long-run but the effect was a mixture of both negative and positive in the short-run. The study thus recommended that ECOWAS member countries should foster cooperation among economic actors by making use of export consortia in order to help SMEs in the region in accessing cross border markets and to achieve a dual technique of trade and competitiveness.

While examining the contribution of international trade to economic growth in Nigeria, Abiodun (2017) specified a linear model which expressed a link between international trade and economic growth. In

the model, real gross domestic product was a proxy for economic growth as dependent variable while export volumes, import volumes, trade openness, gross capital formation and exchange rate were the proxies for independent variables. Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF), co-integration, vector error correction model and Granger Causality were deployed to analyze the data. Result of the analysis showed that in the short run, export volumes and gross capital formation had positive and significant effect on Nigerian economic growth; also, while import volume had positive and insignificant effect on economic growth, trade openness had negative and insignificant effect on economic growth in the short run. Furthermore, the causality test revealed a uni-directional relationship between the international trade and economic growth. It was consequently concluded that generally, and international trade had a positive relationship on economic growth.

Lawal and Ezeuchenne (2017) conducted a study to find out the impact of international trade on Nigerian economic growth from 1985 to 2015. Economic growth proxied by GDP was expressed as a function of international trade which was measured by imports, exports, balance of trade and trade openness. In the analysis of data, Unit Root Test, Johansen Co-integration Test and Vector Error Correction Model were employed for data analysis. The result showed that there was a long run relationship between international trade and economic growth; thus, import, balance of trade and trade openness were all significant and positively associated with economic growth in the long run while export was positive and significant. However, in the short run, while export and balance of trade were positive and significantly associated with economic growth, trade openness was negative and insignificant, and import was positive and insignificant. The granger causality test revealed that economic growth was independent of imports, exports and balance of trade but maintained unidirectional with trade openness. Consequently, it was recommended that government take advantage of finished goods exploration and prune down import with respect to finished goods so as to promote economic growth.

Arodoye and Iyoha (2014) in their study examined the connection between foreign trade and Nigerian economic growth using quarterly time-series data from 1981Q1 through 2010Q4. This study specified a VAR model in which real gross domestic product, exports, foreign direct investment and the exchange rate interacted simultaneously. The data series used were collected from various editions of the Central Bank of Nigeria's Statistical Bulletin. Vector

autoregressive model was employed in the analysis of the data set. The results obtained showed that there was a stable and long-run relationship between foreign trade and economic growth. The results of variance decomposition revealed that the predominant cause of variation in Nigerian economic growth was due to its own shocks and shocks from trade innovations. Therefore, the study recommended adoption of expansion in trade policies as a solution to speeding up Nigerian economic growth.

Obisike, Onwuka, Okoli and Udeze (2020) empirically examined the impact of international trade on Nigerian economic growth from 2000 to 2018. The study obtained secondary time series data and analyzed data by Phillips Peron Unit root test, Engle-Granger co-integration test, Vector Error Correction Model, and Granger Causality test. Finding from their study revealed that the oil trade and non-oil trade maintained positive impact on Nigerian economic growth in the short run; this finding confirms that of Arodoye and Iyoha (2014) that in the short run, international trade is positively associated with Nigerian economic growth. Also, in line with Arodoye and Iyoha (2014), Obisike, Onwuka, Okoli and Udeze (2020) study revealed that international trade and GDP are independent of each other. Based on the foregoing, it was concluded that that international trade in term of oil and non-oil were vital propeller of economic Nigerian growth and recommended that government should encourage not only the oil sector but also the non oil sector.

Okenna (2020) evaluated the importance of international trade to the economies of developing countries in Africa from 2000 – 2019. GDP was the dependent variable to measure economic growth while exchange rate, import and export were the independent variables that measured international trade. Data for the study were collected from World Bank and the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development and analyzed using ordinary least square regression technique. Finding from the study revealed that both import and export trades had positive and significant effects on the Nigerian economic growth; exchange rate however maintained negative and significant effect on economic growth. Based on these findings, the study concluded that international trade is essential in driving any economy that must be encouraged in African developing countries as it has the potential to achieve the required developmental goal and recommended that tight macroeconomic policies should be put in place to facilitate increased multiple effect on of international trade on African developing countries.

2.8 Identification of Gap

A critical look at the above studies reveals that the nature of the relationship between international trade and economic growth has remained unsettled as some scholars on one hand have empirically found international trade to have positive effect on Nigerian economic growth (Okenna, 2020; Obisike et al. (2020); Arodoye & Iyoha, 2014, Abiodun, 2017 and Lawal & Ezeuchenne, 2017). On the other hand, other scholars have found out that only export part of international business positively facilitating economic growth while the import part is negatively associated with economic growth (Awujale, 2013; Elias, Agu & Eze, 2018). Hence, if this controversy is not resolved, literature would remain ambiguous about the nature of relationship between international business and economic growth. This study strives to reduce this ambiguity by consolidating on the existing studies to examine the relationship between international business and economic growth.

Furthermore, all the existing studies have concentrated attentions on the collection and analysis of annual time series data and their findings have been based on these annual data (Azeez, Dada & Aluko, 2014; Ijirshar, 2019; Adeleye, Adeteye & Adewuyi, 2015). This might have accounted for why there is no consensus concerning the relationship between international trade and Nigerian economic growth among the scholars. Thus, unlike existing studies, this study collects and analyzes quarterly data and therefore, offers different perspective on the relationship between international trade and Nigerian economic growth. In addition, existing studies have not accounted for the effect of forex allocated to exporters and importers on economic growth on annual basis; and unless this is done, the complete effect of international business on economic growth cannot be said to have been accounted for and this will further worsen the existing problem of lack of consensus to linger on in the literature. Hence, this study thus considers the effect of forex allocated for international business purposes on Nigerian economic growth.

3. Methodology

3.1 Research design

The subject of investigation in this study has occurred in the past; hence, this study adopts ex post facto research design in the investigation of the relationship between international business and Nigerian economic growth. Furthermore, the dependent variable is the Nigerian economic growth

while international business id the independent variable.

3.2 Model Specification

In this study, the model specified by Okenna (2020) is adopted and adapted to suit the purpose of this study. Hence the adapted model for this study is specified thus:

$$\text{Economic growth} = f(\text{International business}) \dots \text{Eqn(1)}$$

Since economic growth can be measured by gross domestic product and International trade by volume of export and import, hence, Eqn(1) can remodeled as:

$$\text{RGDP} = \beta_0 + \beta_1\text{EXPT} + \beta_2\text{IMPT} + \beta_3\text{FRXIB} + \beta_4\text{EXCR} + \mu t \dots \text{Eqn(2)}$$

Where:

RGDP = real gross domestic product which is the aggregate output of goods and services produced in Nigeria

EXPT = value of exported goods and services from Nigeria

IMPT = value of imported goods and services into Nigeria

FRXIB = total amount of forex allocated for international business purpose

EXCR = Average official exchange rate of naira to dollar

β_0 = Intercept of the regression

$\beta_1 - \beta_4$ = parameters to be estimated

Co integration Bound test equation for long run model is specified thus:

$$\Delta \text{IGDP}_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{IGDP}_{t-1} + \beta_2 \log \text{EXPT}_{t-1} + \beta_3 \text{IMPT}_t + \beta_4 \text{IFRXIB}_{t-1} + \beta_4 \text{IEXCR}_{t-1} + \sum_{t=i}^p \pi_i \Delta \text{IGDP}_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^q \theta_i \Delta \text{EXPT}_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^q \gamma_i \Delta \text{IMPT}_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^q \mu_i \Delta \text{IFRXIB}_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^q \psi_i \Delta \text{IEXCR}_{t-1} + \epsilon t \dots \text{Eqn(3)}$$

The variables FDI, FPI, EXCR and INTR are as earlier defined in equation (2). $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3$ and β_4 , refer to the long run co-integration coefficients or multipliers while $\pi_i, \theta_i, \gamma_i, \mu_i$, and λ_i are the short run coefficients. Since Bound test result revealed no co-integration relationship among the variables, the Autoregressive Distributed Lags Model for estimating short run coefficients is specified thus:

$$\Delta \text{IGDP}_t = \beta_0 + \sum_{t=i}^p \pi_i \Delta \text{IGDP}_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^q \theta_i \Delta \text{EXPT}_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^q \gamma_i \Delta \text{IMPT}_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^q \mu_i \Delta \text{IFRXIB}_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^q \psi_i \Delta \text{IEXCR}_{t-1} + \epsilon t \dots \text{Eqn(4)}$$

A priori Expectation

The following relationships are expected between the dependent variable and the independent variables:

$$\beta_1 > 0, \beta_2 < 0, \beta_3 < 0, \beta_4 > 0$$

Sources of Data

In order to estimate the specified model in Eqn(2), quarterly data were collected from the Securities and Exchange Commission for eleven (11) years from 2010 – 2020.

Estimation Technique

This estimation of the model specified in this study was done with the aid of Autoregressive Distributed Lags (ARDL) estimator in line with the suggestion of the result of the stationary test conducted with Augmented-Dickney-Fuller approach.

4. Results

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

It is important to have a feel of the data sample of the research variables so as to know if they are normally distributed and outliers exist in them. Hence, the descriptive statistics for the research variables are depicted on Table 1:

Table 1: Summary of Descriptive Statistics

	LGDP	LEXPT	LIMPT	LFRXIB	LXCR
Mean	16.92725	15.00348	14.56842	13.94559	5.312506
Median	16.93103	15.08941	14.53711	13.96478	5.154715
Maximum	17.49377	15.78013	15.49254	14.10670	5.724965
Minimum	16.34790	13.06023	13.98191	13.69150	4.999305
Std. Dev.	0.305601	0.505130	0.373542	0.103835	0.311977
Skewness	-0.050386	-1.700465	0.564267	-1.100608	0.367282
Kurtosis	2.128966	7.128736	2.609183	4.419580	1.319103
Jarque-Bera	1.281425	47.68798	2.377215	11.43427	5.608332
Probability	0.526917	0.000000	0.304645	0.003289	0.060557
Sum	677.0901	600.1393	582.7369	557.8237	212.5003
Sum Sq. Dev.	3.642292	9.951079	5.441823	0.420483	3.795855
Observations	40	40	40	40	40

Source: Author’s Computation (2021)

Looking at the mean of the samples distribution of the variables, the highest mean value (16.92) goes to LGDP, this is followed by LEXP, LIMPT, LFRXIB and LEXCR with mean values of 15.00, 14.57, 13.95 and 5.31 respectively. All the mean values of these variables lie between the minimum and the maximum mean values. Furthermore, the standard deviations of these variables are all low and less than 1, signifying that the all the variables cluster around their mean values. In respect of kurtosis, kurtosis value of 3 implies normal distribution; LEXP and LFRXIB have positive kurtosis values of 7.12 and 4.42 respectively which are higher than 3, hence they are leptokurtic and peaked curve. LGDP and LEXCR have lower than 3 kurtosis values of 2.12 and 1.32 respectively; hence, they are platykurtic and flatted curve. LIMPT is however mesokurtic since its kurtosis value is approximately 3 and this suggests normal distribution curve. In case of skewness, normal skewness should have a 0 skew; to this end, LIMPT and LEXCR mirror normal skewness with 0.56 and 0.36 values respectively. LGDP, LEXPT and LFRXIB have skewness values that are less than 0 with and this implies negative skewness with long left tail and more lower values than the sample mean. The Null hypothesis in Jarque-Bera statistic test is that the series are normally distributed. Thus, looking at the p-values of the Jarque-Bera statistics for each of the variables, LGDP, LIMPT and LEXCR mirror normal distribution since their Jarque-Bera statistics are statistically insignificant with higher p-values than 0.005 critical value, signifying the acceptance of null hypothesis. With respect to LEXPT, and LFRXIB, the null hypotheses of normal distribution cannot be accepted since their Jarque-Bera statistics are statistically significant with lower p-values than the 0.05 critical value; hence, they are not normal distribution series.

4.2 Unit Root Test

In order to remove the trends components in the time series data collected in this study, stationary test was conducted by employing Augmented Dickney-Fuller approach. The results of the test for both logarithm and first level differences are displayed in Table 2.

Table 2: Augmented Dickney-Fuller Unit Root Test Results at logarithmic levels

H0: b = 0; Ha: b > 0

Variables	Critical value @5%	ADF test statistics	Remarks	Order of Integration
GDP	-2.948404	-0.296920	Non-stationary	N/S
EXPT	-2.938987	-3.105023	Stationary	I(1)
IMPT	-2.941145	-1.069160	Non-stationary	N/S
FRXIB	-2.938987	-3.022641	Stationary	I(1)
EXCR	-2.948404	-1.1255401	Non-stationary	N/S
Unit root test at first differences				
Variables	Critical value @5%	ADF test statistics	Remarks	Order of Integration
GDP	-2.948404	-3.676978	Stationary	I(1)
EXPT	-2.941145	-8.944105	Stationary	-
IMPT	-2.941145	-7.939396	Stationary	I(1)
FRXIB	-2.941145	-6.068704	Stationary	-
EXCR	-2.948404	-1.387104	Stationary	I(1)

Source: Author’s Computation (2021)

Notes: *Denotes significance at the 5% level and the rejection of the null hypothesis of non-stationary.

Since the above Table 1 shows that the variables are integrated of difference orders i.e I(0) and I(1); Consequently, it suggests the estimation of model specified in equation (...) with Autoregressive Distributed Lag Model in line with Pesaran, Shin and Smith (2001).

4.3 ARDL Model Dynamic Stability Test

The stability of the dynamism of ARDL model was tested with estimation of the inverse root of AR characteristic polynomial. The result which is depicted on Figure 4.1 reveals that all the roots are inside the circle unit and this implies that the model of this study is dynamically stable.

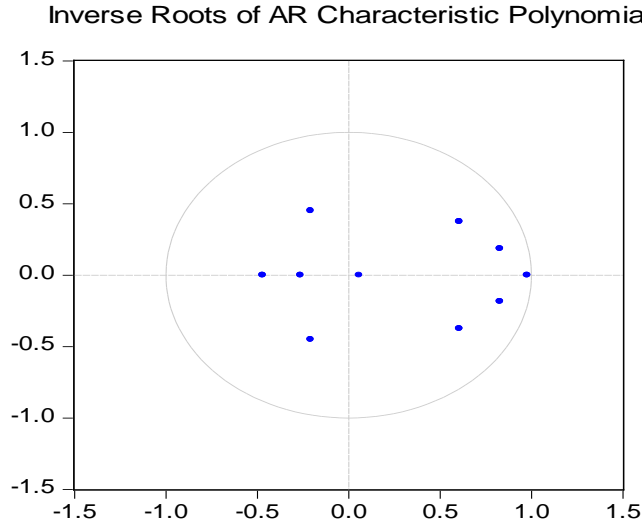


Figure 1: Model Dynamic Stability Result

4.3 Co-integration Bound Test

In order to know if there is co-integration among the variables, there is need to perform co-integration bound test if ARDL estimation approach is to be used. The Hypotheses for performing this test is stated thus:

H0: There is no co-integration relationship among the variables

H1: H0 is not true

The result of this test is as depicted by Table 3:

Table 3: Co-integration Bound Test

ARDL Bounds Test

Date: 07/28/21 Time: 17:32

Sample: 2010Q2 2019Q4

Included observations: 39

Null Hypothesis: No long-run relationships exist

Test Statistic	Value	k
F-statistic	1.053373	4

Critical Value Bounds

Significance	I0 Bound	I1 Bound
10%	2.45	3.52
5%	2.86	4.01
2.5%	3.25	4.49
1%	3.74	5.06

Source: Author’s Computation (2021)

Since the calculated value of F-statistic is lower than the critical value for lower bound I(0), we cannot reject the null hypothesis of no co-integration relationship. Hence, it is concluded that there is no co-integration and hence, no long run relationship. By the foregoing result, short run model specified in equation (4) was estimated and the results are depicted by Table 4.

Table 4: Summary of ARDL Result

Dependent Variable: LGDP
 Method: ARDL
 Date: 07/28/21 Time: 17:54
 Sample (adjusted): 2010Q2 2019Q4
 Model selection method: Akaike info criterion (AIC)
 Dynamic regressors (1 lag, automatic): LEXPT LIMPT LFRXIB LEXCR
 Fixed regressors: C
 Number of models evaluated: 16
 Selected Model: ARDL(1, 1, 0, 1, 1)

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.*
LGDP(-1)	0.910129	0.079259	11.48298	0.0000
LEXPT	-0.003581	0.019897	-0.179962	0.8584
LEXPT(-1)	-0.028647	0.022138	-1.294009	0.2055
LIMPT	0.008474	0.033774	0.250916	0.8036
LFRXIB	-0.138639	0.144402	-0.960096	0.3447
LFRXIB(-1)	0.216656	0.136915	1.582417	0.1240
LEXCR	-0.880870	0.165609	-5.318985	0.0000
LEXCR(-1)	0.939267	0.149222	6.294415	0.0000
C	0.528894	1.232958	0.428963	0.6710
R-squared	0.977215	Mean dependent var		16.94211
Adjusted R-squared	0.971139	S.D. dependent var		0.294602
S.E. of regression	0.050049	Akaike info criterion		-2.952466
Sum squared resid	0.075146	Schwarz criterion		-2.568568
Log likelihood	66.57309	Hannan-Quinn criter.		-2.814727
F-statistic	160.8309	Durbin-Watson stat		2.557353
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			

Source: Author’s Computation (2021)

From the above Table 4, the lag 1 of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is positively and significantly related to its current value, hence, increase in 1% increase in the value of GDP_t in the previous year could produce as much as 91% increase in the value of GDP in the current year and vice versa. In respect of export value (EXPT), its current value is negatively but insignificantly associated with GDP, such that 1% increase in EXPT is responsible for about 0.4% decrease in GDP and vice versa. This negative association is further replicated by the first lag of EXPT_{t-1} which is equally negatively related to GDP in such a manner that its increase by 1% could result to about 3% decrease in GDP. Looking at import value (IMPT), its current value is positively but insignificantly related to Nigerian GDP; in this case, an increase or decrease in IMPT by 1% is able to produce corresponding increase or decrease of 0.8% in GDP. The current value of forex allocation for import business (FRXIB) is negatively associated with GDP in an insignificant manner; hence, 1% increase in amount of forex allocation to importers would cause about 13% decrease in the average value of GDP, and the reverse of this is true with decrease

in forex allocation for import business. However, the first lag of the amount of forex allocation for import business (FRXIB_{t-1}) maintains positive but insignificant relationship with GDP as it is responsible for about 21% increase in GDP for every 1% increase in FRXIB_{t-1} and vice versa. Exchange rate in its current value is strongly and positively associated with economy growth as measured by GDP. Hence, 1% increase in exchange rate is associated with about 88% decrease in GDP while a decrease in current value of exchange rate by 1% is responsible for about 88% increase in the mean value of GDP. The first lag of exchange rate (EXCR_{t-1}) however, is positively and significantly related to GDP such that 1% increase change in its lag 1 value would cause about 93% direct change in mean value of GDP and vice versa.

The R² which is the coefficient of determination is between international business, the dependent variable, and the explanatory variable is 0.98. This portrays a strong positive linear relationship between the dependent and the independent variables since it is close to 1. By implication, the explanatory

variables in this study are able to predict GDP to the tune of 98% while the remaining 2% is accounted for by other factors not captured in the model. Hence, the regression line of best fit is good and impressive. The foregoing is attested to by the adjusted R_2 value of 0.97 which is very close to R^2 value and connotes that the model is stable and not affected by the degree of freedom. The Durbin Watson statistic is 2.56; this implies absence of negative autocorrelation among the explanatory variables in the estimated. F-statistic value is 160.00 which is higher than the critical value at 0.05 significant level and this signifies that the explanatory variables are true predictors Nigerian economic growth and the proportion of variation in the dependent variable accounted for by the independent variables is not due to chance.

4.4 Test of Hypotheses and Discussion of Findings

The four research hypotheses stated in the beginning of this study are tested as follows:

H0₁: Export business has no significant relationship with Nigerian economic growth

H1₁: Export business has significant relationship with Nigerian economic growth

The decision rule for testing hypothesis is that null hypotheses should be rejected and alternate hypothesis accepted if p-value is less than or equal to 0.05 critical value.

From Table 4, the p-value of EXPT is 0.8584 which is clearly more than the critical value at 0.05 significance level; hence, null hypothesis cannot be rejected for lack of sufficient evidence. Therefore, export business has no significant negative relationship with Nigerian economic growth. Since it was found that in the course of this investigation that export trade value had negative and insignificant relationship with economic growth. This result betrays the Heckscher-Ohlin' theory which advocates that international trade enhances economic growth if countries of the world should produce and export goods in which they have sufficient factor endowment advantage while other goods, the resources of which they are less endowed should be imported from other countries endowed to produce them. This finding equally does not agree with Adeleye, Adeteye and Adewuyi (2015), Azeez, Dada and Aluko (2014) and Elias, Agu and Eze (2018) who found that total export maintained positive and significant relationship with economic growth. The reason for the negative relationship might not be unconnected with the low quantity of Nigerian export volume arising from low industrial productivity

which failed to generate sufficient foreign exchange earnings for the country.

H0₂: Import business has no significant relationship with Nigerian economic growth

H1₂: Import business has significant relationship with Nigerian economic growth

Looking at Table 4, the p-value of IMPT is 0.8036 which is also more than 0.05 critical values, hence, there is no sufficient evidence to support the rejection of null hypothesis; consequently alternate hypothesis was rejected in favour of null hypothesis, and this implies that import business has no significant positive relationship with Nigerian economic growth. This contradicts the theoretical expectation that import business should be negatively related to economic growth and one of the plausible explanations for this is that imported items during the period covered by this study might have been predominantly components parts and, technology and raw materials which facilitated increase in production capacity of the industries. This result thus concurs with Azeez, Dada and Aluko (2014) and Abiodun (2017) import volume had positive and insignificant effect on economic growth, and contradicts Elias, Agu and Eze (2018) who revealed that import had an insignificant negative effect on the Nigerian economic growth.

H0₃: International trade-bound forex has no significant relationship with Nigerian economic growth

H1₃: International trade-bound forex has significant relationship with Nigerian economic growth

From Table 4, the p-value of FRXIB is 0.3447. This is more than the critical value of 0.05, signifying the rejection of the alternate hypothesis in favour of null hypotheses and the conclusion that international trade-bound forex has no significant relationship with Nigerian economic growth is upheld. This result agrees with a priori expectation that excess importation of goods is detrimental to national productivity growth and this align with the submission of Elias, Agu and Eze, (2018) that a country that hopes to grow her economy and enjoy favourable balance of payment needs to prune down the quantity of her imports in comparison with export quantity. This result further implies that forex allocation for import business during the scope of this study was predominantly used to import household consumables rather than industrial inputs.

H0₄: Exchange rate has no significant relationship with Nigerian economic growth

H14: Exchange rate has significant relationship with Nigerian economic growth

Unlike the other explanatory variables, EXCR has p-value of 0.000 which is less than the 0.05 critical levels; hence, null hypotheses cannot be accepted; null hypothesis is rejected while alternate hypothesis is accepted. This translates that exchange rate has significant negative relationship with Nigerian economic growth. This result thus, aligns with theoretical expectation that exchange rate of the naira falls; imported goods become more expensive, thereby leading to reduction in the volume of Nigerian imports. This implies that export would be boosted as other countries pay less exported Nigerian products; this further connotes increase in foreign exchange earnings while maintaining the export competitiveness Nigerian industries in the international markets. On the contrary, a higher exchange rate of Naira will pose difficulty in selling Nigerian export overseas because other countries exports would be relatively than that of Nigeria. the implication of this is a fall in exports, and eventually, a reduction in real economic output and reduction unemployment level. This finding aligns with the study of Okenna (2020) who found that exchange rate maintained negative and significant effect on economic growth; and disagrees with Awujola (2013) that exchange rate is positively and significantly related international trade

5. Conclusion

This study has investigated the relationship between international business and Nigerian economic growth from 2010 to 2019. Four research objectives were stated from the research questions raised for this study. The objectives were translated to four statements of testable hypotheses and tested at 0.05 significance level. The study deviated from the norms in the literature and collected quarterly data which were analyzed to reveal the nature of the relationship among the research variables. The study found no long run relationship among the variables and the distribution series were normally distributed as revealed by the descriptive statistics. The results of this study have revealed that there is a significant inverse linear association between economic growth and three of the proxies used in this study, namely, export value, forex allocation to import business and exchange rate while a significant positive association was revealed between economic growth and import trade. Based on these results, it was concluded that international business has mixture of insignificant positive and negative relationship with Nigerian economic growth.

6. Recommendations

Based on the findings and the conclusion in this study, recommendation was made as follows:

- Government should wade into the export development policy and review it objectively to facilitate easy and cheaper entrance into export business so as to reverse the trends of negative relationship between Nigerian economic growth and her international business
- Import if found to be positively related to economic growth in this study, hence, imported composition of imported goods should be reviewed to ensure it is not made up of household consumables but industrial inputs so as to encouraged productivity of the Nigerian industrial landscape.
- Forex allocation to import business should henceforth should give highest priority industrial inputs, technology and other inputs capable of improving the Nigerian industrial capacity
- Exchange rate should be sustained to maintain negative relationship with economic growth so as to boost Nigerian export sales and earn more foreign exchange earnings.

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Analysis of Retirement Happiness in Nigeria

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Abstract. The study examines the relationship between factors that influences happiness of retirees in Bayelsa state, using a sample of 338 public sector retirees. The factors examined which in this paper are considered wealth are freedom (time wealth) and health (physical wealth). The Logistic and the Probit regression were employed in analyzing the data. It was found that health (physical wealth) had a positive and significant impact on retiree happiness, while freedom (time wealth) had a positive and insignificant impact on retiree happiness. Also, health (physical wealth) and freedom (time wealth) had a significant complementary effect on retiree happiness. The result also showed that early or timely payment of retiree benefits, the age at which retirees retire from active service, and the level at retirement had a significant impact on retiree happiness. Based on the findings, the paper recommends that retirement at early age with a good health contributes to retirement happiness of retirees in Nigeria. In addition, government policy on early employment and retirement with good health is recommended. Government should also formulate policy towards checking of age declarations presented at entry stage of employment in order to control faulty ages to secure job.

Keywords: Retirees, Retirees happiness, Wealth, Bayelsa state.

1. Introduction

An examination of what constitute happiness has become necessary due to increasing worries and or fears of retirees who are approaches the retirement ages. For instance, the subject matter of retirement and retirees' fear has become public discourse. Though retirement ages differ from country to country, in Africa, Nigeria in particular, employment in the public sector is subject to a mandatory

retirement age of 60 years or 35 years of service. In most cases, employees are found reducing ages in order to remain in a particular job. Reasons behind this action are not known as individual preferences differ. Are retirees happy at retirement? What are some factors that bring about happiness to retirees? These are questions unanswered. While individual preferences differ as to what makes a retiree happier, happiness at retirement could be a function of several factors, including wealth. Wealth is not restricted to just money, but consists of many other components such as health, relationships, finances, and time. These could be broken down into four categories which are: Money (Financial Wealth); Status (Social Wealth); Freedom (Time Wealth) and Health (Physical Wealth). This study is interested in interrogating Freedom (Time Wealth) and Health (Physical Wealth) as components of happiness in Nigeria. The study is focuses on retirement happiness of retirees in Bayelsa State.

Bayelsa State has eight (8) local government areas. These local government areas have Seven Thousand, Fifty-Six (7,056) total population of pensioners as at June 2021. It is a composition of mainstream, head of services/permanent secretaries and post primary. The 7,056 pensioners are made up of: Brass LGA - 398; Ekeremor LGA - 446; Kolokuma/Opokuma LGA - 809; Nembe LGA - 659; Ogbia LGA - 1201; Sagbama LGA - 752; Southern Ijaw LGA - 1489; and Yenagoa LGA - 1302 respectively.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Report has it that three-quarters (70%) of employees say that being financially secure would make them happy in retirement, according to a report from the National Association of Pension Funds (NAPF). Financial security was voted above all other essential ingredients for happiness in retirement, including

good health (69%), being able to travel (48%) and being surrounded by family and friends (45%). While this report is important and appreciated, there are other factors that could influence the happiness of retirees which are yet to be established. This study, therefore, seeks to examine the relationship between wealth accumulation and happiness of retirees in Bayelsa State, with specific objectives to: (1) examine the relationship between physical wealth and retirement happiness in Bayelsa State; and (2) determine the relationship between time wealth and retirement happiness in Bayelsa State.

1.2 Theoretical Framework

This study hinges on the “The Meaningful Life: Objective List Theory” as it relates closely to this work.

The objective list theory (Nussbaum, 1992; Sen., 1985). This theory posit that a happy person does not view happiness based on pleasure versus pain, or wanting versus attaining. Rather, it gives emphasis on things that hold more value on things that have more meaning. Things such as health and wellness, good relationships, strong faith, charity and altruism, career accomplishments, and personal dreams coming true. Objective list theory says that a happy person is not one who simply acts happy or does not experience pain (Hedonism) nor someone who gets what they want all the time (desire theory). Instead, a happy person can be one who is poor, ill, and even lonely, but if they have a purpose of a greater good, then they can, in fact, be happy and have a happy life.

2. Empirical Literature

Abramowska-Kmon and Latkowski (2021) examined the impact of retirement on happiness and loneliness in Poland-Evidence from panel data. The paper examined the impact of retirement on people’s subjective quality of life, as expressed by their levels of happiness and loneliness, in Poland. They analysed five waves of the Social Diagnosis panel survey conducted between 2007 and 2015. The study employed fixed effects ordered logit models and fixed effect logistic models for the panel data. They found that the respondents’ happiness levels did not change after they retired, and that the introduction of interactions between retirement and employment did not alter these findings. However, the results of the loneliness model showed that the probability of being lonely increased among males after retirement. Second, the outcomes of interactions between retirement and employment suggested that not

working after retirement increased the likelihood of being lonely among men, whereas engaging in bridge employment decreased the chances of being lonely among men. These findings may indicate that combining retirement with employment may be a source of social interaction, which can provide protection against loneliness, and which may, in turn, be positively related to other factors (i.e., subjective quality of life, health status, and mortality). While the study is appreciated, they focused on retirement on happiness and loneliness which is quite different from our study that concentrated on wealth and happiness of retirees in Bayelsa State.

Thuku (2013) assessed how pre-retirement preparation influences retirement happiness in Kenya, with a view to making appropriate recommendations to improve the quality of life during retirement. The study was conducted in Nyeri County, Kenya using randomly selected retirees. Data was collected using questionnaire and analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The study found that; age, gender, marital status, parents’ socioeconomic status, availability of retirement information, monthly income, retirement planning and the availability of reliable social support systems significantly influenced retirement happiness. The study recommended that all employees be provided with retirement planning information and counselling on how to cope with post-retirement social, physiological and financial challenges. This study is appreciate, however, it is different from our study in many dimensions. One, the variables used, the location of study and the period of study. Our study was conducted in Bayelsa State, Nigeria and focused on four variables such as; financial wealth, social wealth, physical wealth and freedom wealth on retirement happiness of retirees in Bayelsa State.

Calvo, Haverstick and Sass (2009) explored the factors that affect an individual’s happiness while transitioning into retirement. Using longitudinal data from the Health and Retirement Study, the study explored what shapes the change in happiness between the last wave of full employment and the first wave of full retirement. Results suggest that what matters is not the type of transition (gradual retirement or cold turkey), but whether people perceive the transition as chosen or forced. Again we have benefitted from the study, however, it has a divergent perspective from our study that concentrated on four variables that attracts happiness at ones retirement life which includes; financial wealth, social wealth, physical wealth and freedom wealth on retirement happiness.

Kesavayuth, Rosenman and Zikos (2016) investigated how two sources of individual heterogeneity—personality and gender—impact the well-being effects of retirement. Using data on older men and women from the British Household Panel Survey and its continuation, Understanding Society. They estimated the causal effect of retirement on satisfaction with overall life and domains of life in the presence of personality characteristics. They found that retirement increases leisure satisfaction of both males and females but not necessarily life satisfaction and income satisfaction. They further showed that certain personality characteristics affect the well-being of female retirees, while for males, personality does not seem to matter in how they cope with retirement. This study is also different from our work in terms of choices of variables used and direction of the study.

3. Methodology

3.1 The Study Area

This study was carried out in Bayelsa State. According to the National Population Commission's 2006 report, the population of the state is put at 1,704,515, which is made up of 874,083 males and 830,432 females clustered in eight local government areas (Annual Abstract of Statistics, 2012).

3.2 The population of the Study

The population of the study is retirees in Bayelsa State. It comprises retirees in ministries, Departments, Agencies and other government-owned institutions across the state. As of the time of carrying out the study, the population of retirees (pensioners) was 7,056 (Bayelsa State Pension Board, 2021).

3.3 Sample and Sampling Technique

A sample of 400 retirees were selected for the study. 50 retirees were randomly selected from each of the eight local government areas in the state, therefore, making a total sample of 400 respondents. A structured questionnaire was used as the instrument for data collection. The designed instrument includes multiple-choice closed- and open-ended questions.

3.4 Model Specification

The Logistic Regression model was employed to examine the effect of physical (health) wealth and freedom (time) wealth respectively on retirement

happiness. The functional form of the model is presented as follows:

$$\text{Logit}(\text{Rethapines}_i) = h(\text{Timewealth}, \text{Healthwealth}, \text{Retbenefit}, \text{Marstatus}, \text{Gender}, \text{Retage}, \text{Level}) \quad (4)$$

where Rethapines_i is the likelihood of a retiree in the i^{th} household being happy at retirement, and $p_i/(1 - \text{Rethapines}_i)$ is the odds ratio (OR) for a retiree being happy at retirement. *Timewealth* is the time (freedom) wealth of a retiree, and *Healthwealth* is the health (physical) wealth of a retiree. *Retbenefit* represents the payment of retirement benefits, *Retage* is the age at retirement, *Marstatus* represents the marital status of a retiree, *Gender* is the gender of a retiree in the i^{th} household and *Level* is the level at retirement. *Timewealth*, *Healthwealth*, *Retbenefit*, *Marstatus* and *Level* are expected to have a direct relationship with *Rethapines*, while *Gender* and *Retage* could have a direct or inverse relationship with the dependent variable.

In order to capture the complementarity or otherwise of time (freedom) wealth and health (physical) wealth – that is, if time (freedom) wealth and health (physical) wealth have complementary (substitution) effects on the retirement happiness of retirees, we interact the two wealth variables and re-specify equation (4) as:

$$\text{Logit}(\text{Rethapines}_i) = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 \text{Timewealth} + \gamma_2 \text{Healthwealth} + \gamma_3 \text{Timewealth} * \text{Healthwealth} + \gamma_4 \text{Retbenefit} + \gamma_5 \text{Marstatus} + \gamma_6 \text{Gender} + \gamma_7 \text{Retage} + \gamma_8 \text{Level} + e_{3i} \quad (5)$$

Where *Finwealth * Socwealth* is the interaction term of time (freedom) wealth and health (physical) wealth, while e_{3i} represents the error term. Other variables remained as defined earlier.

The signs and significance of the interaction variable coefficient will determine if time (freedom) wealth and health (physical) wealth are complementarity or substitutes. If the coefficient for time wealth is positive, for example, and the coefficient for the interaction term is negative, then, it means that time (freedom) wealth and health (physical) wealth have a substitution effect on retirement happiness. On the contrary, if the coefficient for time wealth is negative and the interaction term is positive or if both are positive, then, it implies that time (freedom) wealth and health (physical) wealth have a complementary effect on retirement happiness.

A Probit Regression model will also be estimated to ensure the robustness of the results. The Probit Regression model is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Probit}(\text{Rethapines}_i) = & a_0 + a_1\text{Timewealth} + \\
 & a_2\text{Healthwealth} + a_3\text{Timewealth} * \\
 & \text{Healthwealth} + a_4 \text{Retbenefit} + a_5\text{Marstatus} + \\
 & a_6\text{Gender} + a_7\text{Retage} + a_8\text{Level} + e_{4i}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{6}$$

Where $\text{Prob}(\text{Rethapines}_i)$ is the probability of a retiree in the i^{th} household being happy at retirement. a_i ($i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, 4$) are the regression parameters to be estimated, while e_{4i} represents the error term. The variables are the same as in equation (5) above.

The logit models would be estimated using the covariance-formula estimator. It is based on the maximum likelihood theory. This Estimation Technique is efficient and appropriate as long as the

distribution of retirement happiness can be approximated, using a theoretical model such as a density function $f(x, \theta)$. An advantage of the Maximum likelihood estimators is that it is mostly asymptotically unbiased and normally distributed with variances as provided by the Cramer-Rao bound (Jędrzejczak & Kubacki, 2013). On the other hand, the Probit models will be estimated, using the quasi-maximum likelihood estimator (QLME) introduced by Papke & Wooldridge (2008). The estimator is based on the assumption of a normal distribution of the errors and is also considered to be homoscedastic and may otherwise be inconsistent.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Demographics of Respondents

A total of 400 questionnaires were distributed but 338 were retrieved and recorded and analyzed. We begin the analysis with the demographic characteristics of the respondents. Table 1 reports the demographic characteristics of the respondents.

Table 1: Descriptive profiles of the respondents

	Frequency	%
Area of residence		
Rural	123	36.39
Semi-rural	169	50.00
Urban	46	13.61
Total	338	100.00
Gender		
Male	236	69.82
Female	102	30.18
Total	338	100.00
Age		
Below 30 years	1	0.30
40 to 49 years	5	1.48
50 to 59 years	21	6.21
60 to 69 years	133	39.35
70 years and above	178	52.66
Total	338	100.00
Marital status		
Single	5	1.48
Married	235	69.53
Divorced	55	16.27
Widowed	43	12.72
Total	338	100.00

Source: Author's computation

123 or 36.39% of the respondents reside in rural areas, and 169 or 50% of the respondents reside in semi-rural areas. Those whose areas of residence are urban are 46, representing 13.61% of the total respondents. Therefore, the majority of the respondents reside in semi-rural areas. As regard the gender of the respondents, 236 or 69.82% are males, while 102 or 30.18% are females. This indicates that the majority of the respondents were males. Of the age respondents, 1 or 0.30% respondents were between the ages of 30 to 39 years, while those between the ages of 40 to

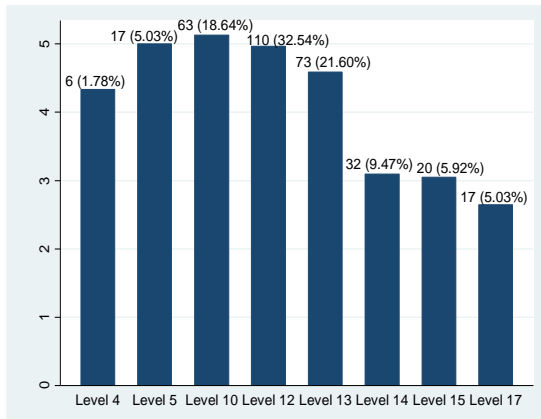
49 years were 5 or 1.48%. 21 or 6.21% of the respondents were between the ages of 50 to 59 years, and those between 60 to 69 years were 133 or 39.35%. Those who are 70 years and above are 178, representing 52.66% of the total respondents. This means the majority of the respondents are above the age of 70 years and above. 5 or 1.48% of the respondents were single, while 235 or 69.53% were married. Those who were divorced were 55 or 16.27%, and 43 or 12.72% of the respondents were widowed. This also means that majority of the respondents were married at the time of carrying out this study.

Other characteristics of the respondents were also examined and presented in Figure 1. The analysis showed that 6 or 1.78% of the retirees retired at level 4, 17 or 5.03% of the retirees retired at level 5, while 63 or 18.64% of the retirees retired at level 10. Those who retired at level 12 are 110 or 32.54%, and 73 or 21.60% of the retirees retired at level 13. Also, 32 retirees or 9.47% of the retirees retired at level 14, 20 of the retirees or 5.92% of the retirees retired at level 15, while those who retired at level 17 were 17 or 5.03% of the total respondents. Thus, based on the respondents' level at retirement, the majority of the retirees retired at level 12.

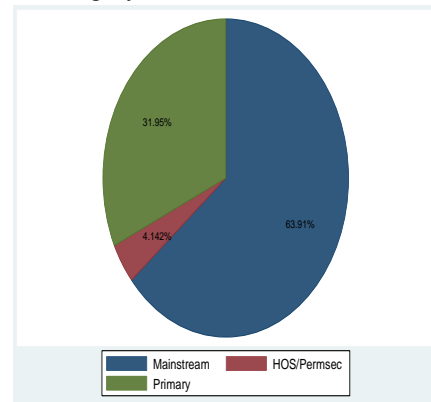
For the category of retirees, 63.91 of the sampled retirees were in the mainstream, while those that were in the primary sector were 31.95%. The retirees who were HOS/permanent secretaries were 4.14% of the total respondents. This reveals that the majority of the retirees were in the mainstream.

Figure 1(a): Other characteristics of the respondents

(a) Level at retirement

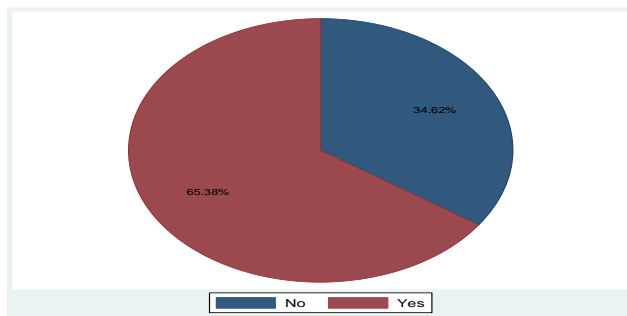


(b) category of retiree

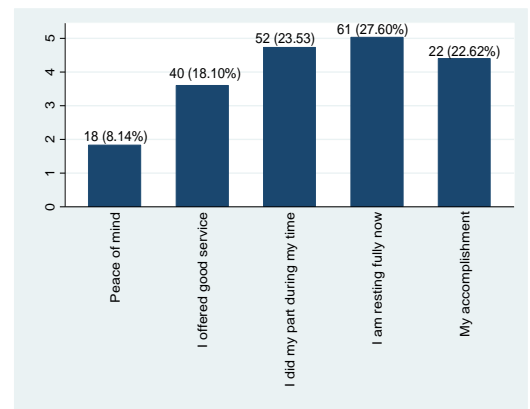


(c) Happy as a retiree?

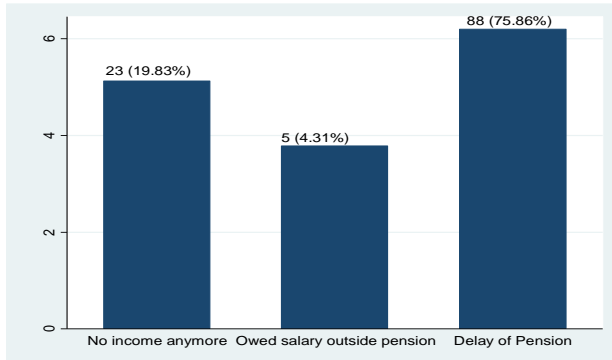
Figure 1(b): Other characteristics of the respondents



(d) Reasons for being happy

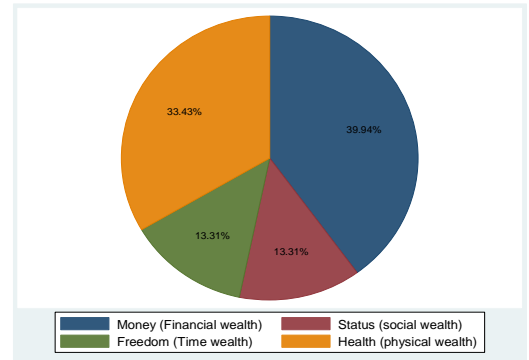


(d) Reasons for not being happy



Source: Plot by the author

(f) What it means to be wealthy (most preferred wealth)



Concerning the happiness of the retirees, the analysis shows that 65.38% of the respondents were happy as retirees, while 34.62% of the retirees were not happy. This is an indication that the majority of the retirees were happy as retirees.

An examination of the reasons for being happy for those that were happy as retirees showed that 18 or 8.14% were happy because of peace of mind, while 40 or 18.10% of the retirees said that they were happy because they offered good services at their time of service. Those who said they were happy because they did their part during their time at service were 62, representing 23.53% of the total respondents. 61 or 27.60% of the retirees said that they were happy because they are resting fully now, while 22 or 22.62% of the retirees were happy because of their accomplishments. This means that majority of the retirees were happy because they are resting fully now.

For those who were not happy as retirees, 23 or 19.83% said they were not happy because there is no income anymore, while 5 retirees, representing 4.31% of the total respondents said they were not happy because they were owed salaries outside the pension. For retirees who said that they were not happy because of delay in payment of pension were 88 or 75.86%. This showed that most of the retirees who were not happy as retired were because of delay in payment of pension gratuity.

Concerning the views of retirees on what it means to be wealthy, it was found that 33.43% of the retirees see wealth as health (physical wealth), while 39.94% of the retirees viewed wealth as money (financial wealth). Retirees who defined wealth from the perspective of freedom (time wealth) were 13.31%, and those who viewed wealth from the perspective of status (social wealth) were also 13.31%. This means that the majority of retirees viewed wealth from the perspective of money (financial wealth).

4.2 Impact of Health (Physical Wealth) and Freedom (Time Wealth) on Retiree Happiness

The impact of health (physical wealth) and freedom (time wealth) on retiree happiness were examined, using the Logistic Regression model. Also, to ensure the robustness of the findings, a Probit model was estimated. Table 4.3 presents the regression estimates. Column (1) presents the odds ratios of the logistic regression with the z-values and p-values in parenthesis. Column (2), on the other hand, reports the coefficients of the Probit regression with the z-values and p-values in parenthesis.

Table 4.2: Estimates of the impact of health (physical wealth) and freedom (time wealth) on retiree happiness in Bayelsa state

Retiree Happiness	(1) Logistic Regression	(2) Probit Regression
Health (physical wealth)	0.5886 (z = 3.15) (p = 0.000)	0.3264 (z = 3.14) (p = 0.000)
Freedom (time wealth)	0.9612 (z = 0.10) (p = 0.917)	0.0277 (z = 0.12) (p = 0.905)
Payment of retirement benefits	0.5789 (z = 2.13) (p = 0.033)	0.3408 (z = 2.16) (p = 0.031)
Financial Wealth* Social Wealth	1.6132 (z = 2.89) (p = 0.000)	0.2919 (z = 2.88) (p = 0.000)
Marital Status	0.9202 (z = 2.50) (p = 0.004)	0.0489 (z = 2.48) (p = 0.007)
Gender	1.1151 (z = 0.42) (p = 0.676)	0.0693 (z = 0.44) (p = 0.662)
Age at retirement	0.6140 (z = 3.52) (p = 0.001)	0.3162 (z = 1.61) (p = 0.108)
Level at retirement	1.1743 (z = 3.92) (p = 0.000)	0.0988 (z = 3.94) (p = 0.000)
Constant	2.0989 (z = 1.13) (p = 0.260)	0.4699 (z = 1.17) (p = 0.243)
	Logistic Regression	Probit regression
Pseudo R2	0.6270	0.6262
LR chi2(11)	51.76	51.41
Prob > chi2	0.000	0.0000
_hat	0.29 (z = 0.37) (p = 0.712)	0.15 (z = 0.20) (p = 0.841)
_hatsq	0.60 (z = 0.98) (p = 0.327)	1.14 (z = 1.17) (p = 0.241)
Probit model goodness-of-fit test		
Pearson chi2(2301)	174.44 (p = 0.0839)	174.60 (p = 0.0826)

Source: Author's computation

Health (physical wealth) showed a positive and significant coefficient of 0.5886 in column (1). This means that an increase in health (physical wealth) brings about a 0.59% increase in retiree happiness. Also, in column (2), the result showed a positive coefficient of 0.33% with z-value and p-value of 3.14 and 0.000. Therefore, confirming the result in column (1).

Freedom (time wealth) also showed a positive coefficient of 0.9612 with an insignificant z-value and p-value of 0.10 and 0.917 in column (1). Thus, any additional Freedom (time wealth) acquired results in an insignificant increase in retiree happiness. A similar result also showed up in column (2). Freedom (time wealth) has a 0.03% positive and insignificant impact on retiree happiness.

The interaction coefficient of freedom (time wealth) and health (physical wealth) is 1.6132 with a z-value of 2.89 and a p-value of 0.000 in column (1). Since the coefficients for both health (physical wealth), and the interaction term are positive, then, health (physical wealth) and freedom (time wealth) have a

complementary effect on retirement happiness. Health (physical wealth) and freedom (time wealth) jointly lead to a 1.61% additional significant increase in retiree happiness in column (1). The result in column (2) is similar to column (1), therefore, supporting the result in column (1).

The coefficient for payment of retirement benefits is 0.5789 in column (1) with a significant z-value and p-value. This means that early or timely payment of retiree benefits brings about 0.58% additional happiness at the retirement of retirees. The result is similar in column (2), also showing the positive and significant impact of payment of retirement benefits on retiree happiness.

Both in columns (1) and (2), the coefficient of marital status is positive and significant. This means that marital status has a positive and significant impact on retiree happiness in columns (1) and (2).

Gender showed a coefficient of 1.1151 with an insignificant z-value of 0.42 in column (1). Also, in column (2), the coefficient of gender is positive

(0.0693) with a z-value of 0.44. This means that the gender of the retiree has a positive and insignificant impact on retiree happiness.

Also, age at retirement showed a coefficient of 0.6140 with a z-value of 3.52 in column (1). Therefore, any additional year at the retirement age leads to 0.61% additional happiness for the retirement of retirees. A similar result also showed up in column (2) with a positive coefficient of 0.3162, but, with an insignificant z-value of 1.61.

The level of retirement showed a coefficient of 1.1743 with a z-value of 3.92 in column (1). This means that the level at retirement has a positive and significant impact on retiree happiness. The coefficient is also positive and significant in column (2), therefore, supporting the result in column (1).

The Pseudo R² shown in column (1) shows that the variables in the model account for about 62.70% change in retiree happiness. The likelihood chi-square value of 51.76 (p = 0.000) points out that the variables jointly significantly affect retiree happiness. Also, the p-value for hatsq is 0.327. The non-significant hatsq means good regression model adequacy. Also, the insignificant Hosmer-Lemeshow goodness of fit test confirms the overall goodness of fit of the regression model.

4.3 Policy Implications of the Findings

The findings show that Health (physical wealth) had a positive and significant impact on retiree happiness. This implies that good health makes retirees happy in retirement. Working out their physical health would not in any way bring about happiness at retirement. Freedom (time wealth) had a positive and insignificant impact on retiree happiness. This implies that workers do not consider the working age or the time at service as enslavement. Lack of freedom of time to spend, and how they want, when and with whom they wish to spend with did not significantly affect their happiness at retirement. However, health (physical wealth) and freedom (time wealth) significantly jointly affect the retirement happiness of retirees.

It was also found that early or timely payment of retiree benefits and the level of retirement had a significant impact on retiree happiness. This finding implies that at retirement, retirees are happy when retiree benefits are paid early or timely and if they are given the rightful level at work (the due promotion before retirement). The age at which retirees retire from active service is also a significant deterrent of retirement happiness at retirement.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

The study examined the relationship between wealth accumulation and happiness of retirees in Bayelsa state. Based on the findings, the study concludes that wealth accumulation significantly determined the happiness of retirees in Bayelsa state. Physical wealth positively and significantly affect the retirement happiness of retirees in Bayelsa state. Time wealth also affects retirement happiness of retirees, but the effect is insignificant. Health (physical wealth) and freedom (time wealth) also significantly jointly affect the retirement happiness of retirees. Other variables such as early or timely payment of retiree benefits, the level at retirement, and the age at which retirees retire from active service also play a significant role in the happiness of retirees in Bayelsa state.

It is recommended that government policy on early employment and retirement with good health be initiated and sustained. It, therefore, means that government should formulate policy to checkmate age declarations presented at entry stage of employment in order to control faulty ages to secure job. Retirees, when retired in good health and freedom could contribute significantly to national economy in different perspectives. Hence, the need for a public policy to engage employees at early age, retire and still contribute to economic growth and development in Nigeria.

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Oil Price Bubbles and Exchange Rate Movement in Nigeria

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Abstract. The study examined the impact of oil price bubble on naira exchange rate in Nigeria for the period of 1990-2020. Secondary data was collected from World development indicators and CBN statistical bulletin. Descriptive statistics, unit root test, co-integration test, granger causality test, variance decomposition and vector autoregressive model were conducted. Findings revealed that first and second period lag of oil price bubble have negative effect on exchange rate movement in Nigeria while first period lag was not significant, second period lag was significant at 5% level. The study recommended that there is need for policymakers to be cognizant of oil prices in determining appropriate exchange rate equilibrium. Thus, when oil price changes take place, relevant monetary policy measures should be employed to stabilize the unanticipated impacts on exchange rates that may distort the economy. In addition, diversifying away from oil to other non-oil activities that would generate foreign exchange should be a continuous policy pursuit. Also, the revenue generated from oil should be channelled into creation of necessary and adequate infrastructural facilities in order to encourage small industries in producing locally made goods. By this, the importation of goods will reduce and the trade balance becomes favourable.

Keywords: Oil Price, Exchange Rate, VAR Model, Nigerian Economy.

1. Introduction

Crude oil prices bubbles are as a result of the dynamism in the international markets. Whenever there is a drop in oil prices, the consequences are exchange rate depreciation, significant drop in the level of foreign exchange inflows, and reserve

depletion that often causes budget deficit and plummeting economic growth. The advancement of every economy is dependent on the operations of related macroeconomic variables such as exchange rate, interest rate and inflation which work together to determine economic growth. According to Nwaju, Ifeoma, Lekara-Bayo and Etuk (2019) the exchange rate of a national currency relative to another currency has a direct bearing on the national economy because of bilateral trade relationship between both countries. When the exchange rate of the foreign currency rises with respect to the domestic currency, more number of units of domestic currency are required for one unit of the foreign currency. The implication is that the country has to pay more for its imports an activity that will disturb its balance of payments situation and reduce its foreign exchange reserves. This will also affect the entire economy negatively. All imports, foreign currency loan and interest payments are affected as the country has to pay more for them. Exchange rate affects the inflation rate too (Chelawat, 2019).

The Nigerian exchange rate policy has undergone a good number of changes. It developed from a fixed parity in 1960 when it was solely tied with the British Pound Sterling. By 1967, following the devaluation of the Pound Sterling, the United States (US) dollar was included in the parity exchange. In 1972, the parity exchange with the British Pound was suspended as a result of the emergence of a stronger US dollar (Chelawat, 2019). In 1973, Nigeria reverted to a fixed parity with the British Pound following the devaluation of the US dollar. In 1974, in order to minimize the effect of devaluation of a single individual currency, Nigerian currency was tied to both the pound and dollar. Like other low-income countries, Nigeria has adopted two main exchange rate regimes for the purpose of gaining

balance both internally and externally. Aliyu and Usman (2009) explain that the reason behind this practice is to maintain a stable exchange rate, since a fluctuating real exchange rate arising from volatile oil prices are damaging to non-oil sector, capital formation and per capita income (Bagella, Becchetti & Hasan, 2006). According to literature, there are strong connections between exchange rates and oil prices especially in the long run Beckmann. It discloses that either exchange rate or oil price is a potentially useful predictor of the other variable in the short-run. However, the effects differ strongly from time to time (Czudaj, & Arora, 2020).

Almost throughout the 1970s, the persistent appreciation of the nominal exchange rate of the Naira coincided with some substantial increases in the price of oil in the international market. From early 1970s to late 1970s and during the oil boom era, the exchange rate of the naira was relatively stable. However, since September 1986 when the market-determined exchange rate system was introduced in Nigeria through the second-tier foreign exchange market, the naira exchange rate has exhibited the features of continuous depreciation and instability (Czudaj, & Arora, 2020). This instability and continued depreciation of the naira in the foreign exchange market has resulted to declines in the standard of living of the citizenry and increased cost of production which also lead to cost push inflation. It has also tended to undermine the international competitiveness of non-oil exports and made planning and projections difficult at both micro and macro levels of the economy. A good number of small and medium scale enterprises have been strangled out as a result of low dollar/naira exchange rate (Czudaj, & Arora, 2020).

Considering the importance of the effects of oil prices changes on exchange rate, many previous studies have attempted to examine the relationship between them. Notable among these studies are Hassan and Zaman (2012) and Tiwari and Olayeni (2013). While Hassan and Zaman (2012), Asaley, Rotdelmwa, Inegbedion, Lawal and Ogundipe (2021) concluded that there are negative relationships between oil price changes and exchange rate for India, studies such as Olomola and Adejumo (2006) found a positive relationship between oil price and exchange rate for Nigeria. Hence, the results of past studies have not been uniform. Moreover, apart from the inconclusiveness of the literature on the causal effects of oil price on exchange rate, a lot of previous studies have employed causal analysis in the time domain which cannot analyze causality in the short-, medium-, and long-term but only at a point in time.

According to Olayungbo (2019) oil is the mainstay of the Nigerian economy. For Oluwatomisin, Ogundipea, Ojeagaa and Ogundipea (2014), oil accounts for over 95 percent of its foreign earnings and about 83 percent of its budgetary allocation. For this reason, changes in oil prices have implications for the Nigerian economy and, in particular, exchange rate movements. The latter is mostly significant as Nigeria is exposed to the double dilemma of being an oil exporting and oil-importing country. Despite the abundance of oil in the country, Nigeria has become a net importer of refined oil as a result of the underutilization of her existing refineries. The situation in the country is that it exports crude oil and imports refined petroleum product at higher cost. This cost implication has had a significant impact on the trade balance and the macroeconomic performance of Nigeria (Olayungbo, 2019). As a result of the inconclusiveness of the literature on the causal effects of oil price changes on exchange rate movement, this paper is motivated to contribute to literature. Also, considering the inability of monetary authorities to achieve realistic exchange rate policy even after adopting the Structural Adjustment Program (SAP) and constant fluctuations in the value of the naira this paper seeks to find out the impact that the oil price changes has on exchange rate movement in Nigeria.

2. Review of literature

2.1 Conceptual clarifications and theoretical underpinnings

Exchange rate is the price of one country's currency in relation to that of another country; the required amount of units of a currency that can buy another amount of units of another currency. Exchange rate is usually referred to as the ratio at which a unit of currency of one country is expressed in terms of another currency (Jhingan, 2004). The rate is normally determined in the foreign exchange market. According to Beckmann, Czudaj and Arora (2020), the difference between real and nominal measures of exchange rate is crucial when investigating the relationship between oil prices and exchange rates. The nominal spot exchange rate at a specific point in time is expressed as domestic currency per US dollar. The implication is that an increase reflects a nominal appreciation of the US dollar. The real exchange rate equally includes price indices for both countries, and reflects the basket of domestic goods that can be purchased with one basket of US goods (Beckmann, Czudaj and Arora, 2020). An increase is a real appreciation of the US dollar as the real purchasing power of US goods goes up. It is possible to express

both nominal and real exchange rates as a geometric or arithmetic trade weighted index between multiple countries, instead of just between two countries. According to Beckmann, Czudaj and Arora (2020), such effective exchange rates reflect the entire external competitiveness for an economy. The nominal oil price is usually measured in US dollars per barrel. The real oil price is computed by adjusting the nominal oil price for any alterations in the US price level which is usually based on the US consumer price index (CPI). Instead of analyzing current or spot price dynamics, another alternative is to focus on futures price dynamics, since these also reflect expectations. There are three major types of exchange rate systems, namely the float, the fixed rate, and the pegged float.

Oil prices are denominated in US dollars and available from the US Energy Information Administration (EIA). In the crude oil market, there are various types and qualities of oil used for different purposes. The price of oil highly depends on its grade, factors such as specific gravity, its content as well as location. 160 different blends of oil have been identified universally. However, the three primary benchmarks are WTI, Brent and Dubai. Crude oil prices are quoted in different markets all over the universe. According to Trung and Vinh (2011), macroeconomic variables should be affected by oil shocks for two reasons. First, oil increase leads to lower aggregate demand assuming that income is redistributed between net oil import and export countries. Oil price hikes can affect economic activity because that will make more household income to be spent on energy consumption. Firms will also reduce the amount of crude oil they purchase an exercise that will lead to underutilization of the factors of production like labor and capital. Second, the supply side effects are linked with the fact that crude oil is considered as the basic input in the production process. An increase in oil price will lead to a decrease in the supply of oil as a rise in cost of crude oil production will lead to a reduction in potential output. Oil price fluctuations have received significant considerations for their perceived role in macroeconomic variables dynamism. According to Sill (2009), the aftermath of huge increases in the oil price on macroeconomic variables have been of great concern among economist, policy makers and the general public since two major oil price shocks shook the global economy in the 1970s. Several papers have suggested that oil price might have a significant influence on exchange rate. According to Amano and Norden (1998) many researchers suggest that oil fluctuations has a significant consequence on economic activity and that the effect differs for both

oil exporting countries and oil importing countries. It benefits the oil exporting countries when the international oil price is high but it poses a problem for oil importing countries. The reverse becomes the case when the crude oil price is low.

The fundamental channels derived from inter-temporal models tend to suggest that a fall in oil prices should be accompanied by a real depreciation of oil exporters. However, according to Bützer (2015), things may be somewhat different in practice. While economic theory suggests that oil exporters' currencies should depreciate in the wake of negative oil price shocks (and vice versa for positive shocks), in practical situations there may be counterbalancing forces. First, monetary authorities may not favour large movements in the nominal exchange rate, and may choose to counter exchange rate pressures through the accumulation or reduction of foreign exchange reserves. Second, the international risk-sharing channel may provide an automatic stabilizer through currency exposure. Assuming that oil exporters have accumulated a large pool of foreign exchange reserves and tend to be net long in foreign currency, a decline in the oil price accompanied by a depreciation produces a positive valuation effect. This becomes a net gain for them relative to domestic Gross Domestic Product and plays a stabilizing role. What this implies is that the exchange rate does not need to depreciate quite as much to be able to ensure external sustainability (Bützer, 2015).

2.2 Empirical Review

Jebbin and Osu (2012) examined the effect of oil price fluctuations, foreign exchange, real gross domestic product on exchange rate fluctuations. The study used co-integration, VAR and GARCH techniques to examine the long-run relationship among the variables. The study found out that real exchange rate fluctuation in Nigeria is significantly influenced by oil price fluctuations.

Hodo, Akpan and Offiong (2013) examined the asymmetric effect of oil price shocks on exchange rate volatility and domestic investment in Nigeria. The study employed annual time series data spanning 1970-2010 and VAR techniques to carry out the analysis. The study reveal that government expenditure has positive effect on oil price shock, but public investment, private investment and industrial production have negative effect oil price shock, which confirms the evidence of a "dutch disease" in Nigeria.

Ogundipe, Ojeaga, and Ogundipe (2014) examined the effects of oil price, external reserves and interest rate on exchange rate volatility in Nigeria. The study used annual time series data from 1970 to 2011. The Johansen Co-integration and VECM technique was employed for the analysis. It was revealed that a proportionate change in oil price leads to a more than proportionate change in exchange rate volatility in Nigeria; which implies that exchange rate is susceptible to changes in oil price.

Osuji (2015) examined the effect of oil price movements on exchange rate pair. The study used 420 observations from monthly time series data for the period of 2008 to 2014. The ordinary least squares estimation technique (OLS) and VAR technique were used for the analysis respectively. Findings point out that oil prices on a relative basis significantly affect exchange rate compared to imports also evidence of unidirectional causality relationship from oil prices to exchange rate and from oil prices to foreign reserves was found.

Rotimi, Ojo and Babatunde (2018) examined the long-run association of real exchange rates, real oil prices, interest rate, inflation and external debt in Nigeria. The study used monthly data for the periods 1980-2017. The study employed various co-integration tests and observed that co-integration exists among the selected variables. The granger causality test found that oil price positively and significantly impacts exchange rates in Nigeria, suggesting that a rise in global oil prices results in exchange rate appreciation.

Jungo and Kim (2019) examined the effect oil price fluctuations on exchange rates in selected sub-Saharan African (SSA) countries. The study used the nonlinear autoregressive distributed lag. The results show that changes in oil prices have the asymmetric effects on the real exchange rates in the long-run; that is, the movements in the real exchange rates in

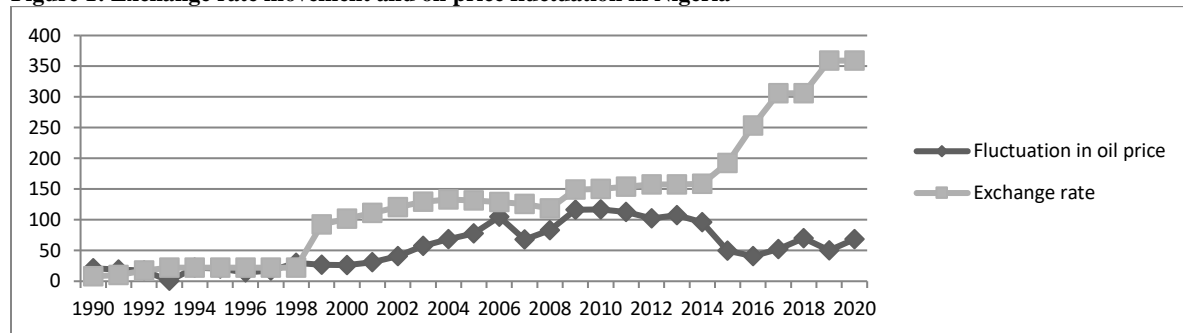
selected SSA countries appear to respond mostly more to oil price increases than to decreases. In the short-run, however, the asymmetry of oil price changes was not observed.

Asaleye, Rotdelmwa, Inegbedion, Lawal, and Ogundipe (2021) examined the impact of oil price volatility on exchange rate in Nigeria using annual time series data from 1986 to 2015. The Autoregressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) Bounds testing procedure was adopted because the variables were integrated of order I(0) and I(1). The results show a negative and significant relationship between volatility of crude oil prices and exchange rates in Nigeria in the long-run. In the short-run, however, this relationship was negative and statistically non-significant within the period of study.

2.3 Stylized facts

The trend in Figure 1 below is very instructive about the relationship between exchange rate movement and oil price dynamics in Nigeria. Both variables are largely negatively related such that an increase in the international prices of oil indicates a fall in the value of exchange rate of naira to the international reference currency of dollar. This suggests exchange rate appreciation. On the other hand, a fall in the international prices of oil denotes exchange rate depreciation. The implication is that Nigeria, as an oil-dependent economy, has its domestic currency largely susceptible to the prices of oil in the international market. Between 1980 and 1992, there is a fall in the exchange rate; denoting exchange rate appreciation consequent upon increase in the international price of oil. However, there is exchange rate depreciation due to fall in the international price of oil between 1998 and 2008. In reverse, exchange rate has continues to depreciate due to occurrences of global economic crises and the crash in the oil market in the year 2016 and 2019. Hardly has the currency recover from the first shock that the second shock occurred.

Figure 1: Exchange rate movement and oil price fluctuation in Nigeria



CBN Statistical Bulletin and World Development Indicators (2020).

3. Research Methodology

This research employed the following methods for analysis: Descriptive Statistics, Unit Root test, Co-Integration test, granger causality test, variance decomposition and vector autoregressive model.

3.1 Data description

The study utilised secondary data sourced from, world development indicators and CBN statistical bulletin for the period 1990 to 2020. In this study, fluctuation in oil price per barrel, kerosene pump price fluctuation, diesel pump price fluctuation and petrol pump price fluctuation were used to proxy oil price bubble while exchange rate was used as the dependent variable.

3.2 Theoretical framework and model specification

Following the earlier studies, we base our model on the theoretical underpinning. This study is based on the macroeconomic theory of exchange rate of Balassa-Samuelson (1964). The estimated concise specification of the model is stated as;

$$\ln A_t = \theta + \gamma \ln J A_t + Z_t + u_t \dots\dots\dots(1)$$

Where:

A = The price of US dollars per one unit of domestic currency

JA = Labour productivity differentials

Z = other determinant of exchange rate movement

t = at current time

u = random term

Adjusted version of equation (5), with exchange rate volatility infused as a salient factor inputs, and Inflation rate, external reserve, exchange rate, as ancillary variables. Putting these variables into equation (5) gives the functional form of the model given as:

$$EXCH = (FOPPB, EXPORT, IMPORT, INT, INF) \dots\dots\dots(2)$$

In studying economic phenomena, The VAR technique is attractive because it facilitates the study of economic relationships in interdependence; hence all the variables become endogenous. VAR has also been proven to be powerful in analyzing time series data, analysis of both short-run and long-run dynamics. Thus, the above model can be re-written in its compact econometric form as;

$$V_t = \alpha + \sum_{i=1}^k A_i V_{t-1} + U_t \dots\dots\dots(3)$$

Where:

$V_t = (FOPPB, EXPORT, IMPORT, INT, INF)$

$\alpha =$ Intercepts of autonomous variables

$A_i =$ Matrix of coefficients of all the variables in the model

$U_t =$ Vector of the stochastic error terms.

$V_{i-1} =$ Vector of the lagged variables

EXCH = Exchange rate movement

FOPPB = Fluctuation in oil price per barrel

EXPORT = Exportation of goods and services

IMPORT = Importation of goods and services

INT = Interest rate

INF = Inflation rate

3.3 Techniques of Estimation

3.3.1 Tests for Stationarity

The estimation of variable-series that are non-stationary will thus lead to estimates that are spurious and thus render the coefficients unreliable for policy prescription and usage. This entails that the investigation will thus carry out the conventional unit root tests on each of the variables to be used in this analysis. The stationarity test will be carried out with the application of Augmented-Dickey Fuller Statistic. The test involves the estimation of the following regression equation. $x_t = a + bt + x_{t-1} + \Sigma \epsilon_t$ (3)

Where x is the variable under consideration. Thus the ADF unit root test states that $H_0: b = 0$ and $H_1: b < 0$, where the ADF statistic was compared with the observed Mackinnon critical values. A series that exhibits a stochastic trend will not be stationary and cannot be forecast far in the future. Stationary series will constantly return to a given value and no matter the starting point, in the long-run, it is expected to attain the value.

Given an auto-regressive AR (I) process as follows: $Y_t = m + P Y_{t-1} + \Sigma \epsilon_t$, where m and P are parameters and $\Sigma \epsilon_t$, is the white noise assumption. Y is a stationary series if $-1 < P < 1$. However, the above description is valid only if the series is an AR (1) process. (Dickey & Fuller, 1981). A non-stationary series could be made stationary by differencing once or twice.

3.3.2 Tests for Long-run Relationship

In this research, the Johansen (1991) co-integration method was adopted. A non-stationary series could be made stationary by differencing once or twice. This is called an integrated series. It could be integrated of order I which is often denoted as 1(1) or order 2 represented by 1(2). The stationary linear combination of the variables under consideration is called co-integration equation. Variables are co-

integrated implies that they share a long –run relationship and will move closely together over time, meaning that the differences between such variables are stable over time and there is some degree of convergence in the long-run.

Testing for unit root is a formalization approach of differencing. The analysis and testing for unit roots naturally lead to the theory of co-integration (Iyoha & Ekanem, 2002). This is because, co-integration deals with methodology of modelling non-stationary time series variables and the idea rests on the fact that even though two time series variables may not themselves be stationary, a linear combination of two

non-stationary time series are said to be co-integrated.

4. Empirical Results and Discussion

This section begins with the descriptive statistics and correlation matrix analysis of the various variables used in estimating our regression model. Also, the unit root test, co-integration test and granger causality test were conducted. The Vector autoregressive model was conducted. Furthermore, diagnostic tests such as Cholesky VAR normality residual tests, Serial correlation and Heteroskedasticity test were conducted to ascertain the credibility of our model.

4.1 Summary Statistics

Table 4.1: Descriptive statistics

	EXCH	FOPB	EXPORT	IMPORT	INF	INT
Mean	131.0045	55.80581	21.47224	15.41797	16.99212	3.199465
Median	128.6500	50.30000	21.23634	14.25264	10.22849	5.790567
Maximum	359.0000	116.8800	36.02327	22.81126	75.40165	18.18000
Minimum	8.040000	0.550000	8.829530	9.509990	0.686099	-31.45257
Std. Dev.	100.7227	35.43453	6.730126	3.841251	15.93033	10.45916
Skewness	0.780818	0.363925	-0.023340	0.478535	2.014630	-1.369056
Kurtosis	3.002588	1.844953	2.537028	2.141419	7.234712	5.303467
Jarque-Bera	3.150007	2.407537	0.279674	2.135310	44.13329	16.53749
Probability	0.207007	0.300061	0.869500	0.343814	0.000000	0.000256
Sum	4061.140	1729.980	665.6393	477.9570	526.7556	99.18341
Sum Sq. Dev.	304352.2	37668.19	1358.838	442.6563	7613.264	3281.820
Observations	31	31	31	31	31	31

Source: Author’s computation (2022) using Eviews

The table above shows the descriptive statistics of the variables used in estimating our regression model. It is revealed that exchange rate (EXCH) has an average value of 131.0045 with a standard deviation of 100.722. Fluctuation in oil price per barrel (FOPB) was seen to have an average value of 55.80 with a standard deviation of 35.43. Exportation of goods and services (EXPORT) was seen to have an average value of 21.47 with a standard deviation of 6.730. Importation of goods and services (IMPORT) is seen to have an average value of 16.99 with a standard deviation of 3.841. Inflation rate (INF) was seen to have an average value of 21.47 with a standard deviation of 15.930. Interest rate (INT) is seen to have an average value of 3.199 and a standard deviation of 10.45916.

4.2 Correlation matrix

Pearson Correlation depicts the strength of linearity among variables under investigation. Thus the result of our Pearson correlation is given in table 4.2 below.

Table 4.2: Correlation matrix

	EXCH	FOPB	EXPORT	IMPORT	INF	INT
EXCH	1.000000	0.457235	-0.487805	0.070376	-0.445752	0.315975
FOPB	0.457235	1.000000	0.083145	0.066216	-0.444493	0.327945
EXPORT	-0.487805	0.083145	1.000000	0.294328	0.141823	-0.121911
IMPORT	0.070376	0.066216	0.294328	1.000000	-0.230158	0.244741
INF	-0.445752	-0.444493	0.141823	-0.230158	1.000000	-0.961753
INT	0.315975	0.327945	-0.121911	0.244741	-0.961753	1.000000

Source: Author’s computation (2022) using Eviews

Table 4.2 above reveals the correlation between the variables used in the model. It is seen that fluctuation in oil price per barrel (FOPB), interest rate (INT) and importation of goods and services have a positive correlation with exchange rate movement in Nigeria. However, exportation of goods and services and inflation rate have negative correlation with exchange rate movement in Nigeria. However, exportation of goods and services and inflation rate have negative.

4.3 Stationarity Test Results

Most time series data are not usually stable in nature; hence they are most times not suitable for forecasting purposes. Thus, the need arises to check the stationary status of the data used. This test was carried out using augmented dickey-fuller ADF test and Phillip-perron test.

Table 4.3: unit root test result

Variables	ADF Levels	ADF First diff	ADF Second diff	PERRON Levels	PERRON First diff	PERRON Second diff
EXCH	1.214034 (0.9975)	-4.430414 (0.0015)	-8.473103 (0.0000)	1.214034 (0.9975)	-4.420873 (0.0016)	-15.32236 (0.0000)
FOPB	-1.387747 (0.5749)	-5.031788 (0.0003)	-6.970731 (0.0000)	-1.387747 (0.5749)	-5.019290 (0.0003)	-21.44456 (0.0000)
EXPORT	-2.669418 (0.0911)	-6.951226 (0.0000)	-6.833251 (0.0000)	-2.635570 (0.0972)	-10.85918 (0.0000)	-35.23892 (0.0000)
IMPORT	-4.003525 (0.0044)	-6.993164 (0.0000)	-5.573480 (0.0000)	-4.017243 (0.0042)	-14.36022 (0.0000)	-25.92543 (0.0000)
INF	-2.200571 (0.2106)	-3.895258 (0.0063)	-3.844758 (0.0076)	-2.753779 (0.0771)	-7.733571 (0.0000)	-21.83587 (0.0000)
INT	-2.136968 (0.2327)	-4.182253 (0.0031)	-3.719793 (0.0101)	-3.277469 (0.0251)	-13.48111 (0.0000)	-18.06652 (0.0001)

Source: Author’s computation (2022) using Eviews

The table above shows the unit root result of the variables used in the model. It is revealed that using ADF test all the variables were not stationary at levels. However, all the variables became stationary after second difference. Also, using Philip-Perron test, all the variables were not stationary at levels but they all became stationary at second difference.

4.4 Long-Run Relationship Test

It is important we consider the relationship among macroeconomic variables in the long-run. If a long run relationship exists among the variables then policy formulation will be reliable based on the perceived relationship among them. Against this backdrop, the Johansen integration test was conducted to examine the presence of long-run relationships among the variables.

Table 4.4: Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Trace and Maximum Eigenvalues)

Null hypothesis	Trace Statistics	Prob	Max-Eigen value	Prob
R=0	204.2535	0.0000***	83.32131	0.0000***
R=1	120.9322	0.0000***	60.42552	0.0000***
R=2	60.50664	0.0021***	28.71675	0.0357**
R=3	31.78989	0.0291**	22.47772	0.0322**
R=4	9.312174	0.3373	7.570004	0.4241
R=5	1.742170	0.1869	1.742170	0.1869

Source: Author’s computation (2022) using Eviews; ** significant at 5%, *** significant at 1%

From table 4.4 above, it is observed that trace test statistic indicates four co-integrating equations among the variables while Max-Eigen value test indicates four co-integrating equations among the variables. Based on the evidence above, we can safely reject the null hypothesis (Ho) and rather accept the alternate hypothesis which says that there are co-integrating vectors. Thus, we can conclude that a long run relationship exist among the variables.

4.5 Granger-Causality Test

Since impact analysis does not suggest causal relationship, the Granger causality test is employed to determine the causal link between fluctuation in oil price per barrel, exportation of goods and services, importation of goods services, inflation rate, interest rate and exchange rate movement in Nigeria. The granger causality result is presented in table 4.5 below

Table 4.5: Granger causality test

Null Hypothesis	Observations	F-Statistic	Prob.
FOPB does not Granger Cause EXCH EXCH does not Granger Cause FOPB	30	0.90480 1.10937	0.3499 0.3016
EXPORT does not Granger Cause EXCH EXCH does not Granger Cause EXPORT	30	4.65331 2.87901	0.0401 0.1012
IMPORT does not Granger Cause EXCH EXCH does not Granger Cause IMPORT	30	0.01706 0.02817	0.8971 0.8680
INF does not Granger Cause EXCH EXCH does not Granger Cause INF	30	1.81315 2.62716	0.1893 0.1167
INT does not Granger Cause EXCH EXCH does not Granger Cause INT	30	1.93633 1.84522	0.1754 0.1856
INF does not Granger Cause FOPB FOPB does not Granger Cause INF	30	1.05293 3.04970	0.3139 0.0921
INT does not Granger Cause FOPB FOPB does not Granger Cause INT	30	0.78562 2.95119	0.3833 0.0973
INT does not Granger Cause EXPORT EXPORT does not Granger Cause INT	30	0.33004 3.57777	0.5704 0.0693
INT does not Granger Cause INF INF does not Granger Cause INT	30	0.91657 3.26141	0.3469 0.0821

Source: Author's computation (2022) using Eviews

The result revealed a unicausal relationship between exchange rate movement (EXCH) and importation of goods and services (IMPORT) at 5% level of significance. There is unicausal relationship between fluctuation oil price per barrel and interest rate (FOPB) at 10% level of significance. There is unicausal relationship between fluctuation oil price per barrel and inflation rate (FOPB) at 10% level of significance. A unidirectional relationship exists between exportation of goods and services (EXPORT) and interest rate (INT) at 10% level of significance. There is unicausal relationship between interest rate (INT) and inflation rate (INF) at 10% level of significance.

4.6 Regression result and interpretation

Table 4.6: Vector autoregressive model (EXCH)

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	probability
Constant	10.75935	11.05902	0.972903	0.3435
D(FOPB(-1))	-0.007498	0.183452	-0.040873	0.9679
D(FOPB(-2))	-0.402792	0.182715	-2.204479	0.0435
D(EXPORT (-1))	2.543642	0.956435	2.659505	0.0178
D(EXPORT (-2))	1.297770	0.764756	1.696972	0.1103
D(IMPORT(-1))	-0.149052	0.932608	-0.159823	0.8752
D(IMPORT(-2))	-0.821349	0.905320	-0.907247	0.3786
D(INF(-1))	1.487295	0.848629	1.752584	0.1001
D(INF(-2))	1.986559	0.905839	2.193059	0.0445
D(INT(-1))	-0.139884	1.237988	-0.112993	0.9115
D(INT(-2))	2.373195	1.307769	1.814690	0.0896
R-square	0.720	N/A	N/A	N/A
R-square Adjusted	0.496	N/A	N/A	N/A

Source: Author's computation (2022) using Eviews

The table above shows the result of the vector error correction model estimation. According to the result, first and second period lag of fluctuation in oil price per barrel (FOPB), have negative effect on exchange rate movement (EXCH) in Nigeria. While First period lag was not significant, second period lag was significant at 5% level. First and second period lag of exportation of goods and service (EXPORT), have positive effect on exchange rate

movement (EXCH) in Nigeria. While First period lag was significant at 5% level, second period lag was not significant. First and second period lag of importation of goods and services (IMPORT), have negative effect on exchange rate movement (EXCH) in Nigeria. However, they are not significant at 5% level. First and second period lag of inflation rate (INF) have positive effect on exchange rate movement (EXCH) in Nigeria. While First period lag was not significant, second period lag was significant at 5% level. First and second period lag of interest rate (INT) have positive effect on exchange rate movement (EXCH) in Nigeria. While First period lag was not significant, second period lag was significant at 10% level. The R-square value of 0.72 shows that all the independent variables (FOPB, EXPORT, IMPORT, INF, INT) can jointly explain 72% variation in exchange rate movement (EXCH) in Nigeria.

4.7 The Cholesky VAR normality residual tests

One major prerequisite for good regression model is that the error terms of the observations are normally distributed. The study employed the Cholesky (Lutkepohl) test to ascertain this. The results are presented below table

Table 4.7: Cholesky VAR normality test

Component	Test criterion	Joint chi-square	Probability
6	Skewness	4.025784	0.6732
6	Kurtosis	4.786693	0.5714
6	Jarque-Bera	8.812478	0.7189

*Source: Author's computation (2022) using Eviews ** Chi-square test significant at 5%*

Results from table 4.7 show that the residuals are not normally distributed as the Skewness, Kurtosis and Jarque-Bera statistics did not passed the chi-square test at 5%. This support a-priori expectation as according to economic literature, non-normality is a typical characteristic of financial data series (Elias, 2021).

4.8 Serial correlation and Heteroskedasticity test

To further ascertain the credibility of the model, a variety of diagnostic tests were carried out. The model was tested for autocorrelation (Breusch-Godfrey serial correlation LM test), and VEC Residual Heteroskedasticity test.

Table 4.8: Serial correlation and Heteroskedasticity test

Test	Value	Probability
Chi-sq (Heteroskedasticity)	562.9141	0.2992
LM-Stat (serial correlation)	40.71514	0.2706

Source: Author's computation (2022) using Eviews

Considering the null hypothesis of “there is autocorrelation”, the result in table 5 above indicates that the probability value of (0.2706) is not statistically significant which rejects the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis of “there is no auto correlation. Also, given the null hypothesis that “the variables are Heteroskedastic” the result in table 5 above reveals that the probability value of (0.2992) rejects the null hypothesis and accepts the alternate hypothesis of “the variables are Homoskedastic. Therefore, residuals are serially uncorrelated and homoskedastic which means the model is valid and can be used for policy recommendations.

4.9 Variance Decomposition Results

To further examine the short-run dynamic properties of the model, the forecast error variance decomposition (FEVD) was examined. Akinbobola (2012) believed that the statistical efficiency of the coefficients estimates from Vector autoregressive model (VAR) cannot be guaranteed, hence most scholars resort to the interpretation of dynamic simulations of Forecasting Error Variance Decomposition (FEVD). The FEVDs is presented in Table 4.9 below.

Table 4.9: Forecasting Error Variance Decomposition

Period	EXCH	FOPB	EXPORT	IMPORT	INF	INT
1	100.0000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
2	71.09155	21.19527	0.519085	4.115764	2.645982	0.432342
3	44.87356	37.12589	0.710846	6.439474	10.00668	0.843550
4	46.93924	31.42293	0.478643	9.425282	11.18282	0.551091
5	46.49482	30.02005	0.328381	11.89166	10.74779	0.517304
6	47.55373	29.09378	0.265454	12.69144	9.906103	0.489487
7	47.48023	29.23935	0.263668	12.84703	9.648845	0.520869
8	47.24001	29.76466	0.233146	12.72215	9.518291	0.521749
9	47.16747	29.76888	0.199434	12.84294	9.516775	0.504504
10	47.08262	29.67683	0.181422	13.03884	9.516518	0.503772

Source: Author's computation (2022) using Eviews

In Table 4.9 the FEVD for the variable exchange rate movement (EXCH) for ten periods is presented. Analysis revealed that the variance of EXCH is principally driven by own shock. In the period 1, EXCH accounted for 100% of its own variance. However, its variance decreases consistently throughout the period until the 10th period to 47%. The variables that made significant impact on EXCH are FOPB, IMPORT and INF. By the tenth period, FOPB, IMPORT and INF contributed 29.67%, 13% and 9.5% to EXCH respectively. However, EXPORT and INT made insignificant contribution to the variance of EXCH, which stood at 0.18% and 0.50% by the tenth period.

5. Discussions and Policy Recommendations

This paper examined the effect of oil price bubble on exchange rate movement in Nigeria utilizing annual time series data for the period of 1990 through 2020. The study revealed that first and second period lag of fluctuation in oil price per barrel (FOPB), have negative effect on exchange rate movement in Nigeria. While First period lag was not significant, second period lag was significant at 5% level. The result supports the findings of Habib and Kalamova (2007) for Russia, Norway, and Saudi Arabia that no significant causal relationship exists between oil price and exchange rate for the oil rich countries. It is also in support of findings by Bayat et al. (2015) that oil price does not have significant causal effect on exchange rate in Hungary with frequency domain analysis. In addition, our results agree with Benhabib et al. (2014) as well as Hassan and Zaman (2012), Olayungbo (2019) and Henry(2019) which concluded that there are negative but not significant relationships between oil price and exchange rate for India.

The non-significance (second period lag) impact of oil price bubble on in Nigeria could be as a result of the frequent use of foreign exchange to stabilize the

exchange rate level by the Central bank of Nigeria (CBN) periodically may be responsible for the weak causal effects of oil price changes on the exchange rate. Nigeria practices floating exchange rate system. An exchange rate policy intervention of this kind is capable of greatly eliminating the effects of oil price changes on the exchange rate. The result of variance decomposition indicated that fluctuation in oil price per barrel (FOPB), importation of goods and services (IMPORT) and inflation rate (INF) are the largest source of variation in exchange rate apart from self-shock. All the variables used for estimating our model were found to stationary at second difference. The LM serial correlation result shows that the model has no sign of serial correlation which means the assumption of the linearity of the model has not been violated because of the superiority of the autocorrelation test in accepting of alternative hypothesis. The vector Normality test was also considered to show if the model is normally distributed. From the estimation result the Skewness, Kurtosis and Jarque-Bera statistics values which are not significant at five percent shows that the variables are not normality distributed. Another test considered by this study is the vector heteroskedasticity test confirms each of the specified equations has a constant variance.

The findings have implications for the Nigerian government. Policymakers should be cognizant of oil prices in determining appropriate exchange rate equilibrium. Thus, when oil price changes take place, relevant monetary policy measures should be employed to stabilize the unanticipated impacts on exchange rates that may distort the economy. In addition, diversifying away from oil to other non-oil activities that would generate foreign exchange should be a continuous policy pursuit of the policy makers in the country. Also, the revenue generated from oil should be channelled into creation of necessary and adequate infrastructural facilities in order to encourage small industries in producing

locally made goods. By this, the importation of goods will reduce and the trade balance becomes favourable. Finally, permanent adjustment in exchange rate of the naira should be the main issue of concern when oil prices are fluctuating.

6. Conclusion

This study examined the impact of oil price bubble on exchange rate movement in Nigeria. The study adopted the VAR model using annual time series data for the period 1990 to 2020 obtained from the CBN statistical database. Based on the results of empirical analysis, it was ascertained that there was sufficient evidence to indicate that oil price bubbles have both negative effect on exchange rate in Nigeria. Only first period lag was significant at 5% level. The trace statistics and the max Eigen value test also indicate a case of no co-integration. Thus, the study attests to the fact that the relationship between oil price bubble and exchange rate movement in Nigeria is insignificant in the long run while in the short run oil price fluctuation could influence exchange rate movement. In conclusion, it can be said that oil price bubble drives exchange rate movement in Nigeria only in the short run.

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Assessment of Ecotourism Potentials of Ado-Away Suspended Lake in Oyo State, Nigeria

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Abstract. The study assessed ecotourism potentials of Ado-Away Suspended Lake in Oyo state, Nigeria with special interest to investigate the socio-economic impact of the lake on host community and determine the challenges facing the development of Ado-Away suspended lake. Structured questionnaire was used to collect data from the resident and staff of Ado-Away suspended Lake. Data collected was analyzed using descriptive statistic. The demographic characteristics of the respondents showed that 59.8% of the respondents were male with 40.2% of the respondents were between 31-40 years. Majority of the respondents' secondary education with 37.9% and 58.6% of the respondents are married. It can equally be noted from the finding that majority of the respondents are Muslim (52.9%). Majority of the respondents (97.7%) are aware of the lake. Nine ecotourism attractions are identified in Ado-Away suspended Lake. The socio-economic impacts of Ado-Away suspended Lake showed that the Lake provides jobs and business opportunity are ranked as the most socio-economic impacts of the suspended Lake on the host community and the major challenges confronting the development of Ado-Away suspended Lake is lack of government interest and lack awareness. The study concludes that there are enormous socio-economic impacts accruing from the ecotourism resources of Ado-Away suspended Lake.

Keywords: Ado-Away, Suspended Lake, Ecotourism, Potentials

1. Introduction

The Ecotourism Society defines ecotourism as “purposeful travel to natural areas to understand the cultural and natural history of the environment;

taking care not to alter the integrity ecosystem; producing economic opportunities that make the conservation of natural resources beneficial to local people (Kaypak, 2010). The concept of ecotourism bears a strong connection to both natural and social responsibility. Barau and Stringer, (2015) claimed that the demand for ecotourism is increasing worldwide, ecotourism is a small and specialized component of the world tourism market with major and increasing impact on both people and nature. Inappropriate tourism development and practices can degrade habitats and landscapes, deplete natural resources, and generate waste and pollution. Ecotourism thus minimizes the negativity that tourism brings (Deville *et al.*, 2016).

Recently, many advocates of tourism have promoted seemingly new tourism concepts, such as nature-based tourism, ecotourism, and sustainable tourism, among others. These new forms of tourism are promoted as an environmentally safe way for rural communities to generate income from natural resources.

They are advocated particularly in developing countries because many developing countries possess a comparative advantage over developed countries in their ability to provide relatively pristine natural settings (Cater 1993). Affluence, education, and environmentalism all contribute to increasing visitation to wild lands and generate income for local communities through the expenditures of tourists such as lodging, transportation, food, guides, and souvenirs (Laarman and Sedjo2009). Demand for these new forms of tourism, it is argued, arises from increased concern or interest in unique and fragile ecosystems and a growing desire to travel to new and exotic places, and an increasing number of people

who have the financial means to do so (Seidl2006).

Ado-Awaye Suspended Lake is one of the two hanging lakes in Africa and in the world. It has vast potential for the development of a sustainable tourism sector in Nigeria and, implicitly, Africa largely due to its competitive advantage.

Ecotourism is one of the fastest expanding tourism markets receiving much attention in developing countries and economically impoverished regions around the world. Ecotourism accounts for a large share of some countries' gross domestic product, and so contributes to livelihoods of many people (Akerlof and Kennedy, 2013). There is little or no study on ecotourism potential of Ado-Awaye Suspended Lake. Therefore, this study aimed to determine the current status and ecotourism potential of Ado-Awaye suspended Lake.

2. Methodology

2.1 Study Location

Ado-Awaye suspended lake lies about 20 km West of Iseyin, Iseyin Local Government Area of Oyo State. The lake is located in the Iyake Mountains that sprawl around the sleepy town with a land cover area of 190.62 hectares. It falls within Latitudes 07°048'00''N and 07°054'00''N and Longitudes 003°018'00''E and 003°030'00''E. The area is mainly characterized by rocks with a dynamic structure and impeccable display such as the Ishage rock, which can be a resource for tourism attraction. There is no major river within the catchment.

2.2 Study Population

The study population involves residents of the host community and staffs of Ado-Awaye suspended Lake.

2.3 Sample Size

The sample size was put at one hundred and twenty respondents, of which eighty seven (87) questionnaires were retrieved.

2.4 Sampling Technique

Simple random techniques was used to select the residents of the host community and staffs of Ado-awaye suspended Lake

2.5 Method of Data Collection

Questionnaire was personally administered by the researcher. The questionnaire contained a series of structure question which was related to the research work and directed to respondents with the aim of gaining first-hand information.

2.6 Data Analysis

Data obtained from the study was analyzed using descriptive statistics that is frequency tables, charts and bars.

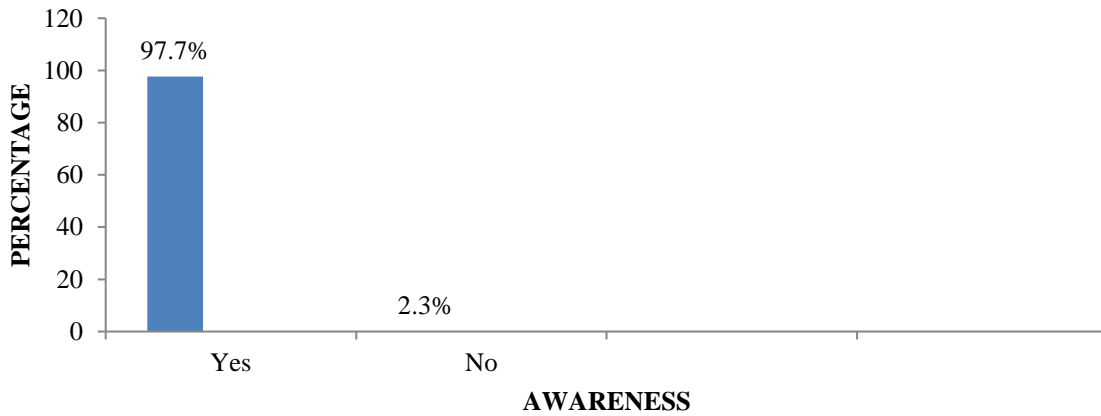
3. Results and Discussion

Table 1 shows the demographic characteristics of the respondents, it was observed that 59.8% of the respondents were male while 40.2% were female. 40.2% of the respondents were between 31-40 years, followed by age group ≤ 30 years with 29.9% while age group 51 years and above is the least with 10.3%. The table further revealed that majority of the respondents' secondary education with 37.9%, followed by tertiary education with 28.7% while no formal education is the least with 12.6%. Also majority (58.6%) of the respondents are married, followed by single with 26.4% while divorce/widow/widower respondents recorded 14.9%. It can equally be noted from the table that majority of the respondents are Muslim (52.9%), followed by Christianity with 37.9% while traditional religion scores 9.2%. The table also revealed that 31.0% of the respondents are civil servant, 20.7% are students while 48.3% are artisanal/craftsman's. It was also shown that majority (72.4%) of the respondents had stayed in Ado-awaye ≥ 11 years while 27.6% had stayed for ≤ 10 years. Majority of the respondents (97.7%) are aware of the lake while 2.3% are unaware (Fig 1). The key ecotourism attractions available in the study area are revealed in table 2, in which nine ecotourism attraction are identified.

TABLE 1: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTIC OF THE RESPONDENTS

Demographic	Variables	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	52	59.8
	Female	35	40.2
Age Group (Years)	≤30	26	29.9
	31-40	35	40.2
	41-50	17	19.5
	51 and above	9	10.3
Level Of Education	No formal education	11	12.6
	Primary education	18	20.7
	Secondary education	33	37.9
	Tertiary education	25	28.7
Marital Status	Married	51	58.6
	Single	23	26.4
	Divorce/Widow/Widower	13	14.9
Religion	Muslim	46	52.9
	Christianity	33	37.9
	Traditional	8	9.2
Occupation	Civil Servant	27	31.0
	Student	18	20.7
	Artisanal/craftsman's	42	48.3
Length of Residence (Years)	≤10	24	27.6
	≥11	63	72.4
	Total	87	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2022



Source: Field Survey, 2022

Fig 1: Awareness of Ado-Away Suspended Lake

TABLE 2: Key Ecotourism Attraction of Ado-Away Suspended Lake

S/N	Ecotourism Attraction
1	Ishage
2	Iyake Lake
3	Agbomofunyake
4	Elephant Tree
5	Esekaniku
6	Iya Alaro Lake
7	Ese Awon Agba
8	Ese Kan Aye Ese Kan Orun
9	Iya Oniru Lake

Source: Field Survey, 2022.

The socio-economic impacts of Ado-awaye suspended Lake are presented in table 3, in which provision of jobs and business opportunity are ranked as the most socio-economic impacts of the suspended Lake on the host community with a mean of 4.54 and 4.52, followed by revenue generation (4.30), patronage of local product (4.28), improved family income (3.73), commercialization of local product (3.65), source of foreign exchange (3.30) while investment opportunity recorded the least mean of 3.08.

TABLE 3: Socio-economic Impacts of Ado-Awaye Suspended Lake

Variable	Mean	S.D	Rank
Revenue generation	4.30	0.89	3 rd
Business opportunity	4.52	0.83	2 nd
Investment opportunity	3.08	1.23	8 th
Source of foreign exchange	3.30	1.13	7 th
Commercialization of local product	3.65	1.09	6 th
Provision of jobs	4.54	0.78	1 st
Patronage of local product	4.28	0.96	4 th
Improved family income	3.73	0.98	5 th

Source: Field Survey, 2022

Table 4 revealed the challenges confronting the development of Ado-awaye suspended Lake, it was indicated that lack of government interest recorded the highest challenges with a mean of 4.70, followed by lack awareness and lack of fund with a mean of 4.36 and 4.16 while lack of accessible road and lack of local people involvement are the least challenges with a mean of 3.15 and 2.98 each.

Table 4: Challenges Confronting the Development of Ado-Awaye Suspended Lake

Variables	Not a Challenge	Minor Challenge	Neutral	Moderate Challenge	Serious Challenge	Mean	Rank
	F (%)	F (%)	F (%)	F (%)	F (%)		
Lack/inadequate accommodation facilities	14(16.1)	21(24.1)	34(39.1)	12(12.4)	6(6.9)	3.19	5 th
Lack of government interest	0	0	9(10.3)	8(9.2)	70(80.5)	4.70	1 st
Lack of trained labour power	9(10.3)	16(18.4)	27(31.0)	18(20.7)	17(19.5)	3.21	4 th
Lack of accessible road	19(21.8)	24(27.6)	37(42.5)	5(5.7)	2(2.2)	3.15	6 th
Lack of local people involvement	21(24.1)	26(29.9)	40(46.0)	0	0	2.98	7 th
Lack of Fund	0	0	28(32.2)	17(19.5)	42(48.3)	4.16	3 rd
Poor awareness	0	0	19(21.8)	18(20.7)	50(57.5)	4.36	2 nd

Source (Field survey, 2022).

4. Discussion

Ecotourism is the new paradigm of tourism carried out with either cultural, educational, scientific, or adventure purpose (Weaver, 2002). It is the responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment, sustains the well-being of the local people, and involves interpretation and education to staff and guest. Nature based attraction, and cultural features differ according to the geographical setting. This implies that, all places do not have equal potentials in regard of ecotourism (Wearing and Neil, 2009). The sites must contain unique, appealing features for ecotourist. Specific attraction, site and infrastructure, market demand, available capacity and socioeconomic linkages to biodiversity are determining factors for ecotourism potential (Carroll and Groom, 2006).

This finding revealed the presence of nine (9) ecotourism attractions in Ado-awaye suspended Lake namely; Ishage, Iyake Lake, Agbomofunyake, Elephant tree, Esekaniku, Iya Alaro Lake, Ese Awon

Agaba, Ese kan aye Ese kan orun and Iya Oniru Lake (table 2). The ecotourism attractions are natural made. Most of the ecotourism attractions have been available for over 1000 years according to the tour guide. This study was in agreement with Olaniye and Bada, (2020) that reported that ecotourism attractions in Ado-awaye suspended Lake could make the destination more important and attractive for tourism development on national and global scales although, a few of them are in poor conditions. The dilapidated condition of these facilities can be attributed to their low maintenance. According to Olaniyi and Atalor (2018), there is a strong relationship between tourism development and the maintenance of tourism infrastructures. That is, tourism infrastructure forms the basis of tourism development coupled with the sustainable resource utilization in ecotourism destination (Olaniyi and Atalor, 2018). Ecotourism attractions in the Ado-Awaye area are the items that made the destination core tourism centre (Formica, 2002).

The study indicated the socio-economic impact of Ado-Awaye suspended Lake are provision of jobs, provision of business opportunities were topmost in the observed socio-economic impacts ranking 1st and 2nd on the scale of ranking. Meanwhile, items such as; source of foreign exchange and investment opportunity were recorded as the least beneficial to the people and the area ranking 7th and 8th on the scale of ranking (table 3). This implies that although there were a lot of socio-economic impacts accruing from ecotourism attractions in Ado-Awaye suspended Lake, there were also much to be put in place if the ecotourism attractions are to bring forth a more sustainable development within the area. The finding of this study support Frangialli (2001) that maintained that tourism is immensely important for economic development through its impacts on employment, exports, stimulation of infrastructure provision, generation of revenue, and promotion of international cultural appreciation, peace and harmony. The World Travel and Tourism Organization (1999), reported that tourism is able to contribute to development which is economically, ecologically, and socially sustainable, because it: Has less impact on natural resources and the environment than most other industries; Is based on enjoyment and appreciation of local culture, built heritage, and natural environment, as such that the industry has a direct and powerful motivation to protect these assets; Can play a positive part in increasing consumer commitment to sustainable development principles through its unparalleled consumer distribution channels; and Provides an economic incentive to conserve natural environments and habitats which might otherwise be allocated to more environmentally damaging land uses, thereby, helping to maintain bio-diversity.

The major challenges confronting the development of Ado-Awaye suspended Lake were identified to be lack of government interest and lack awareness. Others are lack of fund, Lack of trained labour power, Lack/inadequate accommodation facilities, lack of accessible road and lack of local people involvement (table 4). This assertion is in line with the findings of Nadube and Akahome (2017) who revealed the following challenges that have been faced in the southern region of Nigeria - poor facility aesthetics of the destination, poor consumer purchasing power, political instability and violence, high rate of crime against humanity, unsafe airspace, inefficient telecommunication and internet services, poor facility aesthetics of the destination, national insecurity, multiplicity of fines and taxes, and high operational costs (Nadube and Akahome, 2017). Also, Bankole, (2002), highlighted some of the

problems confronting the tourism sector in Nigeria to include lack of detailed data, insecurity through crime and terrorism, inadequate funding and marketing, and low disposable income. Ndanusa *et al.* (2014) identified some gaps that need to be reduced or closed if Nigeria must reap bountifully from the tourism sector. These authors however listed Security, Infrastructural amenities, Promotion and awareness, Funding and financing as the problems militating against the growth of tourism in the country. This is consistent with the empirical findings of Jeroen (2017) who opined that awareness should be created to improve an ecotourism destination image.

5. Conclusion

It can be concludes from this study that Ado-Awaye suspended Lake are blessed with nine (9) ecotourism potentials. The study also observed that there were enormous socio-economic impact accruing from the ecotourism resources of Ado-awaye suspended Lake ranging from the provision of job opportunities, creation of more business opportunities, revenue generation, patronage of local products, improved family income etc which have impacted positively on the economy of the host communities. Meanwhile, the study also observed that the ecotourism industry in the area suffered a lot of challenges ranging from lack of of government interest, lack of awareness, lack of fund as the highest rated challenges in the area.

6. Recommendations

Government of Oyo State should treat tourism sector as one which has great economic and infrastructural assets for the State through ensuring more investment in the sector.

Government should collaborate with other stakeholders in the ecotourism sector especially the private investors and host communities by providing enabling environment for investment and encouraging the people to participate in the developmental stages of the industry by providing basic amenities in the local communities across the State.

Provision of facilities such as accessible roads, electricity, hotels, police stations and source of potable water to the local communities to encourage more ecotourism activities and tourists' visits.

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Part Two
Educational Psychology



Relationship between Self-Awareness and Task Performance in Selected Private Universities in Ogun State, Nigeria

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Abstract. This study examined the relationship between self-awareness and task performance among academic staff in selected private universities in Ogun State, Nigeria. The main purpose of the study was to examine interaction between self-awareness and task performance among academic staff in selected private universities in Ogun State, Nigeria. One hypothesis was postulated to guide the study; survey research design was employed in this study. The sample for the study comprised 308 full-time academic staff of selected private Universities in Ogun State, Nigeria, determined using Raosoft calculator. Multi-stage sampling techniques were adapted to obtain response from all the cadres of the academic staff. A structured and adapted questionnaire titled “Self-awareness and Employee Performance (SEP)” that was used for the study went through validity and reliability tests with Cronbach Alpha ranges between 0.728 and 0.954. Data collected were analysed using descriptive and inferential (Multiple and Hierarchical Regression) statistics. The study revealed that self-awareness had significant relationship with task performance ($r(296) = 0.833, p < 0.05$). Based on the result of the study, it was therefore recommended that the management of private universities should train their academic staff to acquire the competencies associated with self-awareness because a thorough understanding of oneself is an important determinant self-efficacy for improving personal performance.

Keywords: Emotional intelligence, Employee performance, Self-awareness

1. Introduction

Increasing employee performance has been the goal every organisation is pursuing at every point in time. This has made different organisations, human resource managers and academics to regularly source for and adopt diverse strategies and varied actions to improve their performance. Academic staff of universities plays a very important role in terms of growth and development of nations’ economy. They make positive contribution to the growth of a nation and generally seen as the basis by which the needed high level manpower or a country’s development could be achieved. Their job demands are often hectic as a result of high students’ enrollment which results to work overload. The issue of work overload proves to be a great detriment to their task performance therefore, self-awareness in this light is likely to offer a viable impetus to ameliorate this challenge. Self-awareness is one of the dimensions of emotional intelligence, it occupies the first level among dimensions of emotional intelligence. Self-awareness is seen as a driving force for improving the performance of academic staff of private university around the world. This dimension of emotional intelligence is an indispensable factor liable for determining success in life and psychological health and performance of employees in their working environment.

Self-awareness is described by Crisp and Turner (2014) as a psychological situation in which people know their traits, feelings, and behaviors. According to Kara (2020), self-awareness, gives individuals a better understanding of what they want or need; it increases individual chances of getting what they want or need; it improves individual decision making

process; it help someone to manage emotions and boost productivity and success. Furthermore, self-awareness bolsters self-esteem and strengthens relationships among workforce.

Globally, private university sector plays a catalytic role in a modern economy and has dynamic benefits crucial for economic transformation (Boni & Walker, 2016; McCowan, 2019; Owens, 2017). Oyewole (2022) observed that the performance of academic staff of private universities have contributed at least a total of £5.8 billion to the United Kingdom and supported 145,921 jobs directly and indirectly across all skill levels as a result of their students they produced/graduated. According to Digital Marketing Institute (2018), the research work of university staff in British universities contributes £95 billion to the country's economy, their efforts also assisted Australian universities to generate £25 billion, and their activities have equally propelled Canadian universities to generate £55 billion. In the United States, technological advancements developed in universities have contributed £591 billion to the national GDP between 1996 and 2018 alone. Despite the enormous potentials, most of the staffs of universities are bewildered with high students' enrollment which hindered their work performance within the range of task performance, making success a major challenge. This is a big challenge to their performance since academic staffs of universities are seen as driving forces for improving university performance and global rating (Urban, 2019).

In Africa, the issue of funding has always been a source of crisis in the African educational system (Obineli, 2013). The number of enrollment of university students by educational sector in Egypt 2019/2020 published by Saifaddin (2021) stated that during the schooling year of 2019/2020, the number of enrolled students in public universities in Egypt was over 2.4 million. In comparison, in the same academic year, roughly 479,000 students were enlisted in private higher institutes in Egypt. Moreover, close to 207,000 students were registered in private universities. The report also stated that in 2017, the gross tertiary enrollment ratio in Egypt amounted to 35.16%, showing an increment compared to 33.86% in 2016. Despite the increase in enrollment, the number academic staff has not increased, putting pressure on the academic staff. This invariably affects employees' emotion and task performance.

Education is a high priority in Tunisia as it has been for many years since independence. The number of professors in tertiary education in Tunisia 2014-2020 published by Statista Research Department (2022)

claimed that in the school year 2019/2020, the number of professors in public tertiary education in Tunisia was about 22,000 but decreased by 249 compared to the previous year. And the students' enrollment is in the increase. Hence, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2018) anticipates that enrolment could exceed 300 million in OECD and non-OECD G20 countries by 2030. This informed Scott (2017)'s report that in Burundi, Congo and Rwanda have witnessed rapid growth of private tertiary institutions, covering over two-thirds of students.

Nigeria also share in the high students enrolment, according to Verrella (2021), Nigeria university students that enrolled in Nigeria in the 2018/2019 academic session was 1,798,958 for undergraduate and 242,323 for postgraduate making a total of 2,041,281 students, compared to 1.2million students' enrollment in 2012. While there has been a great decline in public funding, there has been an increased in private provision of tertiary education, growing autonomy of educational institutions, and a greater emphasis on research and innovation. This demand has increased the enrollment of students in tertiary education in the past two decades. Consequently, in many countries, the number of teaching staff is not commensurate with that of the students. UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) (2019), tertiary education teachers increased from 7.5 million in 2002 to 12.9 million in 2015, reflecting a growth of 72 per cent. Also, Aondofa (2022) stated that Nigeria has only 100,000 lecturers for her 2.1 million university students. This is lower than the global growth rate of student enrolment. And this has led to an increasing differentiation between teaching and research roles within the academic profession and downward trend in task performance among academic staff.

Furthermore, Nigeria University Commission (NUC) (2022) affirmed that Nigeria is growing with 198 universities with about 2.1million enrollments but has just over 50,000 academic staff in the universities. Despite Nigeria University Commission (NUC)'s recommendation of 12 students to 1 lecturer (ASUU, 2010); and NUC's standard as contained in its 1995-99 report, which recommended a student-to-lecturer ratio of 9:1 for agriculture and engineering-technology faculties, 6:1 in human and veterinary medicine faculties and 10:1 in science and pharmacy faculties, while law, social sciences and arts should be 20:1 (Abutu, 2021), this policy has not been met by the Nigeria university system. Due to higher student enrollment and shortage of academic staff, university academic employees are exposed to variety of complex task almost at the same time with teaching, which is their primary assignment. Some of

tasks they are exposed to include; being the examination officers, course advisers, directors, head of departments, deans, provost, project supervisors, at undergraduate and graduate levels, attending conferences, and publication of papers. Most often these additional tasks tend to enlarge the workload of lecturers and make the load excessive; thus leading to low performance.

In spite of the deluge of studies on emotional intelligence and employee performance in Nigeria (Gunu & Oladapo, 2014; & Podile & Rajesh, 2016); no study has critically investigated self-awareness and task performance in a study especially among University lecturers. Even with Nigeria University Commission (NUC)'s recommendation of 12 students to 1 lecturer (ASUU, 2010), this vision has not been met by the private Universities. There have been evidences of harsh task performance in the University workforce, high workload and longer working hours under stress which affect the performance level of University academia (Awang, Hanim, & Mohammed, 2010; & Fapohunda, 2015). Academic staffs are exposed to task overload that tend to affect them negatively. Some of these tasks are acting as examination officers, course advisers, directors, heads of department, deans, provost, project supervisors at undergraduate and post graduate levels (Amie-Ogan, & Fekarurhobo, 2021). The result is reflect in the accompanying stress with its attendant health problems which is creating great challenge for University lecturers thus, preventing them maintaining optimal task performance. Therefore, academic staff needs self-awareness to surmount these challenges. Jamroz (2019) observed that various problems of maladjustment at the workplace is due to the poorly developed emotional self-awareness, which when developed help people to respond to a variety of environmental situations. It is on the basis of this that this study examined how self-awareness could affect task performance among academic staff in selected Private Universities in Ogun State, Nigeria.

The main purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between self-awareness and task performance among academic staff in selected Private Universities in Ogun State, Nigeria.

The following hypothesis was postulated to guide this study:

H₁: Self-awareness has no significant relationship with task performance

2. Literature Review

2.1 Self-Awareness

Grayson (2013) defined self-awareness as the ability to recognize one's feelings, to differentiate between them, to know what one is feeling and why, and to know what caused the feelings. Goleman (1998) maintained that emotional self-awareness is a way of identifying a person emotions and how it could affect other people. Okpara and Agwu (2015) stated that the first step of becoming an emotionally intelligent is to become as self-aware as possible. Corroborating this, O'Connor, Hill, Kaya, and Martin (2019); Nelson and Low (2011); and Siegling, Saklofske, Petrides, (2015) stated that emotional intelligence begins at the individual level of analysis as a starting point for EI discovery. This implies that emotional self-awareness precedes all stages of emotional intelligence development. Singh (2010) noted that self-awareness is the basic foundation on which variables of emotionally intelligent behaviour germinates. Thus, Lew (2018) identified self-awareness as the most important dimension of emotional intelligence.

Sutton (2006) analysed an emotional intelligence competence framework which considers the self-awareness cluster as recognizing and understanding individual's emotions in the moment as well as tendencies to manipulate the emotions across time and situation. This includes individuals who are neither overly critical nor unrealistically hopeful but honest with themselves and others around them. Within the context of the above authors' definition and views, the researcher defines self-awareness as the ability to be conscious of one's emotion while relating with others in workplace.

2.2 Task Performance

Performance is a multi-dimensional concept which could either be task or contextual performance. Kappagoda (2018) distinguished between task and contextual performance, stating that task performance refers to an individual's proficiency with which he or she performs activities which contribute to the organization's technical core. While contextual performance refers to activities which do not contribute to the technical core but which support the organisational, social and psychological environment in which organisational goals are pursued. Contextual performance includes not only behaviours such as helping coworkers or being a reliable member of the organization, but also making suggestions about how to improve work procedures.

Task performance is core and crucial to the concept of employee performance and is in itself multidimensional in nature as it encapsulate most sub-constructs of job performance. Thus, when the term “employee performance” is mentioned, the task dimension of performance quickly comes to mind. Nini (2019) noted that activities relevant for task performance varies between jobs and is related to the individual’s abilities and skills, and is more prescribed and constitutes in-role behaviour. Kalia and Bhardwaj (2019) defined task performance as the proficiency (i.e, competency) with which one performs central job tasks. There are other labels used for task performance; some of these are job-specific, task proficiency in Wisecarver, Carpenter, and Kilcullen (2007); technical proficiency (Abd Kadir, 2019; & Lee, Yun, and Kim (2017) or in-role performance (Jundt, Shoss, & Huang, 2015). Interestingly, Kalia and Bhardwaj (2019) labelled task performance as work quantity, work quality, and job knowledge.

Kappagoda (2018) posited that in trying to understand the organizational job performance domain, the elements of the behavioural competencies involved should be grouped into two main distinctions: contextual performance behaviours and task performance behaviours. Kappagoda (2018) and Abd Kadir (2019) contended that contextual performance behaviours differ from task performance behaviours in four major ways.

Kappagoda (2018) described a two-factor theory of job performance in which most jobs consist of task performance and contextual performance. They defined task performance as the behavior that is directly linked to completion of the job. Task related behaviors contribute to the technical core of the organization. Behavior in the domain of task performance is usually recognized as a formal requirement of an individuals’ job. Job description often explicitly stipulates that the job holders must perform these activities. Kappagoda (2018) and Nini (2019) defined contextual performance as an individual’s performance, which maintains and enhances an organization’s social network and the psychological climate that supports technical tasks. Furthermore, they explained that contextual performance includes activities that may not represent formal work tasks, although they still make an important contribution to the effectiveness of an organization. This type of performance is often not written in a job description, but it is considered to be an important component of job performance. From the foregoing, task performance is an employee’s skills that help an individual to perform his |her

duties efficiently to add the organizations technical core.

3. Empirical Review

3.1 Self-Awareness and Task Performance

Studies on self-awareness and task performance abound in literature. Kum and Kum (2018) carried out a research to find the relationship between emotional intelligence and job self-efficiency in research courses among Dharwad physical education teachers using and descriptive research design method. 200 physical education teachers were randomly selected from different Dharwad universities. Bar-on Emotional and Self- efficiency job questionnaires were used to evaluate the teachers’ attitudes. Pearson correlation coefficient was used to investigate the relationships between the variables at 0.05 level significance. The findings in Kum and Kum (2018) study revealed that there was a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and research self-efficacy. In another article, Kappagoda (2018) investigated task performance and contextual performance looking at the meaning for personnel selection research. This article distinguishes between task and contextual activities, and taxonomy of contextual performance containing elements of organizational citizenship behavior and pro-social organizational behavior is offered. To test the statistical significance of the differences across the three separate regression analyses, we conducted planned comparisons within a repeated measures using MANCOVA. The result confirmed that correlations between personality and contextual criteria are higher than correlations between personality and overall performance.

In another article, Udo and Ukpong (2016) investigated the influence of self and social awareness on business education students’ academic performance in federal Universities in South-South, Nigeria. The ex-post facto research design method was used for the study. A sample of 356 Business Education students from two intact years was selected for the study using stratified sampling technique. The validated instrument, Emotional Competency Inventory was used for data collection; an internal consistency reliability coefficient of 0.76 was obtained using Cronbach Alpha reliability technique. The findings showed that there was a significant influence of self-awareness and social awareness on Business Education students’ academic performance in Federal Universities in South-South, Nigeria.

Rashmi, (2017) investigated the influence of emotional intelligence on job performance for the automobile industry in Bangalore. A descriptive and explanatory research design method was used in the study. The research was conducted by distributing questionnaires to 82 employees who were selected using systematic stratified sampling method. The Pearson correlation was used to analyse the data collected. The finding showed all the dimensions of EI have a significant impact on job performance. That is, emotional intelligence variables (self-awareness, self-regulation, self-motivation, social skills, social awareness) are related to employee job performance variables (reliability, persistence and rules).

In a journal article titled self-awareness and organizational performance in the Nigerian banking sector using two hundred and ten bank managers in South-South area of Nigeria, Okpara and Agwu (2015) conducted a study using a survey research

design method. Four hypotheses were formulated and tested using the spearman rank correlation coefficient with the aid of statistical package for social science tested at .05level of significance. Findings from Okpara and Agwu (2015) showed that self-awareness is positively related to net profit and return on investment, but no strong relationship was found between self-awareness and market share.

Yang and Wei (2017) investigated the impact of ethical leadership on employee’s task performance and the moderating role of employee proactive personality. Social identity, social learning, and self-concordance theories were used to explain the way ethical leadership affects employee’s task performance. The authors collected survey-based dyadic data from middle management team members and subordinates in Chinese companies. Multiple regression analysis was used to test the research hypotheses. Yang and Wei (2017) study, findings showed that ethical leadership positively influences employee’s task performance.

Research Conceptual Model



Source: Author’s Research model, 2022

4. Research Methodology

The research design used for this study was survey research design. The target population that was used for this study comprised one thousand four hundred and sixty-four (1464) and this covers all the full-time academic staff from the rank of Lecturer II to Professorial cadre of the selected private Universities in Ogun State, Nigeria.

The sample size for the study was 308 full-time academic staff of the selected private university in Ogun State, Nigeria. The sampling technique that was adopted for this study was multi-stage sampling technique. Multi-stage sampling was used because it divides large population in stages to make the sampling process more practical and because it is the most appropriate for a large scale survey. The first stage was to select the Universities that were used as the base of this study. As at August 2021, there are twelve (12) private Universities in Ogun State, Nigeria. The study was limited to six (6) private Universities which represent 50% for proportional distribution. The six private Universities were selected based on their position on 2021 ranking table of Nigeria University Commission (NUC). The second stage was to select the samples for the study. Out of these six (6) selected Universities, the study made use of simple random sampling technique to select 308 full-time academic staff making use of the proportionate sample size.

The study made use of a structured and adapted questionnaire titled “Self-awareness and Employees’ Performance (SEP)” went through validity and reliability tests with Cronbach Alpha ranges between 0.728 and 0.954. The inferential statistics employed Pearson Moment Correlation Coefficient to test the hypothesis of the study using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 25. 0.

5. Results

H02: Self-awareness has no significant relationship with task performance

Bivariate correlation using Pearson’s product moment correlation (r) analysis was used to test the hypothesis. The results of the analysis are presented on Table 1.

Table 1: Pearson Product Moment Correlation on the relationship between Self-awareness on task performance of selected private universities in Ogun State, Nigeria

Correlations			
		Self-Awareness	Task Performance
Self-Awareness	Pearson Correlation	1	.833**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	296	296
Task Performance	Pearson Correlation	.833**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	296	296

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: Researcher’s Field Survey, 2022

Table 1 presents the result of a Pearson Product Moment Correlation test that was done to evaluate the relationship between self-awareness and task performance. According to the results, the correlation between self-awareness and task performance is 0.833 ($r(296) = 0.833, p < 0.05$). This implies that there is a strong, positive and significant relationship between self-awareness and task performance of selected private universities in Ogun State, Nigeria. The result suggests that the higher the level of self-awareness of the full-time academic staff of selected Private University, the higher their task performance. Based on this result, the null hypothesis which states that self-awareness has no significant relationship with task performance is hereby rejected.

6. Discussion on the Findings

The results of Pearson product moment correlation analysis for the significant relationship between self-awareness and task performance showed the presence of significant relationship. This result implies that self-awareness has a significant relationship with task performance. Conceptually, self-awareness according to Grayson (2013), self-awareness is the ability to recognize one’s feelings, to differentiate between them, to know what one is feeling and why, and to know what caused the feelings. Goleman (1998) maintains that emotional self-awareness is a way of identifying a person emotions and how it could affect other people. Okpara and Agwu (2015) stated that the first step of becoming an emotionally intelligent is to become as self-aware as possible. Corroborating this, O’Connor, Hill, Kaya, & Martin (2019); Goleman (1995); Nelson and Low (2011); & Siegling, Saklofske, Petrides, (2015) stated that emotional intelligence begins at the individual level of analysis as a starting point for EI discovery. This implies that emotional self-awareness precedes all stages of emotional intelligence development. Hence, Singh (2010) notes that self-awareness is the basic foundation on which variables of emotionally intelligent behaviour germinates.

Empirically, Kum and Kum (2018) found a positive significant relationship between self-awareness and research self-efficacy. Also, Kappagoda (2018) confirmed that correlations between self-awareness and research self-efficacy which was one of the main performances of academic staff of the university. In a related study, Udo and Ukpong (2016) discovered a favourable relationship between self-awareness and task performance on the Business Education students’ academic performance in Federal Universities in South-South, Nigeria.

7. Conclusion

This study argues theoretically and demonstrates empirically that self-awareness related significantly to task performance of the academic staff of private universities. This study therefore concluded that self-awareness affects employees’ task performance in selected private universities in Ogun State, Nigeria.

8. Recommendations

Based on the result of the study, the following recommendations were made:

- Management of private universities should train their academic staff to acquire the competencies associated with self-awareness because a thorough understanding of oneself is an important determinant self-efficacy for improving task performance.
- Departmental and HR managers of academic staff should take applicant’s emotional intelligence into consideration and measure EI in the screening and recruitment processes.
- Management of private universities should include some faculty training programmes that will assist academic staff in developing better self-awareness.

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Correlates of Youth Resilience to Violent Extremism in Plateau State

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Abstract. The study examined the correlates of youth resilience to violent extremism in Plateau State. Participants were 386 youths with a mean age of 27 years ($SD = 6$ years) in Bokoos and Barkin-Ladi LGAs, comprising 228 males and 158 females. The study employed the convergent parallel mix method. Three hundred eighty-six (386) questionnaires were analysed, and sixteen (16) KII were conducted. Content analysis showed that youths were aware of violent extremism, displayed a negative perception of violent extremism, and pointed to poverty, social exclusion/racial discrimination, lack of economic opportunities, discrimination based on religion, and drug and alcohol as drivers of violent extremism. The result of multiple linear regression revealed that parents' socioeconomic status significantly predicted resilience to violent extremism ($\beta = 1.470, p = 0.031$) and accounted for an 11.8% variation in resilience to violent extremism. However, age ($\beta = -.103, p > .05$), gender ($\beta = -.830, p > .05$), religious affiliation ($\beta = 1.263, > .05$), and level of education ($\beta = -.301, p > .05$) were not significant predictors of resilience to violent extremism. The study concluded that the level of socioeconomic status of parents is pertinent to youth attitude towards engaging in violent extremism. The study recommended, from a policy perspective, the primary focus by the government on income or economic growth as one of the strategies to counter violent youth extremism.

1. Introduction

Government or any particular group of people is not solely responsible for maintaining peace and security in any society or country; rather, all citizens share this responsibility. The effort is, however, spearheaded by the government. Other stakeholders besides the government include the organized private sector, interest groups, and civil society

organizations. In each of these, the young people who make up the majority in the majority of communities are the leaders of peace and security. Youths have contributed significantly to Nigeria's development in various ways, including politics, democracy, governance, economy, security, and community development. Youth's efforts to incite violence and lessen it cannot be disregarded in terms of security. Youths continue to predominate in promoting various forms of violent acts or extremism, including farmer-herder disputes, militant vandalism, and other types of insurgencies, despite being the backbone of most community developments (Yusuf, 2019).

In Nigeria, youths have been blamed for all violence, and there is never a social issue that does not involve youth. When a society uses youth as a tool to further marginalize them and fails to protect their interests, leaving them further vulnerable to injustice, poverty, a lack of access to quality education, unemployment, isolation, radicalization, violent behaviour, and extremism is inevitably to follow (Adebayo, 2017; Kadiwa, 2016). This is demonstrated by the fact that young people who participate in insurgency and violent extremism are typically dropouts from school, uneducated, unemployed, have grievances against the government, excluded, marginalized, and come from low socioeconomic backgrounds (Yusuf, 2019; UNDP, 2017; Umar, 2016).

Studies (Dan-Azumi & Azeez, 2018; Umar, 2016) have demonstrated that the environment in communities has contributed to youth disillusionment and, as a result, predisposed them to be ready tools for violence, and they are frequently used as such for ethno-religious, political, and thuggish violence. Despite this, young people in every society have the potential to be resilient to violent extremism and act as a driving force for development because they

make up the labour force that propels the economy through the creation of goods and services.

Building resilience to violent extremism at the community and individual levels has been a component of efforts to prevent violent extremism for more than ten years (Grossman, Hadfield, Jefferies, Gerrard, & Ungar, 2020). Cross-cultural standardized assessments can help pinpoint young people's strengths and weaknesses against violent extremism. A measure of resilience cannot be used to determine who will or will not carry out terrorist acts because the causes of violent extremism are multifaceted. Instead, it aims to track the various capital sources available to youth at risk of turning to violence to redress ideological, religious, and political grievances and to use this information to inform interventions that strengthen youths' resistance to the push and pull factors of violent extremism (Grossman et al., 2020).

Resilience development can be used to combat youth violent extremism. The ability to withstand or recover from hardship is typically referred to as resilience. A resilient approach does not have a quick fix. It depends on having a thorough understanding of what resilience means for a specific group of people and how history, politics, society, and culture have influenced it. Additionally, it depends on the government forging and maintaining alliances with the affected families, communities, networks, and organizations. Furthermore, it depends on the government collaborating to design, implement, and assess the interventions that can truly impact resilience-building, a process that is certain to involve trial and error (Weine, 2013).

Many studies have a glaring gap in their coverage of and thorough documentation of young people's positive contributions to society regarding their resilience to violent extremism. This results in a growing securitization of the youth issue. In most communities in Nigeria, it now seems to be an add-on or a sort of a priori disclaimer not to view the youth as a negative force (Yusuf, 2019). Governmental and non-governmental organizations fighting violent extremism are increasingly adopting a prevention rather than a counterterrorism strategy (Obonyo, 2019). This ranges from generating employment and providing essential services to more soft power initiatives that ease community tensions and foster trust, like identifying resilience factors and developing interventions that further support such resilience to violent extremism (Obonyo, 2019).

1.1 Statement of Problem

Despite the efforts made by both government and non-government organizations to reduce violent youth extremism, experts and researchers on the Plateau have looked for explanations for the reasons why violent extremism has spread and reached such high levels in some areas of the State (Krause 2017; Bunte & Vinson 2016). The larger literature emphasizes ethnic segregation as a crucial demographic factor in young people's susceptibility to violent extremism and population density and poverty (Madueke 2018). However, there are divergent viewpoints on how this relationship functions (Bhavnani & Choi 2012). According to one theory, violent incidents occur more frequently in racially segregated settings. This viewpoint claims segregation causes violence by encouraging in-group loyalty and out-group animosity (Boal 1972).

Another argument contends that ethnically diverse neighbourhoods are more likely to experience violence and that to prevent these clashes, the various groups should be kept apart in separate housing (Kaufmann 1996). There is broad agreement among experts on ethnic riots that mixed-ethnicity areas are more likely to experience mass violence than segregated ones. Studies comparing the levels of violence in segregated and mixed localities served as the foundation for the conclusion. While this addresses differences between settlements with different ethnic compositions, it is still unclear how violence differs across areas with different ethnic compositions.

Investigation into prevention strategies that specifically address youth resilience to violent extremism with cultural identity and connectedness, the presence of both bridging and linking capital, violence-related behaviours, and violence-related beliefs as indicators of stronger or weaker resilience to violent extremism is necessary given the cycle of violent youth extremism in some parts of Plateau State. Regarding youth resilience against violent extremism, there is a gap in research studies that examine these domains in Nigeria, particularly in Plateau State.

More specifically, a persistent knowledge gap in the field of understanding resilience to violent extremism has been the collection and analysis of statistically valid data to provide scientific evidence for how young people from diverse cultural backgrounds in multicultural settings operationalize resilience to violent extremism through their regular, multilevel social and institutional interactions. The urban and rural populations of Plateau State are both dense and extremely culturally diverse, making them perfect

comparative settings for further research on these issues.

As a result, the study's findings will dispel the constraints that communities and agencies currently face in their efforts to develop meaningful youth-focused policies and programs that can both identify the resilience-building assets that young people in communities already have and the vulnerabilities or gaps that may need to be filled as well as how to close gaps in the development of indicators or measures of community resilience relating to violent extremism, especially in developing countries.

1.2 Aim and Objectives of the Study

The study investigated the socio-demographic correlates of youth resilience to violent extremism. The focus was on the following specific objectives:

- Determine the predictive role of age on youth resilience to violent extremism in Plateau state
- Investigate the role of gender in resilience to violent extremism in Plateau state
- Examine the role of the level of education on youth resilience to violent extremism in Plateau state
- Find out the role of religious affiliation on youth resilience to violent extremism in Plateau state
- Assess the role of socioeconomic status on youth resilience to violent extremism in Plateau state

1.3 Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested in the study:

- Age will significantly predict resilience to violent extremism among youths
- Gender will significantly predict resilience to violent extremism among youths.
- Religious affiliation will be a significant predictor of youth resilience to violent extremism.
- Level of education will significantly predict resilience to violent extremism among youths.
- Socioeconomic status of parents of youths living in the communities will significantly predict resilience to violent extremism among youths.

3. Results

2. Research Methodology

2.1 Design

Mixed-methods research was used in the study. Specifically, the convergent parallel mix method approach. Instead of using isolated approaches to solve the research problem, this mixed-method approach allowed for triangulation, resulting in greater depth, breadth, and knowledge of the problem (Almalki, 2016). This research approach offers the chance to have a thorough understanding of the research issues, including the ability to: Differentiate between the various perceptions obtained from quantitative and qualitative data and discuss quantitative results with a qualitative data collection and analysis follow-up (Creswell, 2014). The correlational design was chosen for this study's quantitative component. At the same time, the study's qualitative component used a phenomenological approach (Patton & Cochran, 2002).

2.2 Participants

The participants in the study were 386 youths with a mean age of 27 years (SD = 6 years) who are residents in the two Local Government Areas (LGAs) of the study (Bokkos and Barkin-Ladi,) consisting of 228 males and 158 females.

2.3 Instrument for Data Collection

Two instruments were used for data collection in the study. These include; the Key Informant Interview (KII) schedule and the Building Resilience Against Violent Extremism Scale (BRAVA-14), a measure that assesses youth resilience to violent extremism.

2.4 Procedure

An in-depth interview utilizing semi-structured open-ended questions was conducted for 16 participants that met the inclusion criteria and consented to participate in the study from the two study locations (Bokkos and Barkin-Ladi). For the quantitative data collection, in each of the two (2) LGAs, a maximum of thirty clusters (communities) were randomly selected from the list of communities in the study.

2.5 Method of Data Analysis

The multiple linear regression statistical tool was used to test the hypotheses, while the content analysis was used to analyze the qualitative data collected.

The results of the descriptive statistics of the regression model summary are presented below.

Table 1: Model Summary of Regression Model

R ²	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
.029	2.278	5	378	0.046	1.596

The results of the multiple linear regression model summary revealed that the coefficient of determination $R^2 = 0.029$, $F_{(5, 378)} = 2.040$ (5% significance level). This showed that the model could be held for a 2.9% change in youth resilience to violent extremism. The F-statistic (ANOVA) of the model has a closeness of fit at a 5% ($p \leq 0.05$) level of significance. The Durbin-Watson value of 1.596 indicated that the autocorrelation is significant without multicollinearity.

Inferential Result

Table 2: Coefficients of Regression Model 1

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	β	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	44.617	2.626		16.994	.000
Age	-.103	.059	-.092	-1.752	.081
Gender	-.830	.735	-.058	-1.129	.260
Religious affiliation	1.263	.970	.067	1.302	.194
Level of educational	-.301	.343	-.050	-.876	.382
Socioeconomic status of parents	1.470	.677	.118	2.170	.031

Dependent Variable – Resilience to violent extremism

The multiple linear regression was used to analyse whether socio-demographic variables were significant predictors of resilience to violent extremism among the youth. The result of the regression coefficients reveals that age was not a significant predictor of resilience to violent extremism ($\beta = -.103$, $p = 0.081$), accounting for a 9.2% variation in youth resilience to violent extremism. Gender did not significantly predict resilience to violent extremism ($\beta = -.830$, $p = 0.260$) and accounting for 5.8% variation in youth resilience to violent extremism. Also, religious affiliation was not a significant predictor of resilience to violent extremism ($\beta = 1.263$, $p = 0.194$), and accounted for 6.7% variation in resilience to violent extremism; and level of education did not significantly predict resilience to violent extremism ($\beta = -.301$, $p = 0.382$), accounting for 5% variation in resilience to violent extremism. However, parents' socioeconomic status significantly predicted resilience to violent extremism ($\beta = 1.470$, $p = 0.031$) and accounted for an 11.8% variation in resilience to violent extremism.

Content Analysis

Findings of the content analysis revealed that the youths were aware of violent extremism in their environments, displayed a negative perception of violent extremism, and indicated poverty, social exclusion/racial discrimination, lack of economic

opportunities, discrimination based on religion, and drug and alcohol as major drivers of violent extremism.

Awareness of Violent extremism

Regarding awareness and perception of violent extremism, the common statements indicated that the KII participants were aware of violent extremism and disagreed with the violent extremism ideology held by some youths. The following statements point to this:

"Yes, I am aware that youths engage in violent extremism. Especially where they usually go to drink and those involved in politics". Male Participant

And,
"I don't agree that to settle grievances, one has to resort to violence. Whatever peace cannot give anybody, violence cannot give that thing. So, violence further causes destruction. Violence comes in where there is that misunderstanding of purpose, and the youths that have resort to violence as a means of settling issues, I think is a mistake." Female Participant

Perception of Violent Extremism

Responses from qualitative data show that violent extremism in terms of ethnic or religious nature was

negatively perceived. Participants, however, see a rise of violent extremism in some communities, while others have a very low incidence of violent extremism. The following statements attest to this:

People in the community see violent extremism as very bad behaviour. When it happened some time ago, the Fulani Ardo and the elders met and resolved the issue. Male participant

And,

The perception of violent extremism in the community is not good, though it is not frequent. Female participant

Drivers of Violent Extremism

Findings revealed that poverty, social exclusion/racial discrimination, lack of economic opportunities, discrimination based on religion, and drug and alcohol abuse were the most frequently cited major causes of violent extremism.

“You see, the youths are mostly idle, and as such they easily engage in vices that are usually violent in nature. Most especially when they take drugs.” Male participant

And,

“Most of the violence by youths took place some time back during the ethno-religious conflict that happened some time ago.”

4. Discussion on the Findings

Findings from the study showed that violent youth extremism was not significantly predicted by age, gender, religious affiliation, or level of education. According to studies that contradict the findings of this one, violent offenders are more likely to be older, to be from a higher social class, to have a criminal record, to commit their acts in the afternoon, and to use a knife as a weapon of violence (Rippon, 2017).

The findings showed that gender was not a significant predictor of resilience to violent extremism in contrast to Namy, Carlson, Pala, Faris, Knight, Allen, Devries, and Naker's (2017) study, which discovered a complex relationship between violence and resilience as well as evidence that the gender moderated these dynamics. The finding of Adams and Mrug (2019) that school ethnic composition, absenteeism, and size were stronger predictors of violence perpetration and poor safety after adjusting for all student- and school-level factors contrast with the result of this study, which showed that the level of education did not predict resilience to violent extremism.

Furthermore, the results contrast with earlier research that indicated that factors such as the significance of

religion in a person's life and religious affiliations might have a greater impact on violence than self-reported religiosity (Kelly, Polanin, Jang, & Johnson, 2015). Additionally, religious affiliation was found to be negatively associated with lower involvement in physical violence by Goncalves, Madruga, Lucchetti, Dias Latorre, Laranjeira, and Vallada (2020).

Findings revealed that the socioeconomic status of parents predicted youth resilience to violent extremism; This agrees with a growing body of empirical studies that have focused on various socioeconomic underpinnings of violent youth extremism and indicated the significant role of socioeconomic status on violent extremism (Vijaya, Cathcart & Fiorellini, 2018). The results of this study contrast the findings of Fair and Shepherd (2006), which indicated that socioeconomic variables are not predictors for violent extremism. Also, some studies indicate that violent extremism is rooted in political repression and frustration (Krueger & Laitin, 2008).

The study's results that looked at parental socioeconomic status as a predictor of violent extremism suggest that understanding parental socioeconomic status may be the key to understanding the economic roots of violent extremism. This discovery is not unusual. Prior studies at the macro level have demonstrated a relationship between violent extremism and inequality measures (Enders & Hoover, 2012).

The argument for the lack of significance in the predictability of age, gender, religion, and educational attainment could be supported by evidence that unemployment rates have an impact on violent extremism (Vijaya et al., 2018). This is highlighted even more by participant responses from the interviews and focus groups, which showed that the most common causes of violent extremism among young people were poverty, unemployment, social exclusion, racial discrimination, a lack of economic opportunities, discrimination based on religion, and drug and alcohol abuse. As a result, these factors impact one's resilience to violent extremism.

5. Study Limitation

The results of this study should be viewed in the context of a few limitations. First, the study cannot establish causality between parental socioeconomic status and resistance to violent extremism. To identify a cause and effect, experimental designs would be more appropriate. Verifying whether the correlations mentioned above are causal will require additional study. Secondly, the experience of

resilience to violent extremism was assessed using self-report questionnaires, which could have been skewed by respondents' social desirability responses or poor memory, leading to a response bias.

6. Implications

Future research may succeed by identifying the risk factors and pathways concerning this group of young people. Our results suggest a possible connection between parental socioeconomic status and resistance to violent extremism. Given the association between parental socioeconomic status and resilience to violent extremism, efforts to decrease violent extremism should also concentrate on determining parents' socioeconomic status and developing alternate strategies for enhancing the economic well-being of community members.

7. Conclusion

In conclusion, the study identified a strong association between parents' socioeconomic status and resilience towards violent behaviour among youths. However, age, gender, religious affiliation, and level of education were not significant predictors of resilience to violent extremism among youths. Poor socioeconomic conditions like widespread poverty can reinforce antisocial values and increase religious intolerance, further encouraging social exclusion, racial discrimination, and drug and alcohol abuse which can be drivers of violent extremism among young people.

8. Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendation is made:

- From a policy viewpoint, there is the need for government at all levels to focus primarily on the economic or income growth of families as one of the strategies to counter violent extremism among youths.
- Growth in income without a corresponding reduction in inequality might be counterproductive. Moreover, relative deprivation can be more multi-dimensional, such as the lack of productive employment or educational opportunities, and not merely related to lack of income.
- The relationship between parents' socioeconomic status and resilience to violent extremism can be explored further in the future with experimental research. In this analysis, we are limited by the small number

of socioeconomic status variables available in the dataset.

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Determinants of Foreign News in Nigerian Newspapers

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Abstract. Every day, media professionals are saddled with the responsibility of determining and selecting news that makes it into the news bulletin. This results from limited space and time to consider the teeming number of reports on happenings. While several studies have examined the determinants of news, there is limited knowledge of the determinants of foreign news coverage in Nigerian newspapers. Therefore, this study investigates the determinants of news value of foreign news coverage among Nigerian newspapers to understand the most prominent news values published. The study was anchored on the gatekeeping and news value theory and content analysis method was employed as the methodology. *The Vanguard* and the *Nigerian Tribune* constituted the sample for this study and 2021 was the study year. Using Harcup and O'Neil's (2016) revisited taxonomy of news values, foreign news reports of the selected newspapers were analysed. Findings showed that **majority** of the reports were in straight news format and **most** were on sports. Further findings show that the reports had an average of News values. This study concludes that newspaper organizations publish foreign reports based on availability and not necessarily any news criteria.

Keywords: Gatekeeping theory, Harcup and O'Neill, News determinants, News values, Nigerian Newspapers, journalists.

1. Introduction

The traditional mass media is constrained by space and time for the tons of reports they get daily. Hence, they must decide which reports make it into the news bulletin or newspaper for a particular day. Onwe (2018) explains that journalists, in their sourcing for news, determine what is published and the treatment of the issue. Onwe (2018) further adds that the

decision to (not) report an issue influences the knowledge, opinion and attitudes to the issues. This guideline to determine what is news and what is not news is known as news values (Spencer-Thomas, 2022).

Using a set of criteria to select what makes news; journalists are looking for stories that will command significant readership. Spencer-Thomas (2022) explains that the restriction of time and space makes editors selective and use stories that most interest their audience. Thus, in seeking the public interest, journalists must understand news values to enable them to select newsworthy stories.

The study of news determinants in international news coverage dates back to Galtung & Ruge's (1965) study that examined international events' newsworthiness. These factors that determine news include frequency, threshold, unambiguity, meaningfulness, consonance, unexpectedness, continuity, composition, reference to elite nations, reference to elite people, reference to persons, and reference to something negative. It is assumed that the more news values an event has, the likelihood of been considered newsworthy.

Different studies have been conducted on news determinants. For instance, Chang, Shoemaker & Brendlinger (1987) studied determinants of international news flow to identify factors that differentiate the events that get coverage and those that do not get coverage in US media. Also, Kim (2003) studied international news determinants from an organizational perspective, while Koh (2012) also explored international news coverage by two major news organizations in the US.

Despite the attention to news determinants among foreign media, little has been done lately on

determinants of news values from the African perspective. However, some studies, like Ojebode (2009), examined the coverage of Europe and America by Nigerian newspapers, while Nwosu (1987) studied foreign media coverage of African liberation struggles. Also, Nunoo (2016), in a mixed-methods study, explored the determinants of news selection in a Ghanaian newspaper, while Nwuneli & Udoh (1982) studied international news coverage in Nigerian newspapers but not specifically on the values that inform coverage. However, none of these studies looked at the determinants of foreign news coverage news values. Moreso, there is a dearth of research on the prominent news values that determine how stories are published in Nigerian newspapers. Therefore, this study examines the determinants of news value of foreign news coverage among Nigerian newspapers to understand the most prominent news values published.

The following research questions were answered in the study:

- What are the major values that determine newsworthiness of foreign events in the Nigerian Tribune and *The Vanguard newspapers*?
- What is the major genre used to cover foreign news in the *Nigerian Tribune* and *The Vanguard* newspapers?
- What is the major theme of coverage of foreign news by *Nigerian Tribune* and *The Vanguard*?
- What is the prominence accorded foreign news by the *Nigerian Tribune* and *The Vanguard* newspapers?
- Do the foreign news reports have any national angle?

2. Literature Review

2.1 Overview of the Nigerian Mass Media

The origin of the Nigerian mass media dates back to 1895 when the first newspaper in the country was founded. Reverend Henry Townsend who was a missionary of the Christian Missionary Society established the first newspaper, *Iwe Irohin Fun Awon Ara Egba Ati Yoruba* in Abeokuta. This invention was closely followed by that of Reverend Hope Waddell a missionary who set up *Calabar Observer* in the city of Calabar. In 1885 and 1886, Hope Waddell set up two vernacular newspapers *Unwama Efik* and *Obupong Efik* respectively (Akalugo, 2001). During this period, the Newspaper enjoyed freedom as it was owned by a British. Newspapers in this

dispensation were used to promote the Christian religion, colonial government activities and educating the reader, hence, these constituted what made news. The nationalist movements soon arose, which led to the establishment of numerous newspapers in the mid 90's. The aim of every newspaper established at that time was to serve as a tool to propel change and gain political and national sovereignty. Consequently, the nature of the content of the newspaper aligned with its nationalism focus even as there were restrictions from the colonial government who was not willing to leave power. Some of the newspapers set up in this period included: *Lagos Times & Gold Coast Colony Advertiser*, *Lagos Observer* and *Iwe Irohin Eko*.

At independence, the normative climate changed as the media enjoyed freedom until the military government got into power in 1966. During the military era in Nigeria, the media suffered a great deal. Censorship of the media characterized by killings, jailing and retrenchment of media personnel who faulted government orders on what should make news. Absolute authoritarianism characterized the society, affecting the entire media operation. However, all of these newspapers are defunct while some of the newspaper in existence under a democratic rulership include, *The Guardian*, *The Punch*, *Vanguard*, *Champion*, *The Sun*, *The Nation*, *ThisDay*, *New Nigeria* and *Tribune* (Akinfeleye & Okoye, 2003).

2.2 What is news?

Shoemaker (2006) refers to the term news is a "primitive construct" (p.105). Being a primitive construct means the term news has integrated into the society so much as that it has become difficult to put a definition to it. This claim is supported by Brighton and Foy (2007) who say when journalists are asked to define news they sometimes reply "I know it when I see it" (p.147). Simply put, the term news is ambiguous.

Charles Dana who was an editor at New York Sun from 1869-1897 placed a definition to news saying news is "anything that interests a large part of the community and has never been brought to their attention. Anything that would make people talk" (Gupta, 2003, p.14). Gupta (2003) quotes an anonymous author who defined news as the "difference between the world yesterday and the world today. News is life; what is going on all around us. News is what is reported" (p. 14). No single definition can suffice for the word news. News exists everywhere, can be about anything in the society, and is important to the smooth running and

decision making of our daily endeavours. News could be new information about an unknown phenomenon or new information about a known phenomenon (updates). News can be a media programme type (News at 9) and a report or discourse in the media.

In the view of Shoemaker (2006) news is regarded as a commodity, which can be “bought, sold and traded” by the stakeholder involved in newsgathering, reporting and dissemination (p. 106). Journalists he says produce the news, public relations organisations manipulate it, the audience feed on it, and advertisers pay to promote their products close to news items (Shoemaker, 2006). The importance of news for the society makes it sought after by these stakeholders. While the traditional media disseminates news, the use of the new media promoted by the internet has not only increased the quick spread of news, news has now become user generated and interactive.

2.3 News Values and News Selection

The concept of news value explains how a news story meets specific standards and conditions, which lead to placement in the media (Galtung & Ruge, 1965). News values, otherwise known as ‘news factors’, ‘news criteria’, or ‘newsworthiness’ provide the explanation to the journalists’ decision or judgment of what is news worthy. This means that the values placed on news items would influence those items to be published as news stories. It is the journalists’ justification for selecting items that make it to the news bulletin. According to Brighton & Foy (2007) “it is news values that give journalists and editors a set of rules – often intangible, informal, almost unconscious elements – by which to work, from which to plan and execute the content of a publication or a broadcast” (p. 1). For Nunoo (2016) news values are news criteria factors, qualities that increase the probability of an event being covered in the news. These can be referred to as “selection rules which govern journalistic judgments” (Nunoo, 2016, p. 103) of what should be reported in the news.

According to Franklin, Hamer, Kinsey, and Richardson (2005), news value is a set of standards that journalists use to gauge and assess newsworthiness. The media are important and influential sources in shaping audience attitudes. Hence, a careful selection of news items to be published becomes necessary. News value indices differ from one media to another, as the *newsworthiness* of a news item is not universal.

Adopting different data gathering methods such as survey, ethnography, content analysis and interview,

various lists of news values have evolved over the years. In their popular landmark research work, Galtung & Ruge (1965) highlighted a list of 12 qualities that events need to meet or satisfy in order to become news items, that is, news value. These include frequency, threshold, unambiguity, meaningfulness, consonance, unexpectedness, continuity, composition, reference to elite nations, reference to elite people, reference to persons and reference to something negative (Galtung & Ruge, 1965, p. 70-71). Stab (1990), as cited in Ittefaq (2018), identified six factors: significance, normality, prominence, proximity, and timeliness. Furthermore, Shoemaker and Reece (1996) listed prominence, human interest, conflict, timeliness, unusualness, and proximity as germane to determining news value. Furthermore, Erjavec and Zajc (2011) identified frequency, unambiguity, predictability, consistency, threshold, unexpectedness, composition personalization, and negativity as factors that decide news values.

Having various similarities with Galtung & Ruge (1965) on the list of news values that can be used to select news worthy items, Harcup & O’Neill (2001) identified ten news value criteria, which are as follows: the power elite, celebrity, entertainment, surprise, bad news, good news, magnitude, relevance, follow-up, newspaper agenda (p. 279).

Bearing in mind the introduction of new media, various changes and developments in media and journalism practice, Harcup & O’Neill (2016) conducted a revised research which revealed an update to their earlier news value list or criteria for news to further include exclusivity, conflicts, audio-visuals, shareability, and drama (p. 13). The 2016 study by Harcup & O’Neill proposed an updated set of news values thus:

- Exclusivity: Stories generated by, or available first to, the news organisation as a result of interviews, letters, investigations, surveys, polls, and so on.
- Bad news: Stories with particularly negative overtones such as death, injury, defeat and loss (of a job, for example).
- Conflict: Stories concerning conflict such as controversies, arguments, splits, strikes, fights, insurrections and warfare.
- Surprise: Stories that have an element of surprise, contrast and/or the unusual about them.
- Audio-visuals: Stories that have arresting photographs, video, audio and/or which can be illustrated with infographics.

- Shareability: Stories that are thought likely to generate sharing and comments via Facebook, Twitter and other forms of social media.
- Entertainment: Soft stories concerning sex, show business, sport, lighter human interest, animals, or offering opportunities for humorous treatment, witty headlines or lists.
- Drama: Stories concerning an unfolding drama such as escapes, accidents, searches, sieges, rescues, battles or court cases.
- Follow-up: Stories about subjects already in the news.
- The power elite: Stories concerning powerful individuals, organisations, institutions or corporations.
- Relevance: Stories about groups or nations perceived to be influential with, or culturally or historically familiar to, the audience.
- Magnitude: Stories perceived as sufficiently significant in the large numbers of people involved or in potential impact, or involving a degree of extreme behaviour or extreme occurrence.
- Celebrity: Stories concerning people who are already famous.
- Good news: Stories with particularly positive overtones such as recoveries, breakthroughs, cures, wins and celebrations.
- News organisation's agenda: Stories that set or fit the news organisation's own agenda, whether ideological, commercial or as part of a specific campaign

2.3.1 Other factors influencing news selection

Though the news values are popularly known and have been tested to be the determinants of news selection, some other studies (Franklin 2004; Hamilton, 2003; Nunoo, 2016; Shoemaker & Reese, 1996; Strömbäck, Karlsson & Hopmann, 2012) have also revealed other important factors, which influence news selections. Their argument remain that news values are not the only factors responsible for what eventually becomes news.

The conclusion reached in one of such studies (Shoemaker and Reese, 1996) is that objectivity, audience appeal, story structure, source considerations, format consideration, resources available, economic pressures, experts analysis, objectivity, and the need to report a blend of different types of news are important to news selection. Nunoo (2016) further reveals that house-style, national development goals, time of publication and

ownership also contribute to the selection of a given story for news publication.

While various organisations regard the news media as important for disseminating information about them when there are other news items that might seem important to the journalist for news selection, organisations have over time learnt different media styles and interest; hence, making the news available to the media (becoming news source). These techniques include press conferences and press releases. Consequently, over time, media organisations have begun to give preference to press releases and conferences that are deemed news worthy (Franklin 2004; Strömbäck, Karlsson & Hopmann, 2012).

Unlike the case of traditional media, competitions among commercial media seem to contribute to what makes news or not. Hamilton (2003) exposed that it is not about the importance of the news in this case, it is about whether the dissemination of the news would yield profit for the media. Consequently, Hamilton (2003) proposed the 'five Ws' of the commercial media: "1. Who cares about a particular piece of information? 2. What are they willing to pay to find it, or what are others willing to pay to reach them? 3. Where can media outlets or advertisers reach these people? 4. When is it profitable to provide the information? 5. Why is this profitable?" (p. 14). Similarly, the strive for advertising revenue influences the media to select news items that prospective advertisers or current advertisers would regard as worthy of releasing their funds for.

2.4 Empirical Review

The first record of a similar study as this, was conducted by Galtung & Ruge (1965) who in their findings developed what seems to be the most referenced list of news values. In the bid to understand how events become news, Galtung & Ruge (1965) adopted the content analysis method, searching through the reportage of Congo, Cuba and Cyprus Crises in four Norwegian newspapers. This led to them proposing and validating the popular news values, which are: frequency, threshold, unambiguity, meaningfulness, consonance, unexpectedness, continuity, composition, reference to elite nations, reference to elite people, reference to persons and reference to something negative (Galtung & Ruge, 1965, p. 70-71). They explained that the more a story satisfies the news values, the higher the probability of it being selected as news and even make headlines. When an event makes news, the news value(s) that makes it qualified as news

would be further accentuated or validated. The selection and accentuation will continually replicate itself in the chain of news identification to news consumption by the audience (Galtung & Ruge, 1965).

Harcup & O'Neill (2001) revisited the research of Galtung & Ruge (1965) with the goal of validating the proposed news values. Consequently, they adopted content analysis as well to test Galtung & Ruge's criteria for news selection in every issue of three national newspapers (*Daily Telegraph*, *The Sun* and the *Daily Mail*) of the month of March 1999 in the United Kingdom. In this dispensation, Harcup & O'Neill (2001) not only validated the 12 news values of Galtung & Ruge (1965), they discovered other news values, which are entertainment, Reference to Something Positive, Reference to Elite Organisations or Institutions, and a newspaper's own Agendas, Promotions and Campaigns. Harcup & O'Neill (2001) argue that unlike the findings of Galtung & Ruge (1965) which was based on three crises, the discovery of new news values can be credited to the inclusion of day-to-day events which stands for majority of the events reported in newspapers. They therefore, developed what was referred to as a "contemporary set" of news values, which are the power elite, celebrity, entertainment, surprise, bad news, good news, magnitude, relevance, follow-up and newspaper agenda (Harcup & O'Neill, 2001, p. 278-279).

While the news values are germane to news selection, Strömbäck, Karlsson & Hopmann (2012) argue that there might be other factors responsible for how events become news. This was based on the premise that there might be a significant difference between what values journalists think an events fall under and the reality when news selection is being conducted. This study adopted a survey technique, enquiring what "Swedish journalists think is, and should be, important event properties when deciding what's news" (Strömbäck, Karlsson & Hopmann, 2012, p.718). The results suggest that events literally tagged as important are perceived to be less important when the news selection decision is being made, while events that are perceived to have audience interest, production routines and economic considerations are regarded as more important and eventually make it to the bulletin. Sensational stories, unexpectedness, dramatic and thrilling events, scoops and exclusive stories were also found out to be important properties required for stories to become news.

Looking at the African media, Nunoo (2016) in his mixed-method study of *Daily Graphic* in Ghana found that each "news item on the front page had an

average of five news value" (p. 111). The top news values discovered in the stories are influence, range, prominence, status of location, action and personalization, while aggression and demonstration were the least frequent news values found in the news publications. Nunoo (2016) argued that though an event should exhibit an average of five news values to be featured on the front page, it necessarily does not have to embody the highest number of news values for it to be selected as the lead. Depending on the "prevailing atmosphere in the society and the gatekeepers' decision" a story could possess one or two news values and still be chosen as the lead (Nunoo, 2016, p. 112). This study also reveals that not all journalists follow the news values for selecting news as interviews with the deputy editor, *Daily Graphic* exposed that the important factor for the newspaper is public interest and high range.

In 2016, Harcup & O'Neill revisited their research on news values again, putting into consideration the new media and the technological developments. The focus of the research was broader as the content analysis was conducted on lead stories published on the front and right-hand-side news pages of 10 newspapers in a randomly selected week from November 2014. Findings led to the development of an updated taxonomy of news values or contemporary news values which are: exclusivity, bad news, conflict, surprise, audio-visuals, shareability, entertainment, drama, follow-up, relevance, magnitude, celebrity, good news and news organisation's agenda. However, it was acknowledged that no single taxonomy of news value can explain everything concerning criteria for news selection. Factors such as, resources available, journalists' subjectivity, social, educational, ideological and cultural influences, work environment and target audience for the news can be responsible for the insufficiency of any single taxonomy for every news story.

The study of Czbetkó, Honti, Sebestyén, & Abonyi (2021) established interconnectedness between world news and development. According to the authors, the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) have become important factors in news reportage globally. Czbetkó et al., (2021) found that the media in Africa focus on the reportage of SDGs in the news, compared to other continents. Priority was given to sustainability stories in the areas of health, human resources, mining, education and labour market. However, the SDG-related stories were mostly reported in a negative tone. The authors recommended a more positive perspective to the coverage of the SDGs to influence the perception of the public towards development.

Maier (2021) established that military personnel, economic factors and human rights were major determinants of foreign news coverage. Based on the analysis of international news in the *New York Times*, *Time magazine*, and *NBC Nightly News*, Maier (2021) further revealed that military personnel and economic factors were stronger predictors of international news coverage than human rights abuse. Among the sixteen news determinants identified in the *New York Times*, human rights ranked seventh, preceded by military personnel, gross domestic products, imports, exports, air transport and population. Other news factors that influenced journalistic decisions after human rights are geographic size, foreign investment, refugees (asylum), refugees (origin), grants, military dominance, persons of concern, proximity to the United States of America and press freedom. The author recommended an increased media attention for humanitarian issues in international news as they are human interest stories that directly affect the public. It is expected that an increased coverage would yield a greater audience response and lead to the formulation of adequate policies.

Boukes & Vliegthart (2020) reviewed factors of newsworthiness in nine Dutch newspapers categorised under popular, quality, regional and financial outlets. The news value of 'influence and relevance' was the most prominent for news selection, followed by geographical proximity and eliteness. Specifically, personification, negativity and geographical proximity were factors highly used in popular and regional newspapers. Reference to elite was mostly considered by quality newspapers, while financial newspapers applied all the news values the least, including controversies. The study further revealed that generally, stories contained an average of two news values.

In the content analysis study of television, newspaper and online news outlets, Boukes, Jones, & Vliegthart (2022) discovered that the more the news values present in a story, the more prominence accrued its reportage in terms of positioning (front page/opening items) and length of story. This implies that having a higher number of news values influences the newsworthiness of a story among journalists. The news factors identified in the 4968 stories analysed are negativity, proximity, eliteness, influence and relevance, personification, conflict and continuity. Conflict and eliteness were reported to have significantly predicted the length and placement of stories on the front page in print newspapers and as opening items online.

Al-Rawi, Al-Musalli & Fakida (2021) adopted a mixed method approach to analyse news values of stories shared on Instagram by twelve English and Arabic news channels in comparison with the stories liked by the audience on the same platform. On the one hand, the findings revealed that the news outlets predominantly published stories on politics and internal order. In doing this, attention was on political office holders which signify the reference to elites in their reportage. On the other hand, the audience preferred general news/information-based stories with a positive tilt, and human interest stories with emotional appeals. The audience were least interested in political and sports stories. This indicates a disparity in the nature of the stories considered newsworthy by journalists and the news interest of the audience.

3. Theoretical Framework

3.1 Gatekeeping theory

This study is premised on the gatekeeping theory of mass media effect in communication studies. The crux of gatekeeping theory is the regulatory role performed by the journalists in determining the information disseminated to the audience by the media. The theory posits that journalists perform their duties as "gatekeepers of media messages" who select what would become news from the array of information available (Shoemaker & Reese, 1996). It explains the 'how' and 'why' behind the journalist's choice of what passes through the 'gate' for dissemination. Gatekeeping further determines the content, context, and nature of the selected news. By filtering news items and making the final selection on what and what does not make news, journalists as gatekeepers control audience's access to information, interpretations of news as made available in news analysis, influence decision making and overt influence on the audience.

Conducting a study on gatekeeping in Nigerian press Okigbo (1990) found out that 80% of the senior reporters and editor respondents considered their corporate philosophies and editorial policies in selecting news without difference to whether the newspaper were private or government owned. Journalists in private owned newspapers also recorded to have minimally considered ownership factors during the gatekeeping process for news selection. Journalists according to Okigbo (1990) reported giving less consideration to prejudice and personal preference in their selection of news.

The influence of gatekeeping has been reported to be the exposure of the audience to the media's construction of reality (Shoemaker, Eichholz, Kim & Wrigley, 2001). This can be regarded as the media's own way of directly or indirectly shaping audience knowledge and perception of reality. Therefore, in the process of gatekeeping, stories are expected to satisfy one or more of the yardstick set by the journalists. These include the news values, which serve as the ticket that either restrains or facilitates the passage of news items through the 'gate'. The adherence to news values is synonymous to the realisation of the gatekeeping function of mass media.

3.2 News Value Theory

The news value theory explains the reality of how and why journalists select specific events and the attributes of these events. These events have characteristics that increase or decrease their value (Rosengred, 1974). Thus, events with high news values will get published more than those with low values. The theory deals with news selection and how it is published and further gives an idea to the audience. Therefore, the basic assumption of the news value theory is that issues deemed more relevant or interesting from a journalistic perspective will likely generate more online public engagement (Ittifaq, 2018).

The journalistic process of determining what should be called news is fundamentally influenced by news values, which may be explained by a variety of psychological factors like the desire for social approval and the need to uphold one's own biases (Donsbach, 2004). Thus, it is proposed that a news item's newsworthiness and the likelihood of getting past the journalistic gates are determined by a few inherent characteristics. The news value theory will assist this study in determining what Nigerian newspapers consider valuable foreign news worthy of publication. The attributes of these published foreign news stories will reveal the values and newsworthiness placed by the newspapers which are likely to generate online public engagement.

4. Methodology

The content analysis method was used to determine what kinds of foreign news stories are published in the Nigerian newspapers and the most prominent news values that determine how a report is published in the newspapers. Adopting the multi-stage sampling technique, the study covered a period of one year from January 1, 2021 to December 31, 2021. The

first stage was the random selection of two newspapers from a pool of five newspapers in the Laz Otti Memorial Library at Babcock University. The titles of the newspapers- *The Guardian*, *The Punch*, *The Nigerian Tribune*, *The Vanguard*, and *The Nation*- were written down on slips of paper and the two newspapers: *Nigerian Tribune* and *The Vanguard*, were selected using the simple random sampling technique. The study population comprised all editions of the two selected newspapers in 2021. Three hundred and sixty-five (365) editions multiplied by two totalled 630 editions representing the two newspapers. Hence, 630 editions of *Nigerian Tribune* and *The Vanguard* newspapers were selected.

The next stage was a division of the study year into quarters using the simple random sampling technique. One month was selected from each quarter totalling four months for each newspaper. The selected months were February, April, August and October. The constructed week sampling technique was used to construct seven days in each selected month to select the actual editions sampled. Luke, Caburnay, & Cohen (2011), citing some studies on the use of constructed week sampling, explain that it is a popular technique in media studies where the final sample represents all seven days of the week to account for the cyclic variation of news content. Thus, each month, seven days were chosen, amounting to 28 editions for each newspaper. Hence, the sample was 56 newspapers for the *Nigerian Tribune* and *The Vanguard* newspapers.

Data was analysed descriptively using the Statistical Product and Service Solution (SPSS) version 21. The content categories for this study were: news values, themes, national angle, prominence and genre of report.

(i) News values: this was adopted from Harcup and O'Neill (2016) revisited taxonomy of news values and explained in the literature section. The revisited news values are (1)Exclusivity (2) Bad news, (3) Conflict, (4) Surprise, (5) Audio-visuals, (6) Shareability, (7) Entertainment, (8) Drama, (9) Follow-up, (10) The power elite, (11) Relevance, (12) Magnitude, (13) Celebrity, (14) Good news and (15) News organisation's agenda.

(ii) Themes: This has to do with the kinds of foreign news report in Nigerian newspapers. The following were listed as major news themes: Politics, Business/economy, Religion, Entertainment, Technology, Tourism, Sports, Terrorism, Health, Arts and culture, Environment, Education, Crime and others.

(iii) Genre of report: This has to do with the editorial contents of the newspapers for example straight news, features, editorials and opinions.

(iv) Prominence: this was measured by the position of the story like: (a) Foreign news page: this is a dedicated section for foreign news reports; (b) Inside pages: though dedicated pages are inside the newspaper, inside pages is identified as reports in other pages of the newspaper other than specific

dedicated pages; (c) Sports page: this is the dedicated sports page in the newspaper; (d) Op-Ed page: this is the page for editorial and opinion articles; and (e) Business page: this is the dedicated business page in the newspaper.

(v) National angle: This category was to determine if the foreign report had any direct or indirect relevance to Nigeria. The indicators were Yes and No.

5. Analysis and Interpretation

Table 1: Summary Statistics of Selected Newspapers

	Newspaper	Newspaper		Total
		<i>Nigerian Tribune</i>	<i>The Vanguard</i>	
February	Freq. (%)	17(17.9)	28(28.3)	45
April	Freq. (%)	20(21.1)	10(10.1)	30
August	Freq. (%)	30(31.6)	19(19.2)	49
October	Freq. (%)	28(29.5)	42(42.4)	70
Total	Freq. (%)	95(100)	99(100)	194

Source: Field Survey 2022, **NOTE:** Freq. = Frequency

Table 1 shows that *The Vanguard* newspaper had 99 news reports during the period covered by this study, while *Nigerian Tribune* had 95 news reports. For *The Vanguard*, many of the news reports were published in October (42.4%). This was followed by the months of February (28.3%) and August (19.2%). *Nigerian Tribune* published 31.6 per cent of its news reports in August. This was followed by the months of October (29.5%) and April (21.1%). This suggests that *Nigerian Tribune* and *The Vanguard* had different frequency of publication of news reports being examined by this study from monthly perspective.

Research Question One: What are the major values that determine newsworthiness of foreign events in the *Nigerian Tribune* and *The Vanguard* newspapers?

Table 2a: 1st Category of Observed News Values across *Nigerian Tribune* and *The Vanguard* Newspapers

	Newspaper	Newspaper		Total
		<i>Tribune</i>	<i>Vanguard</i>	
Exclusivity	Freq. (%)	2(2.1)	1(1)	3
Bad news	Freq. (%)	11(11.6)	21(21.2)	32
Conflict	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	3(3)	4
Surprise	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	2(2)	3
Audio-visuals	Freq. (%)	3(3.2)	2(2)	5
Shareability	Freq. (%)	2(2.1)	0(0)	2
Entertainment	Freq. (%)	6(6.3)	26(26.3)	32
Drama	Freq. (%)	0(0)	4(4)	4
Follow-up	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	1(1.0)	2
The power elite	Freq. (%)	19(20)	18(18.2)	37
Relevance	Freq. (%)	3(3.2)	0(0)	3
Magnitude	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	1(1)	2
Celebrity	Freq. (%)	37(38.9)	16(16.2)	53
Good news	Freq. (%)	7(7.4)	4(4)	11
News organisation's agenda	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	0(0)	1
Total	Freq. (%)	95(100)	99(100)	194

Source: Field Survey 2022, **NOTE:** Freq. = Frequency

Table 2a depicts that the first category of major values that determined newsworthiness of foreign events in *The Vanguard* were entertainment (26.3%), bad news (21.2%), the power elite (18.2%) and celebrity (16.2%). In the *Nigerian Tribune* the first category of major values that determined newsworthiness of foreign events were celebrity (38.9%), the power elite (20%) and bad news (11.6%). This implies that the major values that determined newsworthiness of foreign events across both newspapers were celebrity, the power elite and bad news.

Table 2b: Second (2nd) Category of Observed News Values across *Nigerian Tribune* and *The Vanguard* Newspapers

		Newspaper		Total
		Tribune	Vanguard	
None	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	1(1.0)	2
Bad news	Freq. (%)	10(10.5)	16(16.2)	26
Conflict	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	7(7.1)	8
Audio-visuals	Freq. (%)	5(5.3)	3(3.0)	8
Shareability	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	1(1.0)	2
Entertainment	Freq. (%)	29(30.5)	16(16.2)	45
Drama	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	9(9.1)	10
Follow-up	Freq. (%)	4(4.2)	4(4.0)	8
The power elite	Freq. (%)	10(10.5)	8(8.1)	18
Relevance	Freq. (%)	6(6.3)	0(0)	6
Magnitude	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	1(1.0)	2
Celebrity	Freq. (%)	11(11.6)	19(19.2)	30
Good news	Freq. (%)	14(14.7)	13(13.1)	27
News organisation's agenda	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	1(1.0)	2
Total	Freq. (%)	95(100)	99(100)	194

Source: Field Survey 2022, NOTE: Freq. = Frequency

Table 2b indicates that the second category of major values that determined newsworthiness of foreign events in *The Vanguard* were celebrity (19.2%), entertainment (16.2%), bad news (16.2%) and good news (13.1%). In addition the second category of major values that determined newsworthiness of foreign events in *Nigerian Tribune* were entertainment (30.5%), good news (14.7%), celebrity (11.6%) the power elite (10.5%) and bad news (10.5%). This suggests that the major values that determined newsworthiness of foreign events across *The Vanguard* and *Nigerian Tribune* were entertainment, good news, celebrity and bad news.

Table 2c: Third (3rd) Category of Observed News Values across *Nigerian Tribune* and *The Vanguard* Newspapers

		Newspaper		Total
		Tribune	Vanguard	
None	Freq. (%)	14(14.7)	19(19.2)	33
Bad news	Freq. (%)	2(2.1)	1(1.0)	3
Conflict	Freq. (%)	2(2.1)	7(7.1)	9
Surprise	Freq. (%)	0(0)	3(3.0)	3
Audio-visuals	Freq. (%)	17(17.9)	4(4.0)	21
Shareability	Freq. (%)	0(0)	1(1.0)	1
Entertainment	Freq. (%)	19(20)	16(16.2)	35
Drama	Freq. (%)	6(6.3)	13(13.1)	19
Follow-up	Freq. (%)	5(5.3)	3(3.0)	8
The power elite	Freq. (%)	6(6.3)	5(5.1)	11
Relevance	Freq. (%)	3(3.2)	1(1.0)	4
Magnitude	Freq. (%)	5(5.3)	5(5.1)	10
Celebrity	Freq. (%)	5(5.3)	13(13.1)	18
Good news	Freq. (%)	10(10.5)	8(8.1)	18
News organisation's agenda	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	0(0)	1
Total	Freq. (%)	95(100)	99(100)	194

Source: Field Survey 2022, NOTE: Freq. = Frequency

Table 2c shows that the third category of major values that determined newsworthiness of foreign events in *The Vanguard* were entertainment (16.2%) and celebrity (13.1%). The third category of major values that determined newsworthiness of foreign events in *Nigerian Tribune* were entertainment (20%), audio-visuals (17.9%) and good news.

Table 2d: Fourth (4th) Category of Observed News Values across *Nigerian Tribune* and *The Vanguard* Newspapers

	Freq. (%)	Newspaper		Total
		Tribune	Vanguard	
None	Freq. (%)	50(52.6)	56(56.6)	106
Exclusivity	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	2(2.0)	3
Bad news	Freq. (%)	4(4.2)	0(0)	4
Conflict	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	4(4.0)	5
Surprise	Freq. (%)	3(3.2)	0(0)	3
Audio-visuals	Freq. (%)	7(7.4)	6(6.1)	13
Entertainment	Freq. (%)	8(8.4)	3(3.0)	11
Drama	Freq. (%)	3(3.2)	7(7.1)	10
Follow-up	Freq. (%)	2(2.1)	6(6.1)	8
The power elite	Freq. (%)	2(2.1)	3(3.0)	5
Relevance	Freq. (%)	2(2.1)	1(1.0)	3
Magnitude	Freq. (%)	3(3.2)	1(1.0)	4
Celebrity	Freq. (%)	6(6.3)	5(5.1)	11
Good news	Freq. (%)	2(2.1)	5(5.1)	7
News organisation's agenda	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	0(0.0)	1
Total	Freq. (%)	95(95)	99(99)	194

Source: Field Survey 2022, NOTE: Freq. = Frequency

Table 2d indicates that there were no major values that determined newsworthiness of foreign events by the fourth categories of observation in *The Vanguard* and *Nigerian Tribune*.

Table 2e: Fifth (5th) Category of Observed News Values across *Nigerian Tribune* and *The Vanguard* Newspapers

	Freq. (%)	Newspaper		Total
		Tribune	Vanguard	
None	Freq. (%)	78(82.1)	86(86.9)	164
Exclusivity	Freq. (%)	2(2.1)	0(0)	2
Bad news	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	0(0)	1
Conflict	Freq. (%)	2(2.1)	0(0)	2
Surprise	Freq. (%)	0(0.0)	2(2.0)	2
Audio-visuals	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	2(2.0)	3
Shareability	Freq. (%)	0(0.0)	1(1.0)	1
Entertainment	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	1(1.0)	2
Drama	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	3(3.0)	4
Follow-up	Freq. (%)	2(2.1)	1(1.0)	3
The power elite	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	0(0)	1
Relevance	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	1(1.0)	2
Magnitude	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	0(0)	1
Celebrity	Freq. (%)	0(0)	1(1.0)	1
Good news	Freq. (%)	4(4.2)	0(0)	4
News organisation's agenda	Freq. (%)	0(0)	1(1.0)	1
Total	Freq. (%)	95(100)	99(100)	194

Source: Field Survey 2022, NOTE: Freq. = Frequency

Table 2e depicts that there were no major values that determined newsworthiness of foreign events by the fifth category of observation in *The Vanguard* and *Nigerian Tribune*.

Table 2f: Sixth (6th) Category of Observed News Values across *Nigerian Tribune* and *The Vanguard* Newspapers

		Newspaper		Total
		Tribune	Vanguard	
None	Freq. (%)	88(92.6)	93(93.9)	181
Bad news	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	1(1.0)	2
Conflict	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	1(1.0)	2
Surprise	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	0(0)	1
Audio-visuals	Freq. (%)	0(0)	1(1.0)	1
Drama	Freq. (%)	2(2.1)	0(0)	2
Follow-up	Freq. (%)	0(0)	1(1.0)	1
Magnitude	Freq. (%)	0(0)	2(2.0)	2
Good news	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	0(0)	1
News organisation's agenda	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	0(0)	1
Total	Freq. (%)	95(100)	99(100)	194

Source: Field Survey 2022, NOTE: Freq. = Frequency

Table 2f shows that there were no major values that determined newsworthiness of foreign events by the sixth category of observation in *The Vanguard* and *Nigerian Tribune*.

Table 2g: Seventh (7th) Category of Observed News Values across *Nigerian Tribune* and *The Vanguard* Newspapers

		Newspaper		Total
		Tribune	Vanguard	
None	Freq. (%)	93(97.9)	97(98)	190
Bad news	Freq. (%)	0(0)	1(1.0)	1
Surprise	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	0(0)	1
Audio-visuals	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	0(0)	1
Relevance	Freq. (%)	0(0)	1(1.0)	1
Total	Freq. (%)	95(100)	99(100)	194

Source: Field Survey 2022, NOTE: Freq. = Frequency

Table 2g shows that there were no major values that determined newsworthiness of foreign events by the seventh category of observation in *The Vanguard* and *Nigerian Tribune*.

It was observed that most of the news reports had an average of four news values. Some stories had between five to seven news values. The study of Boukes & Vliegthart (2020) revealed that stories contain an average of two news values. Galtung and Ruge (1965) explains that the more a story satisfies the news values, the higher the probability of it being selected as news and even make headlines. The most prominent news factors observed according to Boukes, Jones, & Vliegthart (2022) and related to this present study are: negativity, eliteness; findings by Al-Rawi, Al-Musalli & Fakida (2021) revealed that reference to elites dominated in the consideration of reports.

A close look at the analysis of news values also shows that entertainment was a major news value. This is expected because according to the categorisation by Harcup and O’Neills, entertainment comprises soft stories and one of such themes as observed in this study was sports.

Research Question Two: What is the major genre used to cover foreign news in the *Nigerian Tribune* and *The Vanguard* newspapers?

Table 3: Major Genre Adopted in the Coverage of Foreign News across Tribune and Vanguard Newspapers

		Newspaper		Total
		Tribune	Vanguard	
News	Freq. (%)	90(94.7)	91(91.9)	181
Features	Freq. (%)	4(4.2)	0(0)	4
Opinion	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	2(2.0)	3
Others	Freq. (%)	0(0)	6(6.1)	6
Total	Freq. (%)	95(100)	99(100)	194

Source: Field Survey 2022, NOTE: Freq. = Frequency

Table 3 depicts that the major genre adopted in the coverage of foreign news by both *Tribune* (94.7%) and *Vanguard* (91.9%) was news. According to Onwe (2018) most foreign news items are reported in straight news format.

Research Question Three: What is the major theme of coverage of foreign news by *Nigerian Tribune* and *The Vanguard*?

Table 4: Themes Adopted in the Coverage of Foreign News Across Nigerian Tribune and The Vanguard Newspapers

	Freq. (%)	Newspaper		Total
		Tribune	Vanguard	
Technology	Freq. (%)	4(4.2)	2(2.0)	6
Politics	Freq. (%)	2(2.1)	14(14.1)	16
Business/economy	Freq. (%)	5(5.3)	0(0)	5
Religion	Freq. (%)	0(0)	1(1.0)	1
Entertainment	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	1(1.0)	2
Tourism	Freq. (%)	3(3.2)	0(0)	3
Sports	Freq. (%)	66(69.5)	68(68.7)	134
Terrorism	Freq. (%)	2(2.1)	1(1.0)	3
Health	Freq. (%)	6(6.3)	6(6.1)	12
Arts and culture	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	0(0)	1
Environment	Freq. (%)	3(3.2)	0(0)	3
Education	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	0(0)	1
Crime	Freq. (%)	0(0)	5(5.1)	5
Others	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	1(1.0)	2
Total	Freq. (%)	95(100)	99(100)	194

Source: Field Survey 2022, NOTE: Freq. = Frequency

Table 4 indicates that the major theme of coverage of foreign news by both *Nigerian Tribune* (69.5%) and *The Vanguard* (68.7%) was sports. This is different from the findings of Gupta (2012) as the major coverage was on Threat to nation which could be interpreted as terrorism. It is noteworthy that politics also accounted for a good number of reports in *The Vanguard newspaper*. Nunoo (2016) in the study of the determinants of news values in Ghanaian print media found out that most reports were on internal politics.

Two reports had no specific categorisation and were termed others. One was on a rescue, while the other was based on a family that was reunited.

Research Question Four: What is the prominence accorded foreign news by the *Nigerian Tribune* and *The Vanguard* newspapers?

Table 5: Prominence Accorded to the Coverage of Foreign News Across Tribune and Vanguard Newspapers

	Freq. (%)	Newspaper		Total
		Tribune	Vanguard	
Foreign news page	Freq. (%)	0(0)	22(22.2)	22
Inside page	Freq. (%)	24(25.3)	9(9.1)	33
Sport page	Freq. (%)	66(69.5)	68(68.7)	134
Op-Ed page	Freq. (%)	1(1.1)	0(0)	1
Business page	Freq. (%)	4(4.2)	0(0)	4
Total	Freq. (%)	95(100)	99(100)	194

Source: Field Survey 2022, NOTE: Freq. = Frequency

Table 5 shows that the prominence accorded foreign news by the *Nigerian Tribune* (69.5%) and *The Vanguard* (68.7%) was largely through sports page. In addition, *Nigerian Tribune* (25.3%) published many of foreign news on the inside pages of the newspaper. Also, *The Vanguard* published more foreign news on the foreign news page

(22.2%). This is also expected as most reports were on sports hence their coverage in sports pages. *The Vanguard* newspaper has a dedicated foreign news page where they report an array of events. There was no front page lead story, the two stories that had mention of its headline on the front page was the death of former US Secretary of State, Colin Powell who died from COVID complications after vaccination and the change of Facebook to Meta. Unlike the results of Onwe (2018), this study did not find any front page lead stories.

Research Question Five: Do the foreign news reports have any national angle?

Table 6: Proportion of Foreign News Reports with National Angle Across Tribune and Vanguard Newspapers

		Newspaper		Total
		Tribune	Vanguard	
No	Freq. (%)	71(74.7)	86(86.9)	157
Yes	Freq. (%)	24(25.3)	13(13.1)	37
Total	Freq. (%)	95(100)	99(100)	194

Source: Field Survey 2022, **NOTE:** Freq. = Frequency

Table 5 depicts that majority of foreign news reported in both *Tribune* (74.7%) and *The Vanguard* (86.9%) had no national angle. However, 25.3 percent of foreign news reported by *Nigerian Tribune* had national angle; while 13.1 percent foreign news reported by *The Vanguard* had national angle.

As most of the reports were on sports, some of the stories were on Nigerian athletes and their performance in their respective clubs or international tournaments.

The limited number of foreign reports and the large concentration on sports is in accordance with the gatekeeping theory that editors determine what is and is not published in the newspapers. It was also discovered that most of the reports did not have by-lines, probably they were sourced from news agencies or foreign news organisations and written to suit their organisation.

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

This study explored what Nigerian newspapers consider as news values in their coverage of foreign news. For this purpose, the study examined how *The Vanguard* and *Nigerian Tribune* covered foreign events, and what news values determined how a story got coverage. For this purpose, 56 editions of both newspapers in 2021 were content analysed. It was discovered that the major news values that determined coverage of foreign news events were celebrity, power elite, bad news, and entertainment. Other news values also played out in different reports but worthy of note is that there was an average of four news values per news report. This underscores the point by Galtung & Ruge (1965) and Harcup & O’Neill (2001, 2016) that the more a story satisfies the news values, the higher the probability that it will be considered as news and even make headlines. This

study recommends that further studies can be done to find out what journalists actually consider as the factors of newsworthiness.

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Geospatial Approach to Good Health and Well-Being Assessment in Nigeria: Achieving a Sustainable Healthy Living

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Abstract. Healthy life is the focal point for a sustainable development and prosperous society. By implication this involves a state of well-being that is enjoyed by individual when the body systems are functioning effectively and efficiently together and in harmony with the environment in order to achieve the objectives of healthy living such as adequate sleep, regular physical activities, healthy eating, and so on. This study explores the technique of Geographic Information System by integrating it with statistics to assess the level of good health and well-being among Nigerians. The data used was obtained from the Nigeria National Bureau of Statistics (NBS). The hard-copy of the map of Nigeria acquired from the Federal Ministry of Works and Housing, Ibadan was scanned into the Geographic Information System (GIS) environment, geo-referenced and digitized using on-screen method with both National and States boundaries captured as polygon features. The good health and well-being indicators (Statistics) were then restructured in a GIS format and linked to the digitized boundaries as their attributes to produce health and well-being indices maps. The GIS software used is ArcGIS 10. The results of the study show significant variations in the health and well-being indices of the Nigerian populace spatially. It was therefore recommended that there is need for engaging geospatial technology in assessing the sustainable goal on good health and well-being for all ages. This will help in providing spatial information for better visual interpretations and quick decision-making.

Keywords: Well-being, Indicators, Geographic Information System (GIS), Sustainable healthy living

1. Introduction

Health, according to World Health Organization (2021), is described as “a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity.” By implication this involves a feeling of well-being that is enjoyed by individual when the body systems are functioning effectively and efficiently together and in harmony with the environment in order to achieve the objectives of good living (WHO, 1948; UN, 1996; NBS, 2018). Good health and well-being is the focal point of Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) 3 which is “to ensure healthy lives and promotes well-being for all at all ages by 2030”. These phenomena can be measured by indicators among others such as life expectancy at birth, infant mortality rate, neonatal mortality rate, under-5 child mortality (U5MR) rate, maternal mortality rate, access to clean water, sanitation and road traffic accidents (NBS, 2018).

It is seven (7) years since the 2030 agenda for sustainable development was adopted by the United Nations and its member states in September 2015 (UN, 2015). Several efforts are being made by member countries including Nigeria to contribute towards achieving the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The progress which had been made over time in ensuring healthy lives and promote well-being at all ages can be monitored by mapping out a set of quantifiable indicators for each of the goals. The United Nations has highlighted issues of data quality and data collection abilities to optimally measure various indicators and has emphasized the need for a Data Revolution to enhance the data quality (Kharas, Gerlach and Elgin-Cossart, 2013). Geospatial data is one of the most promising data

sources. It can be applied for monitoring progress in achieving the SDGs. The role of big data in analyzing SDG indicators has been discussed by MacFeely (2019). It has been pointed out that conventional data sources are not sufficient. It has been seen that geospatial technology plays a significant role in measuring some of the targets; hence it is relevant in the implementation of SDGs and monitoring of their progress.

Geospatial technology helps to visualize, question, analyze and interpret for better understanding in terms of relationships, patterns and the trends. It displays after analysis, geographic and spatial data. It is a very valuable tool that can be used to build decision support systems for use (Maliene, Grigonis, Palevicius & Griffiths, 2011). Several studies have employed geospatial analysis techniques in examining healthcare conditions nationally and internationally. Rosero-Bixby (2004) analyzed the condition of healthcare in Costa Rica by measuring its spatial access within the country. His findings provide important information to achieve SDG 3 in Costa Rica because it clearly points out certain communities without adequate access to healthcare. Together with other healthcare indicators such as child mortality rate, if the regional differences are revealed, the government could intensively allocate the budget and human resources in areas lagging behind others to improve the situation for achieving SDG 3. Gaugliardo (2004) studied the situation of the primary care by measuring the distance to a healthcare facility and found the differences in accessibility of primary care in Washington DC. Some areas have more than 70 medical service providers for 100,000 children while others have less than 20. Wang and Luo (2005) studied to find areas, which suffered from the shortage of healthcare workers in Illinois and found that disadvantaged areas were widespread all over the state, except big cities such as Chicago. Both studies implied that Geospatial technology can also be used in medical geography to depict social inequality in developed countries. Some studies have further show the effectiveness of this technology for epidemiology studies to prevent future pandemics. Maude, Nguon, Ly, Bunkea, Ngor and Canavati De Le Torre (2014) analyzed the spatial and temporal data on clinical malaria in Cambodia, and depicted the distribution of the disease and village malaria workers. Timo Lüge (2014) prepared a case study to report how Geospatial techniques were used to combat the recent Ebola outbreak in Guinea. Jones, Patel, Levy, Storeygard, Balk, Gittleman and Daszak (2008) studied global temporal and spatial patterns of emerging infectious diseases (EIDs) and found that

the origin of EIDs is significantly correlated with socioeconomic, environmental, and ecological factors. The study also revealed that the fragile regions due to EIDs in the world include developed countries, and the resultant risk map would help to prepare for future outbreaks. Orimoloye, Mazinyo, Nel, & Kalumba (2018) studied about changes in land surface temperature and radiation due to urbanization in South Africa using Landsat data and radiation risks to heatstroke, skin cancer, and heart disease (2018). Strano, Viana, Sorichetta, & Tatem (2018) proposed a tool for supporting the design of disease surveillance and control strategies through mapping areas of high connectivity with roads in the African region (Strano et al., 2018).

Geospatial data and techniques can be used very effectively for monitoring most of the SDGs. Furthermore, the scientific results provided through the use of geospatial technologies can provide a strong basis for policymaking to promote sustainable development in communities at local and regional levels (United Nations Secretary, 2016). In this paper, the focus is on how geospatial techniques can be use to assess the progress which had been made over time in achieving Sustainable Development Goal (SDGs 3) on good health and well-being in Nigeria by using a set of quantifiable indicators among others such as life expectancy at birth, HIV/AIDS, infant mortality rate, neonatal mortality rate, under-5 child mortality (U5MR) rate and maternal mortality rate.

1.2 Study Area

The Federal Republic of Nigeria is located in West Africa between longitude 3⁰ and 14⁰ East of Greenwich meridian and latitude 4⁰ and 14⁰ North of the Equator. The country is bordered on the west by the Republic of Benin; on the east by the Republic of Cameroon; on the north by Niger and Chad Republics and on the south by the Gulf of Guinea and Atlantic Ocean (see Figure 1). The land area is 909,890sqkm while water is 13,879sq km. Compared with other West African countries; Nigeria is third in area size, with an estimated population of over 200 million people (National Population Commission & International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health, 2019). Nigeria is the most populous nation in Africa and contains more the 350 ethno-linguistic groups. The country as at today has evolved into a political structure that consist of 36 states and Federal Capital Territory (Abuja), all constitutionally summarized into six geopolitical zones. There are also, 774 Local Government Areas in the country, each with its own administrative headquarters

(Ademiluyi, 2020). Agriculture is the largest sector of her economy and employs about 70% of the labour force and accounting for more than one-third of the GDP (Ademiluyi, 2020). Nigeria has commercial quantities of over forty-four (44) minerals spread across more than 500 locations across the country. Most of these resources remain untapped till today (Ademiluyi, 2020). From the Gulf of Guinea on the Atlantic Ocean, plateaus and plains constitute most of the country's geography with coastal swamps in the south to tropical forests, woodlands, grasslands in the central areas and semi-desert in the north.

The nation's climate is of arid in the north, tropical in the central and equatorial in the south. Nigeria has two distinct seasons: the wet season which is between April and October and the dry season which lasts from November to March (National Bureau of Statistics and International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health, 2014). The drainage of the country is made up of Lake Chad, and international water bodies, a dense network of rivers and the lagoons and creeks of the coastal belt.

Nigeria is covered by forest of which there are three types: Mangrove Swamp Forest, Freshwater Swamp Forest and Tropical Rain Forest. The country is also covered by Savannah which may be sub-divided into Guinea, Sudan and Sahel Savannah and Montana Vegetation (Ismaila, 2017).

According to Agboola (1986), Nigerian soils are generally light textured and low in cation exchange capacity (CEC); clay content range from 9 to 43% in more than 60% of the area, clay content is less than 15%. The CEC range from 2.40 to 5.95 me/100g of the soils, the value being less than 5 in the majority of the area. Soil PH ranges from 4.2 to 8.1: combined Calcium (Ca) and magnesium (Mg) content varies from 0.5 to 5.55 me/100g; potassium (K) is generally low (0.07 to 0.45) tending to be lowest in soil sandstones. Organic matter content varies from 1 to 2.55%. Nigeria is richly blessed with oil and gas reserves and large deposits of solid minerals, including tin, columbite, iron ore, coal, limestone, lead, zinc, precious metals, and gemstones (Ismaila, 2017).



Figure1: Nigeria

Source: The Federal Ministry of Works,Housing and Power,Ibadan,Nigeria (2015)

2. Research Methodology

2.1 Data Types and Sources

The data used for this study include statistical reports on good health and well-being indicators in Nigeria for year 2019 obtained from the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) report while the analogue map of Nigeria was extracted

from the Federal Ministry of Works, Housing, Ibadan, Nigeria. The Geographic Information System (GIS) software used for this study is ArcGIS 10.0.

2.2 Data Processing and Method of Analysis

The method of analysis engaged with in this study is both simple descriptive statistics (table and percentage) and Geographic Information System (GIS) technique (through the use of Kernel density method in ArcGIS 10.0).

The hard copy of the map of Nigeria acquired was scanned into the GIS environment. Geo-referencing was done by the use of tied-points method. The geo-referenced map portrayed information as to where the areas represented on the map fits on the surface of the earth. It was then digitized using on-screen method with the national and state boundaries captured as polygon feature.

The data set of good health and well-being indicators were restructured in a format (Text Delimited) for implementation in the GIS environment and linked it to the digitized national and state boundaries as their attributes to produce maps that visualize assessment for each indicator for better monitoring and progress.

3. Results and Discussions

Assessment of Sustainable Development Goals Implementation Performance in Nigeria on Life Expectancy at birth, HIV/AIDS, Fertility and Maternal Mortality rates

This section presents and discusses the assessment of the performances of sustainable development goals implementation on good health and well-being in Nigeria. For this reason, four (4) major health indicators were used as bases for assessment. They are; (1) Life Expectancy at birth (2) HIV/AIDS Patients (3) Fertility rates (4) Maternal Mortality rates.

Table 1: Percentage Distribution of Life Expectancy at birth, HIV/AIDS, Fertility and Mortality rates by sex and states.

State	Life Expectancy Rate (%)		HIV/AIDS Patients (%)		Total Fertility Rate (%)	Maternal Mortality Rate (%)
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Female
Abia	53	49	58.5	41.5	5.1	375.9
Adamawa	44	42	56.6	43.4	5.5	1841.9
Akwa Ibom	51	49	50.8	49.2	4.5	150.9
Anambra	50	47	58.7	41.3	4.3	279.0
Bauchi	49	45	41.3	58.7	6.8	593.8
Bayelsa	53	47	57.3	42.7	4.8	471.1
Benue	50	46	55.3	44.7	4.8	809.6
Borno	48	42	55.4	44.6	6.1	2374.8
Cross-River	56	51	47.0	53.0	4.4	642.3
Delta	50	48	59.5	40.5	5.2	394.1
Ebonyi	52	47	47.2	52.8	5.2	218.0
Edo	48	46	35.0	65.0	3.8	641.4
Ekiti	53	48	56.8	43.2	4.4	876.8
Enugu	53	49	56.3	43.7	3.8	519.0
Gombe	49	45	58.6	41.4	7.3	371.3
Imo	52	50	66.2	33.8	5.1	642.9
Jigawa	48	44	70.0	30.0	8.5	298.8
Kaduna	48	43	30.1	69.9	5.6	452.6
Kano	49	46	49.1	50.9	7.7	364.3
Katsina	51	47	39.5	60.5	7.5	214.2
Kebbi	50	48	33.3	66.7	7.7	506.1
Kogi	48	45	54.7	45.3	3.7	1267.8
Kwara	53	48	52.3	47.7	4.4	904.4
Lagos	51	48	51.7	48.3	4.0	110.4
Nassarawa	51	45	59.8	40.2	5.7	817.0
Niger	53	47	62.4	37.6	6.4	387.0
Ogun	53	50	64.1	35.9	4.5	258.8
Ondo	52	50	31.2	68.8	4.5	115.9
Osun	55	52	48.2	51.8	4.7	344.1
Oyo	55	51	56.9	43.1	4.9	184.0
Plateau	47	43	56.6	43.4	5.6	278.5
Rivers	49	46	57.7	42.3	3.3	483.4

Sokoto	51	48	57.5	42.5	7.3	737.4
Taraba	51	48	56.5	43.5	5.5	623.2
Yobe	46	42	56.6	43.4	6.8	1678.9
Zamfara	50	47	56.0	44.0	7.3	259.8
FCT(Abuja)	55	50	56.8	43.2	4.6	83.6
National	51	47	53.1	46.9	5.8	567.5

Source: National Bureau of Statistics (2019).

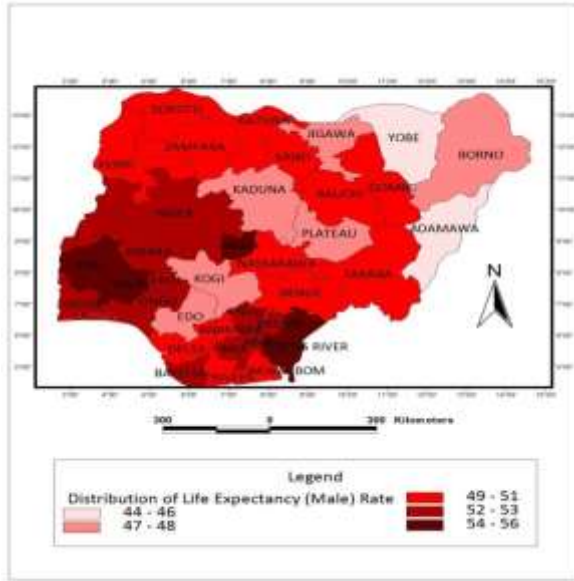
Table 1, Figures 2a, b, c, d, e & f shows the distribution of life expectancy, HIV/AIDS, fertility and maternal mortality rates across Nigeria by sex and states. Averagely, the life expectancy at birth for a Nigeria woman stands at 51 years compared with her male counterpart which is 47 years. HIV cases are high (53.1%) among the women than the men (46.9%). Looking at states contributions to HIV/AIDS incidence in Nigeria, Jigawa state (70.0%) takes the lead while Kaduna state (30.1%) with the lowest. The total fertility rate was 5.8 births per woman with Jigawa state (8.5) recording the highest fertility rate followed by Kano (7.7), Kebbi (7.7), Katsina (7.5), Gombe (7.3), Sokoto (7.3) and Zamfara (7.3) states while Rivers (3.3) state has the least fertility rate among the Nigeria women. The table further revealed the maternal mortality rate as 567.5 per 100,000 live births. Borno (2374.8) state has the highest maternal mortality rate among the thirty-six states in Nigeria followed by Adamawa (1841.9), Yobe (1678.9) and Kogi (1267.8) states while the Federal Capital Territory (FCT), Abuja (83.6) with the least rate (see Table 2).

Life expectancy at birth in Nigeria is on the increase for a decade, which is from 49.4 in 2007 to approximately 54 in 2017. Likewise, Under-5 Mortality Rate per 1000 live births had drastically reduced from 145.7 to 100.2 and compared with some other reference countries (Ghana, Malawi, Rwanda, Sudan, Norway, United States of America, China and Australia), Nigeria with a population of about 195 million has performed poorly. In 2013, maternal mortality in Nigeria is 560 deaths per 100,000 live births; whereas in 1980, it was 516 deaths 100,000 per live births. This may be as a result

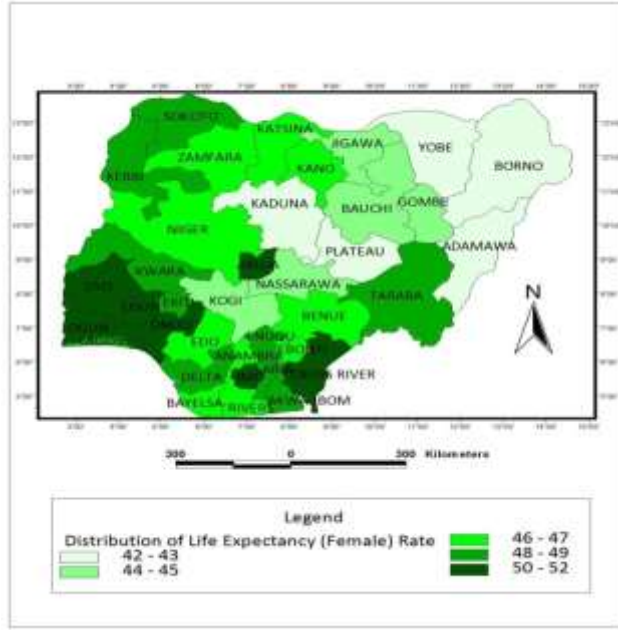
of poor health facilities, lack of access to quality health care, malnutrition due to poverty, herder-farmer conflicts, female genital mutilations, abortions, and displacements due to Boko Haram terrorism in the North East of Nigeria. In Nigeria the lifetime risk of death for pregnant women is 1 in 23 (NNHS, 2018).

Nigeria HIV/AIDS indicator and impact survey (NAIIS) 2018 revealed that the national HIV prevalence rate among adults ages 15–49 is 1.4 percent. The epidemic is more concentrated and driven by high-risk behaviours, including having multiple sexual partners, low risk perceptions and inadequate access to quality health care services. Youths and young adults in Nigeria are particularly vulnerable to HIV, with young women at higher risk than young men (NNHS, 2018).

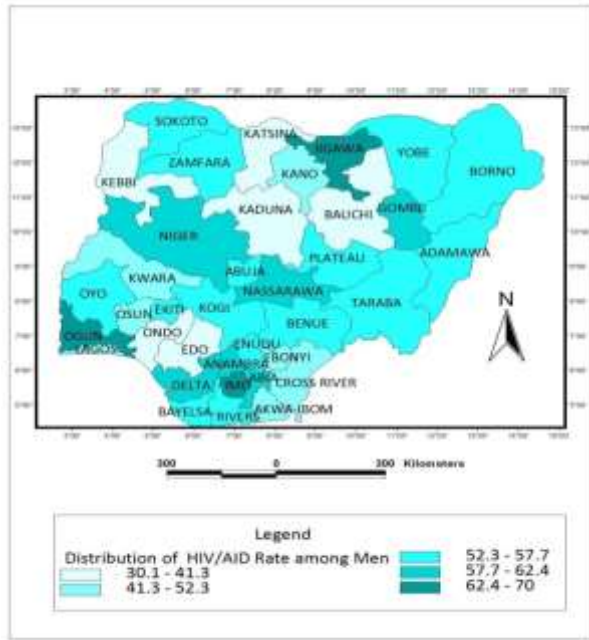
By 2030, if Nigeria is to reduce maternal mortality ratio to less than 70 per 100, 000 live births (OSSAP-SDGs, 2020), all hands must be on deck to achieve it. People can start by promoting and protecting their own health and the health of those around them, by making well-informed choices, practicing safe sex and attending antenatal care in government approved health centres. There should be more awareness in communities about the importance of good health, healthy lifestyles as well as people’s right to quality health care services, especially for the most vulnerable such as women and children. Government, local leaders and other decision makers should be held accountable to their commitments to improve people’s access to health and health care (NBS, 2019).



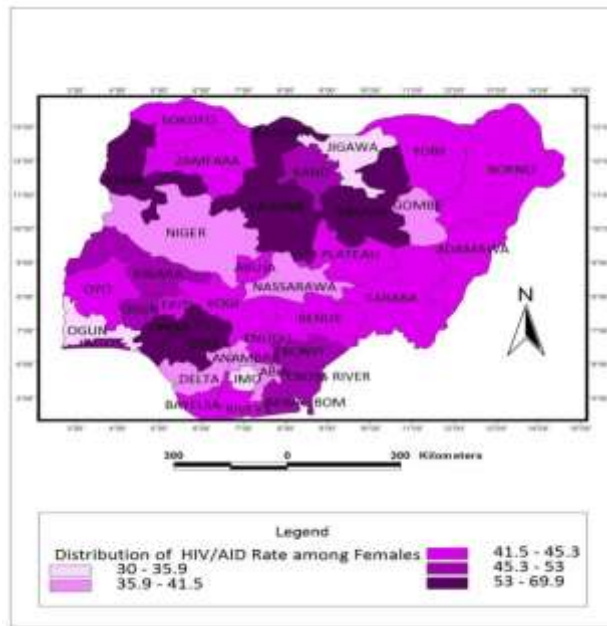
(a)



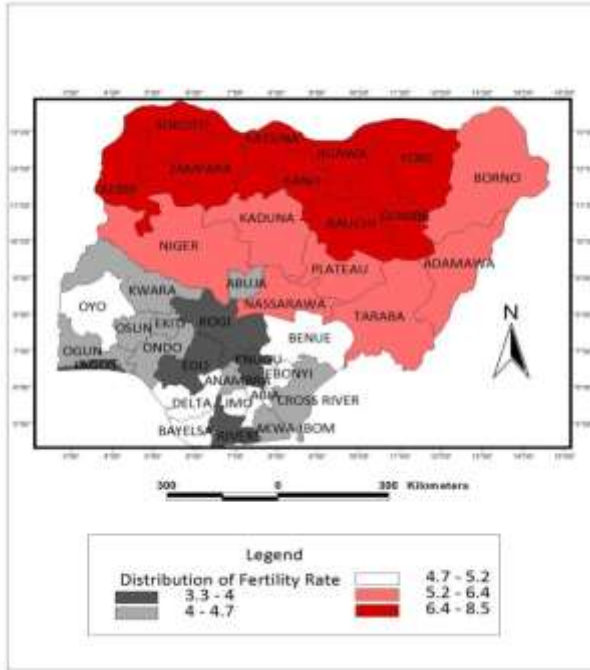
(b)



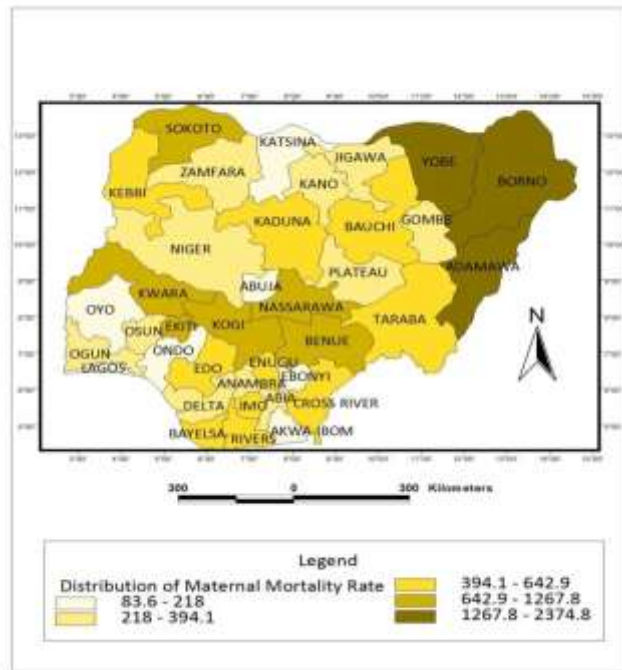
(c)



(d)



(e)



(f)

Figures 2a, b, c, d, e & f showing the distribution of life expectancy rate for male, female, HIV/AIDS among male and female, fertility and maternal mortality in Nigeria

Assessment of Sustainable Development Goals Implementation Performance in Nigeria on Neonatal, Infant, Child and Under-5 Mortality rates.

This section presents and discusses the assessment of the performances of sustainable development goals implementation on Neonatal, Infant, Child and Under-5 Mortality rate in Nigeria.

Table 2: Distribution of Neonatal, Infant, Child and Under-five Mortality Rate in Nigeria.

State	Neonatal Mortality Rate	Infant Mortality Rate	Child Mortality Rate	Under-Five(5) Mortality Rate
Abia	-37	55	30	83
Adamawa	21	49	37	84
Akwa-Ibom	21	42	32	73
Anambra	-23	39	15	53
Bauchi	41	81	87	161
Bayelsa	29	57	41	95
Benue	41	70	14	82
Borno	-26	42	42	82
Cross-River	20	38	15	52
Delta	28	48	16	63
Ebonyi	30	47	15	62
Edo	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Ekiti	-46	69	18	86
Enugu	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Gombe	35	90	78	162
Imo	-35	66	33	96
Jigawa	37	83	120	192
Kaduna	28	66	18	82
Kano	69	112	103	203
Katsina	35	68	72	135
Kebbi	55	111	70	174
Kogi	29	49	28	75
Kwara	27	40	6	45
Lagos	29	45	6	50

Nasarawa	47	81	43	121
Niger	59	100	54	149
Ogun	-28	49	19	66
Ondo	-30	37	32	67
Osun	-56	78	25	101
Oyo	-42	59	15	73
Plateau	34	55	27	80
Rivers	-27	41	18	58
Sokoto	28	51	72	119
Taraba	22	64	45	105
Yobe	44	64	41	102
Zamfara	33	104	118	210
FCT-Abuja	27	44	28	71
National	39	70	54	120

Source: National Bureau of Statistics (2019).

Note: N/A= Not Available

Table 2, Figures 3a, b, c & d shows the distribution of neonatal, infant, child and under-five mortality rates across Nigeria by states. Neonatal mortality rate is defined as the probability of children dying within the first month of birth (NNHS, 2018). Table 2 & Figure 3a revealed that neonatal mortality rate stood at an average of 39 per 1,000 live births in Nigeria with Kano (69 per 1,000 live births), Niger (59) and Kebbi (55) states with the highest neonatal mortality rate. The map generated (Figure 3a) also collaborate these findings in a visual form for a better understanding and quick interpretation. From the figure, Kano, Niger and Kebbi states are the hotspot areas in terms of neonatal mortality rate in Nigeria followed by Benue, Nasarawa, Plateau, Bauchi, Gombe, Yobe, Jigawa, Katsina and Zamfara states having neonatal mortality rates ranging from 31-47 per 1,000 live births (see Figure 3a). Most of the states with high rate of neonatal mortality are found in the northern part of Nigeria when compared with the southern part that is characterized with most of the states recording negative neonatal mortality rates (see Figure 3a).

Infant mortality rate is the probability of children dying before reaching one year and under- five mortality rates is the probability of a child dying before the age of five. Table 2, Figure 3b & 3d shows that infant mortality rate is 70 per 1,000 live births while under- 5 mortality stood at 120 per 1,000 live births in Nigeria. Kano state has the highest infant mortality rate of 112 per 1,000 live births followed

by Kebbi (111), Zamfara (104) and Niger (100) states. In terms of under-5 mortality rate, Zamfara state has the highest (210 per 1,000 live births) followed by Kano (203), Jigawa (192), Kebbi (174), Gombe (162) and Bauchi (161) states. Figures 3b & 3d further strengthen these findings with Kebbi, Zamfara, Niger, Kano, Bauchi and Gombe states classified as the hotspots states for both infant and under-5 mortality rates. As far back year 2015, the SDG baseline report shows that there were only 89 deaths per 1000 live births. However, this ratio increased substantially to 128 deaths/1000 live births in 2016 and 2017, and 132 deaths/1000 in 2018 (OSSAP-SDGs, 2020; NBS, 2017). Researches have shown that the causes of under-five mortality in Nigeria are malaria, pneumonia, diarrhoea and other preventable infectious diseases (Olalubi & Bello, 2020). The low rate of immunization of children under five is also believed to contribute to the mortality rate with only 21 per cent of Nigerian children were fully immunized between 2016 and 2017 (NBS & UNICEF, 2017).

Table 2 also revealed that the average child mortality rate in Nigeria is 54 per 1,000 live births. Jigawa state had the highest child mortality of 120 per 1,000 live births, while Kwara and Lagos states had the lowest of 6 per 1,000 live births each. The child mortality rate map generated (see Figure 3c) further visualizes these findings with many of the northern states considered to be highly vulnerable areas.

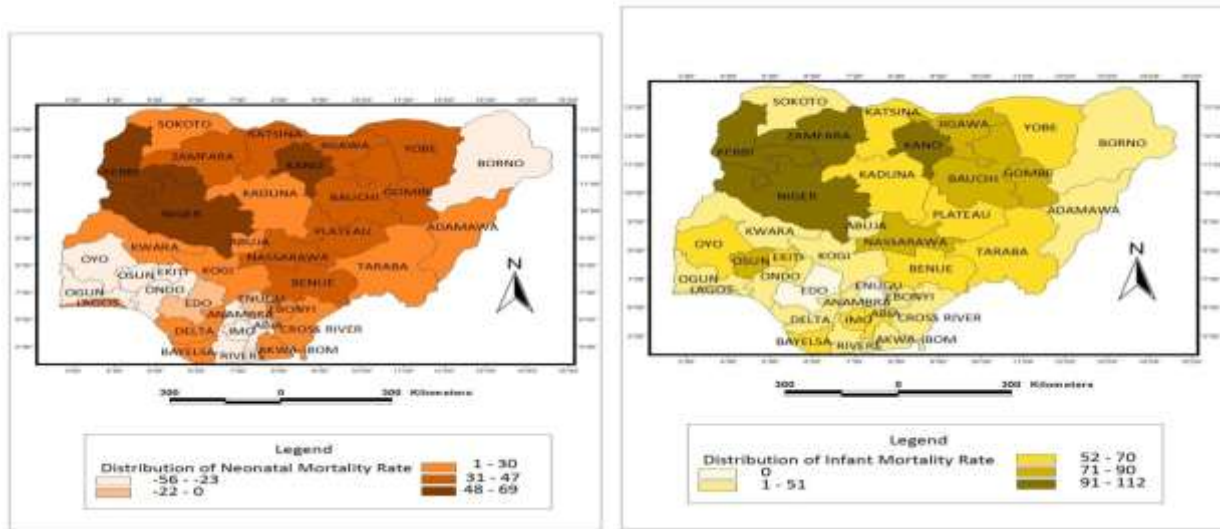


Figure 3a & b: The Distribution of Neonatal and Infant Mortality Rate in Nigeria

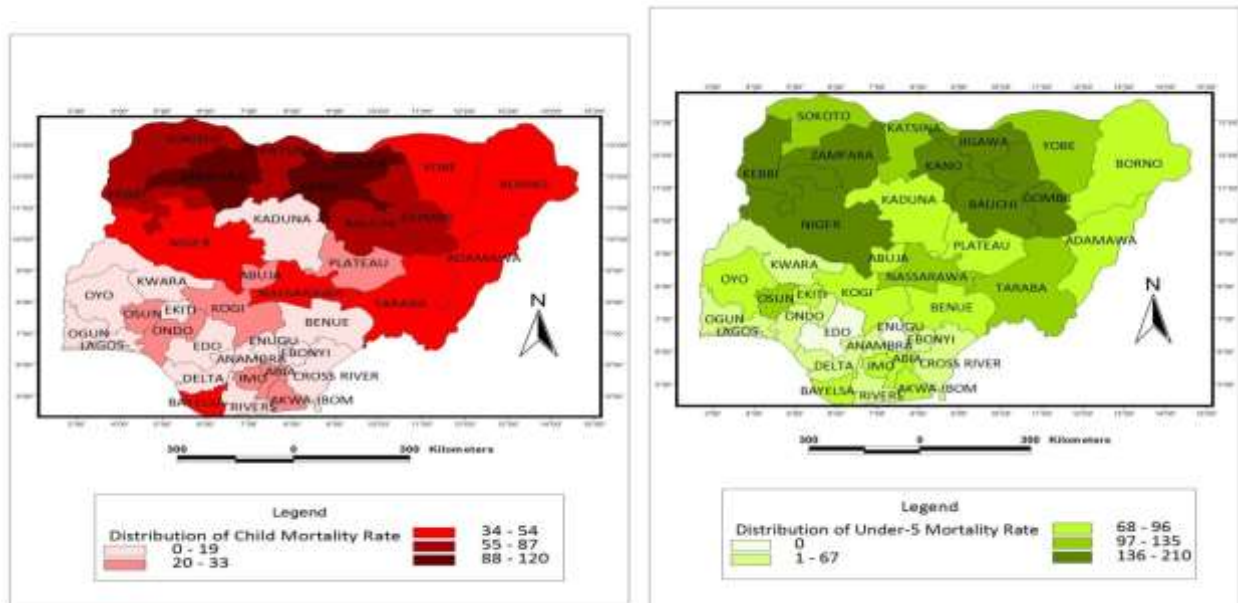


Figure 3c&d: The Distribution of Child and Under-5 Mortality Rate in Nigeria

4. Implications of Findings of the Study

Findings of this study shows that the general health and well-being of Nigerian people is deteriorating. Among the most debilitating is the very high maternal mortality rate (567.5 per 100 000) and studies have shown that high maternal mortality in Nigeria has contributed to household poverty by reducing household income or creating child-headed households (OSSAP-SDGs,2020). Under-five mortality rates with deaths per 1000 stand as 120, for the Federal Government’s target of 64 under-five deaths per 1, 000 by 2022 (NSHDP11) and less than 25 in 2030 to be achieved, then there must be an improvement in immunization and effective

implementation of the Reproductive, Maternal, New-born, Child & Adolescent Health plus Nutrition services and other health packages, together with the provision of the NHIS and the SSHIS, because these strategic interventions address not only the health- related factors but also the socio-economic challenges of the poor (OSSAP-SDGs,2020) .

The mapping of the health and well-being indicators across the Nigeria states further provides a lens into the weakness of the healthcare system of the country spatially and revealing visually, the states with high percentage in each of the indicators, areas considered to be hotspots and that needed urgent attention. The maps generated can further serve as tools in

implementing the SDG 3 target of having good health and well-being by 2030 in Nigeria, since phenomena are sometimes explained better in a visual form for quick decision and response.

5. Conclusion and Recommendation

This study employed a geospatial approach in assessing the health and well-being of Nigerians. The health and well-being indicators extracted from the Nigeria National Bureau of Statistics report of 2019 were used as instruments for assessment. The study engaged both descriptive statistics and Geographic Information System (GIS) techniques as methods of analyses. Findings from the study show that generally the health and well-being of Nigerians is deteriorating. As at 2019, the life of expectancy for both male (47 years) and female (51 years) is dreadful. The state with the highest life expectancy for both female (55) and male (51) is Oyo state. The spread of HIV/AIDS is still very high in the country with an average percentage of 53.1% for females and 46.9% for males. Maternal mortality rate of 567.5 per 1,000 is still very high compared with the 2030 SDG3 target of 25 per 1,000. The following states in Nigeria; Yobe, Borno and Adamawa between the range of 1267.8 and 2374.8 have the highest maternal mortality rate. The death rate of under-five child per 1,000 is 120 nationally with Kebbi, Zamfara, Niger, Kano, Jigawa, Bauchi and Gombe having the highest under-five child mortality rate between the range of 136 and 210.

Therefore, it is recommended that geospatial techniques should be developed for the implementation and monitoring of all other SDGs for quick decision and responses.

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Perceived Injustice and Socio-Demographic Variables as Predictors of Coping Ability among Kaduna Prison Inmate

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Abstract. This research examined perceived injustice, duration in prison, gender and socioeconomic status as predictors of coping ability among Kaduna Prison inmates. Using a cross-sectional survey design, a total sample size of One hundred and sixty-five (165) Kaduna Prison inmates were selected using convenience sampling and surveyed with the questionnaire measure. They included 132 males and 33 females. The age of the participants ranged from 22 to 62 years with a mean age of 41.95 (SD = 11.95). The Injustice Experience Questionnaire and Brief Cope Scale were used to collect data for the study while Hierarchical Multiple Regression was used in the analysis. The results showed that gender ($\beta = .35$, $t = 5.97$, $p < .001$), socioeconomic status ($\beta = .53$, $t = 8.83$, $p < .001$), and perceived injustice ($\beta = -.41$, $t = -7.64$, $p < .001$) significantly predicted the coping ability of Kaduna Prison inmates. Duration of sentence ($\beta = .00$, $t = .06$, $p > .05$) did not significantly predict the coping ability of Kaduna Prison inmates. It was recommended that Policies which encourage delay in the delivery of justice as we have today in our criminal justice system should be changed; Law enforcement agents and agencies should manage biases and investigate cases brought to them objectively to avoid incriminating and consequently convicting the wrong people.

Keywords: Perceived Injustice, Coping Ability, Kaduna Prison inmates

1. Introduction

The prison experience is unique, and is neither natural nor normal. It is considered as one of the most

degrading experiences an individual might endure (Kupers, 2008). As a result, prisoners have been found to display higher levels of psychological problems such as depression, distress (Schneider, Richters, Butler, Yap, Richards, Grant, Smith, & Donovan, 2011), post-traumatic stress disorders, apathy, paranoia, panic attacks (Morgan, 2009), sense of helplessness and personality changes (Pollock, 2006) and even suicide (Zhong, Senior, Yu, Perry, Hawton, Shaw & Fazel, 2021). In their study, Armiya'u, Obembe, Audu, and Afolaranmi (2013) raised an alarm of the prevalence of a high rate of psychiatric disorders among prison inmates in Nigeria, which they stated should be a concern to health care policy makers in the country. More recently, Orjiakor, Ugwu, Eze, Ugwu, Ibeagha, and Onu (2017) in a hermeneutic phenomenology study among prolonged Awaiting Trial Prisoners (ATPs) found that their experiences upon incarceration reflected a mixture of disbelief, denial, and negative emotions. This was followed by experiences of alienation from society and an atmosphere of uncertainty. The prison environment is plagued with factors that contribute to poor psychological health such as exposure to violence, overcrowding, solitary confinement, lack of meaningful activity, lack of privacy, poor healthcare and uncertainty about the future (Enggist, Møller, Galea, & Udesen, 2014). Also, prisoners face material deprivation in prison which ultimately creates considerable distress for the individuals and so requires them to adapt to such challenges (Irwin and Owen, 2005). Despite exposure to a stressful situation that endures over time, not all incarcerated individuals have a compromised mental well-being (Haney, 2001). The psychological and emotional survival of prisoners

depends mostly on the individual's ability to put up with the deprivations of prison, and this is determined by the individual's coping skills and the factors that affect it (Chubaty, 2001). Therefore, coping is essential for the mental wellbeing of prison inmates (Boustead and Ireland, 2005; Mefoh, Okafor, Ezeah & Odo, 2015).

Coping may be defined as constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The significant difference in the experience of psychological distress and psychiatric morbidity among prison inmates despite being in the same environment is accounted for by the different coping strategies they employ (Chubaty, 2001). Literature has identified two major types/strategies of coping which includes active coping and avoidant coping (Folkman, Lazarus, Gruen & DeLongis, 1986). An individual may use active coping where he responds to a stressful situation by defining the problem, finding solutions and weighing the costs and benefits of the solutions outlined, and taking action to deal with the stressful situation (Rocheleau, 2015). On the other hand, another individual may opt for the avoidant coping in which individuals avoid dealing with the stressor (Endler & Parker, 1994).

The transition to prison and prison life can be stressful for prisoners, therefore, coping skills are particularly important for inmates who must learn to adjust to an entirely new environment whose ideals differ from what they have known for most of their lives. The ways in which individuals choose to respond to stress have long term implications for the development of mental health issues such as anxiety and depression (Doron, Thomas-Ollivier, Vachon, & Fortes-Bourbousson, 2013). Problem-focused coping is generally considered as more beneficial for mental health than emotion-focused and avoidance-focused coping, even though the effectiveness of a coping style may depend on the characteristic of the stressful situation (Thoits, 1995).

How an individual copes with the stress of imprisonment and adjusts to prison life depends on a number of variables. Previous research, such as Abakwuru & Ibeh-Godfrey, 2017; Bierie, 2012 & Cesaroni & Peterson- Badali, 2010, have focused on variables such as age, gender, overcrowding, social support, and help-seeking behaviour and how they influence coping ability among prisoners. However, one aspect of prison life which potentially relates to prisoners' ability to cope and consequently prisoners'

well-being has not received much attention; that is the extent to which prisoners feel they receive a fair and just treatment.

The concept of injustice cannot be clearly understood without first explaining what justice means. Justice means that people get what they are entitled to or deserve based on who they are and what they have done (Buchanan & Mathieu, 1986; Cohen, 1986; Lerner, 1977, 1987; Mikula, 2001). The experience of unnecessary suffering as a result of another's actions and appraisals of irreparable loss are also likely to give rise to perceptions of injustice (Miller, 2001). Prior research has suggested that prisoners' perceptions of procedural justice are related to their mental health. Several studies have shown that prisoners who felt unfairly and unjustly treated in prison were more distressed, anxious, or depressed (Gover, MacKenzie, & Armstrong, 2000; Liebling & Maruna, 2005). Perception of a fair process refers to the belief that the techniques used to resolve a dispute or pass a judgment are fair and just in themselves. Direct participation in the decision making process, accuracy, bias suppression, consistency over time and across people, opportunities to appeal decisions and representativeness of values of sub groups have been found to support perception of fairness. However, all these dimensions of procedural justice judgments must not be present before an individual reaches an opinion about the fairness of the judgment (Leventhal, 1980)

Perceived injustice among prisoners can have a negative impact on their ability to cope with the strains of imprisonment and their overall mental health (Beijersbergen, Dirkzwager, Eichelsheim, van der Laan, & Nieuwbeerta, 2014). According to Agnew (2001), perceived injustice can increase prisoners' risk of violence as it acts as an additional strain. This is an unsettling discovery especially as the individuals being housed in prisons are already prone to violent and aggressive behavior and also seem to lack the skills and positive stimuli such as privacy, law-abiding relationships and autonomy which are necessary to cope in a peaceful manner (Agnew, 2001).

Prisoners who were wrongly incarcerated have to deal with feelings of being unjustly treated throughout their sentence. Sarnoff (1997) described serving a prison sentence without having committed a crime as the worst form of victimization. The mental damage caused to wrongly convicted individuals is likened to that of torture survivors or war veterans (Jamieson & Grounds, 2005). The psychological effects of imprisonment for the innocent as identified disavowal, shock and betrayal; sense of cruelty and

injustice; struggle with life's meaning; a sense of abandonment by God and humanity; loss of dignity and identity; shame resulting from how they are perceived by others; surrender; PTSD and other psychiatric symptoms (Wilson, 2002). According to Westervelt and Cook (2009) the psychological consequences of perceived or actual injustice on prisoners' ranges from personality change, anxiety disorders, anger, depression, grief and suicidal ideation.

The effectiveness of coping with stress also depends on situational factors, associated with the specificity of a difficult situation, as well as on personal factors, associated with the personal resources (Lazarus & Folkman, 1987) such as gender, duration in prison and socio-economic status. Although an inmate's transition from the free world to imprisonment is usually characterized by increased anxiety, depression and blood pressure, with time, decrease in physiological and psychological symptoms is evident as inmates appear to successfully employ coping strategies that allows them to adjust to the prison environment (Islam-Zwart, Vik, & Rawlins, 2007). Traditionally, it was believed that long term imprisonment was detrimental to the mental health of prisoners, however, years of extensive research and empirical investigation provides a different opinion on psychological functioning across incarceration. Zamble (1992) carried out a longitudinal study across a seven-year period and found that anxiety, depression and hopelessness decreased over time, while self-esteem increased. MacKenzie and Goodstein (1985) reported similar results in a study examining the outcomes for prisoners who have been incarcerated for more than six years. Results showed that in the first three years of incarceration, inmates reported experiencing more depression, anxiety and lower self-esteem when compared to other prisoners who have served more than six years. Despite the positive progress made by prisoners over time in prison as several research results stated, there appears to be an increase in criminal thinking and development of a criminal identity for newly incarcerated inmates with no prior history of incarceration, which is likely to be a way of coping with the prison environment (Walters, 2003). Zamble and Poporino (1988) do not conform to the idea that prisoners cope better as they spend more time in the prison environment. Results of their study showed that prisoners who coped well at the beginning of their prison sentences coped well throughout their stay in prison as well (Zamble & Poporino, 1988).

Several studies have also examined the coping abilities of male prisoners (Biggam & Power, 1999;

Harreveld, et al., 2007) and female prisoners (Greer, 2002; McDonald, 2006; Fritch, 2006). Psychologist Carol Gilligan (1993) believes that women differ from men in the way that they react to a situation because of differences in development and socialization. These differences affect the ways that men and women interact with others. Women rely on relationships to define themselves and their actions, whereas men rely more heavily on themselves and react based upon how the situation will affect them personally. Research has shown that imprisoned women display higher levels of mental disorders than male prisoners (Weissman, DeLamater, & Lovejoy, 2013), with many female prisoners reporting generalized anxiety, stress, depression and sleep disorder (Boxer, Middlemass, & Delorenzo, 2009). According to Bastick and Townhead (2012) women in prison are vulnerable and they have higher rates of suicide and self-harm than men. Extant research has shown that women's vulnerability to serious health conditions can be attributed to the poor state of Nigerian prisons, since women are generally more fragile than men (Otu, Otu, & Eteng, 2013; Okwendi, Nwankwoala, & Ushi, 2014). Due to the psychological and physical deprivations that characterizes the Nigerian prison, it is common to see inmates looking starved and unkempt due to the deplorable sanitary conditions of the cells which expose inmates to severe illnesses (Aduba, 2013). Apart from the health challenges that confront women in prison, women are also more vulnerable to sexual harassment and abuse than men which further compound difficulties in adjusting to prison life (Durosaro, 2002). Women also face the risk of becoming pregnant as a result of the sexual assault that plagues Nigerian prisons, which often leads to psychological and emotional trauma for the prisoner coupled with the uncertainty about whether they can keep the baby. Okwendi, Nwankwoala and Ushi (2014) pointed out that most Nigerian prisons lack the basic toiletries such as soap, sanitary towels and sanitary pads, which causes a decline in the hygiene of prisoners, the females especially, thereby increasing their risk of physical illnesses. The lack of basic needs in the prison environment is a big factor in the maladjustment of female prisoners as most of them are ethereal (Solanski, 2004). Women's needs actually makes their coping with the prison environment more demanding than the males (Voorhis, Wright, Salisbury & Bauma., 2010).

Socioeconomic status (SES) of prisoners has also been found to play a role in their coping ability. According to Mirowski and Ros, (2005), higher educational attainment contributes to the development of coping skills such as personal

control, problem solving ability and learned effectiveness. Education develops and at the same time improves one's ability to gather and interpret information and to solve problems on many levels, it increases one's potential to control events and outcomes in life. One encounters and solves problems that are complex through education which in turn builds problem solving skills and a sense of mastery which may mediate stress by facilitating better coping mechanisms. Higher educational attainment among prisoners is associated with higher income and greater social networks which provides for both emotional and psychological support, making adjustment to the prison environment relatively easier (Salisbury, Van Voorhis, & Spiropoulos, 2009).

While several theories have tried to establish the relationships between the variables concerned the transactional model (Lazarus & Folkman, 1988). Folkman and Lazarus (1988) assert that coping is not merely a response to tension. Instead, it is influenced by an individual's cognitive appraisal of an event; and one's cognitive appraisal subsequently influences emotional arousal. They view psychological stress as a relationship between the person and the environment that is appraised as potentially damaging to one's wellbeing. Two critical processes mediate this person-environment relationship: (a) the cognitive appraisal, which is an evaluative process that determines why and to what extent a particular transaction between a person and the environment is stressful; and (b) coping, the process through which the individual manages the demand of person-environment relationship and the ensuing emotions generated from the situation.

Essentially, appraisals mediate the relationships between antecedents and outcomes. Early in Lazarus's work, the term perception appeared in place of appraisal; however, Lazarus decided perception did not emphasize the evaluative quality of cognitive mediation properly as it was too neutral. Essentially, people are not troubled because of events they experience, but rather because of the view they take of such events. Thus, two individuals may have identical life experiences but behave in two very different ways due to the view each has taken of those events. Cognitive distortions may elicit negative emotions such as anxiety, sadness, and anger (Beck & Haigh, 2014). These negative emotions may then lead an individual to take a negative view of the events that transpire. The individual must then figure out how to cope with the situation, which may be in the form of positive, conventional coping or deviant, maladaptive coping.

Prior research has suggested that prisoners' perceptions of procedural justice are related to their mental health. Several studies have shown that prisoners who felt unfairly and unjustly treated in prison were more distressed, anxious, or depressed (Gover et al., 2000; Liebling et al., 2005; Slotboom et al., 2011). Perceived injustice among prisoners can have a negative impact on their ability to cope with the strains of imprisonment and their overall mental health (Beijersbergen, Dirkzwager, Eichelsheim, van der Laan, & Nieuwbeerta, 2014). This theory applies to this study because the perception of justice or injustice is different for different individuals and this difference in perception may either influence coping with the prison environment positively or negatively.

The prison's major mandate is to reform and rehabilitate, so that inmates are released back to society as better versions of themselves. However, going by the current state of Nigerian prisons and the Kaduna state prison in particular, the reverse might be the case as individuals might return as an even worse version of themselves. The physical and psychological deprivations that are evident in the prison environment are at best inhumane, and can lead to a myriad of mental illnesses for the inmates (World Health Organisation, 2014; Irwin and Owen, 2005). This situation portrays the prison as a hell hole meant only to punish instead of to correct as its name "correctional center" implies. Despite research evidence linking the prison experience to an assortment of mental illnesses, not all incarcerated inmates possess a compromised mental well-being (Haney, 2001) which can be attributed to the coping strategy they employ (Chubaty, 2001). Bierie (2012) and Cesaroni and Peterson-Badali (2010) have investigated the factors that influence the coping ability of prisoners, to be able to isolate the characteristics or factors that makes some individuals immune to the strains of the prison environment while others are not. However, one aspect of prison life which potentially relates to prisoners' ability to cope and consequently prisoners' well-being has not received much attention; that is the extent to which prisoners feel they receive a fair and just treatment. Due to the shallow nature of investigations carried out by law enforcement agencies in Nigeria (Onyeozili, 2008), the chances of individuals going through the criminal justice system to be wrongly convicted or given an unfair judgment is very high. Hence, the need to examine how perceived injustice interacts with other demographic variables to predict the coping ability of Kaduna Prison inmates as this would help policy makers design or make necessary improvements to the prison system. Aborisade and Fayemi (2016) investigated the impact of gender on

coping in prison, while Ebeh, Annorzie and Mbagwu (2019) studied jail term length, gender and age as determinants of psychological distress among prison inmates in Owerri. However, a paucity of literature exists in the study of perceived injustice as a predictor of the coping ability of Nigerian prisoners, which makes this study a great addition to literature.

2. Hypotheses

Following the review of literature, the following hypotheses were tested in this study:

- Perceived injustice will significantly predict the coping ability of Kaduna Prison inmates.
- Duration in prison will significantly predict the coping ability of Kaduna Prison inmates.
- Gender will significantly predict the coping ability of Kaduna Prison inmates.
- Socioeconomic Status will significantly predict the coping ability of Kaduna Prison inmates.

3. Research Methodology

Design: The Cross-sectional Survey Design was applied in this study.

Participants: Data was collected from a total of 165 adult inmates who were incarcerated within the Kaduna State Prison and volunteered to participate in the study. They comprised 132 males and 33 females. The age of the participants ranged from 22 to 62 years with a mean age of 41.95 (SD = 11.95). Majority of the participants identified as Hausa/Fulani (n = 83, 50.3%) while the rest identifies as Igbo (n = 25, 15.2%), Yoruba (n = 28, 16.97%) and others (n = 29, 17.6%). More than half of the participants reported they were single (n = 94 56.97%) 38.8% (n = 64) were married while 4.2% (n = 7) were divorced/widowed.

Participants mean sentence length was 65.19 months (SD = 52.28, range 12 to 296). Participants had spent an average of 64 months (SD = 14.1, range 4 to 200) on their current sentences. Data obtained also showed that majority of the participants did not have a university degree (n = 59, 35.8%) while the rest had obtained a university (n = 50, 30.3%) or post graduate degree (n = 56, 33.9%).

Sample Size/Sampling Technique: The Kaduna State Federal Prison holds a total population of 2,200 inmates. The sample of this study was made up 165 prison inmates who were selected from the total population using convenience and snowball sampling technique. This sampling technique was adopted because of the strict regimented lifestyle in the prison

which did not allow for a simple random sampling technique to be used. Also not all prisoners were interested in the study, so the researcher used those who were available and willing to participate in the study. The researcher also used the help of some of the prison warders to distribute the questionnaire while making the prisoners aware that participation was voluntary.

Instrument: A questionnaire which was divided into section A – D was used. Section A investigated demographic information including participants' age, gender, ethnic identity, relationship status, level of education and duration in prison.

Section B measured perceived injustice using the Injustice Experience Questionnaire (IEQ) (Sullivan, et al., 2008). It is a 12-item scale that assesses an appraisal cognition comprising elements of the severity of loss consequent to injury (e.g., "Most people don't understand how severe my condition is"), blame (e.g., "I am suffering because of someone else's negligence"), a sense of unfairness (e.g., "It all seems so unfair"), and irreparability of loss (e.g., "My life will never be the same"). The IEQ asks respondents to indicate the frequency with which they experience different thoughts concerning the sense of unfairness in relation to their injury on a 5-point scale with the endpoints of (0) never and (4) all the time. The IEQ has been shown by Sullivan and his colleagues (Sullivan, et al., 2008; Sullivan, et al., 2009) to be internally consistent and to have good predictive validity. Sullivan, et al. (2008) reported reliability co-efficient (Cronbach's alpha) of .92 for the questionnaire. In the present study we obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .85. A total score of 30 or more on the IEQ represents a clinically relevant level of perceived injustice (Sullivan, et al., 2008).

Section C measured coping ability/strategies using the Brief Cope Scale which is an abbreviated version of the Cope Inventory (Carver, 1997). This consists of 14 major subscales which include denial, substance abuse, self-blame, emotional support, instrument support, active coping, self-distraction, venting, positive reframing, humour, planning, acceptance, religion and behavioural disengagement. Each subscale requires a response to 2 questions in the questionnaire, making a total of 28 coping behaviours, rated on a frequency of 1 (1 = I have not been doing this at all) to 4 (4 = I have been doing this a lot). These can be stratified into problem-focused and emotional-focused coping mechanisms as found in the literature (Folkman et al., 1997) in which 8 were adaptive coping (active coping, planning, use of instrumental support, use of emotional support,

positive reframing, religion, humor and acceptance) and 6 maladaptive coping strategies (venting, behavioural disengagement, substance use, denial, self-blame, self- distraction). The BRIEF COPE score was calculated by summing individual question scores. The scores ranged from 2 to 8 points for each strategy, 16 to 64 points for adaptive coping, 12 to 48 points for maladaptive coping and 28 to 112 points for Total BRIEF COPE.

A previous report to establish the reliability and validity of the scale indicated a high Cronbach’s alpha values for some domains such as Religion ($\alpha=0.82$) and Substance use ($\alpha=0.90$) (Carver, 1997). Other domains indicated acceptable values of Cronbach’s alpha. They are Active coping ($\alpha=0.68$), Planning ($\alpha=0.73$), Positive Reframing ($\alpha=0.64$), Acceptance ($\alpha=0.57$), Humor ($\alpha=0.73$), Using Emotional Support ($\alpha=0.71$), Using Instrumental Support ($\alpha=0.64$), Self-distraction ($\alpha=0.71$), Denial ($\alpha=0.54$), Venting ($\alpha=0.50$), Behavioral disengagement ($\alpha=0.65$) and Self-blame ($\alpha=0.69$) (Carver, 1997).

Procedure: A letter of identification was obtained from the Department of Psychology, Nigerian Defense Academy, requesting for permission to collect data from the prison inmates in Federal Prison, Kaduna. Approval to continue with the data collection was obtained from the warden of the facility where data was collected. Data collection periods were arranged by the warden as the prison schedule would accommodate. Potential participants were asked to gather at a data collection site at a designated time. For the data collection session, the researcher waited to provide information about the study until all inmates who indicated interest to

participate arrived at the data collection site or until it was reasonable to assume that no more inmates would be arriving for that scheduled session. Inmates arrived at various times during the designated time due to other obligations or other scheduled appointments. The researcher described the nature and purpose of the study and the procedures for completing the research materials. The potential participants were also encouraged to ask question where they are not clear. Inmates were informed that participation in the study was totally voluntary and they can walk out if they are not comfortable being a part of the study. Inmates who declined participation were allowed to leave. A total of 227 inmates arrived at the data collection site. A total of 62 inmates refused to participate in the study, and were allowed to withdraw from the study leaving 165 inmates as study participants.

Inmates who consented to participate in the study were instructed to fill out the demographic form, Brief Cope and Injustice Experience Questionnaire which had been compiled into individual research packets for each participant. Participants with literacy problems had the materials read out to them by a research assistant. The researcher collected the data packet from each individual as they finished. Inmates were thanked and dismissed from the data collection site at the end of the data collection exercise.

To ensure confidentiality, the identities of participants were not requested for and kept anonymous, rather, participants were marked using numbers. Data was entered into a personal computer by the researcher for analysis. Original data would be disposed of in a manner that will ensure confidentiality after two years of this research.

4. Results

Table 1: Showing the prediction of ‘Coping Ability’ from Control Variables, Demographic Variables and Perceived Injustice

	R	R2	R2Δ	B	Beta(β)	T
Model 1	.04	.00	.00			
Age				.031	.019	.224
Ethnicity				-.237	-.014	-.179
Marital_Stat				-.937	-.027	-.314
Model 2	.74***	.55***	.55***			
Gender				17.19***	.35***	5.97***
Duration of Sent.				-.002	-.004	-.064
SES				12.27***	.53***	8.83***
Model 3	.82***	.67***	.12***			
Perceived Injustice				-.63***	-.41***	-7.64***

- a. Dependent Variable: Coping_Ability
- b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), Marital_Stat, Ethnicity, Age
- c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), Marital_Stat, Ethnicity, Age, Gender, SES, Duration_of_Sentence

Regression result in table 1 above indicated that none of the control variables significantly predicted coping ability. The control variables jointly accounted for no variance in predicting the coping ability of Kaduna Prison inmates ($R^2\Delta = .00, p > .05$).

Hypothesis 1: Perceived injustice will significantly predict the coping ability of Kaduna Prison inmates. Perceived injustice was entered in model three of the equation. Regression result showed that perceived injustice significantly predicted the coping ability of Kaduna state prisoners ($\beta = -.41, t = -7.64, p < .001$). Perceived injustice accounted for 12% significant variance in predicting the coping ability of Kaduna Prison inmates ($R^2\Delta = .12, p < .001$). This result failed to confirm the hypothesis, so, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2: Duration in prison will significantly predict the coping ability of Kaduna Prison inmates. Regression results show that Duration of sentence ($\beta = .00, t = .06, p > .05$) did not significantly predict the coping ability of Kaduna Prison inmates. This result confirms the second hypothesis; therefore, we accept the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3: Gender will significantly predict the coping ability of Kaduna Prison inmates. Results of regression analysis show that Gender ($\beta = .35, t = 5.97, p < .001$) significantly predicted the coping ability of Kaduna Prison inmates. This result is not congruent with the prediction of the third hypothesis, so, we reject the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis 4: Socioeconomic Status will significantly predict the coping ability of Kaduna Prison inmates.

Regression results show that socioeconomic status ($\beta = .53, t = 8.83, p < .001$), significantly predicted the coping ability of Kaduna Prison inmates. The fourth hypothesis was also rejected since it was not confirmed by this result.

Duration in prison, gender and socioeconomic status entered in model 2 accounted for 55% variance in predicting the coping ability of Kaduna Prison inmates ($R^2\Delta = .55, p < .001$).

5. Summary of the Findings

Coping ability was significantly related to gender, socioeconomic status and perceived injustice but not significantly related to duration of sentence.

None of the control variables significantly predicted the coping ability of Kaduna Prison inmates.

Correlation results showed a strong inverse relationship between socioeconomic status and perceived injustice. This implies that prisoners from the lower class usually perceive themselves as being treated unjustly than those from the upper class.

Among the three demographic variables included in the analysis, only gender and socioeconomic status significantly predicted the coping ability of Kaduna prison inmates.

Perceived injustice significantly predicted the coping ability of Kaduna Prison inmates. Prison inmates with higher levels of perceived injustice employed more maladaptive coping strategies.

6. Discussion on Findings

This study examined perceived injustice and demographic variables (gender, duration in prison and socioeconomic status) as predictors of coping ability among Kaduna Prison inmates.

Test of Hypothesis 1 results revealed that perceived injustice is a significant predictor of coping ability among Kaduna Prison inmates. The relationship found was a rather inverse one, which implies that an increase in perceived injustice led to a decrease in the ability of prisoners to employ adaptive coping abilities. Prisoners who felt they have been dealt with unjustly tend to employ maladaptive coping techniques such as venting, behavioural disengagement, substance use, denial, self-blame, self-distraction to get through the prison environment. This finding confirms the first hypothesis of this study which stated that perceived injustice will significantly predict the coping ability of Kaduna Prison inmates; therefore, the alternate hypothesis was accepted. This result is supported by several related studies conducted in the past. Several studies have shown that prisoners who felt unfairly and unjustly treated in prison were more distressed, anxious, or depressed (Gover, MacKenzie, & Armstrong, 2000; Liebling & Maruna, 2005). According to Beijersbergen, Dirkzwager, Eichelsheim, van der Laan, and Nieuwbeerta (2014), perceived injustice among prisoners can have a negative impact on their ability to cope with the strains of imprisonment and their overall mental health. The propositions of the transactional model of coping is congruent with the findings of this study because the perception of justice or injustice is different for different individuals and this difference in perception may either influence coping with the prison environment positively or negatively. The concept of being treated justly is foreign to most prisoners in Nigeria because as Hon. Justice Peter. A. Akhiero rightly said, “the Nigeria factor is present and very potent in several of the pre-trial processes in criminal matters. When a complaint is made, the amount of seriousness to be attached to the investigation of the complaint depends on a number of factors, chief among which is the Complainant’s

ability and willingness to fund the police investigations. Where the complainant is either impecunious or unwilling to part with any reasonable sum of money, the investigation may be stalled or shoddy.” Since proper investigations are not carried out, and the majority of Nigerians can hardly afford a good defense attorney, we are likely to have many ‘innocent’ or over-punished prisoners in Nigerian prisons leading to increased perceptions of injustice in the prisons. Many prisoners in Nigerian prisons are yet to be convicted and have been awaiting trial for years due to the delay common in delivering justice in the Nigerian Criminal Justice System which also might have also affected the scores obtained for perceived injustice which in turn leads to the inability of prisoners to cope adequately because “justice delayed is justice denied.” The psychological effects of imprisonment for the innocent as identified by John Wilson include: disavowal, shock and betrayal; sense of cruelty and injustice; struggle with life’s meaning; a sense of abandonment by God and humanity; loss of dignity and identity; shame resulting from how they are perceived by others; surrender; PTSD and other psychiatric symptoms (Wilson, 2002) which occurs mostly due to the inability of prisoners to adopt adaptive coping techniques.

Hypothesis 2 test results revealed that duration in prison did not significantly predict the coping ability of Kaduna prison inmates. This means that how long a prisoner has stayed in prison does not improve or diminish his coping ability. Previous research results on the impact of duration in prison on coping ability have always produced conflicting results. Islam-Zwart, Vik, and Rawlins (2007) provided evidence that physiological and psychological symptoms of stress in inmates decreases over time as inmates appear to successfully employ coping strategies that allows them to adjust to the prison environment. However, the findings of the present study is in line with the findings of Zamble and Poporino (1988) which stated that prisoners who coped well at the beginning of their prison sentences coped well throughout their stay in prison as well. The second hypothesis which stated that duration in prison will significantly predict the coping ability of Kaduna prison inmates was rejected. According to (Wilson, 2001), the mental damage caused to wrongly convicted individuals is likened to that of torture survivors or war veterans; this explains the negative relationship that was found between perceived injustice and coping ability of Kaduna prison inmates.

Hypothesis 3 test results revealed that gender significantly predicted the coping ability of Kaduna prison inmates. From the results, it was clear that female prisoners used more adaptive coping strategies than their male counterpart even when they feel unjustly treated. The third which stated that gender will significantly predict the coping ability of Kaduna Prison inmates was accepted. The gender differences in coping ability have always had mixed results from previous studies. Psychologist Carol Gilligan (1993) believes that women differ from men in the way that they react to a situation because of differences in development and socialization. These differences affect the ways that men and women interact with others. Women rely on relationships to define themselves and their actions, whereas men rely more heavily on themselves and react based upon how the situation will affect them personally (Gilligan, 1993). This entails that the superior coping ability displayed by females may be dependent on how much support they receive from family, friends and other inmates. Generally previous studies have pointed out that men have better coping abilities than females in the prison environment. According to Bastick and Townhead (2012) women in prison are vulnerable and they have higher rates of suicide and self-harm than men.

Hypothesis 4 test results revealed that socioeconomic status significantly predicted the coping ability of Kaduna prison inmates. People from a higher socioeconomic background coped better than those from a lower socioeconomic background as revealed by the results. The fourth hypothesis which stated that socioeconomic status will significantly predict the coping ability of Kaduna Prison inmates was accepted. The predictive ability of socioeconomic status on coping ability is also consistent with past research findings. According to Mirowski and Ros, (2005), higher educational attainment contributes to the development of coping skills such as personal control, problem solving ability and learned effectiveness. Higher educational attainment among prisoners is associated with higher income and greater social networks which provides for both emotional and psychological support, making adjustment to the prison environment relatively easier (Salisbury, Van Voorhis, & Spiropoulos, 2009).

7. Recommendations

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

Leventhal (1980) identified considerations that contribute to the perceived fairness of judgments

which includes accuracy, bias suppression, consistency over time and across people, opportunities to appeal decisions and representativeness of values of sub groups. These principles should be at the core of the Nigerian Justice System.

Since one of the major goals of imprisonment is rehabilitation, the prison environment should be conducive to encourage learning and unlearning of behaviours. The female prisons especially should be given extra care as they can easily contract diseases from unkempt environments. The health and safety of prisoners should not be undermined; a prison sentence should not end up being a death sentence.

The services of mental health practitioners and professionals should be heavily employed in the prisons as research has proven that the prison hold more mentally unhealthy individuals than the general population.

Law enforcement agents and agencies should manage biases and investigate cases brought to them objectively to avoid incriminating and consequently convicting the wrong people which has led to so many innocent individuals serving prison sentences.

Policies that encourage the delay in the delivering of justice as we have today in our criminal justice system should be changed. Individuals should not spend so many years awaiting trial in prison, after which they may be found to be innocent of the crime they are being tried for.

The seriousness with which investigations are carried out should not be based on the ability of the complainant to fund the investigations as this would naturally mar the objectivity of investigations. The government should provide logistic support to investigative police officers (IPO) to ease the job and to also ensure an objective investigation which would further diminish the fast rising numbers of wrongful convictions.

Training sessions should also be included in the activities of prisoners where they are trained on how to deal with difficult situations within the prison environment. A complaint commission should also be set up where prisoners can report threats or sexual harassment cases; this would make the prison environment a safer place and the mental health of prisoners would greatly improve as a consequence.

This study should be repeated in other prisons in Kaduna and across Nigeria to see if similar results

would be obtained to make for a more valid generalization.

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TV News Presentation, Source attractiveness, and Credibility: An Audience Perception Study

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Abstract. Source credibility is integral to how news audience receive and perceive news, especially from Television which appeals to both sight and hearing. This study sought to find out audience perception of news credibility as it pertains to TV news presentations. To achieve the objectives of this study, the convenient sampling was employed to gather data from 392 respondents of Oshogbo metropolis using a structured questionnaire. Findings from the study indicated that the majority of the respondents disagreed that the dressing appeal of a news presenter informed their decision on how credible news is however, the majority of the respondents agreed that the western mode of dressing makes news presenters more appealing. Findings also indicated that the majority of respondents agreed that female news presenters were more appealing and casted more than their male counterparts for their looks but disagreed that the gender of a news presenter had any connection to their perception of the news credibility. The study also indicated that other aesthetics and personality elements that could influence perception as voice, eloquence of the presenter and the news content. The paper concluded that when broadcast organizations especially television embrace the practice of balancing gender and other elements of news credibility they have a better chance of improving source attractiveness and news credibility, which in turn endears the news organization to Television audiences.

Keywords: TV, News Presentation, Source attractiveness, Credibility, Perception

1. Introduction

In a complex, information-saturated society, such as Nigeria, one of the main functions of media in

society is accurate and factual information. News is trusted to give such factual investigations to enable people to make calculated and educated decisions. Little wonder scholars and indeed journalism practitioners are highly interested in and concerned about the issue of the trustworthiness of news reporting because journalism's core professional values are hinged on credibility (Sanusi, Alade, & Shodipe, 2020). Although Payne and Dozier, (2013) highlighted that academics and journalists have different opinions on what constitutes credibility, they both agree that it essentially has to do with the accuracy and honesty of the facts that journalists report. According to Andaleeb, Rahman, Rajeb, Akter, and Gulshan, (2012), herein lies the function of images; believability, credibility, and appeal to an audience.

One of the most reliable sources of news regarding politics and current affairs is television. Journalists and communication scholars are concerned about how effective television news can spread information about reported events (Andaleeb, et al., 2012). According to Cummins and Chambers (2011), visual news presentation may provide greater news credibility than other formats. Commenting on news presentation and how it enhances audience appeal Andaleeb, Rahman, Rajeb, Akter, and Gulshan, (2012) posited that with advancements in presentation and creativity among the privately owned satellite TV channels in developing countries like Bangladesh, news has become the most popular program. People's thirst for information has caused many stations globally to present news on an hourly basis. In essence audience perceptions of news authenticity were influenced by the calibre of audio-visual components.

Communication scholars and journalists have long been interested in the perceptions viewers make of television news content. According to Bracken, (2006) citing Austin and Dong, (1994) perception of credibility is influenced by the content of the news reports and the news presenter or anchors' personality. There are also perceptions that credibility may be influenced by presentation variables. The gender appeal, dressing appearance, and aesthetics of the TV news set may be part of such variables. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to ascertain how the TV audience views the credibility of news presentations through dressing, gender, and aesthetic appeals.

1.1 Objectives of the Study

- To determine whether the mode of dressing of news presenters influences the audience's perception of TV news credibility.
- To find out to what extent the gender appeal of news presenters influences TV news credibility.
- To establish other factors that influence audiences' perception of TV news credibility.

2. Literature and Empirical Review

McCroskey & Teven (1999), cited by (Hellmueller & Trilling, 2012, p.6), "studied the corpus of work on source credibility and argued that one aspect of the construct—credibility—has been 'lost.'" The authors contend that Aristotle's conception of ethos/source credibility was founded on three dimensions: competence, trustworthiness, and goodwill (p. 90). The authors cite Aristotle's conception because it is a milestone in the philosophy of rhetorical communication." Credibility is thus the base upon which every respectable media outlet should be expected to stand. Credibility is essential to the meaningful existence and continued functioning of any public communication medium.

A news organization is said to be a credible source of information if such medium reports events truthfully and objectively. By implication for a new medium to be regarded as credible, it must have consistently in its daily reports present facts without favour or fear. This is why Payne and Dozier (2013:700) noted that credibility "has been defined variously as the perception of news messages as plausible reflections of the events they depict, and as a global evaluation of the objectivity of a given story". Rasha (2019) went a step further to investigate the components of credibility from a variety of media and the result indicated that perceptions of credibility varied by

news source; while story balance, honesty, and currency were important in newspaper content; fairness and currency were identified as important factors in determining news credibility in television; and trustworthiness, timeliness, and bias were considered vital in determining online news credibility.

On the other hand, Armstrong and Collins, (2009) examined the credibility of news from three perspectives namely; source credibility, news credibility and message credibility. Source credibility according to Armstrong and Collins (2009) targets four dimensions of credibility—knowledge, trustworthiness, attractiveness, and dynamism. News Credibility examines the credibility of the medium or the particular industry i.e. T.V, radio, and newspaper amongst others, while message credibility examines the believability of the message content.

The issue of the credibility of news arose out of the crumbling faith the media audiences have in the media. In the case of the British media, Barnett (2008) identified four factors that are responsible for the crumbling faith in British journalism. Although Barnett examined the British media, the factors he identified are peculiar to media in developing nations too. According to Barnett, the factors are the drip-drop effect, the dog-eat-dog effect, the bandwagon effect, and the universal suspicion effect. The drip-drop explains the distrust in journalism as a result of commercial and partisan interests while the dog-eat-dog effect explains the distrust in journalism from unhealthy competition in the industry as a result of lack of support and being the first to break the news. The bandwagon effect explains distrust in journalism from fact-checking, plagiarism, and lazy journalism. The universal suspicion explains the distrust in journalism from the perception of the audience who now view the media as a propaganda tool.

Organisations, including broadcasting institutions, idealised images of women – a glamorised version of attractiveness - through employing women with the 'right look" (Warhurst & Nickson, 2009, p.385) and sex appeal. Although news-reading for both sexes is a platform where audience attention is sometimes focused on physical appearance; but this is more prevalent with the female presenters. This has made many people to believe that women reporters are frequently relegated to soft news stories, like health and entertainment news, whereas their male counterparts are given stories of political and international importance. Women have also been underrepresented as sources on news programs. According to Irvin (2013, p. 39), "male experts are

often used as sources than female experts, and female experts are used less in hard news stories than men". The above assertions represent the different views people have about female broadcasters and such impressions go a long way to determine how the audiences consume news items on television.

In a study titled "Credibility of TV News in a Developing Country: The Case of Bangladesh" Andaleeb, Rahman, Rajeb, Akter and Gulshan, (2012), conducted a survey using a multistage cluster sampling technique. Data was collected from 300 respondents via face-to-face interviews. Field interviewers explained the study and asked the interviewee to self-administer the questionnaire; occasionally, the interviewers filled out the questionnaire based on respondents' verbal responses. Using the regression analysis the study finding showed that clearly indicate that the audience judges TV news as credible. The study showed that the more the perceived expertise of the TV channels in delivering TV news, the more credible the news will be to the audience. The study also showed that the better the quality of the audio-visual elements when presenting TV news, the more credible the news will be to the audience. Lastly the study found that with improvements in presentation and creativity among the privately owned satellite TV channels, news has become the most popular program.

In a study titled "Influence of Gender Appeals on Audience Consumption of Television News" Agba, Henshaw and Ogri, (2018) examined the assumption that gender plays a crucial role in broadcasters' persuasive skills and the view that female or male broadcasters face differing gender-based challenges all require critical enquiry. The study was survey based and used the questionnaire and in-depth interview to solicit opinions of audience as well as broadcast scholars and professionals. The multistage and purposive sampling techniques was employed to select 219 respondents from Calabar Metropolis and six broadcast communication scholars in tertiary institutions. The Elaboration Likelihood Theory served as the theoretical framework. The study findings revealed that female newscasters are not more credible than their male counterparts and that physical appearance does not have much significance on the audiences' preference for news consumption. The study thus concluded that audience should be persuaded at all times to appreciate broadcast contents and not the gender-based issues associated with such contents.

Mitra, Webb and Wolfe (2014) in a study titled "Audience responses to the physical appearance of

television newsreaders". The study investigated the opinions of those who watch television news in relation to the appearance of news presenters through the use of 20 semi-structured interviews with female and male viewers and 167 questionnaires. The study found that audiences were well aware that female newsreaders may have been chosen for their appearance. The study also reported that many respondents thought that this was rather unjust. The audience felt that male newsreaders were credible whether they had grey hair or were young and good looking. Where women were glamorised they were often belittled and trivialised in terms of intelligence and abilities. The study also found that audiences were more interested in the actual news than newsreaders' appearance and some respondents wanted more diverse representations.

Akpoghiran, Umukoro and Okoro, (2017) in a study examined viewers' perception of female newsreaders' appearance on television and its influence on news attention. The study was anchored on social perception theory, which explains how people form impressions of and make inferences about other people. In order to determine this, two research approaches were adopted: research assistants rating scale and viewers' rating scale (VRS). The categories studied on female newsreader physical appearance were dress or attire, hairstyle, makeup/facial expression and voice quality. Three cable television stations were viewed. They were the Nigerian Television Authority (NTA); Channels Television and African Independent Television (AIT). The Krejcie Robert and Morgan Daryle sample size of 384 was adopted. However, 382 of the sample size were retrieved. Results showed that female newsreaders' appearance affects viewers' attention to news at the first few minutes of the news. While the female viewers are attracted to the general physical appearance, male viewers are attracted to facial beauty. The import of this is that physical appearance of a female newsreader distracts attention from the news if sexual appealing looks were applied. A moderate appearance was recommended for female newsreader.

3. Theoretical Framework

Klapper's 1960 perception theory is suitable for this study. Perception theory is one of the limited effects theories that show how people view things differently based on their needs, perceptions, beliefs, values, attitudes, and abilities. Four categories separate the theory (Asemah, Nwammuo & Nkwam-Uwaoma, 2017):

Selective exposure: People pick media messages depending on reach, accessibility, age, cultural acceptability, taboos, etc. The hypothesis, utilized in media and communication study, relates to people's inclination to favour information that supports their pre-existing opinions while rejecting contradicting information. People can't be impacted by communications they don't see, thus they may prevent information overload by selectively seeing particular messages (Griffin, 2012).

Selective perception: suggests that individuals would perceive communications based on their pre-existing ideas. This is typically impacted by social relationships since we decipher communication signals based on past experiences, emotions, wants, and memories. It's how people receive media messages while dismissing alternative views. It describes how individuals tend to view things according to their own frame of reference, needs, moods, and emotions (Asemah et al 2017).

Selective Retention: is the capacity to remember just particular messages. Choices, values, culture, emotions, etc. are some of the psychological factors that impact this category of perception.

Selective Attention: People choose which information to focus on. Messages that don't grab audiences' attention won't affect them. Advertisers utilize gimmicks to attract and keep audiences' attention. These systems help us absorb, recall, and interpret information in distinctive ways. Complex and not isolated, they function. Media messages are always competing (Asemah et al 2017).

Selective attention: is the process of filtering out information in which one has little interest, such as an adult listening to the news while a youngster watches a cartoon. This hypothesis is pertinent to this research since it says that people's perception of billboard messages and COVID-19 impacts their happiness and adoption.

Thus, the perception theory is relevant to this research because exposure to Television to a level that audience want such that greater levels of retention of attention in the audience can only be determined by if the psychologically feeling and level the audience think the message is credible enough. It means that the audience actually chose or determine what is credible and not the media.

4. Methodology

4.1 Study Group

This study used the survey method. The justification for the use of survey is to prompt reactions from the

sampled respondents. According to Asemah & Kierian, (2018) cited in Ayinla & Amenaghawon (2021) the justification for the use of survey to collect data for a study is in the fact that it is the most suitable method of collecting data connected to demographics, attitudes, opinions and perceptions. Thus the population of this study comprises residents of Osogbo the capital of Osun State Nigeria. According to National Population Commission estimate the population of Osogbo is 750,000, using the United Nations population projections of 2.6% increase from 2021 (Macrotrends n.d). The sample size of the population was 400 determined using Taro Yamane's sample size formula. The data collected from the questionnaire used in this research work were analysed using SPSS 23 package.

4.2 Study Design

A descriptive survey was conducted using residents of Oshogbo purposively selected by the researchers. Also, the questionnaires were distributed via face to face administration. Also, we considered that with the chosen respondents' level of maturity in age, reasoning and educational status, they could sensibly state their perception on the subject matter studied.

4.3 Instrument of Data Gathering

The researchers adopted a structured questionnaire using close-ended questions to elicit the various opinions of the respondents on the subject matter. To ensure validity of instrument, the face validity was done by submitting a drafted copy of the research instrument to a senior academic in mass communication that went through it and vetted the contents. Also a pilot study of 40 questionnaire was conducted for students of mass communication redeemers to find out how reliable and valid the survey is, then all grey areas in the questionnaire were then corrected base on the pilot study findings.

4.4 Administration of Instrument

Convenience sampling technique was used to select the participants. The questionnaire was distributed through research assistants in Oshogbo metropolis. The questionnaire was also designed to capture answers on respondents' demographics, their perceived opinion on news credibility of TV News presenters.

Sample:

Taro Yamane's formula was used to determine the sample size of this study; $n = N/1+N(e)^2$ where:

n= sample size

N = population

e = margin of error (0.05)

In the light of the above, the sample size for this research purpose is shown below:

$$= 750,000/1+750,000(0.05)^2$$

$$= 750,000/1+ 750,000 (0.0025)$$

$$= 750,000/1 + 1875$$

$$n = 399.78 \approx 400$$

4.5 Method of Analysis:

Data elicited based on research questions are presented using the Likert scale and analysed using the SPSS statistical tool. Responses are either accepted or rejected based on the value of the weighted mean for each response. A mean of 2.51 and below is accepted, a mean of 2.50 to 3.50 is indifferent, while a mean of 3.51 and above is rejected.

5. Presentation of Data

400 copies of the questionnaire were distributed and 392 were validly returned. The age range of the respondents was between 18 – 59 years and above. This is an indication that the respondents are matured enough to participate in the study. From the data obtained, male respondents were 178(45.4%) while the female respondents were 214(54.6%). Majority of the respondents were from the age bracket of 18 – 37 years of age (n=189, 48.2%), while 34.9% made up the number of respondents that fall within the age bracket of 38-59 (n=137) and the age range of 60+ (n=66, 16.8%). In terms of occupation, majority 195 (49.7%) are Entrepreneurs, while 66 (16.8%) constitute Civil servants, 91 (23.2%) indicated that they are Students, 40 (10.2%) indicated that they are retirees.

1. To determine whether the mode dressing of news presenters influence audience perception of TV news credibility.

Statements	S A	A	N	D	S D	M	Decision
Appearance of Newscaster attracts me to a TV News presentation	178	165	2	28	19	1.84	Accepted
I prefer news presenters to dress in native attire than foreign	221	161	4	2	4	1.49	Accepted
Foreign dressing makes Newscasters lose credibility	9	3	19	193	168	4.90	Rejected
Regardless of dress sense of presenter I would listen to news	203	131	21	31	6	1.74	Accepted
Newscasters dressing makes the story credible and believable	25	61	31	97	178	3.88	Rejected

Source: Field Survey, 2022.

The result of the analysis showed that the mean of 1.84 implies that majority of the respondent’s agreed that appearance of Newscaster attracts them to a TV News presentation. The result showed that for the second statement the mean of 1.49 implies that majority of the respondents agreed that they prefer news presenters to dress in native attire than foreign. Also, for the third statement the mean of 4.90 indicated that majority of respondents disagreed with the statement that foreign dressing makes Newscasters lose credibility. For the last statement the mean of 3.88 implies that majority of the respondents disagreed with the statement that Newscasters dressing makes the story credible and believable.

2. To find out how gender appeal of news presenters influence TV news credibility.

Statements	S A	A	N	D	S D	M	Decision
Female News presenters are more credible than their male Counterparts	9	27	1	154	201	4.30	rejected
Female news presenters are more intelligent than their male counterparts	12	24	6	159	191	4.26	rejected
Female news presenters are more honest than their Male Counterparts	6	2	1	172	211	4.48	rejected
More Females are assigned news casting roles than men.	154	89	6	111	32	2.43	accepted
The male voice is more believable than the female voice	22	34	9	156	171	4.07	rejected
Personality of presenter regardless of gender is what makes presentation credible	192	149	1	32	18	1.81	accepted

Source: Field Survey, 2022.

The result of the analysis showed that the mean of 4.30 implies that majority of the respondent’s disagreed with the first statement that female news presenters are more credible than their male counterparts. The result showed that for the second statement the mean of 4.26 implies that majority of the respondents disagreed with the statement that female news presenters are more intelligent than their male counterparts. Also, for the third statement the mean of 4.48 indicated that majority of respondents disagreed with the statement that female news presenters are more honest than their male counterparts. The result showed that for the fourth statement the mean of 2.23 implies that majority of the respondents agreed that more females are assigned news casting roles than men. The result also showed that for the fifth statement the mean of 4.07 implies that majority of the respondents disagreed with the statement that the

male voice is more believable than the female voice. For the last statement the mean of 1.81 implies that majority of the respondents agreed with the statement that Personality of presenter regardless of gender is what makes presentation credible.

3. To establish other factors that influence audiences' perception of TV news credibility.

Statements	S A	A	N	D	S D	M	Decision
I perceive foreign news channels more credible than local news channels	169	125	17	47	34	2.11	accepted
TV stations with better TV output is more credibility	69	41	14	121	147	3.60	rejected
beauty and colour of the news set and background is important and helpful to TV News presentation	111	102	7	89	83	2.82	indifferent
News stories are more credible when the news is anchored by more than one news presenter	106	91	6	113	76	2.90	Indifferent
Voice, Eloquence and pronunciations of news caster enhances my news consumption and credibility	171	82	12	74	53	2.38	accepted
News presentation using live on the spot news reporter enhances credibility of TV news.	131	163	3	41	54	2.29	accepted

Source: Field Survey, 2022.

The result of the analysis showed that the mean of 2.11 implies that majority of the respondent's agreed with the first statement that foreign news channels are more credible than local news channels. The result showed that for the second statement the mean of 3.60 implies that majority of the respondents disagreed with the statement that TV stations with better TV output is more credibility. Also, for the third statement the mean of 2.82 indicated that majority of respondents were indifferent about the statement that beauty and colour of the news set and background is important and helpful to TV News presentation. The result showed that for the fourth statement the mean of 2.90 implies that majority of the respondents were indifferent about the statement that news stories are more credible when the news is anchored by more than one news presenter. The result also showed that for the fifth statement the mean of 2.38 implies that majority of the respondents agreed with the statement that voice, eloquence and pronunciations of news caster enhances my news consumption and credibility. For the last statement the mean of 2.29 implies that majority of the respondents agreed with the statement that Voice, Eloquence and pronunciations of news caster enhances my news consumption and credibility.

6. Discussion of Findings

The findings of this study showed that mode of dressing of news presenters does not influences audience view or perception of TV news credibility. This can be related to the theory of selectivity that propounds that audience have choices especially as to the mental recast of a message so that its meaning is in line with a person's beliefs and attitudes. It follows a psychological process, which involves decoding of communication messages and ensuring that they align with your previous experiences and current

dispositions – needs, moods and memories. Andaleeb, Rahman, Rajeb, Akter and Gulshan, (2012), in their study found that rather than dressing technique of presentation and other audio-visual elements were are the heart of the discussion on what makes news credible in the eyes of the audience.

The data have shown, in general, that female newscasters are not more trustworthy than their male counterparts. This was seen across the board. When it comes to reporting the news, a newscaster's credibility may be gauged by the traits or personal attributes that he or she demonstrates to viewers or listeners in a way that compels them to trust the news being reported. This result is in consonance with Agba, Henshaw and Oгри, (2018) who found that the female newscasters are not more credible than their male counterparts and that physical appearance does not have much significance on the audiences' preference for news consumption. Although this is in variance with the findings from Mitra, Webb and Wolfe (2014) were the findings showed that respondent's perceived that women are chosen for the news casting role because of their beauty and men for their deep voice. Thus it is this present studies position that audience should be persuaded at all times to appreciate broadcast contents and not the gender-based issues associated with such contents. More investigation is required since it might be difficult to determine whether or not a newscaster is reliable while reporting the news. However, personal characteristics like as honesty and intellect may be certain methods to determine a newscaster's trustworthiness. However, queries such as "honesty and intelligence, can only be found via more investigation. Credibility has been identified as one of the three persuasive communicator factors, along with authority and social attractiveness, by communication scholars such as Perloff (2003, page

159), which makes it a very dominant determinant of persuasiveness. Other factors include social attractiveness and authority. In spite of the fact that the purpose of this study was not to create a comparison regarding the credibility of male and female newscasters, there are research implications involved in evaluating how audiences perceive the credibility of newsreaders depending on their gender.

Other factors that influence TV news credibility according to the findings of this study are content of the story, other aesthetic elements like the TV set, the presenters personality, eloquence, voice and using live on the spot news reports this is in line with the recommendations of Akpoghiran, Umukoro and Okoro, (2017) who recommended a moderate appearance was recommended for female newsreader. After finding that physical appearance of a female newsreader distracts attention from the news if sexual appealing looks were applied.

7. Conclusion

The results from this study established that audience do not perceive the mode of dressing and gender of news presenters as major influence to their view of TV news credibility, although result shows the subtle tilt to such areas it is very imperative that TV news look at source attractiveness and news credibility in the area of presenters and also other aesthetic elements so as to gain the viewer ship needed to be able to inform and educate the society.

8. Recommendations

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

- News reports should be complemented with pictures as this will strengthened news stories credibility.
- News presenters should undergo training and retraining in news presentation to catch up with fashion sense as well as best global practices not forgetting cultural difference in other to provide improved news content.
- Journalists should endeavour to check and recheck information to ensure source credibility.

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Masquerades in Africa: The Ebu Wonder

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Abstract. This paper studies the socio-cultural organizations in the African milieu with emphasis on the masquerade institution using the Ebu Wonder Masquerade Cult in Ebu community of Delta State, Nigeria, as a veritable example. In the African context, masquerades are believed to be ancestors who had returned from the world of the dead to the land of the living in order to watch over their loved ones. However, some believe that not all masquerades are spirits; they are only stage-managed by fun seeking individuals just for entertainment during festivities especially in the 21st century. It is on this premise that this study embarks on examining the origin, development and the nature of the Ebu Wonder Masquerade in the midst of the fact that distortion has crept into the institution due to supposed modernization. This it will do by employing the narrative and descriptive historical methods to analyse the data gathered from both primary (oral interview) within the subject area and secondary sources available on the subject. Thus, it was discovered that the Ebu Wonder Masquerade originated from the Igalaland, Middle belt of Nigeria, and has spiritual dynamics. This is such that before it performs, spiritual activities have to be carried out by its chief priest. More significantly, the masquerade appears to be a piece of cloth or mat on the floor before performance, but becomes as high as 50 feet during performance, and returns to its former state after performance.

Keywords: Ebu, Masquerade, Wonder, Origin, Cult.

1. Introduction

Masquerades and masquerading have remained major indices of the socio-cultural organization of a typical African and indeed, Nigerian organized community (Enedu, 2004). Masquerades, as believed in most

places, commonly represent ancestors who had returned to the land of the living to watch over those they left behind. They (masquerades) defended and safeguarded society and accordingly prevented all potent threats to their existence and that of related Institutions (Akubor, 2016). This is as Abdulkadir (1990) believes that throughout history, village ancestors (masquerades) performed the rites of transference and played a protective and regulatory role in the affairs of the living. Specifically, it governed the laws which were irrevocable and punishable by death.

In Igalaland, masquerades could be consulted for oath taking. If the gravity of the offence committed is high and defies possible human solution, the accused may go beyond swearing in the shrine. The traditionalist proceeds to present the masquerades before the accused for oath taking through which truth is determined and morality is enforced. Since oath is taken for exoneration or punishment, it has the function of deterring offenders and thereby reducing crime rate in the community (Adama, 2013).

Summarizing African masquerades from the Nigerian perspective, Akubor (2016) notes that:

“...among the Esan, the Erinni (Elimin masquerades) are organic to their myth of creation. In this way, they function as the major stabiliser of people’s destiny. As far as the people are concerned, they are ancestral spirits who periodically visit their living forebears in masquerade forms. Their visits are regarded as spiritual interventions to the world of the living and as a result are highly venerated. They are a symbolic resurrection of the ancestors. To the Ifeku-Ibaji, Egwu (masquerade) symbolised both the ancestral shrine as well as represented the resurrected spirits of a dead elder, whose appearance and performance played a protective and regulatory role in the affairs of the living.

Specifically, it governed the laws which were irrevocable and punishable by death. In the Ejagham society of Cross River, the task of detecting witches and wizards rested with the Echi-Obasi-njom (the masquerade), it usually carried out this function in a wheeling, gliding dance organised by the society. Echi-Obasi-njom was usually accompanied by attendants as it swiftly moved round the settlement in search of witches and wizards in their hide outs. All over Yoruba land, the Egungun represent the spirit of the ancestors who have descended from heaven/mountains. It celebrates a period when the dead interact with the living, as it is their responsibility to compel the living to uphold the ethical standards of past generations.

However, some are of the belief that not all masquerades are spirits, they are merely inspired by dreams (Imoukhede, 1991). Others believe they are merely made up costumes. Thus, describing the Nzam Wonder masquerade, Perani and Wolf posit that the masquerade is constructed with a bamboo frame that supports a long tube of white, fringed, strip-woven cloth that allows the encased dancer to elongate and collapse the tube with a stick, causing it to sway back and forth like another worldly apparition. They went on to say that it can see and move simultaneously in all directions while growing in height to around fifteen feet before suddenly collapsing (Madukasi, 2020). According to Onah (2004), masquerades are people wearing mask, strongly believed to impersonate brave people (men) who should have passed away long ago. In some cases however, masquerades may also be seen as representing important totemic animals.

In the African context, masquerades perform a number of functions that make them to be dreaded and revered in most cases. For instance, Igala masquerades are mechanisms of social control and are effective in the elimination or control of aberrant or unacceptable behaviour (Sergent, 1988). *Ajamalede* masquerade could detect any social ills in the society without information. If any stolen property is presented to them or is kept at a place they coincidentally visit, they do not hesitate to voice it out immediately (Amade & Atule, 2009). It exposes and disciplines thieves, fornicators, indolent and naughty people, and sorcerers, men who are diabolical, girls and women who are wayward, murderers and any act capable of tarnishing the image of Igala community. It does these to people through physical confrontation. It also rebukes erring members of the society, calling out their names, warning and cursing them publicly. Ebu, a typical

Igala community, is not exempted from this socio-cultural institution and norm.

1.1 Geo-History of Ebu

Ebu is a community in Oshimili South Local Government Area of Delta State of Nigeria. It is a distinct Igala speaking community located in the western side of River Niger in the sense that it is surrounded by Igbo speaking groups comprising of Illah, Ezi, Ukala–Okwuta, Onitsha-Olona, Issele–Uku, Issele-Ikpitime and so on (Asenime, 2015:1). It has an estimated population of about fifteen thousand (15,000) and an area of about 123 square kilometers (Okoja and Asenime, 2014). Ebu is bounded in the North by Illah, in the East, by Illushi, in the West by Ukala-Okwuta in the South by Ezi. It lies on latitude of 06.52 and 06.28 North-East of Ubiaja (Edo State) and Longitude 06.35 and 06.29 North–East of Ogwashi–Uku (Asenime, 2015).

The socio-cultural aspect of the people included festivities which could be sports related, the coronations of a new king, or the burial of a chief or prominent leader. There also exist festivals such as the Ubi festival, the annual new yam festival known as the Utu festival, and so on. Notable among the activities in these occasions is the performance of masquerades to the thrills of the people in attendance.

One of the masquerades in Ebu community is the Dancing Masquerade particularly known as the ‘Ebu Wonder’ and by implication, has attracted global attention to Ebu community, Nigeria at large and the wider Africa.

This paper is thus geared towards tracing the history of this masquerade, why it is referred to as Ebu Wonder, the significance of the masquerade to Ebu people and the neighbouring peoples. However, there was a people before the socio-cultural institution that brought the masquerade to the fore. Thus, the origin of the Ebu people will receive adequate attention.

1.2 Traditions of Origin

It is instructive to note that most of the cultural heritages (political organization, socio-cultural institutions) of Ebu people tilt towards that of the Igala. Chief among these aspects of culture is language, which is the basic element that defines a people. Thus, Atanda (1980:2) succinctly puts it that language is one of the basic determinants in considering ethnic group’s identity because it is the means of communication of which when it is lacking the corporate existence and separate identity of such an ethnic group become impossible.

More so, the Ebu traditional belief system and masquerade institution have a lot of similarities with that of Igala. For instance, the Ebu, like the Igala, believe in life after death and in the active participation of the departed ancestors in all of the activities of their erstwhile community. The reappearance of the ancestor in the physical world to participate symbolically in the affairs of the community is what the Igala demonstrates by 'Egungun' (masquerade) which is replicated in Ebu. Bradbury (1970:260) thus avers that among the Yoruba people, the Egungun demonstrates both ethical and moral behaviours of the people, exposing the strengths and weaknesses of the community with the hopes of encouraging behaviours more fitting of their descendants. This is as Olomola (2000:60-63) notes that Egungun symbolized the totality and ways of life of Ado people and exhibits the best in their aesthetics. Achebe (1992:122) on the anthropological dimension of the traditions of masquerading presents the Igbo perception of the Egwugwu (Egungun) as the presence of the dead ancestors that must be revered and feared.

In an oral interview, Ogedoh (an Ebu chief), giving account of these similarities explained that:

There are some aspects of our traditions which have been copied from the Igala people, especially the masquerade thing. The Igala people are very good masquerade dancers and we have always had this relationship. As a result, our people often cross to these places to learn and come back here to display the dances. When we sing masquerade songs we sing in Igala.

The above account shows that the Igala people have always had effective influence on Ebu people which can be seen in the striking similarities in language, masquerade institutions, traditional beliefs in the metaphysical and their belief in Ojo (God). At such, the masquerade institution represented by the Ebu Wonder will be examined subsequently.

1.3 Origin of Ebu Wonder

The Ebu Wonder, which belongs to an exclusive secret cult known as the 'Iya Afiteju', is a dancing masquerade considered to be an important feature in the social life of the Ebu people of Delta state. The masquerade revolves around entertainment and culture preservation and has attracted global recognition to Ebu community. It impresses its audience by its incredible display of magical feats and its ability to manifest into different sizes. For instance, it could be as flat as a mat and at the next instance, as tall as an Iroko tree. The Wonder is regarded by observers as intriguing, mysterious and

is dreaded with awe. What astonishes most people about the masquerade is that it is essentially a piece of cloth woken up with a gunshot from the box where it is kept; at that instance, it becomes as tall as 20 feet. After its performance, it deflates and returns to being just a piece of cloth.

The masquerade has attracted tourists to the Ebu community which in turn boosts trade and commerce in the community. A great number of Ebu sons and daughters and even those in diaspora come home just to see the masquerade in action. The masquerade literally transforms the serene scene of village life to a commercial hub driving swam of tourists, researchers, fun seekers, business people to Ebu. The masquerade has also been invited by several dignitaries within and without the shores of Ebu to perform at social events which include special occasions such as the coronation of new kings and death of prominent individuals. Like so many masquerade secret societies in Africa, the origin of the Ebu wonder masquerade cult is shrouded in mystery.

One account claims that the Ebu wonder was inspired by dreams. The purported founder, Onome, claimed to have had dreams where the masquerade appeared and taught him some dance steps. When he woke up, he told his people about these dreams and selected about twenty men who he taught these dance steps. Thus, the Ebu wonder masquerade cult was birthed (Interview with Okagidi).

In another light, one of the earliest members of the Wonder cult strongly believes that the Ebu wonder masquerade society was founded in the early 1960's. According to this account, during the funeral of an illustrious daughter of Ebu, her son brought a group of masquerades from Iguedo in Anambra state to perform. The displays of this group intrigued the people of Ebu, the king of Uchebe then selected about twenty agile young men to follow the group back to Iguedo in order to learn and master the arts and intricacies of the wonder dance (Interview with Ajalama).

However, it is believed that the masquerade cult diffused from Igala, through the Ibaji area into a boundary community, Nzam, in northern part of Anambra State. This is based on the fact that the Igala people also have a similar masquerade which is called Akwujune. This masquerade has similar characteristics with the Nzam Wonder and the Ebu Wonder. The Igala relations with the people within the Niger-Benue Confluence area as a result of trade, migration and other factors suffice the origin of the

Ebu Wonder to Igala. Thus, it becomes safe to state that the Ebu Wonder was cloned from the Akwujune masquerade of the Igala people. It should also be noted that the Ebu Wonder masquerade began in Uchebe before it spread to the other villages in Ebu.

2. Description

The Ebu Wonder is one of the tallest masquerades in the history of African masking tradition. It is usually brought in a box by the members of the cult and towers as high as 50 feet when performing. Its performance is triggered when a gunshot is fired into the air as the members of the cult chant some incantations and play some musical instruments

which include four-drums [Okoga], flute [Oja] and wooden clapper [Aja-Oja] while the spectators watch as the masquerade begins to grow rapidly to the sky.

Onwuejeogwu (1981:91) asserts that the musicians are all members of the masquerades -minimal lineage. During the outing ceremony, the performers usually sum up the progress of the previous year with the drums, praise the wonder masquerade and wish everybody well. Echezona (1963) argues that the masquerade does not come out to dance unless his royal drums invite it; then it appears with his drummers dancing and chanting while the excited crowds cheer for joy.



Fig. 1 The Ebu Wonder in action



Fig. 2 Ebu Wonder in action



Fig. 3: the Nzam Wonder in Action.

Source: Madukasi, 2020

3. Doctrine of the Ebu Wonder Masquerade Cult

The masquerade cult is not open to all as a result of some of the intricacies surrounding it. Traditionally, it is a sacred institution that requires high level of spiritual, emotional and physical discipline before one could be initiated into its system. For one, its members are essentially men; women have been excluded from sharing in the secrets of the cult for they are considered to be weak and fickle, and at such, are therefore not fit to take part in them. It is believed that any meeting between a woman and the masquerade would have adverse effects on both parties. More harm would come to the woman and the masquerade would lose something regarding its mystery. This is in similitude with the Nzam Wonder masquerade, where a pregnant woman is forbidden to see the masquerade in order not to jeopardize her safe delivery (Madukasi: 123). Apart from this fear, there is the desire to avert the wrath of the spirits whose visit to mankind in the form of masquerades is a great honour, which must not be abused. They are mindful of the fact, in their belief, that these ancestral spirits are superior to mere mortals and constitute an unusual phenomenon when they assume physical forms (Ude :74).

The process of initiation into the masquerade cult differs in villages, but one central theme is that the initiates who are usually males of certain age limit are made to undergo cleansing. After the initiation, the men are subjected to an oath of secrecy since they are not allowed to disclose the mystery surrounding the Ebu Wonder Cult to anyone especially women. Failure to keep these secrets has its consequences which includes mysterious illness or death.

Non-initiates are not allowed to enter the shrine of the Ebu Wonder; they are also barred from partaking in any sacrifice offered to the masquerade. When the Ebu Wonder masquerade is performing non-initiates are not allowed to enter into its circle, if they do so

they would be made to pay a fine as pronounced by the priest. The fine could be in form of a live goat or huge sum of money. Initiates of the Ebu Wonder cult should not be seen with their follow member's wife in a compromising position as this attracts a heavy fine.

A major high point of the masquerade doctrine was the ban on video cameras. Whilst the masquerade approaches the festival grounds, all cameras are announced to be switched off as tradition forbids anyone from taking the pictures of the Wonder. This was because any attempt to do that will render that device non-functional. However, the opposite is what obtains today as people are allowed to take pictures of the masquerade from afar.

The Ebu Wonder masquerade cult is seen as sacred and powerful, highly revered and dreaded. There is a general belief that the Ebu Wonder is a spirit in physical manifestation. For the Wonder masquerade to appear, the leader of the group has to pray to the ancestors, libation of palm wine is poured and messages of supplication sent to the ancestors. Then an invocation leads to the emergence of the spirit, a similar ritual is carried out that enables the spirit return peacefully to its abode after performance (Interview with Ajalama).

4. Administration of the Ebu Wonder Masquerade Cult

4.1 Atama

Atama is the head of the masquerade cult. He has a lot of spiritual powers acquired through sorcery and herbal art. He is the chief priest of the Ebu Wonder shrine. He gives protective cover against spiritual attacks from witches and other demonic forces that are believed to hover around the scene of performance. This is why as the chief priest of the Ebu Wonder cult he usually engages in a lot of

divinations, sacrifices and rituals virtually on a daily basis throughout the year. The Atama is seen as the physical supreme essence representing all other unseen supportive spiritual forces that the masquerade may possess. All other members of the masquerade cult take instructions from him.

4.2 Ogah

The Ogah comprises of two able bodied young men who are in charge of the entertainment of the masquerade cult. They provide refreshment for the members. The Ogah are usually the youngest members and act as messengers of the Atama. When it is time for meetings and social outings, they go out to inform the other members of the time, date and venue of these meetings. They ensure that the outing of the masquerade is a success.

4.3 Itah

These are able bodied men who have been tested in warfare. They are also said to possess metaphysical powers. In action, their presence can send fright down the spine of non-initiates. Their main duty is to maintain law and order and to protect all participants and spectators; they attack and eject from the scene of performance, any foreign or obstructing elements. They are usually made up of four members. The Itahs usually join forces with the Atama to provide protective cover during performances such that while the Atama takes charge of the spiritual realm, the Itahs handle the physical as the masquerade performs.

4.4 Club Members

This club is made up of the ex-Atamas. The scope of membership and activities include different age grades. They do not necessarily carry out serious functions, but their input is very much valued in the masquerade cult. They act like members of the jury when other members are being tried in the masquerade cult (Interview with Okoka).

5. Conclusion

The paper essentially discussed the socio-cultural milieu of the Ebu people of Delta State, Nigeria as represented by the Ebu Wonder Masquerade Cult. It started out with an in-depth description of the geographical location of the Ebu people. And as it is clear that there cannot be a king without a kingdom, it went ahead to trace the origin of the people to Igala with sufficient evidence. This is in response to the watery controversy surrounding the origin of the Ebu people where it has been claimed that the people

came elsewhere other than Igala. The settlement pattern of the people was also not left untouched.

More importantly, the work delved into the Ebu Wonder Masquerade Cult which represents a sizeable aspect of the people's socio-cultural life. Thus, it traced the origin of the masquerade cult to Igala. Though there is an account that traced its origin to the present Anambra State east of the Niger, evidence suffices that this later account does not hold water, rather, all the available evidence point towards the direction of Igala.

Furthermore, the study described how, where and when the Ebu wonder itself performs. It also unveiled most of the initiation processes into the masquerade cult; who is eligible to be a member and who is not, and why. It also enumerated the administrative structure of the cult and their individual responsibilities before, during and after the performance of the Ebu Wonder, emphasizing that while some of these roles are spiritual, others are physical.

The Ebu Wonder has over time, become a means of identification for the people of Ebu of Delta State such that anywhere and at any level one mentions they are from Ebu, the next thing that comes to mind is 'Ebu Wonder'. However, the spiritual relevance of the masquerade is fast fading into the whims and caprices of 21st century modernization.

For instance, in the similitude of the Nzam Wonder masquerade, where a pregnant woman is forbidden to see the masquerade in order to guarantee her safe delivery; before now, it was forbidden to take the photograph of the Ebu Wonder, as any attempt to do that will render that device non-functional, but the opposite is what obtains today. Also, the members of the cult are now using it as a money making adventure where the mystical and intriguing performance of the Ebu Wonder masquerade has been relegated to a mere source of social entertainment within Ebu and its environs.

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The Effect of Accent Familiarity on the Intelligibility of Native Speaker Speech

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Abstract. In native and non-native speaker discourse, lack of intelligibility is often identified as one of the main hindrances of effective communication. A number of empirical investigations have attempted to pinpoint the variables which determine level of intelligibility in discourse and familiarity of the listener to the speaker's accent is one of such established variables. In this study, an attempt is made to correlate the level of accent familiarity with the degree of listener's understanding of the speaker's speech with a view to examining the impact of this variable on speech comprehension. The focus is native and non-native speech, specifically, British speakers of English and Nigerian listeners. The outcome of the assessment is that the degree of listener's familiarity with an accent determines the level of comprehension of the speaker.

Keywords: Accent Familiarity, Intelligibility, Native Speaker Speech.

1. Introduction

In recorded history, the present global spread and use of English is unparalleled. An estimate provided by Crystal of the number of English speakers is about two billion (2008: 13). Earlier estimates provided by Crystal puts Inner circle/native speaker population at 380 million while the Outer circle and Expanding circle populations are put at 500 million and 1,000 million respectively (1995: 61).

This global spread of the English language in terms of use and characteristics has resulted in concerns over the issue of maintaining mutual *intelligibility* between diverse speakers of the language (Christophersen, Kachru, Munro, van der Walt, and Rajadurai). The most recent of these concerns have made calls for rigorous comparison and contrasting of native and non-native accents of English with a view to assisting interlocutors achieve

communication goals. These concerns have been voiced in relation to all the dimensions of language study but achieving intelligibility is perhaps most crucial at the linguistic level of phonetics/phonology where variation is most noticeable. The imperative of achieving speech intelligibility is seen in the current situation among speakers of English where such prominent variations sometimes occur to the extent that speakers of different accents of English have even imagined their interlocutor to be speaking another language entirely and not merely another variety of English. Numerous instances of misunderstanding have been observed and while some of the incidents are hilarious (Smith and Christopher, 2009: 92-3; Shockey, 2003: 119), others are serious, sometimes leading to disastrous consequences (Brown, 1990:79; Atechi 2004: 60). An example of a funny incident arising out of intelligibility failure is that narrated by Smith and Christopher (op.cit) in which Salmon Rushdie's wife, an English woman met an Indian intellectual on the train. They were both conversing in English but each thought the other was speaking another language. The traumatic experience of a 19-year-old Dutch undergraduate has also been narrated. After studying English for 6 years at a grammar school and 1 year at a Dutch university, this student went to England for the first time and had to ask for directions to the bus station from a porter. However, he could not understand a single word the porter said to him. Brown also reported that in England, 'many overseas students are unable to understand English as spoken by university and college lecturers, sometimes to such an extent that they give up their course of studies'. More serious consequences of lack of intelligibility have been reported in possibly the most deadly accident in aviation history. In this incident, 583 people lost their lives in an air crash because a Tenerife airport traffic controller and a German pilot did not understand each other even though they were both speaking English. This

incident led to major communication and language training reforms in the airline industry.

However, one crucial variable which is often a determinant of intelligibility is familiarity. Two types of familiarity affect intelligibility. They are accent familiarity and topic familiarity. However, while scholars have sufficiently established that topic familiarity influences intelligibility, the same conclusion has not been adequately established for accent familiarity. This paper seeks to examine the implications of listener's familiarity with an accent and the influence it may have on the intelligibility of the speaker's speech to the listener. The outcome will make a contribution to the debate on the impact of familiarity on speech intelligibility especially with regards to communication between native and non-native speakers of English. This study is concerned with two accents of English; the Standard British English accent (which phoneticians know as Received Pronunciation) and the Nigerian accent of English or NE.

2. Literature Review

Generally, intelligibility refers to level of understanding. The framework of intelligibility testing was first proposed by Catford (1950: 7-17) in a landmark treatise where it is stated that speech is intelligible "if the hearer understands the words i.e. if his response is appropriate to the linguistic forms of the utterance" (op.cit). Familiarity is a variable which is often associated with intelligibility through the relations of listener's familiarity with the accent and listener's familiarity with the topic. This paper focuses on the familiarity of the speaker's accent which in this case is RP to Nigerian listeners.

An examination of the literature on correlating familiarity with intelligibility shows that there does not seem to be a consensus on the impact of familiarity on intelligibility. On one hand, Gass & Varonis 1996: 65-89; Gupta, 2006; 15-31; Major et al, 2005:37-69, and a few others all agree that intelligibility is affected by accent. On the other hand, Strevens 1965: 185-205, and some others disagree with this proposition.

Gass and Varonis (op.cit) investigated the hypothesis that familiarity with a non-native speaker's accent facilitates understanding. The effect of four specific variables on intelligibility were tested. The variables are: familiarity with topic, familiarity with non-native speakers of a different language background, familiarity with non-native speakers of the same language background and familiarity with the same

speaker. The speakers included Arabic and Japanese speakers of English who produced tape recorded samples of speech. 142 native speakers of English listened to the speakers. The findings were as follows: (a) Familiarity with the topic of discourse greatly facilitates intelligibility; (b) familiarity with non-native speech in general facilitates comprehension; (c) familiarity with a particular non-native accent facilitates comprehension of the speech of another non-native of that language background and; (d) Familiarity with a particular non-native speaker facilitates comprehension of that person's speech. It was concluded that the listener's familiarity with the topic greatly facilitates the interpretation of the entire message.

Gupta (2006) investigated the mutual intelligibility of RP (Received Pronunciation) and the Singaporean accent of English as well as the effect of familiarity on the intelligibility of the speech of both groups. The results indicated that familiarity has an impact on intelligibility. Certain distinct features of both accents were identified as leading to lack of intelligibility. Further examination of these features revealed that these were accent features which were unfamiliar to both groups of speakers.

Munro and Derwing (2008) studied the acquisition of English vowels by second language learners of English. They found that improved intelligibility occurred especially with vowels that had a high frequency in words. This result supports the observation that familiarity affects intelligibility.

Bross also supports this position by claiming that 'the key to intelligibility is the concept of calibration' (1992:24-65). Calibration is the listener's ability to make rapid correlations between the different sounds of an unfamiliar accent with the sounds of the listener's own accent. It is argued that once the listener has been able to calibrate the message, then intelligibility will naturally take place.

On the other hand, Eisenstein & Verdi, Strevens, Eisenstein and Hopper all disagree with the proposition that a high degree of accent familiarity guarantees intelligibility. They base their conclusion on the results of empirical studies which seem to indicate that accent familiarity is not a significant determinant of intelligibility.

Major, Fitzmaurice, Bunta and Balasubramanian (2005:37-65) also attempted to measure the intelligibility of a native speaker accent to non-native listeners. According to them, the research was necessary because 'it is widely believed that listeners

understand some dialects more easily than others, although there is very little research that has rigorously measured the effects' (37). The research participants consisted of 180 potential takers of TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) who were all enrolled at either pre-degree courses or were undergraduates at various American colleges and universities. They comprised Chinese, Japanese and Spanish second language speakers of English as listeners and 60 undergraduate and postgraduate native speakers of Standard American English from U.S universities as speakers. The objective system of assessment was employed through a test based on recordings of 12 short lectures. The participants were questioned based on the recordings. For adequate comparison, other speakers were included in the test. They include speakers of Southern American English, African American English (AAVE), Australian English and Indian English. After the recordings were made, they were edited and test tapes were constructed from the initial studio recordings. Multiple-choice answers followed the test items. Statistical analysis showed that both native and non-native listeners are affected by a speaker's dialect and for non-native listeners, there were no significant differences between Standard American and South American speakers (58). The conclusions further buttressed the point that the speakers of Standard American English were not significantly more intelligible than speakers of other varieties because it is maintained that:

[T]he results do not...support...that native-English speaking listeners and ESL listeners would perform better on listening comprehension tests in English based on lectures delivered by native speakers of Standard American English (58).

This suggests that familiarity does not affect intelligibility.

Smith & Rafiqzad (1979: 371-380) examined the intelligibility of both RP and Standard American English to second language speakers of English. Among the other English varieties which were tested were educated accents from China, India, Indonesia, Japan, Papua New Guinea, the Phillipines and Taiwan. The major aim of the study was to help determine: 'what differences, if any, there are in the intelligibility...of selected taped material of nine national varieties. There were 29 undergraduate participants and they were all balanced for age and sex. The test material consisted of a recording on forms of address used in each speaker's country to address outsiders in English. The difficulty level of the test materials was controlled and judged to be about the same level through the following means:

[B]oth speaker and respondent were fully proficient in English and believed themselves to be educated speakers of their national variety of English, each person spoke clearly and the number of embedded sentences and the speed of delivery were approximately the same.

Thereafter, a cloze procedure of the passage was constructed with every 7th word deleted from the passage, leaving ten blanks which the listeners had to fill in. The passage was then presented to the listeners to test intelligibility (word/utterance recognition). In addition, a subjective questionnaire was also presented to the listeners. The listeners were to indicate how easy or difficult it was to understand the speaker. The important findings of this study include the following results: (a) the native speakers were not as able to correctly identify their fellow native speakers as speaking standard varieties of English as the non-native speakers were; (b) the non-native speakers was more critical and seemed to have stricter criterion for identification of standard English, many thought that the speaker of Standard American English was speaking non-standard English; and lastly, (c) the results easily support the interpretation that it is possible for Standard English to be spoken with many different accents. But what was perhaps the most striking results of the investigation is the conclusion that 'native speakers (from Britain and the United States) were not found to be the most easily understood...thus, being a native speaker does not seem to be as important as being fluent in English' (441). This finding also supports the view that accent familiarity is not a determinant of intelligibility.

For topic familiarity, there is some evidence that the use of technical words and specific register reduces intelligibility. For instance, Smith and Rafiqzad observed that intelligibility level differed according to the difficulty level of the passages used in their experiment. However, there is no such consensus for the conclusions on accent familiarity and intelligibility.

3. Research Methodology

There were several important considerations involved in the selection of the speakers for this study. The first consideration was this: which type of RP accent is the study focused on? This question is important because no accent is homogeneous as a lot of variability is found within all accents. For the sake of proper contextualization and clarity, mainstream RP which contains features which form a central tendency for all RP accents was selected as our RP

variety. Therefore, 16 Britons who use mainstream RP accent were selected. 8 male speakers and 8 female speakers were selected. The second consideration was the level of education of the speakers. As the Britons in consideration are mother tongue speakers of English, level of education was really of no consequence, but in the interest of homogeneity of sample population, university undergraduates were selected so that both speakers and listeners would have a comparable level of education.

The selection of speakers was done within certain principles. The principles were set down to ensure a certain level of homogeneity among the informants. The principles are stated below:

- born and bred in Britain, more specifically in England
- parents must be educated (at least up to university level)
- never have been outside England for a considerable length of time
- a university undergraduate
- attended a public school.

The speakers were carefully selected from a pool of 70 informants. They were individually engaged in a chat on their personal biography and information on these issues was sought. Based on their responses, 16 speakers were finally selected. It should be added here that all the undergraduate RP speakers were students of the University of Leeds.

The listeners were selected based on a similar set of criteria. Education is an important consideration which was used in the selection of both speakers and listeners. For the purposes of this research 'education' meant a minimum educational qualification of School Certificate. Other criteria used in the selection of listeners are as follows: Firstly, the listener must be a Nigerian, born and bred in Nigeria of Nigerian parents from any of the three major ethnic groups. Secondly, he/she must speak a Nigerian indigenous language with some fluency. Thirdly, listeners must be second language speakers of English. 144 Nigerian listeners were selected using these criteria. In addition to this, 16 Nigerians who had a length of residence (LOR) of a minimum of 10 years in the UK were selected. This group represents the Nigerians with some degree of familiarity with the standard British English accent. The ratio of Nigerian listeners living in the UK to the other group of Nigerians listeners involved in the study was 1:10.

The speech of the sixteen RP speakers was recorded along the sections of: connected speech, phonemes, stress and intonation. The speech recording was presented to the selected 160 Nigerians. The listeners were arranged into groups of ten and instructed to listen to the recordings and write down what they heard i.e. ten Nigerians listened to one RP speaker. Thereafter, a comparison of the speakers' utterances and the listeners' written responses was done. Scores were given for the correct responses and the scores were averaged over the ten listeners involved for each speaker. Table 1 below shows the scores in percentage values.

Table I: Mean Intelligibility Scores in Percentages

Listeners in groups of 10	Connected Speech	Phonemes	Stress	Intonation
Set 1	64.5	27.6	98.0	53.2
Set 2	64.6	28.7	98.0	61.9
Set 3	47.2	29.8	96.0	58.7
Set 4	45.1	39.3	98.0	55.2
Set 5	56.2	44.9	96.0	55.6
Set 6	50.7	37.8	98.0	58.5
Set 7	53.6	35.8	96.0	68.0
Set 8	61.5	36.3	100	46.1
Set 9	66.1	38.7	98.0	48.0
Set 10	55.4	29.4	96.0	47.6
Set 11	70.8	38.1	98.0	54.0
Set 12	71.0	40.3	94.0	46.1
Set 13	74.8	38.3	96.0	67.1
Set 14	78.6	37.2	96.0	43.1
Set 15	64.4	38.4	94.0	47.2
Set 16	71.7	39.6	96.0	42.0

Table 11 below shows the effect of the listener's degree of familiarity on intelligibility. The listening test scores of the sixteen (16) Nigerians resident in the UK (LOR: Minimum of ten years) is presented.

Table II: The Effect of the Listener’s Degree of Familiarity on Intelligibility

Listener ID	Test 1 Connected Speech	Test 2 Minimal Pairs	Test 3 Sentence Stress	Test 4 Intonation
L10	77	50	100	75
L20	85	55	100	75
L30	67	54	100	73
L40	71	51	100	70
L50	77	57	80	82
L60	74	63	100	83
L70	73	57	100	79
L80	81	58	100	69
L90	82	50	100	74
L100	64	52	100	59
L110	83	57	100	58
L120	93	67	100	73
L130	83	59	100	79
L140	82	52	100	64
L150	75	54	100	43
L160	80	54	100	48
Average	77.9%	55.6%	98.7%	69.0%

Sixteen (16) out of the one hundred and sixty (160) Nigerian listeners involved in this study were Nigerian undergraduates in the UK. These 16 are representative of Nigerian diasporic dwellers (UK). The scores indicate that they correctly identified a higher number of units than the other one hundred and forty four (144) Nigerians who are resident here in Nigeria.

This study corroborates the view that accent familiarity correlates highly with intelligibility. Our juxtaposition of the performances of the Nigerians resident in Nigeria with that of the Diasporic dwellers showed the relevance of degree of familiarity to intelligibility. With a range of 64% and 93%, almost all of the Nigerians in this group (Nigerians living in the U.K) scored higher than the general intelligibility average of 62%, thus implying that high familiarity with an accent correlates with high intelligibility. The Nigerian listener who obtained the highest score is a female student at the University of Leeds who has worked part-time for about three years as a telephone operator. The job is similar to a public relations job which involves a lot of interaction with the members of the public. This particular listener seems to have developed the requisite skills for highly efficient listening demonstrating that calibration of an accent sufficiently assists the listener to achieve greater listening proficiency.

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