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CONTENTS

1. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF COMPENSATION IN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTOR IN NIGERIA
   - MADU, ABDULRAZAK YUGUDA & MADU, MUSTAPAHUNA
     ............................................................................................... 1

2. PATTERNS OF WORKPLACE VIOLENCE AMONG WOMEN IN INFORMAL SECTOR IN SOUTH WEST, NIGERIA
   - ADEJUMO GBADEBO OLUBUNMI (Ph. D) & AZUH, DOMINIC (Ph. D)
     ............................................................................................... 9

3. POLITICAL CORRUPTION AND NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA
   - EGHAREVBA, E. MATTHEW (Ph.D) & CHIAZOR, A. IDOWU (Ph.D)
     ............................................................................................... 14

4. NIGERIANS AND GLOBALIZATION: COMPELLED ACCEPTANCE OF IMPORTED SECONDHAND
   COMMODITIES AS INDEX OF DECLINE IN HUMAN CONDITION IN A MARGINAL ECONOMY
   - NDUKAEEZE NWABUEZE , PhD, LL.B., BL
     ............................................................................................... 24

5. INTERNET SERVICES AND SOCIAL ORDER IN NIGERIA
   - OYENUGA, A.S. & ODUNAIKE B. A.
     ............................................................................................... 40

6. PUBLIC POLICY AGENDA SETTING IN NIGERIA: AN OVERVIEW
   - JEREMIAH T. VAMBE (Ph.D) & AHMED, D. TAFIDA (Ph.D)
     ............................................................................................... 45

7. RETIREMENT CHALLENGES AND MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES AMONG RETIRED CIVIL SERVANTS IN
   KOGI STATE
   - ABUBAKAR IDU YUNUSA
     ............................................................................................... 53

8. ASSESSMENT OF FINANCIAL PERFORMANCE OF ANKPA LOCAL GOVERNMENT COUNCIL OF KOGI
   STATE
   - ABUBAKAR IDU YANUSA
     ............................................................................................... 67

9. PROXIMATE DETERMINANTS OF WOMEN’S USE OF BIRTH CONTROL METHODS IN OTA, OGUN
   STATE
   - OLUJIDE A. ADEKEYE, OLUREMI H. ABIMBOLA, ADEUSI, S. O. & ADENIKE E. IDOWU
     ............................................................................................... 79
| 10. | IMPACT OF NEIGHBORHOOD, AND PEER PRESSURE ON ADOLESCENTS DELINQUENT BEHAVIOUR IN IBADAN METROPOLIS |
| - | AJIBOYE ISAAC OYELEKE |

| 11. | MASS MEDIA AND TERRORISM: WHO CALLS THE SHOTS? |
| - | KENECHUKwu, s. a, EZEKIEL S. ASEMwA & LEO O.N. EDEGOH, |

| 12. | GOVERNMENT SPENDINGS AND POVERTY REDUCTION IN NIGERIAN’S ECONOMIC GROWTH |
| - | OKULEGU BETHRAN ENYIM |

| 13. | MODERNIZATION AND AGEING PATTERNS IN NIGERIA |
| - | CHIJOKE EGWU |

| 14. | EVALUATING AGRICULTURE AS A SUSTAINABLE TOOL FOR POVERTY REDUCTION: THE EXPERIENCE OF ABAKALIKI URBAN, EBOYI STATE |
| - | OKULEGU BETHRAN ENYIM & NWEZE PAUL NWEZE |

| 15. | PARADOX OF ‘WARNING STRIKE’ IN STATE- SECTOR INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS IN NIGERIA |
| - | NDUKAEZE NWABUEZE, PhD, LLB. BL. |

| 16. | FACTORS INFLUENCING THE CHOICE OF FAMILY SIZE AMONGST FEMALE HEALTH PROFESSIONALS IN UDUTH SOKOTO |
| - | OKOLO, N. C. (Ph.D) & OKOLO, C. A. (MB BS) |

| 17. | TOWARDS INTEGRATING TRADITIONAL AND MODERN COMMUNICATION SYSTEMS FOR EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION IN NIGERIA |
| - | NICHOLAS S. IWOKWAGH, Ph.D |

<p>| - | ONWUBERE, CHIDINMA HENRIETTA (Ph.D) |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>CLIMATE CHANGE AND THE NIGER DELTA: SOME SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPLICATIONS AND COPING STRATEGIES</td>
<td>WILCOX, ROGERS I., ESSIEN, ANIEDI U. &amp; ANTHONY P. AKADI</td>
<td>176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>BROADCAST MEDIA PRODUCTION METHODS, PROCESSES AND PROBLEMS FOR ADVERTISING COPIES</td>
<td>ZORTE N. MAAMAA, Ph.D</td>
<td>182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>NEWS VALUES AND PUBLIC INTERESTS: TWO DEBATABLE CONCERNS</td>
<td>ZORTE N. MAAMAA, Ph.D</td>
<td>188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>AUDIENCE PERCEPTION OF THE USE OF BILLBOARD IN SHOWCASING GOVERNMENT’S SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS: A STUDY OF ANAMBRA STATE INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY BILLBOARD</td>
<td>EZEGWU DANIEL T. &amp; MBONU ALFRED NWANKWO</td>
<td>194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>ANALYSIS OF ANTI GRAFT WAR AS AN ANTIDOTE TO NIGERIA’S CRISIS OF CORRUPTION</td>
<td>LAWAL SALEH &amp; MUHAMMAD LAWAL</td>
<td>207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>FACEBOOK AND DIGITAL ACTIVISM: CONVERSATIONS ABOUT PEACE BUILDING IN NIGERIA BETWEEN A PRESIDENT AND HIS “FRIENDS” ON FACEBOOK</td>
<td>OGUNDIMU, NANCY KATU</td>
<td>213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>STATE, WORLD BANK AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA: SYNERGIES AND CONTRADICTIONS</td>
<td>ZASHA, TERSOO ZASHA</td>
<td>221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>THE NIGERIAN STATE AND CENTENARY CELEBRATION: JUXTAPOSITION OF ISSUES AND TRENDS OF DEBATE</td>
<td>ZASHA, TERSOO ZASHA &amp; SHITTU, MURTALA</td>
<td>262</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
27. SOCIAL EXCLUSION AND HOUSEHOLD POVERTY AMONG THE OLDER PERSONS IN NIGERIA
   - WAHAB, ELIAS OLUKOREDE (Ph.D) & IMEOGU, OLUCHI STELLA
      ................................................................. 235

28. STATE/LOCAL GOVERNMENT JOINT ACCOUNT AND THE CHALLENGES OF SERVICE DELIVERY IN
    KADUNA STATE (1999-2007)
   - BELLO MATTHEW FUNSHO
      ................................................................. 248

29. MACROECONOMIC POLICY AND DEVELOPMENT OF NIGERIA RURAL ECONOMY
   - MUSTAPHA MARUF
      ................................................................. 256
COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF COMPENSATION IN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTOR IN NIGERIA

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Abstract
This paper overviews two opposite perspectives regarding the salient issues of dichotomy of the performance incentives and fringe benefits offered to employees and understands the landscape of the similarities and differences between the private and public sectors. To achieve this, the study implored the use of content analysis method to gather and analyze data in which a critical literature survey in the field of remuneration, incentives and fringe benefits were undertaken on recent empirical studies so as to see the direction of studies in the comparability questions. In this literature survey, the researchers amongst others established that employees in the public sector have compensation premium than their private sector counterparts. However, in comparison to the compensation paid to state and local government workers, the private sector compensation and benefits are higher than the former; the private sector incentive packages are competitive and tied to performance indices. Based on these the study recommends amongst others that, performance incentives and fringe benefits should be competitive, fair and equitable to employees in both the private and public sector as much as possible and as a result of increasing demands on public institutions by the citizenry, public sector compensation should be contingent on ability to pay and there is the need for public sector reforms on performance incentives and fringe benefits to reflect global best practices.

Key words: Comparative analysis, Compensation, Public sector and Private sector

INTRODUCTION
The issues of performance incentives and employee benefits fall within the purview of compensation management in particular and work motivation in general. Performance-based incentives constitute an integral part of direct compensation (rewards) while fringe benefits form part of the indirect rewards administered to the employee designed to attract, retain and motivate the workforce to attain the strategic goals of the organisation. The significance of compensation and benefits is underscored by the fact that a significant percentage of organisation’s costs are tied to the reward system (Randall, 1984, Griffin, 1997 & Chen, 2004). More importantly, the employee performance incentives, benefits as well as the total reward systems constitute the most fundamental tools for influencing the desired work outcomes, motivation and general behaviour in the workplace (Taylor, 2002, Wignaraja, 2006 & Griffin, 1997).

Employee motivation is a key issue in Human Resource Management (HRM) to both the practicing manager and the academics. Motivation is arguably the cornerstone to performance management and the design and
implementation of effective performance incentives and fringe benefits. However, employee motivation is not an easy task for the Human Resource Manager owing to the complexity of the human nature (Griffin, 1997). Indeed, motivation has been identified as the frequently researched topics in HRM. Motivation is so pervasive that permeates many human resource management issues like organisational behaviour, leadership, teams and group dynamics and performance management (Steers & Shapiro 2004, Robbins & Judge, 2007).

Performance incentives and fringe benefits vary in terms of the nature of the incentive packages and employee benefits which invariably depend on labour market forces, managerial influence, labour-management relations, and trade union influences, the legal and regulatory framework, industry competition, government/company policies, locations, qualifications and level of output. The challenges facing the Organised Private Sectors (OPS), the informal private sector in the labour market in one hand and the government ministries, agencies and parastatals on the other hand are diverse and significant in the determination and design of the reward mechanism (Warsi et al, 2009, Kwak and Lee, 2009).

The objectives and orientation of both the private and public sectors in the issues of remuneration, employee incentives and fringe benefits are not similar. In the private sector, remuneration, financial incentives and benefits are generally associated with superior performance although perverse consequences can also be observed by UNDP (Wignaraja, 2006). The principle of comparability contends that the issue of compensation, incentives and benefits should be equitable between public sector workers and their private counterparts doing similar work (Bender & Heywood, 2010). However, there have been streams of research literature studying remuneration differentials between the public and private sectors. Although a topically controversial issue, many studies have investigated the apparent earnings premium in the public sector than the private sector even after given due consideration to worker attributes (Rutherford, 2008). Even the cursory observer knows that the issues of pay disparity among government agencies horizontally and amongst the three tiers of government on one hand and the private sectors has been subjected to intense research. The compensation and benefits premium enjoyed by public sector workers under the conditions of controlling for or not controlling for union status and influence; compensation differentials increase when adjusted for non-wage monetary benefits with the public sector employees having a comparatively better jobs Ramoni (2004).

LITERATURE REVIEW
In today’s capitalist economy, organisations whether private or public must design reward systems like performance-based pay plans, merit pay, skilled-based systems and fringe benefits to gain competitive advantages, elicit desired work outcomes and to gain superior performance and for productivity improvements (Warsi et al, 2009, Griffin, 1997). More importantly, the issues of employee performance incentives and benefits are considered to be crucial for employees’ good performances, retention and organisational citizenship and commitment (Randall, 1984, Robbins & Judge, 2007).

Conceptual Framework: Performance Incentive & Fringe Benefits
Incentive systems have been designed as integral part of organisational motivation and are a key factor helping to understand and directing the forces that drive organisations to performance. Performance incentive can stimulate good performance or discourage employee and work group dysfunctional behaviour, turnover and absenteeism (UNDP Wignaraja, 2006). Griffin (1997) defines performance incentives as unique compensation packages that are normally tied to performance. He defines fringe benefits on the other hand, as valuable things distinct from compensation that the employer provides for his workers.

The conceptual definitions for this study have been adopted from UNDP Wignaraja (2006). In the study the UNDP studied performance incentives and benefits as tools for stimulating better performances and for attracting and retaining talents in both the public and private sectors. The current study is aimed at examining the comparability of employee incentives and fringe benefits in both sectors from the general theoretical perspective and a well comprehensive survey of relevant literature in the area of compensation and benefits management.

Theoretical Perspectives: The Expectancy Theory of Motivation and Job Behaviour
The expectancy theory of motivation is a process perspective of motivation that contends that job motivation is a function of how the employee wants something and how he thinks he can get it. This theory provides a
fundamental paradigm shift for the study of human attitudes and behaviour in the workplaces and organisational settings. As highlighted in the preceding sentence, the first issue in this theory is how the employee gets something. The second issue is the likelihood that the employee gets that thing to satisfy his goals. In this study, the researcher is concerned with the second problem.

The expectancy postulate contends that the potency of the tendency to act and behave in a certain manner is contingent on the strength of an expectation that the act or behaviour will follow by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual Vroom (1964). In a more realistic term, the expectancy theory argues that workers will be motivated to put in their best when they know that efforts expended will result in a good performance appraisal and organisational rewards in the forms of incentives, fringe benefits, bonus, and promotions. Consequently, rewards will satisfy the personal goals of the employee. The theory encompasses three mutually sustaining elements that result in motivated workforce namely effort-performance relationship, performance-reward relationship and finally rewards-personal goals relationships. The primary concern of the expectancy theory is the appreciation of employee goals and the linkage between efforts and performance and then performance and rewards. The expectancy theory has been described as a contingency model in explaining the employee motivation (Robbins & Judge, 2007).

Infact, in the literature, substantial number of empirical studies has been done to test the aspects of the expectancy model of behaviour. Heinemann & Schwab (1972) have reviewed a number of empirical researches that offer general support to the expediency model with the results consistently confirming that expectancy type attitude measures are significantly correlated to measure job performance in Lawler & Suttle (1973). However, there have been few criticisms leveled against the expectancy theory. Firstly, most researches failed to replicate the methodology as originally proposed. Secondly, limited application of the theory is presumed to be contingent on effort-performance and performance-reward linkages. Nevertheless, the expectancy theory has wide acceptance in the explanation of effort-performance and performance-reward nexus for the design and implementation of reward and incentive systems.


The major pre-occupation of the agency theory is the description of the contractual arrangements between management and shareholders where the latter delegates its authority to the former hoping that the agent will serve the best interest of the principal. The principal can guarantee that the agent will make optimal decisions if appropriate incentives and fringe benefits are given to the agent (Jensen & Meckling, 1976). The theory contends that the contractual arrangement between the principal and the agent is establishing contract regulating the relationships given assumptions about people, organisations and information asymmetric. The theory assumes the greed in the human nature and highlights conflicts arising when the agents have conflicting interests at variance with that of the principal (Kwak et al, 2009).

The agents can satisfy their self-interest against the principal. The latter will incur motoring costs to serve as checks and balances against the agent or alternatively, the principal gives appropriate performance incentives in the forms of bonus, stock options, benefits and perquisites. It is assumed under the theory that the more the incentives and fringe benefits, the lesser the probability that the agent acts inconsistent with the maximization of the shareholders’ wealth and also the lesser the monitoring cost to be incurred (Olowe, 1997). Whereas incentives for managerial and non-managerial employees are usually tied to performance, fringe benefits are not linked to performance; hence agents can satisfy their self-interest by exploiting the organisation and the idea of fringe benefits is positioned as a centre-piece of the rent-extraction hypothesis (Kwak & Lee, 2007).

The Role of Performance Incentives and Fringe Benefits

The literature is awash with diverse studies on the benefits of incentives and fringe benefits in productivity improvements and job outcomes. Empirical studies on incentive systems have indicated that individual incentive plans can boost mean performance by almost 30% over non-performance-based reward systems. Also, group-based incentive plans can improve overall job performance up to 20% and impressively, these figures are significant if juxtaposed against the impacts non-performance-based programmes like goal-setting, participation-plan and job enrichment as having much lesser impact on productivity improvements (Randall, 1984).
Furthermore, in a recent meta-analytic review of the effects of incentives on workplace performance, Condy et al (2003) studied the empirical researches on the use of incentives in the motivation of individual employees and work groups toward job performance. The net average effect of all incentive programmes in all work settings and all work tasks within the purview of the meta-analytic study was a 22% gain in performance. Team-based plans had a significantly superior performance effect in comparison with individual-directed incentives. A crucial outcome of the study revealed that monetary incentive plans were found to result in higher performance gains than non-monetary, tangible incentives like gifts and travels. The meta-analytic research established that long-term incentive plans have more positive impacts on productivity improvements than do short-term plans.

Moreover, many recent empirical studies on compensation and benefits could be useful for aligning the actions of agents with the overall wealth optimization of the firm’s value and eliciting the desired organisational outcomes. Abowd (1990) studies the incentive pay-firm performance nexus among 225 firms and finds that the greater the use of performance incentives, the greater the market valuation of the firm, return on equity and gross economic returns. In another studies, Kwak & Lee (2009) investigates the contribution of fringe benefits as veritable instruments for motivating employee’s performance. In fact, the use of performance incentives and employee benefits has negative proponents in the literature. The recent work of Kohn (1993) entitled “Why Incentive Plans Cannot Work” encapsulates the criticisms against the use of incentives and benefits. The study contends that managers have excessive belief in the redemptive power of rewards and rather than the reward systems engender lasting commitments they result in temporary change in employees. The assumptions underlying rewards and incentives were ‘dangerous’ and ‘destructive’ when linked to interesting or completed tasks.

In addition, Bebchuk & Friedman (2005) indicate that flawed compensation and incentives have been widespread, persistent and systematic in nature. The researcher believes that this negative opinion is reinforced by the recent corporate scandals locally and internationally. The recent financial scandals in corporate Nigeria, Cadbury in 2004, and recently the scandals in the banking sector which led to the intervention in the five banks in ‘grave situations’ by the Central Bank of Nigeria are good examples. The corporate scandals erupting in the USA in 2001 of Enron Corporation and other global corporate governance shady deals have exposed the flaws and abuse of particularly executive compensation plans and incentives.

In summary, incentive plans and fringe benefits based on the review of the relevant literature are necessary ingredients to any reward system being it in the private or public sector. As in the UNDP Report Wignaraja (2006:8) observes “organisations must continually seek ways to keep their employees and work groups engaged in their work, motivated, efficient and productive. An organisation’s success can depend on its ability to create the conditions and systems (formal and informal) that entice the best people to work there. Also, a good incentive system encourages employees to be productive and creative, fosters loyalty among those who are most productive and stimulates innovation”.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY
This is an academic study of the comparability of performance incentives and fringe benefits in the public and private sectors. In this study, the researchers’ review comparability using the types of incentive and fringe benefits based on the literature on compensation and benefits. Our study uses the most common forms of performance incentives and benefits in the compensation and reward system literature to see the similarities and differences between the two sectors.

The basic research method used is the exploratory research approach. Panneerselvum (2008) observes that an exploratory research seeks to explore possible relationships between variables without knowing their end applications. The method provides general findings which may be used by researchers in future investigation. To this end, a literature survey approach were used involving selected literature in the area of public and private sector compensation comparability with a view to expanding the researcher’s limited knowledge and better understanding of the past data sources/results and guidance of future research.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Literature Survey: Compensation, Incentives & Fringe Benefits in Public & Private Sectors
There is no doubt that compensation, performance incentives & fringe benefits constitute increasingly significant percentage of remuneration in both the private and public sectors. For instance, the total costs of
compensation in the private sector of the United States of America in 2004 were estimated at $23.76 per hour worked, up from $13.4 in 1987. This trend has been estimated to reflect an average annual rate of 3.3%. Similarly, the overall compensation costs of the States and Local Governments rose from $22.31 in 1991 for the public sector to $34.72 per hour worked in 2004 translating to an average annual growth rate of 3.3% based on the statistics of the Bureau of Labour Statistics of the Employee Benefit Research Institute, Washington D.C (2005) www.ebri.org

Moreover, the cost figures of employee benefits have been on the increase in recent times. Chen (1981) argues that indirect compensation and fringe benefits have relative to cash pay, increased astronomically during the past six decades.

Also, The Bureau of Labour Statistics estimates that employee benefits costs in the private sector has increased at 2% points from $3.6 in 1987 to $6.82 in 2004 translating to 28.6% of the total compensation package. In the same vein, legally required benefits like social security, unemployment and compensation benefits have been identified as the highest cost employee costs for the private sector. Similarly, the public sector in the USA has recorded 3.5% an average annual employee benefit growth in 1991 up to year 2004 Employee Benefit Research Institute (2005). www.ebri.org

In labour economics, labour market analysis is premised on the contention that there should be compensation parity for same nature of work in both the private and public sectors. Notwithstanding, the public policy trust of having comparable standards, much of the history of concern over public compensation and benefits have been that of low remuneration package. In spite of the rise of labour unions in the public sector in the USA, private sector employees had better pay package than their public sector counterparts (Bender & Heywood, 2010).

Smith (1987) in Bender & Heywood (2010) did a pioneering empirical research to examine the major methods of comparability between the public and the private sectors. The main trust of the study was to standardize for known earning components determining the pay package of a particular worker along the dimensions of education, training, experience, job location and other job-related attributes. Then, the average earning differentials between public and private sector employees were compared to determine pay disparity between the two sectors.

In addition, Belman & Heywood (1995) conducted a population survey to establish pay comparability across (seven) 7 principal states in the USA. The highlight of the findings is that the pay differential was positive in 4 states and negative in 3 but when compared with Local Governments in the states studied, the differential was negative for the local government employees.

Borjas (2003) in Bender and Heywood (2010) studied public sector pay differentials using longitudinal studies from 1960s to 2000. The data indicated a fairly regular and consistent pattern over the study period for men employees but a relatively downward trend position for females in the public sector. By the end of his time, the remuneration differences were similar for both the gender translating to 9% lower in the local governments and 12% in the state governments.

In addition, Krueger (1987) studied the public private sector compensation differential question using longitudinal approach that supported other cross-sectional empirical studies. The research established that the average wages of Federal Government workers exceeded their private sector counterparts by between 10-15% while the wages of state and local government employees were closely at par to or slightly lower than the private sector workers. Moreover, these findings hold for workers in transition from private sector employment to public sector.

Moreover, the study of Lee ((2004) is significant in comparability studies in public and private sectors. Using a longitudinal survey approach to study worker attributes, the results of the regression analysis indicates that female state government employees receive 3% lower than their private sector counterparts while male employees at the local government earn basically the same with their private counterparts. Also, the study examines employee transition from one sector to the other which reveals some positive public sector differentials for women but largely no effect for men.
Furthermore, in a World Bank study, Glinskaya & Lokshin (2005) examine wage differentials between public and private sectors in India as well as the determining factors for employees’ decision to join a particular sector. The major findings suggest that wages and remuneration disparity between the public and private sectors; the formal private and the informal sectors are positive and high. Comparing the research findings with global remuneration statistics, the study establishes that India has the highest pay differential between the public and the private sectors.

Against this background, the standards of comparability and the yardsticks for measurement of pay differentials between the public and private sectors are far from being perfect. There are mixed reports of pay incentives and benefits differences in both the sectors depending on the research methodology, job attributes and other factors of investigation. Also, comparability is difficult as the average private and public sector workers are not similar workers doing similar work (Bender & Heywood, 2010).

An important finding of this paper surveys the literature on the raging question of public/private sector compensation and benefits disparity. Although previous studies especially in the developed countries found empirical evidence in compensation premium in the public sector domain, these results have been assailed with criticisms owing to selection bias in research instrumentation and sampling errors and the often dissimilarity of the nature of jobs in the private and public sectors; however, the World Bank empirical study of a developing country like India (Glinskaya & Lokshin, 2005) and Nasir, 2000), also confirm that the public sector is more paid than the private sector. In contrast, a pilot study commissioned by USAID in Zambia by Furth (2006), indicates that the pay package in the public sector compared to the private sector is low in that country that recommended for the institution of good performance-based incentives to attract competent personnel in to the public health delivery system. More importantly, the recent findings of Bender & Heywood (2010) have established that compensation and benefits payments of the private sector has exceeded that of the public sector therefore, questioning the validity of the long-established “public sector premium” hypothesis.

Another significant finding is that compensation and benefits differentials may be accounted by the qualifications of the labour force with the private sector reward system laying premium on productivity, training and job experience while the public sector laying emphasis on rewarding higher educational qualifications and longer tenure of service.

Another important finding is that the expenditure on performance incentives and fringe benefits has increased in both absolute and relative terms in both the public and private sectors. Though the results indicate that the private sector compensation and benefit costs lag behind the public sector, there have been substantial increments in percentage incentives and benefits in both sectors in recent years.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions
In this literature survey, the researchers established that employees in the public sector have compensation premium than their private sector counterparts. However, in comparison to the compensation paid to state and local government workers, the private sector compensation and benefits are higher than the former.

As regards performance incentives and benefits in public and private sectors, the private sector incentive packages are competitive and tied to performance indices. While the goals and objectives of the private sector are usually quantifiable which are usually linked with performance incentives those of the public are non-quantifiable. Also, executive compensations like stock options and non-managerial incentives like profit-sharing, the piece-rate system are not obtainable in public sector employments.

The literature survey indicates that fringe benefits in both the public and private sectors are paid to employees as indirect compensation having no bearing to performance or productivity improvements but as remuneration tool to reward employee membership of the organisation and as staff retention strategies and encouraging employee commitments.

Recommendations
1. Performance incentives and fringe benefits should be competitive, fair and equitable to employees in both the private and public sector as much as possible.
2. As a result of increasing demands on public institutions by the citizenry, public sector compensation should be contingent on ability to pay. Though government has in principle unlimited power to raise
revenue through the fiscal instruments owing to sovereignty, impacts of local and economic crises may force public sector compensation and benefits to be reviewed to reflect this reality. Hence, the need for public sector reforms on performance incentives and fringe benefits to reflect global best practices.

3. Since many empirical studies have established the public sector compensation and benefits premium over the private sector, the public sector compensation should serve as models as regards instituting best practices in due process, incentive and merit-based pay systems, life insurance, health insurance, health safety and environment practices, setting parity and anti-discrimination measures for the private sector to emulate with a view to having a semblance of comparability in both sectors.

4. Most of the empirical researches in the public-private compensation comparability are based on studies in the developed world, more studies need to be done in developing economics like ours with a view to validating the public sector premium question in view of the fact that our levels of social, political and economic developments differ with those of the developed worlds.

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Ramoni, J. (2004); ‘Compensation Comparison
PATTERNS OF WORKPLACE VIOLENCE AMONG WOMEN IN INFORMAL SECTOR IN SOUTH WEST, NIGERIA

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Abstract
This study examined the patterns of workplace violence among women in informal sector. The study adopted a survey research design. Three hundred and seventy-four women working in informal sector like farm, bakery, laundry, canteen and various construction sites were randomly selected. Their ages range from 21-48 years with the mean of 32.6 years. Workplace Violence Questionnaire (WOVIQ) was used to collect data for this study. Two hypotheses were raised to test workplace violence among women in informal sector across educational qualifications and ages. The findings revealed a significant difference in self-reported workplace violence based on age of women working in informal sector at $F(3, 373) = 23.66; p<.05$ and significant difference in self-reported workplace violence based on level of education of women working in informal sector was at $F(3, 373) = 28.46; p<.05$. It was concluded that although all female workers experienced workplace violence in their workplace at different degrees, it was discovered that the younger the female workers are ones who reported workplace violence more. Apart from age which is significant in determining the workplace violence among female workers, level of education also influences workplace violence, the higher the level of education the less the reported workplace violence. It was recommended that supervisors at different sites, firms etc should discourage any negative practice in the non-formal workplace including sexual harassment. Secondly, because of their status, female employees should be protected by legislation against such acts. Thirdly, non-governmental organizations interested in women issues should provide forum for female workers to bring forward their complaints whenever they experience workplace violence and other related discriminatory practices against them.

Keywords: workplace violence, feminism, informal sector

Introduction
It is now widely recognized that informal sector plays a vital role in the process of economic growth and development. It has been reported that the majority of the global population makes out their livings from the informal sector (Chukuezi, 2010; Horn, 2010; ILO, 2010; Meagher, 2007; Kohnert, 2006). The informal employment provides a cushion for workers who cannot find a job in the formal sector. These workers are called informal labour. ‘Informal labour’ is defined to include workers who are employed on a casual or temporary basis without any proper form of contract, as well as those who work for themselves either alone
or in small groups. The informal sector is characterized by non-compliance and non-applicability of labour legislation. The sector is also characterized by a strong presence of a number of loosely organised, workers/operators’ unions, or associations, that attempt to address some of the issues on self-help, collective basis. Working from dawn to dusk everyday the informal labourers are persistently exposed to various types of physical work hazards and various health problems. In compensation to their labour, they earn a very small amount of income. These workers have no security of employment, receive few or no benefits, and are often unprotected by labour laws.

In Nigeria today the informal sector employs majority of youths especially women but the official statistical apparatus still does not gather systematic data on the informal economy. This has made information on the size and employment structure in the informal sector hard to obtain. However, the estimates suggest that the sector accounts for between 45% and 60% of the urban labour force, up from about 25% in the mid-1960s (Nwaka, 2005).

Workplace violence especially of women has remained a worrisome concern to rational minds in our. Though it happens in every work of life and in all regions of the world, it is more common among the informal sector workers. While a number of countries have adopted some policy measures to combat it, most of the countries are just giving lip service to such a crucial phenomenon. Workplace violence is one of the most complex and dangerous occupational hazards facing people working in informal sector.

The range of workplace violence includes fistfights, non-fatal stabbing, not-fatal shooting, homicide, psychological and sexual harassment and sabotage (Simon, 1986). Personal life does spill over into the workplace, and sometimes those personal issues present themselves with dangerous consequences. The costs associated with incidents of workplace violence consist of both hidden and highly visible items, and the total cost can be very high. For example, women workers, particularly those in the informal economy like those in export processing zones, construction sites, farms, traders in motor parks and domestic workers are particularly vulnerable to exploitation and harassment. In both developing and industrialized countries migrant workers are also at risk because of the problems of getting work, social isolation, and inability to stick up for themselves.

Workplace Violence against women cuts across all cultures and traditions, across class, ethnic, and religious barriers. In fact, one thing that is universal is acts of violence against women. It is very difficult to recognize that workplace violence has occurred unless the victim can admit it has happened. Unfortunately, often a woman will deny, even when asked, that she has been beaten, raped or assaulted. That she has had violence committed against her may be denied or internalized. This explains the cases of apparently happy woman later going mad due to the stress and injury of being battered and abused.

The various forms of workplace violence can occur regularly. In all these forms of abuse, the victim is always afraid and for many victims the thought of even leaving the abusive situation does not occur to them because they have been so intimidated by the abuser they feel that they may not be able to function without the abuser. Moreover, the employment situation in the country is not favourable. They therefore stay in these work environments to the detriment of their mental and physical health. Also abusive behaviour may not be recognizable to the victim because the pattern of abuse has been so regular it may seem as normal behaviour to the victim.

In Nigeria, reporting violence is different due to cultural and religious implications. Most ethnic groups in Nigeria believe that the woman is not equal to the man and therefore she must always submit to his authority either at home or workplace. They teach women that whatever the circumstance the man is in charge and she must submit unequivocally. Even when the man is confronted he often gets away with the equivalent of a slap on the wrist. The situation is no better when she reports to the police. So they suffer in silence.

**Statement of Problems**

The dangers arise from the exposure to violent individuals combined with the absence of strong violence prevention programmes and protective regulations in informal sector are pathetic. However, what is available suggests that coercion and not being wanted may play a considerable role in workplace violence. This study therefore examined the patterns of workplace violence among women in informal sector in south west of Nigeria.
Methodology

Design
This study adopted a survey research design. Three hundred and seventy-four women working in informal sector like farm, bakery, laundry, canteen and various construction sites were purposively selected. Their ages range from 21-48years with the mean of 32.6years.

Instrument
Workplace Violence Questionnaire (WOVIQ) “a self-report inventory representing the first attempt to assess the prevalence of workplace violence in a manner that met traditional psychometric standards” was developed and used to collect data for this study The internal consistency was found to be adequate with Cronbach Alpha of .74 across gender, and test-retest stability of .68 over 3 months.

Result

Table 1: Means and Standard Deviations of Self-Reported Workplace Violence Against Women

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variations</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-25</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>34.12</td>
<td>2.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-35</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>22.18</td>
<td>2.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-45</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>18.24</td>
<td>2.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45 years and above</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>14.64</td>
<td>2.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No formal Education</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>38.14</td>
<td>2.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First School Leaving Cert.</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>22.14</td>
<td>2.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O/L</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>14.26</td>
<td>2.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above O/L</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>10.42</td>
<td>2.12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The trend of reported workplace violence against women working in informal sectors in Nigeria was shown in table 1. The trend has shown in table 1 revealed a decrease as the age and level of education increase. The significance of this inverse relationship observed was tested in the hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1
There is no significant difference in self-reported workplace violence based on age of women working in informal sector.

Table2: Summary of Analysis of Variance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Variations</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Between</td>
<td>1110.12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>370.04</td>
<td>23.66</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within</td>
<td>5786.8</td>
<td>370</td>
<td>15.64</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>6896.92</td>
<td>373</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The hypothesis one which stated that there is no significant difference in self-reported workplace violence based on age of women working in informal sector was rejected at $F(3, 373) =23.66; p<.05$. This implies that there is significant difference in self-reported workplace violence based on age of women working in informal sector.

Hypothesis 2
There is no significant difference in self-reported workplace violence based on level of education of women working in informal sector.

Table3: Summary of Analysis of Variance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variations</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between</td>
<td>5587.2672</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1862.4224</td>
<td>28.46</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>24212.8</td>
<td>370</td>
<td>65.44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>29800.0672</td>
<td>373</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The hypothesis two which stated that there is no significant difference in self reported workplace violence based on level of education of women working in informal sector was rejected at $F(3, 373) =28.46; p<.05$. This implies that there is a significant difference in self-reported workplace violence based on level of education of women working in informal sector.
Discussion and Recommendations
The bulk of discussions about gender inequalities at work focus on various ways in which female workers are unnecessarily underprivileged in the workplace in terms of low pay, lower status job, restriction from certain jobs as well as confinement to sex-type jobs (Mackinon, 1979; Schaefer, 1989; Haralambos and Holborn, 2000). However, while these aspects are important, the issue of workplace violence at work seems to attract little attention. Reskin and Padavic (1994) pointed out that because sexual pressures are as a form of workplace violence typically initiated by those in superior positions against the less powerful; women are more likely than men to be the objects of unwanted attention, especially in the workplace. The present study has brought to the fore the issue of workplace violence at work with a specific focus on the experience of female workers in Nigeria’s non-formal work environment.

As demonstrated in this study, all female workers experienced violence in their workplace at different degrees. However, we must also note that the younger the female workers the more the reported workplace violence. Apart from age which is significant in determining the workplace violence among female workers, level of education also influence workplace violence, the higher the level of education the less the reported workplace violence.

The following are recommended as a way of reducing the incidence of sexual harassment in the Nigerian non-formal workplace. Firstly, supervisors at different sites, firms etc should discourage any negative practice in the non-formal workplace including sexual harassment. Secondly, because of their status, female employees should be protected by legislation against such acts. Thirdly, non-governmental organizations interested in women issues should provide forum for female workers to bring forward their complaints whenever they experience workplace violence and other related discriminatory practices against them.

Conclusion
The issue of workplace violence against women working in informal sector should be taken seriously if the world is sincere in protecting these vulnerable poor people. Their contributions to the growth of developing economies are important and they should be protected.
References
POLITICAL CORRUPTION AND NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

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Abstract
This paper argued that the emergence of democracy in Sub-Saharan Africa is rooted in socioeconomic grievances and demand for better standards of living expressed by the people against obnoxious regimes - colonialism, military or civilian. Besides, the form of economic system, internal misrule, the complicity of western governments, development donors and creditors (such as IMF and World Bank) have also influenced the process of democratization and governance in particular directions generating serious implications for the continent’s overall development. Thus, since 1999, the expectation of the people of Nigeria that the return to civilian administration would create platform for them to savour the dividends of democracy have not being met. This is particularly so given the high jacking of the processes of political competition and elections by the elite and the middle class who exploit it for their selfish benefits rather than for economic redistribution of resources and improving the quality of life of the citizenry. This realism explains the fact that twelve years into civilian rule, massive corruption, absence of political openness, transparency, accountability, electoral rigging, godfatherism etc holds sway in the polity, coupled with huge incidence of poverty, inequality, unemployment and poor social infrastructure. The paper interrogates the subject of political corruption and national development in Nigeria through the prism of clientelism, prebendalism and patrimonialism, in espousing the bane of continuing underdevelopment in the Nigerian society. The paper concludes on the premise that political corruption will be fought headlong when we create political structures where the economic and political rights of the people are justiceable; create an environment where the citizenry can define the kind and type of political change they really desire rather than the one that are foist on them.

Keywords: Political Corruption, Welfare, Economic Rights and Development.
Introduction
Since colonial times the governance processes have always been contested by the people of Africa who consistently make demands for improved living conditions through the provision of good infrastructure, education, healthcare, affordable housing, employment opportunities, security etc. These demands, however, encapsulate what development ultimately entails, which is to create a better living condition for the peoples of the world. Given this fact, the challenges of social, economic and political development for sub-Saharan Africa have remained in the front burner of development discourse in the world for the last three (3) decades or more. This is borne out of the grim reality of statistical data which revealed that of the about 80 percent of the world’s population which lives in the developing world, their lifestyles and living conditions are marked by low incomes, high poverty, unemployment and low education (Stiglitz, 2007:26).

It is this push for socioeconomic transformation that has brought to the fore the demand for sustainable, equitable and democratic development; where the economic and political institutions work for the benefits of the greatest majority, as well as create a social environment where the people have a greater say in decision-making processes that ultimately affect their existence. This is significantly so as the major factor that determines how well a country will do is a function of the “quality” of the public and private institutions, from which decisions get made and in whose interest. However, the development agenda in many African countries have been undermined by several factors, including inept leadership, weak states, institutional impunity, massive corruption which have stifled their quest for socioeconomic transformation. From this context, therefore, one begins to examine the role of the state which is the institution that deals with the organization of power, from which various sets of political relationships take place with respect to the exercise of power, especially political power. In other words, the state is seen as the contemporary locus of power and authority, and the most inclusive social unit within which control is exercised.

This is so as political power refers to; ‘power exercised within a group which occupies a relatively well defined territory by a person or set of persons responsible for maintaining the order and integrity of the group as a community and whose commands are supported by the use of legitimate force (Washburn, 1982:18).

Thus, the notion of legitimacy is particularly significant in the conceptualization of political power as it conveys an element of reciprocity in the exercise of political rule. This is critically so as the ability to exercise political power rests, in part, on the beliefs of those subject to that power. However, since Nigeria gained independence in 1960, a close look at the political structures and processes particularly the democratic institutions with which the political leadership relate with the people have left much to be desired; such that the basis of social contract for which the state was established is completely eroded. Rather than the leadership of the state who occupies positions of political control or governance to use the resources of the country to promote the well-being of their people, they use their political office and/or position to plunder the country’s wealth for their personal self-centred aggrandizement and to reward their personal allies and external foreign collaborators at the expense of the overall national development of their country and people.

Thus, all the problems that undermined our national development, political corruption arising from bad leadership is cited as the greatest impediment that stifles development, produces poverty and reinforces inequality in Nigeria (Smith, 2007:55). Corroborating this fact, Achebe (1983:1, 38) in his classic book, *The Trouble with Nigeria*, articulates that the trouble with Nigeria is simply and squarely a failure of leadership where political power is used to perpetrate and sustain corruption. Today, corruption permeates almost all facets of our public and private life, such that the language and metaphors of corruption have penetrated the people’s understanding of their intimate interpersonal relationships. As such, our political systems and institutions are overwhelmed by filial and particularistic interests groups that undermine our capacity to identify and implement development goals. It is a system characterized by non adherence to the rule of law, secrecy in governance, absence of accountability, transparency and integrity.

Thus, from 1960, venality in terms of corruption and bad leadership have drown the destiny of the Nigerian nation, and has always been part of the Nigerian government (whether military or civilian regime). For instance, since independence, Nigeria has made over US$ 1 trillion dollars, of this amount US$ 600 billion has been stolen by our leaders; in 1999, the poverty level was 45 percent and in 2012 it is 76 percent all due to mismanagement of our resources through corruption; the money made from oil from 1999 to 2011 was more than all that was made from 1960-1999 (Save Nigeria Group, 2012), but squandered by our leaders with nothing to show for it in terms of improving the living standards of the people. Today, the Nigerian nation is characterized by massive infrastructural decay unimaginable as depicted in dilapidated roads,
epileptic power supply, lack of access to portable water, poor health care services, poor sanitation, massive poverty, hunger, malnutrition and unemployment. As such, Nigeria’s politics is one characterized by moral and amoral dimensions of corruption. In our political culture, it is common knowledge that with political office come the spoils. The practice of using public office for private gain was by no means an invention of the post 1999 civilian administration. As result of these happenings, the Nigerian people are disenchanted by the obvious show of corruption, gross mismanagement with the current civilian dispensation to deliver the expected dividends of democracy. Given these current scenarios, scholars and researchers have raised questions as to the feasibility of democracy to meet the people’s expectations of better improvement in their living standards as well as guarantee them justice, equity, fairness, economic and political rights. Why has political corruption remained endemic and institutionalized in our democratic dispensation as a country giving its effects of undermining the very foundation of our democratic institutions, ruining our economic development, perverting the rule of law, political stability, security, exacerbating poverty and eroding our social values as a people? How would our politics be without corruption? It is therefore the need to interrogate these questions and proffer ways of tackling them that informs this paper. To achieve this objective, the paper will be broken into five (5) sections following the introduction. The second section will address the issue of democracy and development. Section three will examine political corruption and its effects on development. The fourth section will look at the consequences of political corruption on national development while the fifth section ends with the conclusion.

**Development**

Development in human society today is not a one-sided process but rather a multi-sided issue. Some individuals perceive development as increase in their skill and ability; others view it as maximum freedom, the ability to create responsibility and so on (Schumpeter, 1934). Dudley Seer (1977) defined development on the basis of human well-being. For him, development does not mean only capital accumulation and economic growth but also the condition in which people in a country have adequate food and job and income inequality among them is greatly reduced. It is a process of bringing about fundamental and sustainable changes in society. It encompasses growth, embraces such aspects of the quality of life as social justice, equality for all citizens, equitable distribution of income and the democratization of the development process (Lawal, 2007:3; Egharevba, 2007).

Collaborating Seers’ conception of development, Goulet (1978) observed that though development implies economic, political and cultural transformation, these are not ends in themselves but indispensable means for enriching the quality of human life. Therefore, development must be judged good or bad in the light of normative values operative in the societies affected or, possibly, of some more universal values. For Goulet, there are three general goals of development: life assurance, esteem and freedom. These three goals entail that development exists when people have access to basic food, health, adequate shelter, education and protection; they are being treated as individuals who has worth, rather than tools for the satisfaction of other individual’s purposes, and have the capacity, the opportunity, and the incentive to develop and express one’s potentialities (Chiegwe, 2000).

Thus, for Goulet, one should speak of development comprehensively and normatively as:

> ... as a coordinated series of change, whether abrupt or gradual, from a phase of life perceived by a population and all of its components as being less human, to a phase... perceived as more human. These passages are sought as speedily as realistically possible, with a view to minimizing their costs (including intangible human costs’) ... (1968b: 309)

Rodney (1972) conceived development whether economic, political or social to imply both increase in input and changes in the technical and institutional arrangement by which it is produced. In other words, development as a multi-dimensional concept is basically about the process of changes which lies around the spheres of societal life. From the foregoing, it becomes obvious that development involves the capacity of a society, government or social system to manage resources efficiently to improve the well-being of the citizens. This fact, therefore, demands the institutionalization of good governance elements such as adherence to rule of law, accountability and transparency which ensures the efficient utilization of resources that allow for rapid development and growth with equity, in which the poor and the rich both benefit as well.

It is the absence of these processes that creates the room for the existence of corruptive tendencies where those who control political power and their allies begin to circumvent the laws and appropriate the wealth of
the nation for their personal interest and aggrandizement through treasury looting, abuse of office, power, and position (see Khan 1996). It is this occurrence of political corruption that impedes development, erodes governmental legitimacy and minimizes the ability of government to reduce poverty, provide essential social services and infrastructure which influences people’s freedom to live a better life. Thus, from the above discourse of development, it is clear that development is all about people which are a nation’s most important resource, and if a large portion of its people do not live up to their potential - as a result of lack of access to education, healthcare, better nutrition, shelter and infrastructure - the country will not live up to its potential.

Thus, for 51 years after independence, Nigeria is still grappling with the issue of development that characterized her economic, political and social spheres. These problems include high poverty rate, lack of basic infrastructural facilities in all sectors of economy, unemployment, high mortality rate, political instability and insecurity of lives and property (see Suberu, 2007:96). Despite the presence of huge material and human resources, the country is still mired in poverty, infrastructural squalor, abysmal health and educational services and attendant social frustration and unrest.

Democracy
While much of the debates about developing countries centre on how they can adopt the global neo-liberal economic policy of free market enterprise that will open up new opportunities for investment and provide more resources, development is still not assured (see Stiglitz, op cit: 54). However, what is important is the capacity of these countries to use the resources available to them well and take advantage of new opportunities. Thus, the major factor that will determine how well a country will achieve this goal has a lot to do with its governance process, which is depicted by the ‘quality’ of the public and private institutions. Here, governance refers to the process of decision-making and ways in which decisions are implemented (or not). So in any given political system, the government is the major actor, but others can influence the process. This includes non-state actors such as religious or tribal leaders, civil society, major land-owners, trade unions, financial institutions, the military and community-based groups.

Associated with a good system of governance are: citizenship participation in decision making, consensus building where decisions are based on widespread agreement, transparency in decision making processes, responsiveness to the needs of the citizenry, effective and efficient provision of basic services and ensuring equitability and inclusiveness in the distribution of resources and benefits without marginalizing any group (UNESCAP, 2003). In the same vein, the World Bank also identified six indicators of good governance to help countries identify areas of weakness so that capacity building and assistance strategies are applied for greater effectiveness. These indicators include: voice and accountability, political stability and lack of violence, government effectiveness, regulatory quality, rule of law and control of corruption (World Bank, 2003). Similarly, The Human Development Report (2002:6) defines ‘effective governance’ as a set of principles and core values that allow poor people to gain power through participation while protecting them from arbitrary, unaccountable actions of governments, multinational corporations and others. That means that ensuring institutions and power are structured and distributed in a way that gives real voice and space to the poor people and create mechanisms through which the powerful can be held accountable for their actions. The report highlights the following key institutions of democratic governance:

- A system of representation with well-functioning political parties and interest associations;
- An electoral system that guarantees free and fair elections as well as universal suffrage;
- A system of checks and balances based on the separation of powers, with an independent judicial and legislative branches;
- A vibrant civil society, able to monitor government and private business- and provide alternative forms of political participation;
- A free, independent media; and
- Effective civilian control over the military and other security forces (UNDP, 2002:4).

Thus, from the above definitions, scholars have come to identify good governance as a key factor for building sustainable peace and long-term development (Johnson 1982; White and Wade 1988). This is borne out of the fact that governance can be linked to tackling poverty, promoting economic growth and human development. To achieve this objective requires the practice of politics which is as important to successful development as economics. Since sustained poverty reduction requires equitable growth, it is also important that the poor have political power. And the best way to achieve that in a manner consistent with human development objectives is by building strong and deep forms of democratic governance at all levels of society (UNDP, 2002:5). It is this renewed interest for the political dimension of development that has led
to the renewed interest for democracy in development. As we all know, democracy means in Ancient Greek ‘rule by the people’. It is now universally accepted that democracy requires more than elections and majority rule. In addition to the exercise of basic political rights like the rights to vote and holding of free and fair elections, democracy involves respect for legal entitlements, respect for the rights to free expression (and uncensored media), the right to associate freely and hold public discussions, the right to organize political movement of protests (Dreze and Sen, 2002:24). A democratic system of government ensures that the government in power is accountable to the people and the laws of the land. However, it is essential to understand that a democratic government does not necessarily lead to good governance. At best it provides the basis for it. While there may be no best way of achieving good governance, the following stands out as the most common elements. These are accountability, transparency, combating corruption, participatory governance and an enabling legal/judicial framework.

Thus with Nigeria’s return to civilian rule in 1999, the people had high hopes that the democratic process would deliver for them the so-called ‘dividends of democracy’ in terms of improving their economic and social welfare given its perceived role as the harbinger of development. However, the evidence on ground as to whether the transition to democracy has been able to ensure better governance and tackle the problem of poverty, infrastructural decay, unemployment, diseases, income disparities and inequality does not seem to paint a good picture. Despite her significant natural and human resources and its considerable economic potentials which include having the 7th largest oil and gas reserves in the world and being the 6th largest exporter of oil, Nigeria’s economic performance, human development and overall social transformation does not match its potential. Its size, wealth and diversity generate high expectations but it remains “a rich country with poor people.” Its oil wealth and considerable agricultural potential have not translated into better living conditions for most of its people. Over two-thirds of the population lives on less than US $1 per day- which amount to 112.5 million Nigerians living in poverty out of the estimated 163 million (NBS poverty and income distribution report, 2012; The Punch, 2012:19). The report also revealed rather paradoxically that despite the fact that the Nigerian economy is growing, the proportion of Nigerians living in poverty is increasing every year. Besides, income inequality in the country has risen from 0.429 in 2004 to 0.447 in 2010, just as the gap between the rich and the poor continues to widen. Furthermore, available figures also indicate that in 2004, the country’s relative poverty measurement stood at 54.4 percent but increased to 69 percent in 2010.

Given these statistics which is clearly reflected in our lack of basic social services, drop in life expectancy, increase in childhood mortality, maternal mortality, gender disparity which have deepened human poverty among the people, Nigerians are having strong reservation on the viability of the democratic institutions to work for their benefit both in political and socioeconomic terms. Be that as it may, most of the resentment and contempt of the people is directed at the elected officials in government at all levels who use their political power to misappropriate state resources that would have been used to address the basic needs of the people. Similarly, these so-called ‘leaders’ personalized forms of governance that promote the culture of corruption by engaging in conspicuous consumption and earning mega salaries while the populace wallow in abject poverty (see Ekeh, 1983) . Besides, there is the outcry of obvious disconnect between the government and the governed in the formulation and implementation of public policies that have direct impact on the lives of the people.

For the people, the political elite in power lacked sufficient democratic culture, commitment and political will to build democratic institutions such as free and fair elections, independent judiciary, universal suffrage, independent electoral body, well functioning political parties, accountability and transparency and rule of law that will constrain their own power. Furthermore, the political elites fail to come to grip with the reality that sovereignty belongs to the people and that they hold power in trust for the people. They also fail to appreciate the fact that government policies will have greater legitimacy and sustainability when the people feel some sense of involvement and ownership of it. In sum, the form of democracy in Nigeria defines the corrosive and defective nature of the whole political system which is characterized by both moral and amoral dimensions of corruption. In Nigeria’s political culture, it is common knowledge that with political office come the spoils where the practice of using public office for private gain is seen as normal despite the existence of anti-corruption agencies or institutions.
Political Corruption

Given the state of underdevelopment in Nigeria since independence, several attempts have been made by scholars, global policy makers and institutions to understand the cause(s) and the continued prevalence of her development crisis. Among the factors identified that undermined Nigeria’s development are colonial legacy, corrupt leadership and democracy (Umez, 2000). For those who point to the colonial legacy, they contend that the problem of our underdevelopment is traceable to the origin of the Nigerian state by the British colonial authority, which was exploited to advance their economic interests without engendering any legitimacy where the state would be used to drive the process of social transformation. It was within this framework that colonial politics was structured and reduced to the crude mechanics of opposing forces driven by the calculus of power. For everyone in the political arena, security lay only in the accumulation of power, such that the drive for it was made the top priority in all circumstances and sought for by all means than the drive for development (Ake, 2001:3). It is this character of the state that was carried to independence and has continued till date such that the quest for state power has not only increased the political intensity for competition and conflict among our political leaders but also created the tendency to use the state for private accumulation. The democracy perspective adduces the long absence of democracy caused by military rule as the cause of our underdevelopment (Umez, 2000: 29-30). While this factor may be important, it is critical to state that with the return to democracy in 1999, mismanagement and mis-rule in government has continued unabated as the elites have hijacked the democratic process as they govern the people with impunity, engage in open manipulation of the electoral process, rigging of elections to subvert the will of the people as was clearly evident in the 2003 and 2007 general elections. The civilian leadership has failed to deliver the dividends of democracy to the nation’s mostly poor masses.

The corrupt leadership perspective believes that corruption on the part of the leadership has been the bane of development in Nigeria. This view is so sacrosanct to the interrogation of the bane of Nigeria’s underdevelopment since the return to civilian rule in 1999, that this paper sees political corruption as the most critical factor that affects all her development endeavours in all sectors. This is significantly so because the greatest challenge to Nigeria’s development are Nigerians themselves as represented by the political leaders who should be held responsible for the present pathetic state of underdevelopment in the country (Falola, 2005:3). Today, there is a widespread perception among Nigerians that politics represents the worst form of corruption in the land. The impact of corruption on the totality of developmental and governance processes in Nigeria cannot be overemphasized. Underscoring the impact of corruption on the practice of democracy, Nwabuweze (2007:96) observed “that the most tragic consequence of corruption in Nigeria is its effects upon the attitudes and mentality of the people. It has created a widespread feeling of frustration, of disgust and cynicism, which has in its turn undermined the enthusiasm for and faith in the state.”

It is within this context that one would interrogate the context of political corruption in the nation’s democratic experiment and the challenges it poses for her development. Corruption is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon which characterizes the global economy. It exists in the developed and developing world and it permeates the economic, political and administrative spheres. Corruption in Africa is simply a development and governance issue as it erodes governmental legitimacy, undermines the effective delivery of public goods and services and protection of the vulnerable groups in society. In Nigeria, as in many African states, corruption is a malaise that inflicts the society and undermines its stability. Corruption drains from Africa countries over US $140 billion per year (Ribadu, 2007a). Enhanced governmental accountability and transparency, increased public participation in decision making, strengthened public sector and civil society institutions and greater adherence to the rule of law is the greatest weapon that will not only improve governance but counter corrupt practices.

Various scholars and organizations have defined corruption differently. One of the widely cited definitions is that proffered by Nye (1978) in which “corruption is a behaviour which deviates from the formal duties of a public role because of private-regarding (personal, close family, private clique) pecuniary or status-gain; or violates rules against the exercise of certain types of private regarding behaviour”. The World Bank (1997) defined corruption as “the abuse of public office for private gains”. This includes, when public officials accept, solicit or extort bribes to subvert or circumvent public policies for competitive advantage and profit”. Similarly the UNDP (2004) defined corruption as the “misuse of public power, office or authority for private benefit through bribery, extortion, influence peddling, nepotism, fraud, speed money or embezzlement”. Yet the Transparency International (TI) (2002) sees corruption as “an inappropriate or illegal behaviour of the public sector official (politician or public officer) by misusing the entrusted power for private gain of the
person or related people. It is usually an activity that is outside of constitutional government process, which involves the sale of publicly produced goods and services by government employees for payment or bribes not sanctioned by the government. Corruption is a form of rent-seeking enterprise or activity, which is illegal, or an unauthorized transfer of money from one person to another (group to group), or an in-kind substitute.

The literature on corruption in developing countries generally suggests five strands of hypotheses as explanations for the causes of corruption, namely, rent-seeking, cultural relativity, low salary, imitation and institutional/political centralization. Based on existing studies on corruption, the following types of corruption are discernable in Nigeria: political corruption, bureaucratic corruption, electoral corruption and corporate corruption. Political corruption involves the sale by government officials of government property for personal gain. It involves the use of public office by politicians both for financial gain and purposes of remaining in office. It is further facilitated by the creation of rents seeking projects. Bureaucratic corruption involves the use of office for pecuniary gain. This type of corruption is commonplace in Nigeria since government plays a critical role in the development process, particularly in the domestic economy, here, bureaucrats engage in rent-seeking opportunities for personal aggrandizement. Socio-economic conditions, such as poverty and inequality, cultural norms and practices, kinship goes a long way to shape the attitude and behaviour of public officials.

Electoral corruption occurs when people, whether endowed with political clout or not, illegally try to buy influence through illegal payoffs such as illegal funding of campaigns, illegal campaign contributions, bribes, buying of votes for cash or inducements (i.e. paying voters to vote, thereby influencing their choices), promise of contracts or other favours. Electoral corruption may also take coercive forms, such as paying thugs to intimidate or threaten supporters of a candidate in order to compel supporters to vote for candidate who employed the thugs or stop them from voting entirely. Electoral corruption can lead to outright rigging of elections; expectation of reward once victory is achieved, or encouraging quid pro quo deals (Etzioni, 1988). It can also lead to the undermining of democratic values, especially where there is a conflict between the politicians’ interest and those of the public. As for corporate corruption, it occurs between private business corporations and their vendors or clients. It can also take place within a corporation when officers use company’s resources for private aggrandizement, at the expense of the shareholders (Bhargava, 2005). Corruption may also take the following forms: market imperfection, extortion, subversion, autogenetic, defensive, invasive, nepotistic, supportive, and transactive corruption (Gire, 1999).

Furthermore, corruption can also occur when the actions of individuals, groups or firms in both public and private sectors influence the formation of laws, regulation, decrees, and other government policies to their own advantage by means of illicit and non-transparent provision of private benefits to public officials. It could also occur when changing and altering the implementation of existing laws, rules and regulations to “provide advantages to either state or non state actors as a result of illicit and non transparent provision of private gain to public officials. However, for the purpose of this study, the institutional theory is engaged to interrogate the causes of corruption in the body polity. The perspective states that corruption arises when public officials have wide-ranging authority, little accountability and perverse incentives or when their accountability responds to informal rather than formal forms or regulation (UNDP, 2004).

For institutional theorist of corruption, the causes of corruption occur because of the failure of state institutions and a lack of the capacity to manage society by means of framework of social, judicial, political and economic checks and balances or where there is monopoly control of public officials wielding discretionary powers in the absence of accountability systems. This perspective is critical in understanding the widespread and depth of political corruption among elected officials at all levels of governance in Nigeria. Thus, in the guise of hiding under the cover of ‘immunity’ from persecution while in office, these officials have recklessly engaged in abusing the power of their office, gross abuse of budgeting process, financial extravagance and pursuit of white elephant projects that hold little benefits for the people. For instance, since 1999, the Obasanjo administration spent over US $800 million on the Turn Around Maintenance (TAM) of our refineries; the Yar’adua government also expended US $400 million, but still yet, the nation’s refineries are still operating under installed capacity and nobody is being prosecuted. The same fate also befall the National Integrated Power Project (NIPP) where over US $16 billion was alleged to have been expended by the Obasanjo to generate power energy, with no kilowatts of electricity generated and nobody is held to account for this colossal waste of public funds.
It is this failure of institutions that has created room for the proliferation of rent-seeking opportunities where few individuals have been given the monopoly for the provision of essentials goods and services, bribes are offered for issuance of license to business, permits, and privatization of state owned enterprises or for government contracts. In the political front, the democracy bequeathed to us is one that is fraught with a lot of inconsistencies that allow for corruption to thrive on a massive scale. This fact is seen from the very root and foundation upon which the nation’s democracy itself is founded - constitution, party system, electoral commission etc. The institution of the state at all levels is used as a harbinger for the perpetuation and consolidation of corruption. The political elite lacked the moral values and discipline that make democracy work - such as due process, liberty, political responsiveness, meritocracy, duty, obligation and the spirit of sacrifice. Today, it is criminals who found their way to power where they chose the people with their moral effluvia. Our legal cum political system suffer from medieval rot, loss of conscience and dysfunctionality. We now live in a political jungle where the law has been turned into a limbless ass, where order has gone under, where the criminal is hero (i.e. the Ibori saga, Joshua Dariye, Bode George and Alamiyeseigha are a case in point). In Nigeria, the political leader’s preoccupation with politics is with winning and retaining power, and using the power to serve themselves and deal with their enemies. Politics in Nigeria is very much about money and at the province of the rich. It is rooted in ethnic, regional and community ties and depends on power patronage and corruption. As such, a greater majority of election seekers use their position and offices to better and benefit themselves, their families and cronies than the people who voted them into positions. Elections are driven by processes of patronage and god-fatherism where the highest bidder wins it all and not their ideologies.

Given these happenings, therefore, one can clearly argue that the state in Nigeria can be classified as a “failed” state given its kleptocratic and “lootocratic” nature, coupled with its consistent failure to meet the expectations of the people to live improved living standards (Obuah and Enyinda, 2004; Foreign Policy, 2006 and 2009; world Bank IEG, 2006). Besides, other scholars have also opined that corruption in Nigeria has moved from prebendalism to predation in which office holders and public officials try to repay their supporters, family members, cronies and ethnic group members with sums of money, contracts and jobs (Lewis, 1996). There are reports that about 212 billion pounds from oil money has been looted from the country’s treasury by past and present leaders, US$380 billion dollars were squandered by public officials between 1969 and 1999, and that EFCC was helping to combat an estimated 12 billion pounds which is annually stolen from state coffers (Independent Newspapers, 14 August 2006, HRW, 2007). There is widespread perception that judges are easily bribed or settled to get favourable judgment, and numerous allegations that legislators both at the national and state levels accept bribes and favours from the executive branch to facilitate the passage of bills favourable to the executive branch.

Thus, from the foregoing discourse it is obvious that corruption is seen as Nigeria’s greatest albatross, responsible for its state of instability, debt overhang, barrier to democratic elections and impediment to flow of foreign direct investment (Ribadu, 2007b). In fact, political corruption is seen as the main threat to the survival of the current democratic experiment, given the fact that it accounts for about 20 percent of Nigeria’s Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (TI, 2005).

In all, the net effect of corruption is negative for all societies, especially developing countries like Nigeria. It leads to economic inefficiencies, inhibits long-term foreign and domestic investments, misallocates talents to rent seeking and away from productive activities; induces wrong sectoral priorities and technological choices. It also undermines state effectiveness in the delivery of services, and the protection of the vulnerable and the environment. Corruption promotes economic decay and social and political instability, perverts the ability of the state to foster rule of law, and eventually corrodes trust and undermine legitimacy. These costs mean that sustaining development in Nigeria will requires mounting a frontal attack on corruption, especially political corruption.

**Conclusion**

Since it is clear that development is all about transforming the lives of the people in a given society, successful development therefore requires not just a vision and a strategy, but the know-how to convert those ideas into projects and policies. For development to be holistic, programmes must come out from the people - communities that they service and address the needs of the people in those communities. Thus, local participation in the choice and design of projects leads to a higher likelihood of success. Development will happen best with community commitment. What this means therefore is that the Nigerian people must rise
up from their sleeping state and begin to demand from the ‘leaders’ their economic and political rights, and ensure that these rights are made justiciable in the court of law. They must also insist that the “immunity clause” for political office holder be removed from our constitution. In all, the citizenry must make the political leaders to realize that socioeconomic justice is at the heart of any democratic process, since development and democracy are mutually reinforcing and inclusive. Thus, the key focus in development is creating equity and ensuring that the fruits of growth are widely shared. Until democracy can deliver on this goal of economic empowerment for its people, it will only be short-lived. As for curbing corruption, it is important to develop an institutional framework that makes death sentence the punishment for corrupt practices. Equally important, the institutions established to oversee, expose and punish corruption must be insulated from the very actors they are supposed to be controlling.

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NIGERIANS AND GLOBALIZATION: COMPELLED ACCEPTANCE OF IMPORTED SECONDHAND COMMODITIES AS INDEX OF DECLINE IN HUMAN CONDITION IN A MARGINAL ECONOMY

By

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Abstract
It is canvassed that the beginning of the sharp drop in the quality of human conditions among Nigerian citizens, a decline that has continued unabated ever since, is traceable to that date in the history of the country when the citizens of all social classes, but especially the poorest of the poor, began to regard the use of second-hand commodities imported from the centres of international capitalism as preferred, legitimate and normative. That era, we observe, coincided with the date of introduction of the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) in 1986, one impact of which was exponential devaluation in the exchange rate of the local currency, the Naira which pushed up the prices of new imports beyond the affordable limit. It is submitted that the SAP is a policy strategy of neo-liberal predation. Trade liberalization which literally led to the dumping of all manner of second-hand goods in Nigeria is a principal manifestation of this policy of capitalist expansionism. Compelled acceptance of imported used commodities is explained by economic rationality in form of affordability not by an irrational economic preference for anything Western. The people, willy-nilly buy and use second-hand items and their use, by itself, amounts to lowering citizens’ standard of living. The paper debunks the theory that liberal reforms ameliorate the structural contradictions or the dwindling quality of living in an economy in the periphery of global capitalism. Further, it is observed that additional doses of liberal reform will only deepen the crisis of the domestic economy and worsen the already critical human conditions. A policy alternative around the notions of ‘globalization’ and social democracy is suggested to abate the rapidly declining quality of life.

Keywords: globalizations, marginal, economy, devaluation, commodities.

Introduction
In an article that appeared in Current Sociology in December 2005, Kiely set out to debunk the claim by some leading Western scholars and institutions (e.g. DFID, 2000; World Bank, 2002a; 2002b; IMF, 1997; Giddens, 2000; Wolf, 2001) that pro-globalization policies have led to reduction in global poverty and income inequality due to greater economic integration in the world economy. This intervention is aimed to further debunk this thesis by drawing illustrative empirical examples from the Nigerian experience. That claim is a sweeping generalization and an over claim as it does not represent the experience of most less developed countries (LCDs) including Nigeria that are servile and marginal players in the contemporary global economy. Debunking this thesis is desirable to forestall the danger of it gaining wide acceptance as established epistemological orthodoxy, which will be theoretically misleading, empirically inaccurate and counter-productive as the basis of future global economic policy. That conclusion is a parochial and distorted view of the effect of globalization from only one side of the many sides and innumerable faces of the world economy.

Our central argument in this contribution is that globalization might have increased global wealth but that the distribution of this wealth among the nations of the world has remained grossly unequal. The channels of distribution of global wealth have not closed the perennial and traditional income gap between the rich North and the poor South. Globalization has neither altered the pattern of socio-economic relations between the two hemispheres nor has it realigned the old order of division of economic roles between nations and
hemispheres. Despite the remarkable improvement in the economic indices of the BRICS countries (Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa) whose economies are expanding rapidly and claiming higher proportions as global output of world trade, the disparity between the class of debtor nations and the class of creditor nations remains as it has been since colonial days. These countries have been coming together under the umbrella since 2009 to assert their interest of relevance in the world economy. The net importers and exporters of modern technology remain unchanged; the producer and consumer nations remain in their original positions; the pattern of flow of world trade and flow of foreign capital investment and the benefits accruing therefrom remain as in the old order. The direction of migration of highly skilled manpower remains from developing countries to the West. Those who dominate world information content and flow and who consequently also shape world opinion and those who merely follow remain as originally constituted. The five permanent members of the UN Security Council remain unchanged; those who control the UN, the World Bank and IMF are the same countries since 1945 and the newly ‘independent’ countries remain mere spectators. America has remained the unchangeable head of the World Bank since 1945. Instead of narrowing down, the income inequality between the North and the South has widened, deepened and become more inelastic. The social disadvantage of this inequality to those who live in the poorer countries is glaring. Health care is, for example, severely limited. Whereas the nine richest Western countries boast of one physician for every 242 to 539 inhabitants, in the eighteen poorest countries (and they are all in Africa) it is just one physician for every 3,707 to 49,118 inhabitants. Average life expectancy for males in those advanced countries stands at 73 years whereas it is below 50 years in the poorer countries. Average literacy rate in the rich countries is 99.1 percent as compared to 47 percent in those African countries (2005 Britannica Book of the Year). While Africa has only 14 percent of World population she carries a disproportionately global disease burden of 25 percent. Sub-Saharan Africa, Middle East, North Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean have the worst unemployment statistics in recent records. For example, in 1995 world unemployment figure was 6.0 percent. This rose slightly to 6.3 in 2004/2005 and fell back to 6.0 in 2006. In the same period, while the industrialized countries and Asia had figures generally below the world average, for Sub-Saharan Africa unemployment stood at 9.5 percent, in Latin America and the Caribbean 7.3 percent, while in the Middle East and North Africa unemployment averaged 13.2 percent. (Zenith Economic Quarterly Vol. 1 No. 5 Jan. 2006; 73) Indeed, the old world economic order is substantially unaltered with the cautious exception of some emerging markets in Asia, which though going through noticeable change have not significantly transformed the pre-globalization international economic disparities between the hemispheres.

The case of Nigeria in her fifty-three years of post-colonial statehood particularly, the citizens’ compelled open acceptance of secondhand goods despite the country being the world’s seventh largest oil producer, is chosen to illustrate the fallacy of universal prosperity and the realities of worsening poverty and declining human condition for the second half of the world economy in spite of the official adoption of market-friendly and pro-globalization policies by the state.

In accounting for the persisting world economic and social inequalities, Giddens (2000:29) blames this on internal forces in underdeveloped countries. Arguing on a similar issue in the case of Nigeria, Adejugbe (2002: 94) asserted that the “backwardness and retarded growth in Nigeria was not due to globalization, but to greed and lack of patriotism among the ruling elites.” Judging from experience, it is impossible under a neo-colonial social formation to draw a clear line of demarcation between internal issues such as ‘the societies themselves, authoritarian government, corruption, conflict, over regulation and the low level of emancipation of women’ and external factors, such as ‘The global economy and the self-seeking behaviour of the rich nations’ Giddens (ibid) blames the internal forces while exonerating the external factors for the continuing plight of under-developed countries under globalization. It is important to point out that in post-colonial societies the two dominant forces in the state are the local bourgeoisie and international capitalist interests (Asobie, 1993), the one internal and the other external. There is an inseparable intermingling of internal and external forces and any sustainable explanation of reality must, by that logic, take both, not one to the neglect of the other. The internal forces are mainly dictated from outside, from the centres of capitalism due to the dependent character of the state and the domestic economy on the external sector. Even where corruption in public service is to blame, that corruption also is rooted in colonial history, “via imperialism, capitalism, colonialism and neo-colonialism” (Lawal, 2006:1) Lawal has characterized corruption in Nigeria as a colonial legacy; a perversion of public morality perpetuated by British officials as far back as the early 20th century and handed down to their domestic successors at independence.
In addition to the embrace of second-hand goods we rely also on current statistical data on the state of the Nigerian economy especially the indicators of the living conditions of the citizens, their changing consumption patterns and life styles, inter alia, to refute the finding of increasing universal global prosperity. The rest of this paper is divided into seven sections each addressing, in an integrated manner, the separate strands of the major arguments as outlined above.

Nigeria: Indices of Decline in Human Conditions.

It is assured in this section that the conditions of living have progressively deteriorated for most Nigerians in spite of globalization, if not indeed due to globalization. The most graphic empirical evidence of this is the compelled mass acceptance of cheaper imported second-hand commodities. We shall return to that index later. But first let us examine the concrete presentation and interpretation of the statistical proof of the worsening living conditions that compel citizens to settle for ‘fairly used’ goods imported from the West as they could no longer afford new and more expensive commodities.

Nigeria presents an image of an economic and social paradox; until recently a heavily indebted state, over 60% of citizens living below poverty line but very rich ruling class. She is currently the seventh largest oil-producing country in the world. That should mean that it is potentially a wealthy country or that citizens should be well-off. But in reality that is not to be. For instance, in an overall performance rating in a global development and poverty table, Nigeria drifted down to 158th position in 2005 from 151st in 2004 out of a total of 177 countries covered in the assessment (UNDP, 2005). Incredibly, in the immediate seven years before 2006, the price of crude oil, Nigeria’s main foreign exchange earner, climbed steadily high to a peak of US $72.00 per barrel in April, 2006. In 2010 the price had soared to over US $100 per barrel. Between 2004 and 2005, life expectancy in Nigeria declined from 51 to 43.4 (UNDP, 2005). Similarly, life expectancy at birth was 49 in 1990 but dropped to 45 in 2003 (World Bank, 2003). Extracts from World Bank: African Development Indicators, 2005 present an image of poverty-stricken nationals. For instance, between 1994 and 2002, 70 percent of Nigerians lived under US $1.00 a day that is, lived below poverty line. Between 1991 and 1999, the average family spent 67 percent of household income on food alone. The historical trend of poverty is striking. The Gross National Income (GNI) per capita annual average showed a downward trend (in US$) from 601 in 1975-84 through 275 in 1985-94 to 273 in 1995-2004. Contrary to the claim of the protagonists of globalization, not only are most Nigerians poor, the gap between the rich and the poor is widening. For example, from 1998-2002, it was estimated that the richest 20 percent controlled 55.7% of national wealth while the poorest 10 percent had 1.6% and the poorest 20% controlled 4.4% of national wealth. Poverty is not determined only by a person’s income but also by the cost of living because the prices of goods and services dictate what the real value of the income is or what that income can buy.

In a heavily import-dependent economy such as Nigeria, the movement of the exchange rate of the national currency is a pointer to well being because many consumables are imported. Shown below is the official exchange rate of the Naira, the national currency per US dollar between 1980 and 2006. It is as follows: 1980-0.5; 1994-22.0; 1995-21.9; 1996-21.9; 1997-21.9; 1998-21.9; 1999-92.3; 2000-101.7; 2001-111.2; 2002-120.6; 2003-129.2; 2006-132.05 (first quarter). In July 2011 the exchange rate further deteriorated to a US dollar to 154.

The rapidly deteriorating exchange rate during the years meant higher price of imports and fall in the real value and purchasing power of the local currency, the Naira. The annual average increase of the exchange rate in the period was as follows: 1975-84-0.6; 1985-94-9.8; 1995-2004-71.4.

An idea of what this index means for the purchasing power of the Naira over that period can be gleaned from the real effective exchange rate index with the year 2000 as base. It is as follows: 1980-420.9; 1994-145.8; 1995-123.6; 1996-152.9; 1997-175.5; 1998-192.5; 1999-97.6; 2001-111.0; 2002-111.6; 2003-104.5.

This is a purchasing power drop of over 400% during the 23 year period or that what No.5 bought in dollar terms in 1980 can only be obtained in 2003 with over N129, a Naira devaluation of over 1000 %. The annual average decrease in real exchange rate index is as follows: 1975-84-543.9; 1985-94-191.7; 1995-2004-129.9.
The effect of the exchange rate and other internal economic variables on domestic prices is shown in the Consumer Price Index (2000 as base) in the 23 years as follows: 1980-1; 1994-31; 1995-54; 1996-70; 1997-76; 1998-83; 1999-87; 2001-113; 2003-145.

The impact of the inflationary trend on standard of living in an economy bedeviled with steep concentration of wealth in a few hands and in which for the second decade (1994-2002) 70 percent of the population access less than a US dollar per day is obvious. In that period (2000-2005) the price of petrol (and kerosene which is the main source of domestic cooking, heating and lighting fuel for urban as well as semi-urban dwellers) rose by over 300% from N22.00 in June, 2000 to N65.00 in August, 2005. Two other factors ensured that the astronomical rise in cost of living took a complete toll on the living condition of Nigerians. One was unemployment and the other is the policy of wage freeze from 1986 both of which reduced the number of those who operated above poverty line.

There are other indicators of miserable living conditions. In 1990, 39% of Nigerians had access to sanitation facilities. This proportion dropped to 38% in 2002. In March 2006 Water Aid Nigeria, an NGO in its Country Strategy Document, 2006-2011 recorded that 81.5 million Nigerians had no access to adequate sanitation. Nigeria was ranked the fourth dirtiest country in the world behind India’s (772.4m), China’s (736.9m) and Indonesia’s (106.9m) which occupied first, second and third positions respectively (Daily Independent, March 23, 2006). And these are among the Asian ‘Tigers’ often quickly cited as examples of emerging markets, as illustrative examples of universal global prosperity. Nigeria’s maternal mortality ratio of between 704-1000 per 100,000 live births is one of the highest in the world. Infant mortality rose from 91 in 1990 to 105 per 1000 births in 1999. Less than 55% of the population has access to safe drinking water. HIV/AIDS national prevalence rate in 2005 was about 3.4% and poverty is a driving condition. Between 1991 and 1999, four preventable diseases, that is, malaria, diarrhea, respiratory infections and vaccine-preventable diseases accounted for over 90% of childhood morbidity and mortality. Housing conditions are very inadequate and access to modern healthcare remains a luxury. Electric power consumption in KWh per capita declined from 95.3 in 1993 to 68.5 in 2000 and 68.2 in 2002. In a nutshell, this is no cheering picture and Nigeria cannot be ranked among those that have benefited from pro-globalization policies which became official since 1986 (World Bank: Africa Development Indicators 2005). What these statistics portray is that living conditions are not getting better in Nigeria, they are rather deteriorating.


Table 1, indicates a clear situation of rising poverty and declining human condition with over 61% of the population living on less than one dollar a day over the years.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2004 (%)</th>
<th>2010 (%)</th>
<th>2011 (%)</th>
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<tr>
<td>Estimated Population (Million)</td>
<td>126.3</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative poverty</td>
<td>54.4</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>71.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absolute Poverty</td>
<td>54.7</td>
<td>60.9</td>
<td>61.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dollar per Day</td>
<td>62.8</td>
<td>61.2</td>
<td>62.8</td>
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</table>


Table Two shows another dimension of the problem or condition based on relative poverty. The table shows that while the proportion of non-poor in the population declined steadily between 1980 and 2010, the moderately poor and extremely poor maintained a steady rising trend over the period.
Table 2: Relative Poverty – 1980 – 2010 (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Non-Poor</th>
<th>Moderately Poor</th>
<th>Extremely Poor</th>
<th>Moderately poor and Extremely Poor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>72.8</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>27.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>53.7</td>
<td>34.2</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>46.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>57.3</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>42.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>36.3</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>65.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>43.3</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>55.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>69.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The Imported Second-hand Commodities Market
The Nigerian market, since 1986, has become the Western World’s dump site for used and discarded commodities. The trade is booming because there is demand for these items in the domestic market. The persisting demand is the local consumers’ mechanism for coping with the pressures of rapidly rising exchange rates and the resultant hyper inflation of the prices of imported new essential commodities. There is widespread acceptance without much choice across the country’s social and economic hierarchies of those cheap imported second-hand articles. Top civil servants, military generals, business executives, politicians, the rich, governments, embassies, celebrities, all buy items ranging from used cars, boats, aircraft, furniture, and electronics, spare parts, industrial machinery etc. How this situation has come to be, is one of the regrettable paradoxes of the continuing mal-articulation of the Nigerian economy from the world economic system. We say regrettable, because it is a compelled, painful mode of adapting to the economic fallout of globalization. Since the great Naira devaluation of 1986 at the onset of the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP), Nigerians have sank deeper in economic misery faced with the reality of settling for second-hand commodities or live altogether without them as the prices of new items soared beyond the reach of even those in the high income brackets. Nigerians like nationals of other countries like to enjoy new products. So the growth in appetite for used items can no longer be explained by the usual craving for imported goods, but by what is affordable and available.

All over the length and breadth of the country, in urban and rural towns there are markets for used items. Indeed some traders (and this idea has been bought by some consumers) say that the imported used items are more durable and have greater utility value than new local products. They also theorize that the used ‘originals’ are better than the ‘fake’ new imports custom-ordered by profiteer Nigerian traders from factories mostly in Asia and the Middle East.

Everywhere one goes in the country, markets are awash with all manners of secondhand articles. The statistics of imports of used articles of trade in our situation are unreliable. Some of the items are contrabands and are therefore brought in by smugglers. We would therefore as an alternative draw a table of items tradable in this market to give an idea of the volume and variety of imports as an alternative to trade statistics.

Fig. 1: Varieties of Imported Secondhand Items traded in the Nigerian Market.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vehicles and Cycles</th>
<th>Electronics</th>
<th>Textiles/ Wears</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cars</td>
<td>Television sets</td>
<td>Clothes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buses</td>
<td>Radio/ cassette players</td>
<td>Shoes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tankers</td>
<td>Microwaves</td>
<td>Hand bags</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tractors</td>
<td>Electric cookers</td>
<td>Belts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tippers</td>
<td>Electric kettles</td>
<td>Stockings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utility vehicles e.g.</td>
<td>Air conditioners</td>
<td>Caps/ Hats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fire trucks</td>
<td>GSM Handsets</td>
<td>Jewelry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Septic tank dislodgers</td>
<td>Electric Iron</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tow vehicles</td>
<td>Vacuum cleaners</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refrigerated trucks</td>
<td>Washing machines</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caravans</td>
<td>Refrigerators</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motorcycles</td>
<td>Deep freezers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bicycles</td>
<td>Hair Dryers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It is asserted that the use of second-hand items in itself is an index of decline in living conditions. It could be argued that in the prevailing conditions the use of these commodities is a safeguard against total deterioration of human conditions. The ameliorating effect of second-hand goods is based on the idea that the alternative to them is to live without those items since new ones are unaffordable. That argument is oblivious of the history of emergence of this condition. As was shown earlier, there would have been no rational basis for any Nigerian to settle for used imported articles in 1980 or before 1986. That year, that is, in 1980, one Nigerian Naira exchanged for two US dollars. In that situation, new imports were cheaper and more affordable than local alternatives. Then, Nigerians used new cars, flew new aero-planes, and bought new bicycles, clothes, electronics e.t.c. just like nationals of other countries. That assertion, is therefore, based on the pre-1980 situation and the conditions of living of these people then. This observation is also supported by the geometric decline in the real effective exchange rate between 1980 and 2003 which fell from 420.9 to 104.5. The use of second-hand goods impacts on a people’s standard of living in more ways than one. First, there is a psychological impact. This is the ego deflation arising from using what another human being has done away with. Two, there is a question of national image, of national pride. Inferiority versus superiority complex exists between current buyers and former users. Three, used items are more expensive to maintain, they have shorter life span, they are less reliable, less predictable and less dependable. This is why sellers usually decline to issue any warranty on them. Users of used items, such as cars, spend more time and more resources mending faults and malfunctions. They are more risk-prone. In Nigeria, the Federal Road Safety Commission (FRSC) has waged a consistent campaign against the use of second-hand tyres which they say, is a major cause of road accidents. Government’s restriction of importation of air-conditioners, fridges and freezers is justified by those older technologies containing ozone layer-unfriendly substances. But they are shipped to the Third World any way from Europe, Asia and America.

In recent times, Nigeria had experienced fatal air crashes. One involving a local carrier on October 22, 2005 claimed all 117 passengers and crew. Less than two months later, another airline was involved in a mishap in Port Harcourt another Nigerian city, claiming over 100 lives, this time with few survivors. In the October 22 case, the Aircraft was over 35 years and had passed through over five countries to get to Nigeria. So are most other aircraft flying in the local air space! Dana Air that went down on June 3, 2012 in Iju-Ishaga area of Lagos swept over 150 passengers, crew and ground victims to their untimely graves.

This is not an experience limited to Nigeria alone, but applies to most developing countries. We recall the case of Ferry Estonia in 1994, a disaster that killed over 1000 persons. Similarly, an Egyptian ferry that was 35 years old sank in the Red Sea on February 3, 2006 killing over 1000 passengers leaving nearly 400 survivors. Reports had it that an Italian company found it unsafe and it was sold then to an Egyptian company. In its earlier history it was involved in a collision in 1998, and in its eventual mishap, there was fire but there were no evacuation plans, no life jackets, that is, no usual safety procedures. Having ferried passengers in the West for years, aircraft, cars, ferries, etc. are sold cheaply to Third World operators where they often go down with the souls of the ‘lower homo sapiens’. And this is how the forces of globalization are turning the economies of the LDCs into the junk yard of used, discarded machinery, domestic goods, automobiles, aero-planes, ocean liners, electronics, furniture, textiles e.t.c.

**Features of the Nigerian Economy before and after the Structural Adjustment Programme**

As has been asserted earlier, the Nigerian economy at present is a theatre of macroeconomic contradictions. It is the world’s seventh largest producer of oil but 70 percent of the citizens live on less than US $1 per day. As the price of this commodity rises in the world market, the human conditions of the citizens worsen.
Nigeria imports over 60 per cent of refined petroleum products for local consumption even though it has four huge refineries which are hardly allowed to operate. The country is amassing huge external reserves but the real sectors in the domestic economy are in ruins; agriculture is tradition-bound, peasant-centred and technologically rudimentary; manufacturing firms are disappearing due to the policy of privatization and state divestment under a condition where the industrial and social infrastructure are a disincentive to private investment; the country until recently was heavily externally indebted, 70 percent of the citizens live below the official poverty line but less than 5 per cent of the population (majority of whom had occupied public office at one point or another beforehand) are stupendously rich. The hospitals and universities are starved of qualified doctors and academics but locally trained experts continue to leave in torrents to Western Europe and America where they form a significant proportion of the health and education personnel, producing excellent services in those places while equivalent institutions at home are collapsing. This is a case of the poor subsidizing the rich. The contradictions are legion.

These features are however not surprising. They are historically explainable. The Nigerian state and economy from about 1862, was progressively incorporated into the British Empire and thereby into the international capitalist system, albeit as a marginal player, as a dependent appendage. The duty assigned to it as is the case with all peripheral states is the continued reproduction and consolidation of the dependence of the Nigerian state on the centre. What is reproduced are the structural contradictions of dependent capitalism at the economic, political and socio-cultural levels, a few of which we have listed above. Unfortunately, the country after fifty-two years of political independence has not succeeded in breaking away from the core-satellite linkages of unequal and servile exchange. An implication of the overtly outward orientation of the economy is the sectoral and geographical disarticulation of the domestic economy. Under the hegemony of the IMF and the World Bank, the domestic ruling class is unable to summon the courage to dictate the terms and conditions under which the country participates in the global context. It is this situation that explains the wholesale adoption of market liberalization and rejection of strategic protectionism despite its tremendous advantages for technologically backward economies.

Such issues as are identified above determine the features of the inherited economy and its course of teleguided existence, activities and results. The Nigerian economy before SAP was basically agro-based. Agriculture was the mainstay of the economy. It provided food, employment, raw materials and foreign exchange. In the first post-independence decade 1960-70, agriculture contributed to the GDP 62.9 percent, 54.4 percent and 47.94 percent in 1960, 1965 and 1970 respectively (Adejugbe, 2006: 30 ). Three items: groundnuts, cocoa and palm produce constituted the main cash crops and foreign exchange earners. The sector was however dominated by peasant farmers who relied on traditional knowhow. During this initial time, manufacturing and the extractive industries were less significant accounting for only 11.10 percent, 17.23 percent and 22.40 percent of the GDP in 1960, 1965 and 1970 respectively (Adejugbe, 2006:30). Moreover, the manufacturing sector was and still is dominated by established multi-nationals. Initially, the approach of these companies was the importation of finished consumer goods from their home countries rather than strive to manufacture the products in the colony.

Consequently, the industrial infrastructure remained undeveloped without any appreciable success in transfer of modern technology into the domestic economy till the present. According to Adejugbe (2006: 31) overall growth of the GDP from 1970-2002 was 3.13 percent. The worst decade was the recession/SAP period, 1980-89 when the annual growth rate collapsed to a mere 0.32 percent. Between 1998 and 2005, the growth rate of the GDP climbed back to the 3.0 range with the rapid increase in the price of crude oil in the World market. However, between 2006 and 2010 average GDP growth rate per annum was 6.66% standing respectively at 6.03%, 6.45%, 5.98%, 6.96% and 7.87% (NBS, 2010). The expected improvement in living conditions could not occur due to equally high double-digit inflation that characterized the period. The rate was 8.50, 6.60, 15.10, 13.90 and 12.70 in 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009 and 2010 respectively. The high lending rate over the period also meant that investment capital was not accessible to the small, medium scale and information sector operation which forms the bulk of the employment valve for most of the economically active population. The maximum lending rate in the period stood at 18.14, 18.41, 18.36, 18.70, 22.9 and 22.5 in 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009 and 2010 respectively (NBS, 2010). Over the period, HIV/AIDS prevalence rate stood at 4.6, 4.6 and 4.1 in 2007 2009 and 2010 respectively. (NACA, NPPC). The experience of the economy over the years could safely be described as a trace of marginal performance, instability and human condition.
Thus in the second post-independence Development Plan period (1970-75), in addition to the expressed aim of transforming the agricultural sector, emphasis was placed on moving the economy away from agro-dependence. As a result, import-substitution industrialization and the indigenization of ownership and control of manufacturing companies and the service sectors were introduced into the repertoire of economic development strategies. Unfortunately, not much was achieved during the period. For a fact some Nigerians fronted for dubious foreign investors and thereby ostensibly secured ownership but lost control of the businesses to those foreign interests. This period also coincided with the onset of the oil boom and of reckless public spending. Oil became a major export product during this plan period. Many considered it more lucrative to import goods for sale in the domestic economy than to produce them at home. Imports comprised mainly of consumer goods and raw materials and the two constituted about 70 percent of total imports.

The transition from agro-based economy to oil-dependent economy promoted the dependence of the Nigerian economy on the global capitalist economy. For example, although the highest that agriculture contributed to the GDP in 1960 stood at 62.9%, while oil at its peak GDP contribution in 1980 was only 32.02%, oil constituted 70 percent of average government revenue and 85 percent of total export revenue in the economy between 1970 and 1988 (Iwayemi, 1995:69). With the rise in prominence of oil came the neglect of agriculture. This in turn led to human drift from the rural areas to the cities. A sharp drop in local food production occurred. What followed was a quantum leap in food importation which became inevitable. As the oil sector was foreign-dominated, the Nigerian economy became comparatively more vulnerable to the control and direction of foreign economic and agricultural powers than was the situation when agriculture was the backbone of the economy. Unlike agriculture, very few Nigerians were engaged in the oil industry as the multinationals brought in as low as technicians from their home countries. Oil was drilled and exported crude without any plans initially to refine some quantity for export or to diversify or expand the industry to accommodate new opportunities. Although there was massive investment in social and industrial infrastructure such as ports, dams, roads, schools, hospitals and iron and steel plants during the Second and Third Plan periods, these investments could not be sustained due to the fragility of the real sectors and political instability. Corruption by those in public office, inflation, dumping of all manners of goods into the economy killed local initiative and enterprise. Consequently, between 1982 and 2002 manufactured value added as percentage of GDP remained low at an annual average of 7.0 percent (CBN: Statistical Bulletin, Vol. 14 December, 2003).

Perhaps the most devastating socio-psychological impact of the oil boom was the easy money mentality which multiplied the number of Nigerians who were unproductive and morally degenerative. Not surprisingly, armed robbery, drug trafficking among other sources of quick money became rampant. The oil boom did not last long. By 1981, the boom had burst and the economy was dragged into the world economic recession that had set in due to the collapse of the price of oil in the world market. The civilian government of President Shehu Shagari (1979 – 83) hurriedly packaged an economic recovery plan which was too cosmetic considering the depth of the macroeconomic crisis. In 1986, the government of military President Ibrahim Babangida introduced the IMF/World Bank-driven Structural Adjustment Programme, an economic reform programme which resulted in the total collapse of the domestic currency. Unfortunately, the SAP failed to achieve any visible restructuring results. Up till the present, agriculture, oil, manufacturing and social infrastructure such as energy, water, housing, health facilities, schools are not in any shape that can be considered conducive for economic take-off in the nearest future. Electricity supply to power the economy is still grossly inadequate. Nigeria’s 150 million people manage 3,000 mega watts of electricity just same quantity as is available to the London Heathrow airport in UK. Unemployment levels are high and still rising. Inflation is currently at over 20 percent per annum catalyzed principally by the persistent upward review of pump price of petroleum products by the government. The exchange rate, though currently stable, is already too high. Industrial capacity utilization has remained at an average of 48 percent for over two decades and epileptic power supply and high marginal cost of production in the economy have forced many investors to relocate to other economies or to move away from production altogether into importation and distributive trade. The wholesale adoption of full market liberalization policy by the current government does not appear to be changing the key indices of underdevelopment despite the orchestrated claims of remarkable recovery by the administration.

**Nigeria’s Journey on the Road to Globalization**

We share in this article the view of Adebayo Ninalowo that globalization is ‘obscured neo-imperialism’ (Ninalowo, 2005:1). This mode of conceptualization is concurrent with the view of globalization as a
process, not an end state, not just a condition, because as a process it is still in progress changing its character and has the potential to present new vistas in future. Globalization is a euphemism for neo-liberal imperialism. It is the contemporary international policy frame for the consolidation of neo-liberal hegemony. Those definitions that obscure this imperialistic undertone, for example, those ‘common sense’ definitions (Van Der Bly, 2005: 877) simply trivialize the issue and obscure its intrinsic essence. Among such definitions are those that see it merely in terms of the shrinking of the world into a global village (McLuhan, 1968); or that relate it to the whole wide world, something universal (Oxford English Dictionary, online); or as homogenization of world cultures through sustained contact made possible by the current revolutions in technology of mass communication. The process is not ideologically neutral. It is about power, hegemony, vested interest and preservation of the existing unequal world order.

In this regard, its connection with the roots and origins of imperialism and the specific succeeding epochs in the history of development of underdevelopment cannot be ignored. Globalization is the late 20th and early 21st century continuation (and outcome) of a historical process of capitalist conquest, expansionism and consolidation that began over six centuries ago with the first contact between Europeans and Nigerians along the coastal districts of the country.

The Role of the State under Globalization: Protectionism or liberalization?

It is a widely shared view that a key disadvantage of globalization is that the sovereign powers of states in the modern complex world as indexed by their diminished respective capacities for independent and autonomous action is remarkably encroached upon and eroded (Held 1995: 125). The loss of sovereignty stems from effects of bilateral and multilateral agreements and obligations arising from such agreements. In addition, supra-national organizations including organs of the United Nations especially the World Bank, IMF, WTO and other economic, social and intergovernmental platforms at least, by implication, impose restrictions on the freedom of individual member states to act. It is however the case that these restrictions do not apply equally to the rich and poor countries. The rich countries have substantial political clout to determine or influence international policy directions and this adds up to limited loss of sovereign powers by those states. This economic and political leverage in turn moderates the impact of international decisions on their domestic policies and on their peoples.

For the poorer countries, on the other hand, the implication of this imbalance of power and influence is their relative inability to cushion their citizens from the harsh effects of pro-globalization policies and actions from the world stage. This relative vulnerability is regrettable because some experts believe that different states have a duty to adapt international polices to their own economic, cultural and political systems and thereby evolve their own ‘policy styles’ (see Janicke and Welder, 1997; Richardson, 1987). In this regard, Smelser (2005; 104) submits that national governments are the agencies that have to cope with the consequences (for their domestic populations) of the vicissitudes of the world economy. But the poorer states are ill-equipped to defend their nationals.

As W. G. Friedmann stated in one of the clearest cautionary statements on international economic liberalization and deregulation:

The philosophy of the free play of economic forces is thus no longer accepted by any contemporary democracy. The right of every citizen to a minimum standard of living as a condition of liberty and human dignity is usually accepted, even though the implementation of this idea still lags far behind the aspiration. This means the acknowledgement of the positive role of the state and the use of law for the attainment of certain economic and social ends. Beyond this generally accepted minimum, there remains vast divergence, not only on the scope of this deliberate correction of the free play of economic forces, but on the instrumentalities. (Friedmann, 1971: 23)

The duty which the quest for human dignity thrusts upon states and which, it is feared, might not be attained by the free interplay of market forces alone, is made more imperative by neo-liberal pro-globalization policies, which in themselves advocate for ‘smaller government’ and the dominance of market forces. The apparent contradiction for globalization in this argument is removed by the difference in the ultimate essence
of Friedmann’s imperative of state intervention which is hinged upon the need to protect human dignity including elimination of poverty and social inequality. Pro-globalization policy on the contrary, concentrates on unhindered ascendency of market forces and the prosperity of the rich nations, not on promotion of universal human rights and dignity.

There is, however, abundant evidence in recent state policies in the West to justify the superiority of Friedmann over undiluted allowance of free market forces. The powerful nations that have the means continue to protect their national interests to the detriment of market liberalization goals in line with Friedmann, though they continue to sell the direct opposite of policy ideas to states in the dependent world.

For instance, on February 2005, the German company E.ON proposed a takeover bid of US $34.5 billion to buy over Endesa, Spain’s energy and gas controlling company. The Government of Spain opposed the deal and in spite of anti-protectionism EU regulations failed to allow the take over on grounds of superior national interest. Similarly, in March 2006, the American Congress, citing overall national security interest, blocked the deal by which Dubai Ports (of United Arab Emirates) was to buy and manage six leading US Ports. In reference to the security concerns of the American people since the September 11 attack on the twin towers of the World Trade Centre in New York, the Congress disagreed with the Presidency that it was simply a safe business deal. Little attention was paid to the implications of the refusal on international free market regulations or on American/UAE business relations. A similar scenario played out when MITEL, an India Steel Company, wanted to take over ACELOR, a Luxembourg Steel firm for US $25 billion, but because ACELOR employed over 27,000 French nationals, the French President Jacque Chirac declared in a state visit to India that his country was an interested stakeholder in the business decision. The French government blocked the deal on account of national interest. Interestingly, this example was a protectionist move across the boundaries of two nations from France to Luxembourg.

In all of these accounts, market forces were subordinated to state or national interest. An irony of international economic decision making today is that while the West is moving towards greater state protectionist policies, they nonetheless encourage and even cajole underdeveloped countries to embrace liberalization policies of the most absurd and ridiculous proportions.

Globalization Theory, Poverty of the Other Half and the Invalidity of Theory
Is the thesis that pro-globalization policies have reduced poverty and inequality globally a valid theory? Does this theory apply to the predated/exploited economies of the South? As well, is it a valid assumption that the poor countries of the world that are still poor are those that have not sufficiently globalized? Is it true that globalization policies have so rearranged the structures of opportunity and access and redistributed world trade and resources as to ameliorate or mitigate the poor conditions of living prevalent in the other half of the world?

It is desirable to ask these questions in order to determine whether or not the ideal-typical scientific tenets of a theory are satisfied by globalization theory. Every theory can be assessed on three parameters that is, theoretical validity, empirical adequacy and policy effectiveness. Globalization theory cannot be an exception. For example is the theory of globalization consistent? That is, are the conclusions logically derived or derivable from the underlying premises? How valid are its assumptions, for example, that internal not external factors alone account for the persistence of poverty in dependent countries? How valid are its predictions, e.g. that anti-globalization disposition will deepen poverty in the South while growth is the inevitable outcome of pro-globalization policies? Lastly to what extent can the theory be generalized for all economies irrespective of location in the global structure of economic opportunities? Moreover, these questions are pertinent in view of the position which was earlier on canvassed namely, that the theories of imperialism, colonialism and neo-colonialism can all be summarized as structural explanations of historically rooted poverty of sub-Saharan Africa, Latin America and Asia and of the inequality between these regions and their western counterparts. We had also characterized neo-liberal democracy, modernization and globalization as present day justifications of the continuing gap between the two spheres and a continuation of the old agenda of imperialism and ideological hegemony by the West. These three social facts are united in one purpose-the victory of capitalism. It is therefore pertinent to query the rationale provided by globalization protagonists for believing that its aims are at variance with its forebears. The rationalization that modern day neo-liberalism is a theory of restructured global symmetry rather than of asymmetry therefore deserves closer cross-examination.
To embark on this exercise the distinction made between ‘globalization theory’ and ‘theories of globalization’ by Rosenberg (2000:2) is a good point of entry. Kiely (2005; 907-910) endorses this distinction and berates the protagonist of globalization who does not see the necessity of drawing that distinction. He posits that it is not clear in current literature whether globalization is the cause or rather the outcome of the free-market forces, liberalized trade, open competition etc. In particular, Kiely further points out that the protagonists of globalization theory conflate these two clearly distinguishable views on globalization. He clarifies that while globalization theory accepts that globalization is the cause of the free market forces, free trade, liberalized finance and open competition and therefore of universal prosperity, followers of this view regard the state as an obstacle to perfect openness as it is to perfect market. It is to this school of thought that the World Bank, IMF, DFID and individuals like Giddens and Wolfe subscribe. From this perspective, globalization theory presents an image of itself as constituting a neo-liberal version of modernization theory. This is because of its sharing the characteristic shortcoming of a-historicity just the same way that modernization theory itself has regrettably been found to be. It also tends to view globalization and draws conclusions from its spatial rather than its political and social dimension. Kiely (2005) opines that this view of globalization as a determining variable has inevitably led globalization theorists into that complicity with neo-liberalism and modernization theory. This is in the sense that Giddens (2000) advanced this position further by submitting that globalization is not only inevitable but that it is desirable. He wrote:

…contact with Western-dominated global economy represents the only opportunity for developing countries and that ultimately, development failure is only caused by failure to embrace this opportunity….

This constitutes the main shortcoming of globalization theory. If those ingredients commonly associated with globalization are believed to be caused by globalization, this whole mode of reasoning robs the ultimate historical moment of emergence of globalization of its rich historical antecedents. Globalization theory thereby denies the significance of social history and obscures understanding of globalization by denying the remote causes of this late 20th century interjection into the history of development of international capitalism. For example, if globalization theory contends that those correlates of globalization were caused by globalization itself, those protagonists deny the impact of some main events, the immediate factors in emergence of globalization. For example, Saverine Rugumamu identified two of these factors viz:

a. The prolonged crisis of the 1960s and 1970s in advanced capitalist economies and the systematic transformation from Fordist to flexible capitalist accumulation, the adoption of new technologies, increased pressures on firms to invest abroad, aggressive integration of global markets and above all, increased financial movements and speculation;

b. The collapse of the Soviet system, the end of the cold war and the disintegration of the planned economies of Eastern Europe (Rugumamu, 1999: 4).

According to Rugumamu, these were the immediate forces leading to the emergence of those socio-economic and political correlates of globalization. The triumph of capitalism is, therefore, a main factor and this has remained the goal of centuries of Western intellectual and political struggle. Since Adam Smith, western economics has longed for the day that private enterprise will take over the economy of nations, when the state will recede into ‘smaller government’, when free market forces will rule the market. The motivation of events such as wars, diplomatic maneuvers, granting or withholding of aid, forcible take-over of governments, support of rebels, militants and guerrilla groups by agents of capitalism, have all come before the actual commencement of globalization; it therefore cannot be the cause of those correlates i.e. the enthronement of the free market, privatization and free competition. It was itself only a phase, albeit a decisive one in a continuing process of capitalist take-over of the global economy.

The theories of globalization, on the other hand, treat those ingredients of globalization as outcomes of globalization rather than it being their cause.

We agree with Kiely that globalization is the outcome rather than the cause of market forces and its accompanying economic principles. It is true that for several decades, western capitalism has persistently
strove for enthronement of the supremacy of market forces, financial liberalization and diminution of effect of the state. These are the cumulative effect of the processes, as Kiely said, that are historically determined by specific agencies. As outcome, globalization cannot also be the cause of global prosperity due to greater integration of world economies, because both are results of an international agenda of western capitalism that has a history dating back over six centuries. Capitalism, the ideological context and precursor of globalization has never pretended to believe in social equality whether between nations or between classes of citizens, neither has it shown interest in transformatory empowerment of the poor, except as a palliative to ward off opposition against itself. It may have created more wealth but has done nothing to redistribute the heavy concentration of these resources in some countries. Therefore globalization cannot be the cause of the historical processes that have been on before its advent. As a keen observer of the international market remarked recently;

As would be expected, contemporary capitalist restructuring under globalization has led not only to creative processes of producing new technologies, more and better tradable goods and services and expanding the range of opportunities; it has also engendered inequalities and the alienation of increasing numbers of people the world over (Rugumamu, 1999: 4).

So the adoption by Giddens (2000) of globalization as a cure-all antidote to poverty in the other half (akin to what the Yoruba of Nigeria may refer to as gbogbo nise - a drug with potency for an infinite range of ailments) is empirically invalid, theoretically inconsistent and will lead to catastrophic global policy failure if it were to be adopted as the intellectual foundation of a new world development agenda. It poses as veiled ethnocentrism, ideological chauvinism and smacks of capitalist apology. Rugumamu’s (1999: 9-16) account of Africa’s marginalization from the world economy under globalization is a screaming index of the failure that debunks the theory of universal prosperity.

Capitalist economic restructuring may be characterized here as gbogbo nise deliberately because the idea serves a useful analogy of the impact of Structural Adjustment Programs (SAP). Charlatan drug hawkers in a bid to advertise their products to attract public patronage claim that these products can cure all known illnesses from headache, body pain, rheumatism, weak erection, stomach disorder, constipation, measles, diarrhea, insomnia, hypertension, malaria, HIV/AIDS etc. The people regard their advertisement as a laughable joke because no one drug can cure these ailments in infants, in children, in women, in the aged, in pregnant women, in all seasons and under all conditions. By the same token, the World Bank/IMF-sponsored Structural Adjustment Programs (SAP) package is administered in all underdeveloped countries, to all manners of economic problems oblivious of historical peculiarities, social attitudes or unique social and political structures and institutions. In decrying this situation Bade Onimode noted that

There is nothing Nigerian in the formulation of SAP, it is imposed for lending by The Bank and Fund and by 1991, some 34 African countries were implementing it under different names, such as Economic Recovery Programme in Ghana and Tanzania and Programme of Economic Recovery in Mozambique (Onimode, 1995: 51).

Just the same way that the users of the cure-all drugs are disappointed, many examples of the application of the SAP antidote to different countries in Africa manifesting ailments of different character, failed to realize their promised expectations. Onimode concludes that the SAP was a fundamental takeover of Nigeria’s economic policy (and we would add of Africa’s as a whole) by the IMF and the World Bank on behalf of the Western creditor nations; and that it amounted to a flagrant act of usurpation of the countries’ sovereignty; it was a new colonialism or a neo-colonialization of the Third World countries wherever it was implemented. Like the cure-all drugs, capitalist structural adjustment and globalization policy failed, lacking the advertised potency.

Globalization, Structural Adjustment Programme and Quality of Life of Nigerians
In Nigeria, the introduction of the SAP in July 1986 represented the official commencement of globalization policy which has continued up till the present through the ceaseless intrusion of the IMF and World Bank into the country’s public policy. The policy of the SAP however impacted adversely on human conditions contrary to its avowed objectives. This fact has been widely acknowledged by writers and observers of the
Nigerian situation (See Ninalowo 2005: 13; Adejugbe, 2006; Ishola, 2004: 362-368). This effect did not come as a surprise to many analysts given the policy planks of the SAP. These are: trade liberalization, devaluation of the domestic currency, removal of government subsidies, reduction in government expenditure, increase in interest rate and wage freeze especially in the public sector. Others are divestment of government and its complement-privatization, rationalization of parastatals, deregulation and reorganization of the civil service. From the onset of the SAP, Nigerians in the different economic brackets and social strata saw the worst forms of poverty, deprivation, misery never before experienced in the history of the country. The effect of SAP on the people can be gleaned from the different policy elements.

Massive devaluation of the Naira which resulted from adoption of market determined flexible exchange rate shot up the exchange rate bringing in its wake high level inflation due to the high import content of locally consumed goods. For instance, the exchange rate moved up from about N 3.316 to the US dollar in 1986 to N 110.00 to a dollar in December 1999, which is close to 3, 566 per cent in depreciation in thirteen years of SAP (Shola 2004: 362). The same author captured the rate of inflation during this period which stood at 5.4 per cent in 1986 but rose steeply to 72.8 per cent in 1995, a rate which he emphasized, was never before experienced in the history of the country. One quick mode of adjusting to this reality by the consumers was to settle for cheaper second-hand goods which were not even affordable by many citizens. As we have shown earlier, the combined effect of inflation and the geometric rise in exchange rate was a fall in people’s real purchasing power.

Apart from loss of real purchasing power, the human condition was also struck down by the fall in earning power due to the equally massive unemployment in especially the public sector. This was the combined effect of trade liberalization, government divestment and rationalization of public sector organizations. For example, in 1997 alone, in eight months between January-August, eleven federal government employing organizations (Nigerian Television Authority, Nigerian Prisons Service, Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation, National Electric Power Authority, Federal Capital Development Authority, Ministry of Federal Capital Territory, Central Bank of Nigeria, National Orientation Agency, Nigerian Security Printing and Minting Company, University of Nigeria, Nsukka and University of Ilorin) retrenched, sacked, rationalized, dismissed or retired 15, 636 personnel (Nwabueze, 1997: 173). In that exercise, although the Central Bank rethrenched only 782 staff, it was announced that the intention was to reduce its workforce from 10,000 to 7, 000, that is, by 3, 000 staff nation-wide. The story was not different in the private sector as we would demonstrate shortly.

The inference that the SAP occasioned de-industrialization of dependent economies is a glaring reality in the Nigerian case. Experts, including Ishola (2004) and Adejugbe (2004) have shared their thoughts on this issue. De-industrialization was the result of the high production cost, the unfriendly local business environment especially the state of social infrastructure and the effect of trade liberalization. Trade liberalization led to the massive inflow and dumping of all manners of imports into the Nigerian market. Unfair competition led to the closure of many factories. For example, Deru (1998:34) noted that of the six battery plants in operation before the SAP, only one escaped the economic strangulation of trade liberalization. On the whole, 5,000 job losses occurred in that sector. The reports of the Manufacturers Association of Nigeria (MAN) are illuminated in this connection. The Association records that in 1996 alone about 115 member-companies shut down operations (MAN, July-December, 1996) The Association also recorded that over 130 member-companies shut operations between 1997 and 1999 due largely to lack of working capital and dumping in the economy (MAN 1999: July-December). The worst hit sector is textiles where over 50 out of a total of about 60 companies have since shut down. Most of the proprietors thereafter, branched off into importation of cars, electronics, foods and beverages and chemicals. The effect of company closures on unemployment is direct and complementary to job losses in the public sector.

The SAP policy line that drove the final nail into the coffin of deplorable living conditions in Nigeria is that of wage freeze. In the late 1970s the military government had placed a lid on wage increases as a panacea for economic recovery. It took the 1981 general strike led by the Nigeria Labour Congress to usher in a minimum wage regime of N300.00 per month. But on 21 December 1984, direct reductions were effected on fringe benefits of public employees. This prepared the way and when SAP arrived in 1986 a complete wage freeze became official policy. The effect of the freeze on workers, those few who still retained their jobs is imaginable in the face of slashing of fringe benefits, high inflation, astronomical exchange rates and withdrawal of oil and other subsidies. On this matter trade unionist, Issa Aremu commented that:
To regulate wages, but allow profits and prices of goods to rise shows the partisan and class character of SAP (Aremu; 1990: 144)

There is little wonder then why the SAP era was one of grave industrial unrest. University lecturers, medical doctors, public sector airline pilots and the other members of the SAP-endangered and rapidly disappearing middle class joined in what was popularly termed ‘SAP riots’. Retired General Obasanjo (later to return as Nigeria’s elected president in 1999), criticized the SAP then for lacking a human face. It had the face of a monster, a dragon.

Another key policy plank of the SAP was government withdrawal of public utility and services subsidy especially the subsidy on petroleum products. During the budget speech of January 1986 government directed the removal of 80 per cent petroleum subsidy. By this time the government-motivated debate by the public on IMF conditionalities, for a choice between IMF/World Bank SAP and an autochthonous SAP was in progress. The immediate effect of this measure was the pushing up of general prices, particularly the cost of local transportation which jumped up by 100 per cent. This trend has continued till the present long after the official end of the SAP period. For example, in 1995, pump price of petrol was hiked by 1000 per cent from N3.50 to N11.50 per litre. This price hike had negative impact on real wage income on private savings and on government revenue and expenditure. It also had negative effect on the output of the real and service sectors of the economy. The progressive withdrawal of oil subsidy did not only continue after SAP, it became more frequent between 1999 and 2005. During that period, petroleum prices were raised five times. By 2005, the pump price of petrol had risen to N65.00 per litre. In January 2012 an unprecedented crisis engulfed the government of Goodluck Jonathan and organized labour over pump price of petrol. It settled at N97.00 per litre and has remained there. Further increase, however, is very imminent.

As if these effects were not enough, the reduction in government expenditure in essential services such as education, health and social infrastructure, public utilities like electricity, water, telephone led to a rapid decline in quality of services. Many professionals resigned or abandoned their jobs and emigrated. The universities were thrown into a hotbed of labour crisis. The hospitals were not spared. Up till today portable water is not accessible to a high percentage of the populace. Electricity remains epileptic and a main hindrance to national productivity.

In concluding this section it should be stressed that the failure of the SAP in Nigeria was a bad beginning for globalization, which is often assessed from the experiences of that era. The SAP did not only worsen the living conditions of Nigerians, it also enlarged the number of the poor and created wider income gap. It did not achieve the objective of economic restructuring for higher economic efficiency. Globalization policies have merely continued to thread the SAP way in content and impact. It is therefore difficult for those people who have gone through this experience ever to share the view that globalization creates universal global prosperity.

Conclusion
In this paper we have argued that contrary to views held in certain quarters by some vested interests, globalization as present day neo-imperialism is creating glaring inequities by accentuating the continued reproduction simultaneously of the global dialectic of wealth in the North and underdevelopment in the South. The illustration done with data drawn from Nigeria reveals that the persisting crises and contradictions of underdevelopment are indices of globalization’s negation of development and popular empowerment. The descent of Nigeria into a country whose citizens see nothing wrong in using industrial and household goods and personal effects already used and discarded by consumers in the West was traced to the mid-1980s when the World Bank and IMF-inspired SAP was introduced. As an economic ‘reform’ measure, the SAP was conceived as an antidote to the globally precipitated economic recession that swept dependent, oil-based Nigerian economy in its wake. The programme failed because there was nothing Nigerian in its logic and design but was a package imposed on the local economy with the active connivance of the unproductive local compradors and the pseudo-capitalist state at home. The unmitigated free fall of the exchange rate from that date shot up the general prices of new commodities, most of which were imported, beyond the reach of people even in the high income brackets. Nigerians, of different walks of life settled for secondhand goods. Life expectancies dropped, experts and professionals emigrated to Europe and America to avail themselves of the stronger currencies or to escape the dehumanizing effects of a rapidly declining real income regime.
Meanwhile, industries shot down, hospitals and universities suffered both from underfunding and brain drain. Poverty deepened as the income gap between classes and groups widened.

On the discriminatory benefits of globalization, we observed that the distribution of the benefits were officially supposedly left to free market forces but in reality were teleguided and strongly regulated and controlled by Western governments and international capitalist institutions. These rather than market forces determine who gets what and how in the global market place. As to the role of internal forces in accounting for the loss of development momentum in dependent countries, we have argued that the reality on the ground in these economies is that there is no clear divide between the internal and external obstacles to economic growth. The logic of neo-colonialism means that the local ruling class and international capitalist interests are engaged in inseparable collaboration or collusion against the local populace and it is impossible to clearly separate blames. However, to blame internal forces and exonerate external issues is simply a ploy to save the face of capitalism and its organs and their failures in the Third World. Second, and perhaps more disturbing, is that it is calculated to turn attention away from the inescapable contribution of external forces in tackling the reproduction of dependency and marginalization. Globalization may have created more wealth universally but it has not devised the strategies of ensuring even distribution of the benefits. It has therefore not succeeded in reducing global poverty or elevated the condition in marginal economies such as Nigeria.

Finally, it is summarized that globalization and liberal democracy cannot solve Africa’s problem because of the contradictions inherent in the assumptions behind underlying those doctrines. For example, globalization believes that Africa’s problem is economic, but it is not just economic, it is also political. It is not simply a case of availability of resources but deciding on its deployment. On the other hand, liberal (representative) democracy alienates the people from the process. It reduces them to spectators. We would recommend social democracy in which the people exercise real decision-making powers beyond electoral choice, in which the collective rights as well, not only individual rights are considered. Thirdly, social democracy is democracy of incorporation, not of alienation. By laying due emphasis on the people it will be more conducive to admit of structural reforms in the present exogenously-oriented state system that executes development against the people instead of embarking on it for them.

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INTERNET SERVICES AND SOCIAL ORDER IN NIGERIA

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Abstract
The computer revolution has been found to be the most effective revolution in the world today. The computer has enhanced the globalization of the world through the internet. Despite the gains of the internet, there is the inherent crime committed by the introduction of such development. These crimes threaten the social order of the society and the process is ad infinitum. This is a theoretical paper examining the unending relationship between the internet and the development of any society. As members of the society begin to develop a mastery of their environment, there is the concomitant establishment of crime. The paper examines the cycle of unending crime of development.

Keywords: computer, internet, globalization, crime.

INTRODUCTION

“The internet’s anonymity and global reach make it a low-risk high-return environment for crime” (McAfee, 2007).

The advent of the computer in the modern day society is an ironical product of the Abacus of the 500 BC. The link between these two discoveries has beaten the imagination of the whole world. According to Roger (1995) the rapid evolution of the computer brought internet and such evolution presents a unique opportunity to revisit the theories about the diffusion of innovations. The internet differs from previous innovations because it is an extraordinary dynamic innovation. The developed capabilities of the internet include animation and extended interactivity. This phenomenon demonstrates how a dynamic technology such as the internet can adapt to areas beyond those originally intended (Chen and Crowston, 2001).

The internet has been described as the gateway to a world of seemingly inexhaustible resources, which is also referred to as information super highway of unlimited opportunities synonymous with globalization (Nzeako, 1999). This position vests the usability of the internet on the individual. This is not to say that the
internet is used only at the individual level, but to buttress the point that it is also used by organisations. At any level, the use of the internet is zeroed upon the individual. With these opportunities presented by the use of the internet, the world is made vulnerable and susceptible to the misadventures of the individuals. The ability of the internet to break hitherto level of technology gave birth to the inevitability of the emergence of new patterns, which produces other avenues for crime to prevail.

This is a theoretical based paper which attempts to formulate a position that explains the advent of the interest, the birth of other crimes that require more skills and fewer risks, and the rebirth of new society through the control of the criminal misadventures generated through the internet.

THE GAINS OF THE INTERNET
It is worthy to mention that the internet has contributed more positive values to today’s world. The negative impacts of the internet have highlighted the attention given to this phenomenon than the position gains. Where the positive gain promises hope and the emergence of better world, the negative impacts threaten social order in the society. The gains of the internet according to Young Media Association (2007) include:

1. Facilitation of job search and employment
2. Accessibility to research information for education and businesses
3. Rural Integration
4. Enhancement of trade and commerce
5. Sharing of resources and ideas.

The low cost of communications and accessibility of the global networks means it is easy to reach one person as well as 10 million people. This offers great possibilities for creating new jobs in the emerging information based economy. It presents the ability to manage a conglomerate at a single spot. Secondly, research information for education and business becomes accessible through the internet. It is important to note that distance learning programme is also enhanced through the internet. Individuals can acquire university degree in their homes with the internet connectivity.

In addition, to the above, the internet has enormous potentials as a tool for integrating rural areas into the national economy by providing access to public services such as education, healthcare, and environmental protection awareness programmes. Furthermore, the ability to acquire, store, and transmit information has become the most powerful new currency of economic exchange throughout the world - marketing, public relations, shopping, market research, sales and support could all be conducted on the internet.

Finally, the transfer of ideas and resources have also been encouraged and supported by the internet. Even with all these possibilities in mind, the internet still poses serious threat to social order.

THREATS OF THE INTERNET
Throughout the world, there are over a billion people using the internet or the global network of computers. Billions of dollars move across these networks every year. According to the McAfee North American Criminology Report (2007) online transaction for Canada increased by 38%, retail e-commerce in U.S increased by 25% in 2006, to $108 billion while the business-to-business transactions reached about $2 trillion. That of North America grew by 30% and Asia, Western Europe, and Africa also experienced increase in e-commerce. Although, the increasing pattern of e-business is more in Asia, Europe, U.S. and North America, Africa has put up modalities to increase e-commerce especially in the banking sector by enforcing online withdrawal of cash into the use of value card, ATM cards, credit card, and the encouragement of domiciliary account for online transactions.

As such, U.S., North America, Asia and Europe are primary targets of cyber criminals. In Africa where the revolution is just being felt, the whole population is susceptible to the misadventures of the hackers. The losses in Africa are however, non-comparable to that which is experienced in the advanced countries where the culture has diffused from, but it is felt. The difference in the rate is as a result of stringent modalities to control online transaction through the use of PIN and passwords and the coding of passwords for counter-protection. Yet there were losses. In recent study, about 2 million Americans had their account illegally accessed and were robbed, in 2006. Credit Card Company reported 100 million loss in North America in 2005 out of which 30 million occurred online.
These losses are not comparable to that which occurs in Africa, but it is gradually having a far-reaching effect on the African economy. According to information retrieved from a bank recently, a member of staff once created an online strategy that transfers 50 thousand naira from all customers' accounts at the zenith International Bank on a daily basis, after that has been done for about 10 years, the staff resigned, moved abroad and left the process on. A total of N200 million was withdrawn from the account recently and that brought the existence of the account to the knowledge of the bank, while trying to find the owner, they found a process and at the root of the matter, a conglomerate of criminals who are invisible.

The bottom line here is that criminals can make money online with little or no risk. It is easy to counterfeit a legitimate website. For example, if a person mistakenly types www.lasunigeria.com for www.lasunigeria.org a website will come up. The fact is that, all lucrative websites have their counterfeits. The anonymity of the web makes prosecution very difficult. Attack can be launched from anywhere on the globe for a low cost. Furthermore, it is even difficult to collect evidence from another country and the nature of cyber-crime is intangible.

**CYBER CRIME AND SOCIAL ORDER**

The attainment of social order in any society is a venture which may not be attained for a long period of time. This is because crime is always a threat to social order. Where crime is perceived not to be thriving, it is incubating and the hatching may just be explosive. The incubation period entails when the new art of criminality is learned as more criminals would venture for less-risk criminal adventures for personal protection. This incubation period was experienced in Nigeria when internet was newly introduced into the system. Within a certain period of time, the art was learned and there was shift to internet crime and other crimes with high risk reduced. This led to the incorporation of the Economic and Financial Crime Commission (EFCC) in Nigeria. Unlike, the other property criminals, cyber criminals are after the money and not fame.

These criminals can be found in the following expanding arsenal.

1) **Blended threats** – A cyber-crime attack that combines multiple tools such as e-mail virus, a Trojan, or other malware. For example “life is beautiful”

2) **Bots and Tombies** – A bot is a short form of robot. It is a computer in which a worm or a virus has been installed automatically and allows cyber criminals access and subsequently control the computer. This invariably, leads to formation of network which is controlled by the criminal altogether. E.g. autorun. It affects computers that are always online.

3) **Bundling** – Covertly attaching a virus or spyware to a legitimate download of game or screensaver, the legitimate downloads give unwilling permission to installation of criminal programmes.

4) **Denial of Services (DOS)** – This is an attack to prevent the normal functioning of a computer network and prevention of access by authorized users. The captured computers are then used to launch e-mails at the targets within a short period of time.

5) **IP Address Hijacking** - This involves taking up a legitimate address of an internet service and rerouting traffic from it to the criminals.

According to McAfee North America Criminal Report (2007) other forms of strategies that threatened social order include – key logging, packet sniffing, ransomware, rootkit, screen grabbing, scripts, spyware, Trojan, virus; war-driving; and worms. All these misadventures are elements of change emerging out of individual capability to learn, innovate, and invent strategies of working as a criminal without being noticed. This then forms a theoretical base for this paper.

**THEORETICAL BASE OF CYBER CRIME AND DEVELOPMENT**

When an individual starts learning a new language, the abusive part of the language is usually the easiest to comprehend and put into use. The same belief can be associated with technological tools which at first comes handy as a weapon and then later as a developmental tool. The first individual to innovate an idea usually does so to accelerate certain processes or to make work easier. When this technology diffuses, it may be at first adopted for destructive purposes. At a later time, it is put into better use and the intended development is achieved. The invention of the internet was to make possible communication by the military in the event of nuclear attack. The communication is ensured even when all parts of the communication system are rendered inoperable. Today, the purpose has transcends beyond that to enhancement of communication between individuals, organizations and acceleration of business transactions.

42
The theoretical locale of this position is noted in Durkheim’s social differentiation, structural functionalism, and the social drift theory of Matza and Sykes (1964). The prevalence of cyber-crime started from social differentiation, brought about social isolation, led to criminality, which invariably causes disequilibrium in the system. These imbalances then create a new ground for better technology to be invented as a development over the previous technology. The new technology gives birth to new crime and a cyclical relationship is established between technology and crime. Crime creates new technology and new technology creates new crime. Social order is achieved only when new technology is created, but disorder is established as soon as people develop the mastery of the new technology. This represents the relationship between technology and cyber crime. The invention of the internet technology brings about social differentiation. That is, a division of labour through the identification of functional roles in the society. With increasing technology, social differentiation becomes more complex and alienation will set in and gradually individuals will become isolated. The social isolation with its inherent alienation brings about boredom and the need for adventures. This adventure is as a result of innovation, which invariably results to crime.

The above is to lay claim to the fact that cyber criminals are not always into criminality, rather they operate in-between law abiding and criminality. They hold values, beliefs and attitudes very similar to those law-abiding citizens; respect and admire law abiding, honest individuals; and are not immune to the demands of conformity. In order for the cyber criminals to continue to succeed in their nefarious acts, they adopt neutralization techniques, which help in the rationalization of their attitudes. These techniques include:

i) **Denial of responsibility** as they presume they are only victims of circumstance;

ii) **Denial of injury** because the acts do not cause any physical harm and the victims can afford the losses;

iii) **Denial of victims** because they either deserve the harm or injury or there is no real victim; and

iv) **Condemnation of condemners** as cyber criminals will see them as hypocrites who are only condemning because they do not have the same opportunity or the requisite skills to handle the crime.

Armed with these skills, characteristics, and the neutralization of guilt techniques, the cyber-criminals then begin to operate without remorse even when their attempts fail, they create other means of surviving. Naturally, a gang is formed to cater for those who are not successful and then eventually an organized crime syndicate is formed to further protect the invisibility of the cyber criminals. Inevitably, social disorganization becomes the order of the day where the society loses its ability to engage in self-regulation. This way, social problem is manifested and the orderliness of the society threatened.

In order for the society to re-establish self-regulation, policies are made, agencies are set up, and law enforcement is beefed up to help in the eradication of the cyber-crimes. These policies may eradicate the immediate problems or the techniques involved in cybercrime, it will still be capitalized upon for new strategies for committing cyber-crimes to be formulated. Such that newer technology to combat cyber-crimes gives birth to newer crimes. This way, the process becomes ad infinitum. As the society continues to thrive technologically, newer crimes are created by those who have developed the mastery of the pace of technological development. Development then creates avenues for the birth of even newer crimes. This endless process is represented below.
CONCLUSION
It is pertinent to note that crime and development have unending relationship. The origin of crime in itself may be associated with the origin of technological advancement. The desire to eradicate cyber-crime is an attempt to forestall the development of the society. Since development cannot be stagnated, then crime will continue to thrive in all societies. Cyber-crime is a parasite of the computer evolution and Internet services.

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ABSTRACT
Rapid socio-economic development in societies the World over is associated with public policy agenda setting. In recognition of this fact, successive governments in Nigeria have initiated and implemented several policies that are designed to improve the standard of living of the masses and stimulate socio-economic development in the country. These policies or programmes include the Rolling plan; National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS); Vision 20:2020; the 7 Point Agenda etc. However, implementation of these policies has fallen short of improving the lives of the average Nigerians who constitute the target beneficiaries. This paper identifies some of the challenges affecting public policy agenda setting in Nigeria to include inexplicit formulation process; absence of rigorous analysis as a basis for formulating policy; lack of regular training for senior administrators in policy formulation; executive and bureaucratic dominance. The paper argues that these challenges can be overcome only if policy makers identify and repair the weak link in the agenda process. This can be achieved by ensuring that policy agenda setting process is transparent and allows for meaningful participation by the legislature and the people; building the capacity of the civil society organizations and legislators to intervene in the policy agenda process; developing coordinative mechanisms to overcome fragmentation, to aggregate interests, to cope with complexity and take longer and broader perspectives on issues.

KEY WORDS: Public policy; Agenda-setting; socio-economic development.

Introduction
One of the major problems of public policy formulation and implementation in Nigeria is the issue of who sets agenda for developmental programmes. Over the years, several attempts have been made to set out and pursue a clear cut agenda for socio-economic development of the society. During Obasanjo’s administration (military) between 1976 and 1979, he introduced the Green Revolution; Shehu Shagari (between 1979 and 1984) had Operation Feed the Nation; General Buhari (1984 to 1085) had his War Against Indiscipline (WAI); General Babangida had his Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) between 1985 and 1993. With Obasanjo’s civilian administration (1999 to 2007), it was the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS).

When President Yar’Adua took office in 2007, he promised Nigerians in his inaugural speech that his government would be centred on the Rule of Law. This later metamorphosed into the 7-Point Agenda.
The foregoing is an indication of the fact that successive governments in Nigeria have long realised the importance of Agenda Setting in effective policy formulation and implementation for socio-economic development. Nevertheless, Nigerians have increasingly questioned the workability of these agenda. There seems to be more effort (in most instances) at sloganeering than making impact on the life of the average Nigerians. This paper seeks to identify the challenges of public policy agenda setting (especially in Nigeria) by providing an explanation on how public policy agenda are formed both nationally and globally. The paper is divided into four sections. Section one comprises introduction and the meaning of public policy. Section two examines the phrase “public policy agenda” and identifies reasons that make certain policy issues to be part of policy agenda at the expense of others. Section three identifies actors in public policy agenda setting and highlights the challenges of agenda setting in Nigeria. Section four consists of conclusion and recommendations.

Conceptual clarification

Public Policy

Despite the fact that examples of public policy come readily to mind, defining public policy in clear and unambiguous term is not easy. One of the reasons for this of course is the fact that, the perception of the meaning, impact and significance of public policy may vary with the perspective of participants and observers. Also, the inter-disciplinary nature of the concept consist another problem. The result of this problem is that academics continue to contemplate the definition of public policy, since there is currently no consensus.

Sharkansky (1978) commenced his analytical consideration of the subject matter of (public) policy on the premise that the term “public policy is ambiguous”. He sees it as a proposal, an on-going programme, the goals of a programme, major decisions, or refusal to make certain decision”. He further argued that:

*It would be misleading to specify one definition of public policy (at any particular time) …but the context in which the term is used should indicate the intended meaning* (Sharkansky, 1978).

The major problem with Sharkansky’s analysis is that policy is viewed to be same as plan, and programme which other scholars tend to differentiate. Starling (1979) distinguished between policy, plan and programme as follows:

1. **Policy** - Lofty goals or ideas that are vague in nature. These broad statements of intention by the government attempt to specify the ideals, visions, dreams and utopian aspirations of the society. They identify the goals that could serve as a general guide for human action, but such goals are not necessarily attainable in the concrete sense. For example, following the Alma-Ata Declaration of 1978, the World Health Assembly (under the auspices of the World Health Organisation (WHO) championed the goal of achieving health for all citizens by the year 2000. Subsequently, many countries including Nigeria incorporated into their respective national health policies this slogan of achieving health for all by the year 2000. Even the originators of this idea knew fully well that it was not possible that there could be any human society by the set date that could get rid of all forms of disease and infirmity. Yet were motivated by the slogan to ginger their people into aspiring for an improvement in the quality of their health care.

2. **Plan** - A plan which in strict sense refers to development plan implies the specification of achievable objectives within the context of a given policy. In essence, plan gives policy practical relevance. Metaphorically, the goals contained in a policy statement are like a destination, and a plan serves as the road network that could guide the government in reducing such a destination. In respect of the health policy referred to above, the plan would attempt to specify the objectives of curing prevalent diseases and preventing the occurrence of new ones.

3. **Programme** - A set of specified actions or activities that are carried out with a view to achieving stated objectives. From the earlier example on health policy, in order to achieve the objective of curing prevalent diseases, one programme that could be designed is that which would promote curative services. This can take the form of hospital expansion programme with the primary intention of enhancing people’s accessibility to healthcare. It could also take the form of drug subsidisation programme for designated diseases such as HIV/AIDS, tuberculoses and poliomyelitis. Similarly, its objective of preventing the occurrence and spread of communicable diseases such as poliomyelitis, whooping cough, tuberculosis, etc. could be achieved by designing a national programme on immunisation (NPI) as was done in Nigeria as part of 1989
national health policy (Dlakwa, 2009). However, in order to ensure value for money spent on programmes and facilitate proper accountability to the communities covered, development programmes have to be complemented by properly designed and executed projects.

(4) **Project** - A project specifies concrete targets within the context of defined objectives, which constitute a component of programme. It is a specific action, taken at a specific time, to provide specific service to a specific group of people over a specific period and within a specific geographic location (Gittinger, 1972).

It is clear from the foregoing analysis that each of the four concepts possesses peculiar elements that could distinguish it from the others. Nevertheless, it must be mentioned that the line between them is very thin. For a policy to be translated into reality, specific plans need to be designed. Programmes are designed as operational aspects of development plan. Similarly, a well conceived public policy could fail if the specific projects and the programmes designed to implement it were faulty.

Given the above discourse, public policy is conceived in this paper as “the strategies undertaken by governmental agencies to solve public problems; authoritative decisions that are intended to direct or influence the actions, behaviours, or decisions of others. There are many reasons that can prompt the initiation and implementation of a public policy. Hughes (1998) identified the reasons for public policy formulation and implementation as follows:

(i) **Problem Solving:** Government formulate policies in order to provide solution to problem(s) affecting the public. Although in doing this, a distinction should be made between what is public interest and what is government interest. What is government interest may be incompatible with the public interest. Whether public or governmental interest, both actions would be deemed to be public policy making.

(ii) **Acceleration of Economic Development:** Public policies involve planning especially at the implementation stage. If planning is part of public policy making and economic development involves planning, logically policy making is an instrument of economic development.

(iii) **Continuity in Administration:** This is in line with the “theory of continuity of policy process”. In theory of continuity of policy process, it is believed that government comes, government goes but public administration remains forever.

(iv) **Fulfilment of Public Interest:** Government formulates policies in order to better the conditions of the populace.

(v) **Fulfilment of Selfish Ends of Government:** This is to say government’s survival depends on the effective initiation and implementation of public policies.

Egonmwan (1991) classified public policies into the following:

(i) **Distributive Policies:** These are actually favours, benefits or patronage policies, dispensed to a small number of people on a continual basis e.g. housing and distribution of essential commodities like fertiliser, rice, etc.

(ii) **Redistribution Policies:** Involve taking of benefits or resources from some people and giving to others. The gain of one is the loss of the other. They benefit a particular segment or category of the population, such as the unemployed, homeless, disadvantaged, the poor, the retired, etc.

(iii) **Regulatory Policies:** Involve setting of standards and rules to restrict the activities of some groups in the society in order to prevent undesired consequences of their action. Such rules and regulations benefit some people and inhibit others e.g. Land Use Act, Professional Practice Laws, Labour Law – all intended to control the activities of some groups in Nigeria – architects, engineers, medical doctors, lawyers, etc.

(iv) **Emotive-Symbolic Policies:** Policies designed to serve latent rather than manifest policy purposes for the political system. A policy decision to award national honours to deserving citizens is an example of a symbolic policy. Such award satisfies the socio-psychological need of recognition for the individual. Again government often formulates certain policies with no intention of executing them as designed but simply to make people “feel good”. For example, granting of formal recognition in the preamble of a legislation– “freedom of speech for all”, “equality before the law” and “freedom of movement”.

**Public Policy Agenda Setting**

Agenda setting is the first phase, the issue sorting stage in the policy process during which some concerns rise to the attention of policy makers while others receive minimal attention or are neglected completely.
Agenda setting is therefore, the process or behaviour to adopt a social issue or problem as a policy problem; in the process, social issue or problem is chosen as a governmental issue.

In every society, there are individuals, groups, associations and interest groups, which exist because of one reason or the other. They are always out to get proper and adequate attention from the policy makers. They adopt different methods (especially lobbying) towards this end. However, due to the fact that resources available in any society are inadequate to meet the pressing demands of groups and individuals, governments only select few demands for consideration at a particular point in time apparently from the most skilful and powerful group in society. Therefore, “those demands that are chosen or those on which decision makers are compelled to act constitute policy agenda (Olaniyi, 2001).

Policy agenda setting can be differentiated from policy priorities. According to Kingdon (1984) policy agenda entails a list of subjects that are getting attention whereas policy priority is a subset of issues on public policy agenda which are “up for active decision”. A policy priority denotes a ranking of agenda items which some regarded as more important or pressing than others (Anderson, 1975). It is akin to the notion of scale of preference in economics which explains a situation whereby a consumer ranks his preferences in order of priorities. The agenda setting process is an on-going competition among issue proponents to gain the attention of media professionals, the public, and policy elites.

Policy agenda are multifarious and different, depending on whether they are general to the state or nation or whether they are specific, limited or located in specific segment or governmental agencies. In sum, a policy agenda can either be systematic or institutional. Systematic or Macro Agenda include the widest range of potential issues that might be considered for action by the government and that might be placed on the public agenda e.g. vision 20-20-20. Institutional or Micro Agenda on the other hand include those issues that are already for consideration of decision makers, legislatures or court e.g. Freedom of Information Bill (FOI), 2011 election. Etc.

It is important to mention at this point that, policy agenda does not usually appear as a listing of a priority scale of problems; neither does it refer to a set of documented paper on public problems receiving attention. Rather it refers to all issues and problems that receive attention either in discussions, speeches, memoranda, legislative motions, etc. An issue or theme can become part of policy agenda in any or combination of the following:

1. **Political Changes:** Presumably, people seek political office so as to introduce new ideas and innovative solutions, and if elected, they can use the power of their office to influence public policy. Political leaders can therefore seize on a particular problem with a desire to secure political advantages, concern for public interest or both; publicise such problem and propose solution. In the developing countries, most policies emanate from the political leadership rather than from the people. In Nigeria for example, the president and the members of the Federal Executive Council (FEC), can and often set the pace of the agenda.

2. **Event Must be Spectacular:** For a problem to enter the policy agenda of decision makers, certain spectacular events could happen to trigger off wide public reaction and attract the attention of large number of people. In such a situation, public officials are likely to feel compelled to respond. For example, the continual ethno-religious crisis in Jos (Plateau State) compelled the federal government to set up a commission of enquiry with a view to finding a permanent solution to the crisis.

3. **Role of the Media:** Through their reportage, the electronic and print media are important opinion shapers and could help to structure the political agenda in any of the following ways:
   (i) By converting issues or problems into agenda items;
   (ii) By giving salience to certain issues already on the agenda.

   The fierce battle fought by the Nigerian media against the “third term” ambition of the then president Olusegun Obasanjo in 2007 eventually led to its abortion by the National Assembly.

4. **Collective Action of Interest Groups, Protest, Lobby, Social Movements around a Particular Topic:** One other means of bringing problems to the attention of policy makers is through protest, violence and riots. The violent protest by the Niger Delta youths against the Federal Government of Nigeria on account of marginalisation of the Niger Delta region led to the establishment of the Ministry of Niger Delta Affairs, as a measure to address infrastructure
and development needs of the region. The protest also compelled late president Yar’Adua to include Niger Delta as an issue in his 7-Point Agenda.

5. **Values, Beliefs or Motivations can Turn a Condition or Situation Into a Problem:** Whether or not some problems will gain access to the policy agenda depends on the culture of the people. For example, while prostitution is an offence punishable by death through stoning in Iran, institutionalised prostitution is common place in London. Thus, prostitution in United Kingdom may not be seen as a social problem requiring solution – policy.

6. **Role of International Organisations:** As a result of conditionalities usually imposed for obtaining facilities from international agencies like World Bank, International Monetary Fund (IMF), International Labour Organisation (ILO), third world countries including Nigeria are often persuaded to initiate and adopt policies and programmes to meet such conditions. In some African countries, where structural adjustment has been embarked upon, policy initiatives have always followed conditions set down by World Bank, the IMF or both. Such conditions often include attainment of realistic exchange rate, a restrictive monetary policy, trade liberalisation, reduction in size of public service and improved revenue base. In Nigeria, the World Bank loan for the Agricultural Development Project (ADP) was procured after specific policies and programmes dictated by the World Bank had been put in place. With regard to SAP, many policy measures were adopted which included new trade and exchange rate policies, new tariff regimes, and the reform of the civil service. It is therefore clear that through the imposition of certain conditions by international agencies for obtaining the facilities and the desire to benefit from such facilities by the third world countries, international agencies and their experts serve as sources of policy initiatives in these countries.

Similarly, there are also reasons that account for why some issues don’t become part of public policy agenda. These are:

1. **Problem Definition:** If intentions are not spelt out clearly through the right original channels established for transmission of policy to those involved in policy formulation, then the issue/problem will not make it to the policy agenda.

2. **Crowded Out (by Other Issues):** A crisis or an event does not automatically get into the policy agenda but needs to be treated as a “positive purposive process in itself”. Consequently, substantial effort and continuity of efforts is required to get the issue into the policy agenda.

3. **Problem Not Recognised as a Relevant Issue/Problem:** The selective discrimination of policy issues is often dependent on what the decision makers regard as a policy agenda. Thus what the public perceive as an important policy issue may not be regarded as such by policy decision makers. Consequently, it will not be in the policy agenda.

4. **Deemed Not to be a Legitimate State Concern:** Generally, a problem/issue that falls within the framework of the ruling party’s manifesto is bound to receive the attention of the political executives. Consequently, the chances of such an issue making it to the policy agenda will be higher than those that fall outside the party’s manifesto.

5. **Non-Decision Making:** Previous action and policy rules may automatically limit the choice of policy makers. This is often the case with situations where there are specific standard operating procedures. Where there is a standard operating procedure, it becomes extremely difficult for policy actors to deviate from the established thought pattern.

**Actors in Policy Agenda Setting**

Many individuals and institutions are involved in shaping public policy agenda. These include political officials (executives), legislators, bureaucrats (administrators), judicial functionaries, interest groups, special commissions/panels, international organisations, etc.

1. **Political Executives:** These include the president, his chief aides and advisers in the presidency. They constitute the major source of initiative in the development of policy proposals at the national level. The president is expected to give both legislative and executive leadership and substantially determines the effectiveness of government. The president makes policy recommendations to the National Assembly and provides it with draft bills containing his recommendations. In other words, the president is constantly looked upon not only for executive leadership but also for legislative leadership, thus reinforcing the pivotal and central role of the president in public policy agenda setting.
The governors of the various states, their chief aides and advisers also play a great role in the development of policy proposals in various policy areas.

2. **Legislators:** Legislators in the National Assembly (Senate and House of Representative) contribute significantly to policy formation through a number of channels. Apart from their own interests and activities, the legislators receive suggestions for formulating alternative courses of action on policy issues from:
   (i) Contacts with various administrative officials and interest group representatives.
   (ii) Hearing and investigations in cases of misappropriation of public funds, or a threat to order and good government.
   (iii) Determine major policy issues like revenue sharing formula, state creation, boundary adjustments, etc.

3. **Bureaucrats:** Bureaucrats can be involved in the policy agenda setting in any or a combination of the following:
   (i) They can be called upon to assist the collection of data (fact) and information about policy issues/problems (or proposals).
   (ii) They assist in the preparation, the drafts of policy proposals. That is, they help to determine policy objectives.

4. **Judicial Functionaries:** Individuals who decide on cases in courts of law (adjudication). Their involvement in policy agenda setting is seen in any or a combination of the following ways:
   (i) They serve as chairmen of special commissions (bodies) constituted to conduct inquiries into some public problems in the society. The findings (recommendations) of such bodies are often adopted by government for future action.
   (ii) They help to resolve impasse which may arise from the ambiguity of constituted provisions (interpretation). Their decisions (judgements) are often adopted as future interpretations of such sections. Also their judgements often reflect recommendations in the form of calling on the legislators to review or re-evaluate such sections or policies respectively.

5. **Interest Groups:** Interest groups can be described as those associations which are out to influence government policies to the advantage of either members or a policy (ideology) they seek to promote. The latter part of the definition shows that the activities of an interest group may not have a direct effect on its members. Interest groups can be in the form of political, economic, cultural, educational, etc. associations. Any time a policy is to be formulated by the political executives, or any other actor, an interest group will be out to ensure that such a policy does not contradict its interest. On the other hand, an interest group can even initiate the formulation of a particular policy which will be in its interest. This it does through the law makers or appropriate agent. Towards this end, an interest group adopts methods like lobbying, making representation, submitting memoranda, etc. to drive home its demands.

6. **Specific Commissions/Panels:** Bodies constituted by the government to investigate certain policy issues or make proposals on certain policy matters. At the expiration of their sittings, they always make a number of suggestions which are usually included in their reports submitted to the government. Such suggestions always influence the policy action of government in future. This is often reflected in the form of legislations which are often prohibitory in nature.

**Challenges of Public Policy Agenda Setting in Nigeria**
The following factors constitute challenges to public policy agenda setting in Nigeria:

1. **Inexplicit Formulation Process:** In Nigeria like many other African countries, interest aggregating structures like political parties and other interest groups are not active and effective in policy formulation, as in developed countries like United States of America (USA), United Kingdom, Germany, etc. The contribution of interest groups to policy formulation cannot be overemphasised. Generally, in Nigeria, the open clash of interests between groups that shape policy formulation is minimal if not lacking. Power is often concentrated in the ruling elites who formulate policies in accordance with their own understanding of policy issues, and the interest of the small ruling elite and their associates. Thus, the focus is usually on executors of policies by those affected as they hardly know of proposed policy during formulation in contrast to the developed countries where citizens’ focus is on legislation. The process of policy agenda
setting in Nigeria is therefore, to a large extent not open and as explicit as that in developed countries.

2. **Willingness to Accept More Analysis as Bias for Policy Formulation in Some Areas Especially Where External Resources are Involved and Willingness to Allow Analysis to Play any Role in Some Other Cases:** As mentioned elsewhere, international agencies and their experts are sources of policy initiatives in Nigeria. In many instances, the prescriptions of the IMF and World Bank require the installation of better economic management methods by countries seeking to benefit from their facilities. This requirement calls for analysis as basis for formulating policy options to meet IMF and World Bank induced reforms. The experience in Nigeria has shown that policy formulation is hardly based on any rigorous analysis. Intuition, common sense, personal, religious and ethnic considerations hold sway in policy formulation particularly in such areas as distribution of communal benefits or establishment of industries.

3. **Lack of Training for Senior Administrators in Policy Formulation** - Public policy agenda setting in Nigeria is also faced with the problem of shortage of public sector senior administrators trained in policy formulation. Thus there is need for training to strengthen the capacity of public sector senior administrators in priority setting and policy making. Although the National Institute of Policy and Strategic Studies (NIPS), Kuru, Jos is training high level public sector managers in policy making, its annual intake is still few compared with need.

4. **Neglect of Implementation Analysis While Formulating Policies** - The numbers of abandoned projects and policy abortions prevalent in Nigeria point to the fact that policy implementation is a big problem facing the country. Yet there is a general tendency by policy makers to ignore planning of implementation process during policy formulation. It is necessary to anticipate and analyse the varying roles to be played by beneficiaries, producers, consumers and unintended victims.

In people-oriented policies like health, education and rural development, implementation becomes more difficult if support and resistance of the people are not studied in advance and planned for. Compared with the provision of infrastructure in a community, people-oriented programmes tend to be more difficult to implement as they seek to effect fundamental behavioural changes on the part of the people.

5. **Executive and Bureaucratic Dominance:** The constitutional responsibilities of the legislative arm as enshrined in the 1999 constitution include law-making, representation, executive oversight and the making of public policy in general terms. The power of the legislature in budgeting oversight clearly shows that if the legislature takes its work seriously, it is the undisputable leader in public policy agenda setting process.

In practice however, the executive tends to dominate the policy process using all manner of tricks and advantages on its side. This situation is partly the legacy of decades of military rule which has had the effect of eroding constitutional federalism by its centralisation of power and resources, the violation of the rights of citizens, the erosion of the culture of the rule of law, and the enthronement of a culture of arbitrariness and impunity resulting in high levels of corruption.

**Conclusion**

Agenda setting is a critical stage in the policy making process in any given nation. It is therefore, useful to consider explicitly how public policy agenda are formed both nationally and globally. Doing so reminds us that resources are scarce, not all needs can be met, and factors beyond national deliberation and careful consideration of evidence shape the process. The discussion on why and how issues make it to policy agenda as well as actors in public policy agenda setting provide more understanding of agenda setting process in Nigeria. Ideas from each of them help in advancing our limited knowledge of how public policy agenda are formed, and what actors may do to alter public policy priorities. Most importantly, the discussion on the challenges of agenda setting is a call on policy decision makers to develop strategies that can improve public policy agenda setting in Nigeria.

**Recommendations**

Overcoming the challenges of public policy agenda setting in Nigeria requires that policy makers identify and repair the weak link in the policy agenda process. The elements of a sound policy process must be kept in mind. These include:
1. Policy agenda setting process should be transparent and allow for meaningful participation by the legislature and the people. The participation of individuals and groups in the process is very significant. Groups for instance, may release analysis on issues known to be under consideration, or that they believe ought to be priorities, with the hope of influencing the policy being formulated.

2. Public policy agenda should seek to promote basic rights.

3. There is a need to build the capacity of the civil society organisations and legislators to intervene in the policy agenda setting process.

4. Develop coordinative mechanisms to overcome fragmentation, to aggregate interests, to cope with complexity and to take longer and broader perspectives on issues.

References
ABSTRACT
This paper examined the challenges faced as a result of retirement among others. Retirement is a change from an individual active work life to a redundant life of all most total dependent life of practically every issues of life and survival, that affects the individual immediate family, extended and Nation in general. This paper made several observations as regards the plight of retirees in Kogi State, that has become a social problem and cause for worry especially for all those concern with office work with the possibility of retiring some day A sample size of 105 respondents was drawn from 525 retirees in Kogi State civil service. Available statistics obtained from the Pension Board indicate that the sample size represents 20% of the total population of the retirees of Kogi State. 90 questionnaires representing 85.7% of the 105 distributed. The 85.7% of the instrument returned is considered reliable for this study. It was found that majority of retirees in Kogi State encounter retirement challenges. Prominent among which are irregular payment of pension and accommodation problem. Adjustment of life style to a moderate one was found to be one of the coping strategies of retirees, and the following were recommendations from the findings, it is recommended that; Kogi State Government must rise to the occasion by promptly paying the Gratuity and pension of its retirees. There should be upward review of pensioners monthly allowances and finally both the federal and State Government should provide an enabling environment for retirees to engage themselves usefully.

Keywords; Retirees, Pension, Government, Coping Strategies.

INTRODUCTION
Retirement has been defined as a state of being withdrawn from business, public life or active service. According to the Industrial Training Fund, Centre for Excellence (2004), retirement is a real transition. In the views of Kemps and Buttle (1979) cited in Ubangba and Akinyemi (2004), retirement is a transfer from one way of life to another; they noted that many people suffer from retirement shock such as a sense of deprivation during the early period of their retirement. In the opinion of Olusakin (1999), retirement involves a lot of change in values, monetary involvements and social aspects of life. Olusakin further noted that for some retirees, it leads to termination of a pattern of life and a transition to a new one. However, Billings (2004) described retirement as the transition from first adulthood to second adulthood which is often a jarring and unsettling experience. It follows from these descriptions/definitions of retirement that a retired person or retiree is any person who performs no gainful employment during a given year or any person who is receiving a retirement pension benefit and any person not employed on full time, all year round after his/her disengagement from a previous work schedule. It is deducible; therefore, that retirement implies a transition from active working life at youthful age with adequate financial capacity to less rigorous work schedule or lack of any tangible work schedule at old age.
Retirement is a fluid concept because it connotes different things and is fraught with different experiences for different people. While some individuals view it positively and anticipate it with nostalgia others dread its eventuality with great anxiety. Thus, it could be said that it is not a homogenous experience for everyone. Retirement is a time of significant transition as far as the use of time is concerned. However, the importance of retirement is made more glaring by the fact that the retired person is made to face some challenges because of his/her new status (as a retired person). It has been noted that retirement is a stressful experience to many because of its associated life decision change in the matter of life arrangement generally. It has been postulated by Elezua (1998) that the moment retirement comes knocking on the door (of an employee) it enters with challenges and expectations. Retirement is typically associated with attendant stress for the average employee especially in a country like Nigeria with austere economic policies.

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM
At retirement, a worker discontinues from doing a particular work for which he/she has been known for a long period of time. In the public/civil service, the government no longer requires the service of the individual, and he/she is placed on monthly pension. In most of the sub-saharan African Countries like Nigeria, where government battles the irregularity in the payment of monthly salaries of work force, prompt release of monthly stipend to those who have disengaged from the service has been a major challenge. Consequently, most workers close to age of retirement exercise a lot of fears of the unknown after retirement. Real life experiences have shown that pensioners often face some challenges after retirement that have consequential effects on the socio-economic and physiological well being. It is obvious that gratuities are not paid promptly most especially by most state governments and this throws retirees into the realm of uncertainty and inability to take socio-economic decisions. In the light of the above, it is essential to conduct a survey to actually ascertain some of the challenges faced by the retirees in Kogi State towards making useful suggestions to ameliorate them and improve the life of the retirees. This is the main thrust of this study.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
1. Are there post retirement challenges among retirees in Kogi State?
2. What are the strategies employed to address these challenges?
3. Can a relationship between specific/social characteristics and post retirement challenges be established?

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY
The general objective of this study is to examine various post-retirement challenges experienced by workers who retired from the service of Kogi State. The specific objectives are as follows:
(i) to find out the nature of post retirement challenges among retirees in Kogi State.
(ii) to identify the strategies employed by the retirees to manage the post retirement challenges.
(iii) to examine the relationship between certain social characteristics (sex and level of education) and incidence of post retirement challenges.
(iv) to identify the sources of retirement challenges experienced by retired Civil Servants.
(v) to analyze Retirement stress and see how retirees could be made productive.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY
The need to understudy the nature of post-retirement stress cannot be over emphasized because of its implication on the significant demography of the aging population. Several population enumerations have consistently shown that the retirees occupy a significant proportion of the country’s population. This study on the nature/type of management strategies used by retirees and the counseling implication is timely now that a lot of concerns have been raised on the welfare of the retirees. The Federal Government has reviewed the failure of past policies on pensions with a view to experimenting new scheme. The current Pension Scheme enacted by Federal Legislature is expected to address the problems of non release of pensions, irregular payment of entitlements, corruption in pension administration that have further impoverished the socio-economic conditions of the retirees. Findings from this study will enrich the current data base on pension management. It will also serve as a useful document for pension administrators, government and retirees on how to handle pension issues in the country.
SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study covers the retired Civil Servants in Kogi State. The study is concerned with the analysis of the retirement stress and the coping strategies. The study as it is, has some limitations which include among others, finance, time, co-operation of respondents and the inability to expand the time available to the researcher to reach all retired civil servants in Kogi State. We are however consoled by the fact that retirees have their peculiarities particularly as they attend a joint meeting of retired civil servants. Lack of full cooperation of respondents is another limiting factor and their reluctance and delay in accepting and filling the questionnaire because of lack of interest and their belief that the outcome of the research may not have direct impact on them.

Another limitation is inadequacy of Literature on Retirement Stress and the Management Strategies.

The above identified Limitations notwithstanding, the findings of the study are considered valid and reliable. This is because the inadequacy of information from primary sources was complemented with information from secondary sources such as Textbook, Journal, Official Publications, Government Gazettes, etc.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Retirement has been variously categorized depending on the orientation or perception of the classifier. For example, to many authorities on retirement literature (Akindade, 1993), retirement can be broadly grouped into three namely; Compulsory/Involuntary retirement, Voluntary retirement and Mandatory/Regular retirement. Compulsory or forced retirement is often imposed on an employee for various reasons at times on grounds of ill-health, mental or physical incapacity and so on. Voluntary retirement is associated with personal withdrawal from active service by an employee having put in the required years of service for eligibility for retirement. This in most cases may be due to personal dissatisfaction with work schedule or vocational life style. However, mandatory/regular retirement is said to occur when an employee is made to withdraw his/her service from a long-time work schedule having attained the mandatory retirement age/duration according to the organization’s policy.

Retirement as a concept has both old and new definitions. The old definition of retirement was when a worker couldn’t do something anymore. He or she is laid off. However, the new definition of retirement is when a worker does not have to do something any more. The concept of retirement that is associated with leisure, travel, family activities, hobbies and educational pursuits is a modern idea. The role of “retiree” and the stage of “retirement” we identify with, today is a socially construed concept that was created as a result of the passage of Social Security Act in 1935 (in America). According to Prize (2000), with the creation of social security, a financial incentive or pension was made available to older workers to encourage them retire from the workforce and to enable younger workers take their place; thus stimulating economic growth and progress.

Retirement generally implies the terminal cessation, relaxation or changeover of financially remunerative employment. It is a life stage because it is a period of economic inactivity or a change over in one’s economic activity, socially/legally prescribed for workers in later life. Retirement is a phenomenon characterized by separation of the worker from paid employment, which has the characteristic of an occupation or a career over a period of time. It is essentially, a period of adjustment (Oniye, 2001).

Historically, retirement was a stage of life few individuals lived long enough to experience or enjoy. According to Prince (2000), in the early 20th Century, the average life expectancy was 47 years. As a result, most people worked until they became too sick to continue. However, because the advanced medical knowledge and resources we enjoy today were not yet available, majority of people died quickly of acute illness. It was discovered that before now the overall time spent in retirement was only 7% of adulthood or about 4 years. In the early 21st century, 25% of one’s adulthood can be spent in retirement. This is because the average life expectancy in 2002 was 76 years, thus those retiring at age 65, on the average, can expect to spend 18 to 20 years in the role of retirees. For instance, if an academic staff in a Nigerian University retires at 60, he is expected to stay alive for another 20 to 25 years on the average. The implication is that adequate plan must be made by such an individual for the post retirement period.

Retirement in Nigerian Civil Service is guided by decree 102 of 1979 (cap 346) which deals with pensions and gratuity. According to this law, the statutory age of retirement of Public Officers is 60 years while it is
65 years for Judicial Officers and Academic Staff of Universities. Recently, High Court Judges/ other Senior Judges and Professors had had their retirement age extended to 70 years. However, with the reform of the Civil Service Decree No. 43 of 1988, retirement age has been put at 60 years or 35 years in service whichever comes first. It must be stated here that irrespective of the type of retirement, the transition is associated with some stress situations like Economic, Social, Psychological and Occupational Stress. In the submissions of Omoresemi (1987), Denga (1996) and more importantly Retire to Enjoy (2004), retirement stress could emanate from at least eight broad sources. These are: (i) Money (ii) Health (iii) Ageing (iv) Search for meaningful activity; (v) Work in retirement; (vi) Marital status; (vii) Caring for other family members, e.g. grandchildren or elderly parents, and (viii) Relocation. However, in the opinion of Denga (1980), retirement is known to affect income, residence, family structure or relationship between members, health and economic viability of the retirees. Nonetheless the case is worsened when the retiree is not adequately prepared to face this ultimate phase of life.

Retirement life demands great managerial ability. It has been observed that the retiree in order to experience a pleasant post-retirement life style would have to device effective means of managing some challenges inherent in retirement. It has been posited by Kolawole and Mullum (2004): that the typical retiree in Nigeria setting is confronted with the challenge of managing the following: (i) Insufficient financial resources; (ii) Problem of securing residential accommodation; (iii) The challenge of a new and low social status; (iv) Difficult health and (v) Challenges of declining health. It is against this background that this study was initiated to investigate into the sources of retirement stress and management strategies among Retired Civil Servants in Kogi State.

RETIREMENT PROBLEMS
Retirees in Kogi State civil service have identified the following as some of the problems encountered by them.

- Non-payment of Gratuities and delays in the payment of pension.
- Non-review of pensioner’s allowances as provided for in the 1999 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria.
- The non-recognition of retirees by government in the schemes of development programmes is another challenge.
- Added to the above, is lack of preparation for retirement. There is the absence of orientation course and capacity acquisition training for retirees as done to military personnel and non-provision of Housing Scheme for retirees.

Some of the fears discussed below in detail which the retirees must face as part of the change and adjustment problems on retirement include:

(i) Fear of Failure
Nothing devastates or holds people back more than the fear of failure (Robert Schuller, 1983).

There is no failure except in no longer trying (Elbert Hubbard, 1927).
A retiree may be obsessed with the fear of failing in whatever he engages himself in, ‘he may feel that since he is getting old, he is not likely to succeed in any venture or undertaking. This is basically untrue. After all, Rev. Fr. Harold Riley (born 1903) was ordained a Roman Catholic priest at the age of 92 in 1995 by Cardinal Basil Hume (Agulanna, et.al. 2003:77).

We wish to remark “the majority of people who fail, accept failure” (Bremer, 1971) and that failures are more often the result of opportunities being missed through inertness than from any other cause (Agulanna, et.al:77).

(ii) Fear of the Unknown
Worry and fear will also cause premature baldness- a condition known as nervous baldness (Agulanna et.al. quoting, Bremer, 2003:76).
A prospective retiree and a fresh retiree are dominated some times, by both rational and irrational fears of the unknown. Some are afraid of what may happen to them and how they can cope with this new phase of life. Infact, “psychologists have found that anxiety of the retiring reaches a peak before retirement begins” (Agulanna et.al. 2003:77) citing US News and World Report, 1974:14).

Those of them who had lived in the towns all their working years and who rarely go home to their villages are dominated by fears of unknown things that could happen to them if they go home to settle. Some rightly or wrongly believe that they will get killed by their townsmen if they go home to settle. Others who had not maintained any close links with their villages by way of socio-economic contributions, fears social isolation. This is a genuine fear. All these tormenting fears tend to compound the change and adjustment problems of the retirees.

(iii) **Fear of Rejection/Fear of Social Isolation**

No passion so effectively robs the mind of all its power of acting and reasoning as fear (Edmund Burke).

Some retirees are hunted by the fear of being rejected by their towns’ people and by people in general. This is as a result of the way they conducted themselves while in the office or in service. Some people fail to use their positions at work to make friends, others used theirs to make enemies, and or benefit themselves only. While in office, some feel too big and so high and play “thin gods” such that they fail to associate with “common people”. Such people are the victims of the gods of myopia” and consequently fail to realize that their jobs would come to an end one day in their lifetime.

These are the retirees that are afraid of being rejected by the large society. They are afraid of their shadows and the ghosts of their working activities. They are afraid of the consequences of their inactions. By failing to make contribution to the socio-economic development of their home towns while in service, they become afraid of rejection and social isolation (Edmund Burke: 78).

(iv) **Fear of Loneliness/Fear of Social Meaningfulness**

He, who has conquered doubt and fear, has conquered failure (James Allen). According to Akinade (1993:85), it has been found that retirement results into making one ‘drop out of mainstream’. This may embarrass some people who had been active in business, industry and education and eventually lead to resentment of enforced leisure. Some pre-retirees and fresh retirees wonder what they could do with themselves when they stay at home and everybody else goes to work or to school. They fell loneliness and perhaps fear the fact of not being socially relevant or socially meaningful.

They are bothered by how they could idle about or sleep all through, when people go to school until they come back. Harlow corroborates all these fears and anxieties indirectly and Cantor (1996) who argued that life satisfaction after retirement appears to be related to participation in community service and in social activities. Some pre-retirees and fresh retirees therefore suffer social meaningfulness, idleness and perhaps loneliness. Here lies the importance of developing social networks, which will help the retiree to adjust properly on retirement.

Other factors which has caused change and adjustment problems for retirees as identified by Amadi (1991:17) and cited by Agulanna (2003:79) include:

1. Failure to prepare for retirement
2. Excessive affection and affiliation held towards the job
3. Too many years spent on the same job
4. Lack of interests outside the job
5. Lack of alternative sources of self-esteem and confidence other than one’s job
6. Awareness of some tragedy that befell other known retirees, culminating in an intense fear of the unknown and fear of failure.

We shall examine each of these factors in more details as follows:
(v) **Perceived Differential Socio-Economic Status**

If life of officers has no variety, they will die of the monotony of life (Onoyima).

If a pre-retiree has been enjoying a high and comfortable standard of living by way of, perhaps, government furnished quarters, stimulating recreational facilities, regular water supply, steady light provided by his office and other perquisites and paraphernalia of office and he suddenly realizes that all these would vanish on his retirement, he may find it difficult adjusting to retirement. This is because he perceives two worlds diametrically opposite – his current world and his retired world.

He differentiates them and sees the one on retirement as a lower and perhaps inferior socio-economic one. Therefore, he will experience a lot of stress positioning himself for the retirement world. In effect, the perceived differential socio-economic status will aggravate the stressfulness of retirement (Agulanna, 2003:85).

**Per cheque dependency**

When we lose or fail to develop our own propelling power, we become as helpless upon the waters of life as the drifting raft at sea, someday to be cast upon a deserted beach (Bremer, 1971).

Some people, while at work develop what we call “pay cheque dependency” or dependence on salary and wages. They believe that life ‘is work and receiving salaries at the end of the month’. They find it difficult to imagine a life without full monthly salaries and allowances.

Pay cheque dependency exacerbates adjustment to the retirement status. Infact, it is a precursor of stress which aggravates change and adjustment problems of the retirees (Agulanna, 2002:86).

(vi) **Retirement as a Form of Unemployment**

The unhappy person in the world is the one without employment, no amount of money can take the place of work (Bremer, 1996).

Some people perceive retirement not as a time to rest or relax but as a form of or period of unemployment. From this perspective, they are exposed to all the stresses associated with unemployment. They therefore, encounter difficulty in coming to terms with retirement.

Unemployment has been linked to such negative outcomes as reduced life satisfaction, feelings of anxiety, lowered self-esteem and increased incidence of poverty.

**RETIREMENT POLICIES IN NIGERIA**

One of the newest policies concerning retirement in Nigeria is the Pension Management Scheme introduced by President Olusegun Obasanjo in 2006.

The key objectives of this scheme are to:

1. Ensure that every person who has worked in either the public or private sector receives his retirement benefits when due.
2. Assist individuals who do not plan for the future by ensuring that they serve to cater for their livelihood during old age.
3. Establish a uniform set of rules and regulations for the administration and payment of retirement benefits in both the public and private sectors.
4. Stem the growth of outstanding pension liabilities.

The new pension scheme is contributory, fully funded and based on individual accounts that are privately managed by pension fund Administrators. Employees contribute a minimum of 7.5% of their basic salary, housing and transport allowances. Employers contribute 7.5% in the case of public and 12.5% in the case of military employees and Employers in the private sector contribute a minimum of 7.5% of each contribution and retirement benefits are taxed except the contributions are deducted immediately from the salary of the
employee and transferred to the relevant retirement savings account. By doing so, the pension funds exists from the onset and payments will be made when due.

There are also Pension Fund Administrators (PFAs) and Pension Fund Custodians (PFCs).

Another policy is the introduction of the Nigerian Social Insurance Trust Fund. It is an insurance trust fund in which after retirement, staff gratuity are paid from the fund. The money used for the fund is gotten from the retirees, when they were still working and also from well meaning Nigerians and even foreigners who pay into the trust from which their gratuity is paid.

In the past, the system used was cumbersome as terminal benefits were not paid as and when due after retiring, the company you worked under pay you but the problem with these was that, the pension comes late and sometimes they are not paid for a long time.

Apart from these policies, there are many others which are not listed in this work.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF ANALYSIS

The theoretical framework is Activity theory. The activity theory is empirically supported by the frequent finding that social activities are positively correlated with adjustment among postretirement samples (e.g. Gregory, 1983; Havinghurst, Municks, Neugarten and Thomas, 1969; Maddox, 1963). Activity theory also predicts that individuals who expect to experience the greatest sense of loss after retirement might delay its onset, and this has been shown among white-collar workers (Mitchell, Levine and Pozzebon, 1988).

Activity theory is primarily a model for adaptation to retirement. It suggests that poor adjustment to retirement results from a failure to replace work-related activities. This belief has achieved widespread popular support, and community programs for older Americans frequently promote increased social activity.

An activity theory of retirement assumes that retirement is either a health marker (in case of voluntary retirement) or a potential stressor (if retirement is involuntary). One short fall of the activity theory is that, with the exception of poor health, it provides no explanation of the reasons for retirement. If maximizing activity levels is the key to well-being, why should a worker choose retirement over continued service? Perhaps, the decision to retire is driven principally by the social influence of secular trends. Another explanation might be that retirement marks the time at which leisure activities become more desirable than work activities. As originally proposed, however, the activity theory does not specify the types of activities that are more helpful to alleviate the sense of loss experienced after retirement.

HYPOTHESES FORMULATION

A research hypotheses is a statement which is assumed to be true on which an argument may be based. A research hypotheses should be viewed as a probable statement which seeks at the minimum to relate one phenomenon or variable to another (Oguonu and Anugwam (2006).

The following are therefore the hypothesis the researcher intends to test in this study.
1. There is no significant difference in retirement stress experienced by retired civil servants in Kogi State on the basis of their sex.
2. There is no significant difference in retirement stress experienced by retired civil servants in Kogi State on the basis of their educational qualification.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

SAMPLE SIZE AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUES

A sample size of 105 respondents was drawn from 525 retirees in Kogi State civil service. Available statistics obtained from the Pension Board indicate that the sample size represents 20% of the total population of the retirees of Kogi State. The instrument was administered on them in about four (4) occasions when they came for documentation at the Pension Board Office. While some of the selected respondents returned the questionnaire immediately, others promised to return them at a later date of visitation to the Board. It took
the researcher about four visits to the Pension Board office to retrieve only 90 questionnaires representing 85.7% of the 105 distributed. The 85.7% of the instrument returned is considered reliable for this study

**METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION**

In collecting data for this research, copies of questionnaire were delivered to the respondents by the researcher through the assistance of 5 members of staff of the State Pension Board. The instrument was administered in about four instances when the pensioners were invited for documentation at the Pension Board office. A period of 10 days was allowed to enable respondents carefully respond to the questionnaire. At the expiration of the 10 days period only 90 copies of the completed questionnaire were retrieved and used for data analysis.

**INSTRUMENT OF DATA COLLECTION**

The instrument that was used to elicit data was a structured questionnaire titled ‘Analysis of Retirement Stress and Management Strategies among Retired Civil Servants in Kogi State (2000-September, 2010).

The questionnaire was divided into four (4) sections. Section one contains questions about the social characteristics of the respondents. The second section contains questions on the stress/phobia associated with retirement, the third section dealt with the Administration of Pension in Kogi State, while the fourth section sought for information on the coping strategies and how to plan for retirement. The instrument contains both open and close ended questions. Section two-four contained open and closed ended questions. Close ended questions were asked where specific responses are expected from the respondents while open ended questions were asked to give room for varying responses on various issues bordering on the subject.

**DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLES</th>
<th>YES F %</th>
<th>NO F %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experienced problem of adjustment to post retirement life style</td>
<td>70 (77.7)</td>
<td>20 (22.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stigma of being called a retired person</td>
<td>25 (27.8)</td>
<td>65 (62.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insufficient financial resources</td>
<td>70 (77.7)</td>
<td>20 (22.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation problem</td>
<td>20 (22.3)</td>
<td>70 (77.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health problem</td>
<td>25 (27.8)</td>
<td>65 (62.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning a new survival skill</td>
<td>15 (16.7)</td>
<td>75 (83.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prompt payment of gratuity</td>
<td>80 (88.8)</td>
<td>10 (11.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irregular payment of pension</td>
<td>25 (27.8)</td>
<td>65 (62.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficulty coping without children</td>
<td>25 (27.8)</td>
<td>65 (62.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience of stress</td>
<td>20 (22.3)</td>
<td>70 (77.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bored with inactivity</td>
<td>30 (33.3)</td>
<td>60 (66.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do men face more stress</td>
<td>70 (77.7)</td>
<td>20 (22.3)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author’s Field Work, 2010.

**ADJUSTMENT TO POST RETIREMENT LIFE STYLE**

From the table above, about 78% of the respondents experienced problems of adjustment to post retirement life style, the remaining 22% indicated that they did not experience problems associated with adjustment to post-retirement life style. This indicates that majority of the respondents did not make adequate preparation for life after work. These respondents identified their inability to adjust to the normal routine of waking up early, resumption in the office by 8.00am and daily office activities. This reflects in the non-availability of post retirement engagement that follow the daily office routine. Despite the fact that some of these retirees are still capable of doing some work, the society may not have enough activities that can occupy the time of the retirees.
STIGMA OF BEING CALLED A RETIRED PERSON
Only a negligible Institutionalized stigmatizing, that is, removing people from main stream society because of retirement has become less common over the years, due to the involvement of retirees in activities in some community activities. In a study, Clelland and Peterson (1980) described how retirees develop their own sub cultures that are integrated, pro-elderly and self affirming, through which the possibility of being stigmatized is removed. Findings in this study corroborate the Clelland and Peterson (1980) study. Proportion of the respondents (27.8%) ever had a feeling of stigmatization, indicating that it does not pose a serious threat. In some parts of Nigeria, it is a pride to retire from work, the retirees are often described as fulfilled human beings and are accorded with desired respect.

INSUFFICIENT OF FINANCIAL RESOURCES
About 78% of the respondents encountered insufficiency of financial resources, which confirms that the greater majority of pensioners live in abject poverty as a result of dwindling resources. These respondents reportedly did not have enough savings and investments which they could depend on after retirement. Majority indicated that they invested in the training of their children in formal school with the hope that at old age, the children will reciprocate by catering for them. A handful proportion complained of the salary not being able to meet up with their expenditures needless to talk about investment in any profitable venture. The standard of living of retirees remains very low due to irregular and low income.

ACCOMMODATION PROBLEM
Only 22.3% of the respondents encountered accommodation problem after retirement which shows that the greater majority (77.7%) may have planned for retirement. One of the physiological needs of man according to Abraham Maslow in his hierarchy of needs is shelter. One of the cultural norms among people in the study area is that the head of the family should be able to provide accommodation for all members of his immediate family. Since most of the communities in the state are in rural locations, it was relatively cheap to build houses most especially with the use of local materials. The respondents could afford a sizeable building to accommodate members of their immediate family.

HEALTH PROBLEMS
Health is the state of complete physical, mental and social well being of an individual, not merely absence of disease or infirmity. Many factors are believed to influence health seeking behavior of an individual among which are level of occupation and income. Those who are gainfully employed are expected, all things being equal, to patronize modern health facilities for better treatment. At retirement, the quality of health and incidence of diseases is dependent on the quality of life. In this study, about 28% reportedly have health problems. They identified health challenges such as high blood pressure, diabetes and joint aches. Those who retired back to the village patronize primary health facilities for health care or cure. In a related study by Adejumo (2010), on the general health of retirees in Lagos, factors found to have influenced the dimension of health status of retirees include the need for improved self efficacy, social support and stability of personality among retirees. The situation of this category of people is worsened by the non-availability of welfare scheme for the elderly in Nigeria. Getting health insurance cover after retirement is one of the biggest issue facing workers who have not saved enough money to retirement. Of recent, the federal government of Nigeria indicated her readiness to include retirees from the civil service into the National Health Insurance Scheme, with an intension to improving the health status. As to whether pensioners experience health problem, 27.8% of them have affirmed that they do. Though it appears low, but it calls for concern as funds and health care available to this category of pensioners are inadequate.

LEARNING A NEW SURVIVAL SKILL
Life after work possess enough challenge, including the need to learn new survival skills towards meeting the needs of livelihood. Those who retire from civil service work often engage in development of new skill towards meeting the demand of their post retirement expenses most especially when the monthly pension is not forth coming. Among the respondents involved in this study, question was asked on whether pensioners experience the problem of learning a new survival skill for post retirement life style. 16.7% of the respondents affirmed that they experience that problem.
PROMPT PAYMENT OF GRATUITY
Under a normal circumstance, the gratuities of retirees are expected to be paid immediately after exit from work. Experiences in Nigeria has shown that problems such as bureaucratic bottlenecks in the processing of relevant papers and availability of funds, hinder timely release of gratuities. This is also subject to inclusion of the request on the approved budget. All these compounded the problems of the retirees towards making any move to settle down. The situation in Kogi State is not far from what obtain in other States. In this study, 88.8% of the respondents affirmed that their gratuities were not promptly paid with only 11.2% saying it was promptly paid, the situation may have further impoverished the conditions of the retirees and compounded their problems in meeting the desires of the family.

REGULARITY OF PAYMENT OF PENSION
On whether they have difficulty in managing irregular or non-payment of monthly pension, 27.8% of the pensioners affirmed that they do, while 62.2% do not, possibly due to efficient and effective management of resources.

COPING WITHOUT CHILDREN
Man is a social animal because of his social ability to initiate meaningful interaction with others. The meaningful and smooth interaction can be achieved through family formation and process of socialization. Retirees were asked as to how they were coping without their children? Data obtained show that 27.8% of the respondents have difficulty in coping with their partners without children.

EXPERIENCE OF STRESS
On whether educated retirees experience more stress than their other colleagues, it was rejected as 77.7% of the respondents said no. The levels of education of the retirees were placed on the nature and time of stress experienced by the retiree. It was intended to measure whether the timing and nature of stress experienced by the retirees are determined by whether they are educated or not. In this study, data show that, about 22.3% indicated a direct relationship between the level of education and the frequency of stress experienced. Those who had higher level of formal education reportedly experienced higher frequency of stress after retirement and vice versa. This report is tantamount to the fact that educated retirees do not easily adjust to life after work.

On whether men face more stress, 77.7% of the sampled population affirmed that men face more stress possibly due to family responsibilities.

On whether pensioners are bored by inactivity, only 33.3% agreed to the proposition as 66.6% of the populations have kept themselves busy through their engagements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLES</th>
<th>GOVERNMENT RESPONSE</th>
<th>YES F</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>NO F</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government is living up to its responsibilities in terms of its obligation to pensioners</td>
<td>05 5.6</td>
<td>85 94.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The New Pension Reform which is laudable has been implemented in Kogi State</td>
<td>10 112</td>
<td>80 88.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field work, 2010.

One major problem facing pensioners in Nigeria is the inability of the government to effectively initiate and process pensions for the beneficiaries. Successive governments have failed to live up to its responsibilities in pension administration. Most state governments complain of non-availability of funds, delays in the receipt of allocation from the federal government and administrative bottleneck. In this study, an overwhelming majority of the respondents (94.4) indicated that government has not successfully handled the administration of their pensions. These respondents complained of inconsistency in government policies about pension, occasioned by change in baton of leadership in the State. In Kogi State, a governor of Peoples Democratic Party (PDP) took over from that of All Nigerian Peoples Party (ANPP). These parties differ in ideology regarding the welfare of the citizens. Most respondents indicated that the political will and commitment of the governor is a major determinant of the success or otherwise of pension administration. The assertion above is justified by further responses that the new pension scheme has not been implemented holistically in Kogi State. Of recent, the government initiated a new pension scheme to cover and overcome the inadequacies of the old pension scheme. While the scheme has been legalized for implementation at the
federal level by the National Assembly, there is the need for further consideration and approval by the State Legislature for domestication at the State level, due to the bi-cameral nature of our legislature. While some States in Nigeria have begun implementation, findings of this study show that Kogi State Government is yet to begin implementation. This may have been occasioned by the re-current teething problems.

Generally, while Nigerian culture may venerate the aged, the country’s pensioners don’t always find themselves living out a peaceful retirement, most especially where the collapse of pension schemes has pushed many former civil servants into poverty. A majority of the respondents (82%) reportedly awaited pension payouts for several months.

Efforts by the Federal Government to restore sanity into the pension scheme opened more cans of worms. When the head of the Task Force Team put together by the government to look into the crisis and not in the system has revealed that the exercise uncovered N10 billion paid to the non-existing pensioners by the former Federal Pension Management.

This study relying on available data acknowledges the reality of post retirement challenges among the retirees selected for this study. This according to them resulted from the change in life styles and its attendant consequences on their health and well being. Questions were asked on how they manage the challenges to avert deplorable health condition and death. Responses are presented in Table III and discussed below:

**TABLE III: RANKING ORDER DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS ON MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES OF RETIREMENT STRESS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/NO</th>
<th>VARIABLES</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>(%)</th>
<th>RANK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Visiting my age-long friends to keep in touch</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>(66.6)</td>
<td>5th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Engaging in part-time assignments to make more money</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>(22.2)</td>
<td>8th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Engaging in political activities</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>(66.6)</td>
<td>5th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Learning to mind my business</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>(11.1)</td>
<td>9th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Learning a moderate life style</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>(94.4)</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Talking to people I trust</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>(88.8)</td>
<td>3rd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Dedicating more time to Religious Activity</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>(90)</td>
<td>2nd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Engaging in exercise to keep fit</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>(86.6)</td>
<td>4th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Taking up contract appointment</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>(5.5)</td>
<td>10th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Participating in activities of Union of Pensioners</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>(44.4)</td>
<td>7th</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author’s Field Survey, 2010.

**LEARNING A MODERATE LIFE STYLE**

Highest proportion of the respondents reportedly learnt a moderate life style in order to cope with the challenges of post-work stress. Over 94% engaged in activities that matched their new economic orientation and purchasing ability. These include reduction in the amount of money spent on clothes (62%), new cars (08%), alcoholic drinks (12%), visit to night clubs (19%), dependent relatives (20%). Respondents indicated the changes above to reflect the new reality on their earnings. Taking cognizance of the ranking order, the majority of respondents opted for a change in life style as coping mechanism and stress management.

**INVOLVEMENT IN RELIGIOUS ACTIVITIES**

In the ranking order, respondents (90%) preferred to dedicate more time to religious activities. These samples stressed the need for closer relationship with God on account of old age taking cognizance of the reality of life after death and that death may knock on their doors any moment. Life expectancy, in Nigeria, has dropped considerably over the years, due to health and poor socio-economic condition of a greater proportion of the population. Human Development Index (2010) report has consistently reported that Nigerian is among the Nation with low socio-economic index and that the life expectancy have dropped to age 42-45 years. An average Nigerian is religious and may show signs of commitment to religiosity at older age.

**SOCIALIZATION**

Socialization, a long term process through which an individual learns through interaction, norms, values and adjustment patterns, is life time. This is achieved through the process of meaningful interaction among social beings, through which the psychological and social needs are met. Retirees, who participated in this study, identified socializing with others, as measures for the management of stress occasioned by disengagement from work. This corroborates the Abraham Maslow theory of Hierarchy of needs which identified social needs as one of the basic necessities of life. In his arrangement, he prioritized the need to interact with others as one of the basic pre-requisites for ensuring a socio-psychological health. In the ranking order in this study,
respondents ranked 3rd the need for interaction with other people as a coping mechanism for managing the post-retirement stress by the retirees.

It is clear from the above table that majority of retired civil servants in Kogi State experience retirement challenges. From the Table III above, it could be seen that there are ten stress management strategies that have been put to use in Kogi State. They include:
- Learning a moderate life style 94.4%,
- Dedicating more time to Religious activities 90%,
- Talking to people I trust 88.8%,
- Engaging in exercise to keep fit 86.6%,
- Visiting my age-long friends to keep in touch 66.6%,
- Engaging in political activities 66.6%,
- Participating in activities of union of pensioners 44.4%,
- Engaging in part-time assignments to make more money 22.2%,
- Learning to mind my business 11.1% and
- Taking up contract appointment 5.5%.

**TEST OF HYPOTHESES**

**Hypothesis one:** There is no significant difference in the retirement stress of retired civil servants in Kogi State on the basis of their sex. The hypothesis was formulated to know if sex is a major determinant of the incidence of stress among the retired staff. It examines the differential in the prevalence of stress based on the sex of the retiree and whether the relationship is significant or not. Chi-square technique was used to test the relationship. The result of the chi-square is presented in the table below:

**TABLE IV: CHI-SQUARE TECHNIQUE TABLE SHOWING RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SEX AND INCIDENCE OF STRESS AMONG THE SELECTED RETIREES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITEMS</th>
<th>SEX</th>
<th></th>
<th>DF(V)</th>
<th>X²</th>
<th>X²t</th>
<th>0.05 Level of Significant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Incidence of stress</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>3.84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2011.

The result shows that \(X²t > X²c\) at 0.05 level of significance. The null hypothesis is accepted while the alternate hypothesis is rejected. This shows that there is no significant relationship between male and female in the incidence of post retirement stress among the study population. This indicates that, all things being equal, the incidence of post retirement stress is not based on sex distribution. The null hypothesis is accepted and confirmed while the alternate hypothesis is rejected.

**TABLE V: CHI-SQUARE TECHNIQUE TABLE SHOWING RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEVELS OF EDUCATION AND PERCEPTION OF RETIREMENT STRESS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>VALUE</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>ASYMP. SIG (2 SIDED)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson chi-square</td>
<td>28.14</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>31.156</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Assertion</td>
<td>12.044</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Valid Cases</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. 8 cells (44.4%) have expected countless than 5. the minimum expected count is 02.
Source: Author’s field survey, 2010.

The above table shows that the calculated value \(X²c = 28.14\) is greater than the critical value of 18.31 at 0.05 level of significance. Consequent on the above, the alternate hypothesis which states that there is a significant relationship between education levels and perception of retirement stress. This indicates that the nature of perception of retiree about post-retirement stress is dependent upon the level of education.

**DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS**

- It was found that majority of retirees in Kogi State encounter retirement challenges. Prominent among which were irregular payment of pension and accommodation problem.
- Adjustment of life style to a moderate one was found to be one of the coping strategies of retirees.
Getting closer to God by deep engagement in Religious activities was found to be one of the panaceas to the stress. Engaging in a keep fit exercise was one other way of addressing the retirement stress.

CONCLUSION
It can be concluded from findings of this study that retirees in Kogi State are facing some stress and there are a number of coping strategies that are in place to mitigate the effect.

It can also be concluded from the findings of this study that retirement at present is generally stressful for retired civil servants in Kogi State. It can also be inferred that retired civil servants in Kogi State are experiencing retirement stress from ten (10) broad sources. According to the study, they have acknowledged using ten (10) different retirement stress management strategies. It is clear from the findings of this study that there are both sex and educational differences in the perception of retirement stress by the retired civil servants in Kogi State.

RECOMMENDATIONS
Based on the findings of this study, it is recommended that;
- Kogi State Government must rise to the occasion by promptly paying the Gratuity and pension of its retirees.
- There should be upward review of pensions.
- Government should provide an enabling environment for retirees to engage themselves usefully.
- Like in other States, Kogi State Government should obtain loans to liquidate the entitlements of its retirees.
- It is recommended that all workers and retirees should avail themselves of the total package of retirement strategies advocated by Marceau (1998). According to the author, the retirement planning should reflect the individual’s dreams, hopes and aspirations in addition to meeting day-to-day obligations.
- Retirees should engage in small scale farming or other similar activities.
- It is essential that all prospective retirees should begin with personal goal setting exercise that reflects how the individual wants to spend the last third of his/her life. The question is not just “can I afford it?” It is also “how do I want to spend the last time I have left?”.
- Retirement benefits should be budgeted in advance so that retirees can be paid as they retire.
- Kogi State Government should as a matter of urgency implement the contributory pension scheme of the Federal Government.
- Counterpart funds should be paid to State without any further delay.

REFERENCES


ASSESSMENT OF FINANCIAL PERFORMANCE OF ANKPA LOCAL GOVERNMENT COUNCIL OF KOGI STATE

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ABSTRACT
This paper examined the challenges faced by the Nations Local Government Areas in Nigeria and in Kogi State in particular, this has affected the general performance and the ability of the local government system to deliver to the people at the grass roots the dividends of democracy effectively. This paper made several observations as regards the corruption and embezzlements of government funds by local government staff to the detriment of the development of the local government Nationwide and Ankpa Local Government Area to be precise. The state of development of Ankpa Local Government area has become worrisome considering the amount of allocation the local government get from the federal and State government and also from internally generated revenue sample size of 100 respondents was drawn from amongst the staff population of Ankpa Local Government, Which represents 20% of the total population of staff. The questionnaire instrument of research methods was used. The findings of this study that in-spite of the several sources of revenue available to Ankpa Local Government Council, it has the difficulty of discharging its constitutionally assigned responsibility of grassroots development. The challenges confronting Ankpa Local Government Council include: High level of corruption by Local Government functionaries who are often ill-equipped to perform the functions of their office. Based on the findings of this study, it is recommended that Ankpa Local Government Council, like other Local Government Councils must be given its rightful place as provided for in the constitution, that is, allocation of local government funds must not be interfered with by the State.

Keywords; Local Government Area, Dividend of Democracy, Revenue, Corruption and Accountability.

INTRODUCTION
The definition of Local Government (LG) by the Nigerian Federal Government leaves one with no iota of doubt that it is largely both theoretically sound and service oriented to the people. It talks of representative councils with substantial control over local affairs, for the provision of services and implementation of projects in their areas, to complement the activities of both the State and Federal governments. The definition also amply recognizes the need for Local Government autonomy as the substantial control of local governments (LGs) is aimed at staff, institutional and financial matters, among others (Nigeria, 1976).

The Federal Government of Nigeria is one of the few governments in the world perhaps in addition to Brazil (Erero, 1998) that have elevated Local Governments to a third tier of government. By so doing, the State governments do not exercise absolute control over Local Governments. As we shall also observe later, there are many checks and balances that have been formulated by the Nigerian Federal Government, to facilitate the effective operations of the local government councils (LGCs). Some of such checks and balances are guaranteed existence of Local Governments in section 7 of the 1999 Constitution, financial allocation from...
the Federation account and involvement of Local Governments in economic planning of the State governments (Nigeria, 1999a).

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM
There has been public outcry about the inability of Local Government Councils Nationwide to discharge their responsibilities of providing social amenities at the grassroots level. This is in spite of the fact that there are several sources of revenue available to them. It is in the light of the foregoing that it is essential to conduct a survey to actually establish if it is the inadequacy of funds or mismanagement that are responsible for the abysmal performance of Local Government Councils or a combination of both of them.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY
The general objective of this study is to examine funds available to Local Government Councils in Nigeria. The main objective is divided into the following working objectives:
1. To find out the various sources of funds available to Local Government Councils in Nigeria.
2. To identify if the available funds are adequate.
3. To identify if the available funds are well managed.
4. To analyze the available revenue to Local Government Councils, particularly Ankpa Local Government Council and see how it could be made more beneficial to the local community.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY
The need to understudy the abysmal performance of Local Government Councils in Nigeria, in spite of the numerous sources of revenue available to Local Government Councils cannot be over emphasized because of the strategic position of Local Government Councils as a third tier of government and more so that greater majority of Nigerians reside in rural areas. Over the years, government had set up committees/commissions with a view to bettering the living condition of people at the grassroots level. Findings from this study will enrich the current database on Local Government Administration. It will also serve as a useful document for Local Government Administrators, Practitioners and Government on how Local Governments could better be managed to serve the purpose as enshrined in the founding documents.

SCOPE OF THE STUDY
This study covers Ankpa Local Government in Kogi State. The study is concerned with the analysis of the dismal performance of Local Government Councils in Nigeria, using Ankpa Local Government as a reference.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT
In recent times, local governments in Nigeria have been assigned specific development roles by the constitution. But this should not be taken to suggest that in the past local governments did not contribute to economic development. For example, between 1955 and 1965, local governments were responsible for an average of 12% of total public expenditure in the country.

In a federal system like Nigeria, local governments are close to the people and hence could effectively alter socioeconomic and political conditions within their jurisdictions. Apart from providing and maintaining basic infrastructures, local governments can complement the economic activities of other levels of government. The activities of the National Directorate of Employment, for example, or the back-to-land programmes that are agriculturally based, can have more positive impact at the grassroots level by working with local governments.

Fiscal operations at the local government (LG) level become significant if macroeconomic stability is necessary in the wider economy. If fiscal imbalance appears rampant at the local level, it could pose problems for macroeconomic management of the economy. The scenario is even more complex when local governments depend on transfers from the centre. In this era of structural adjustment, local governments face more challenges in terms of struggling to be less dependent on the centre and the state for financial resources.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT FINANCES
Local Government Finance consists essentially of two fundamental aspects: namely, the raising of revenue and the expenditure of revenue. What distinguishes Local Government Finance from the monetary affairs of the private sector is, of course, that local government is aimed at supporting and maintaining public goods
and services. To achieve these public goods and services, therefore, local governments must acquire funds through taxes, fees, charges and debt financing.

**DEVELOPMENT**

The rationale for creating Local Government anywhere in the world is to employ it to take responsibility for the development of the area directly and also contribute indirectly to the development of the Nation. This development has been conceptualized from two broad perspectives: economic and holistic. The economic perspective was the traditional or earlier conception which expressed concerns for issues of poverty, unemployment and inequality that must be reduced to usher in development to any area. If there is decline in a society, the earlier version insisted, that, there is development (Seers, 1969).

The other newer perspective in the conceptualization of development was blazed by writers like Todaro and Smith (2003:17) who have presented a holistic definition:

Development must therefore, be conceived of a multi dimensional process involving many changes in social structures, popular attitudes and national institutions, as well as the acceleration of economic growth, the reduction of inequality and the eradication of absolute poverty. Development in its essence, must represent the whole gamut of change by which an entire social system turned to the diverse basic needs and desires of individuals and social groups within that system, moves away from condition of life widely perceived as unsatisfactory toward a situation or condition of life regarded as materially and spiritually better.

The modern or newer definition of development is therefore holistic, encompassing all aspects of life, including political, economic, social, cultural, religious, physical, etc. These can be further amplified to include all the good aspects of life that people cherish, make them feel relevant and enjoy their lives to the full.

**HYPOTHESES**

The following are the hypothesis the researcher intends to test in this study.

1. The Abysmal performance of Local Government Councils in Nigeria is due to lack of funds.
2. The poor performance at the Local Government level is not due to prudency of funds, but mismanagement.

**Literature review**

One of the most acceptable definitions of Local Government to us is offered by Mawhood (1993: VII & 2). He defines Local Governments as bodies

... separated by law .... (and have) local representatives (and) … formal power to decide on a range of public matters .... Their right to make decisions is entrenched by the law and can only be altered by a new legislation. They have resources, which subject to the stated limits, are spent and invested at their discretion.

Our only small observation in Mawhood’s definition is the failure to specify the mode of local representation in Local Government councils, that is, whether by selection or election. A definition of Local Government that is very acceptable to us is offered by Imhanlahimi and Ikeanyibe (forthcoming).

For them, a Local Government has a defined area and a popularly elected democratic council. It has formal powers derived from the laws or constitution of the land, to decide on a range of public matters in consultation with other stakeholders, including traditional rulers, for the locality. The formal powers can only be altered by a subsequent legislation or constitutional amendment. The Local Government has personnel, financial and other resources, from whatever sources, which are deployed, spent and invested at its own discretion for the execution of legally or constitutionally assigned and mutually agreed functions for the overt development of the area.

This definition captures the essential characteristics in Local Government that we are interested in, in this work.
EVOLUTION OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT ADMINISTRATION

The local government system in Nigeria has experienced several reforms since the early 1950s. During that period, the system was modernized and constituted on a representative basis. Colonial local administration revolved around traditional rulers, with the unit of local administration referred to as the native authority. Executive authority lay with the district officer. The authorities at that time created administrative organizations that were ad hoc in nature. However, some success of this type of administration was noticeable in the centralized emirates of the former Northern Nigeria.

The evolution of local government administration in the country must be seen in the context of regionalism. The old regions of the East, West and North, as a result of different levels of development traversed different paths to strengthen their systems of local administration.

The 1976 reform represented a fundamental change in the development of Local Government in Nigeria. For the first time, the country was given a common, single-tier structure of local government in place of the different structures of various states. Our interest in the 1976 reform hinges on the restructuring of the financial system. The reforms instituted statutory allocations of revenues from the federation account with the intention of giving local governments fixed proportions of both the federation account and each state’s revenue. This mandatory allocation was entrenched in the recommendations of the Aboyade Revenue Commission of 1977. The 1979 constitution empowered the National Assembly to determine what proportion of the federation account and a state’s revenue should be allocated to local governments. In 1981, the National Assembly fixed these proportions at 10% of the federation account and 10% of the total revenue of the state. In 1985, the States’ proportion was reduced to 10% of internal revenue. Local Governments allocation from the federation account was later amended to 20%. At present, statutory allocation to local governments stands at 25% of the federation account, reflecting the larger development role, local governments are expected to play.

These changes were due to the 1976 local government reforms, which also stated that the internal revenue sources of local governments would include:

- Rates, which include property rates, education rates and street lighting
- Taxes such as community, flat rate and poll tax
- Fines and fees, which include court fines and fees, motor park fees, forest fees, public advertisement fees, market fees, regulated premises fees, registration of births and deaths and licensing fees
- Miscellaneous sources such as rents on council estates, royalties, interests on investments and proceeds from commercial activities.

This clear delineation of revenue sources was to avoid the usual encroachment on local government sources of revenue by states.

AUTONOMY

Autonomy - The Local Government autonomy we have in mind is the one that is adequate, not absolute, for the Local Government Councils to perform their responsibilities optimally.

Two types of autonomy appear to have been canvassed in the literature: absolute and adequate/relative. Chaturvedi (2006:19) represents the absolutist school as he states that ‘in local autonomy, the local body has financial and management autonomy’ to decide and determine its own course of action. There is no rider whatsoever. Mawhood (1993:8) straddles both schools because he insists that there is relative separation of central and local spheres of government on the one hand. On the other hand, he says that the central government should only ‘monitor the activities of local authorities without intruding into their domain’

For these writers, autonomy for the Local Governments in Nigeria, as indeed in all the emerging or less developed councils (LDCs) of the world, should be relative, not absolute. The rationale for this is that there is in fact one territory that is being developed by all the three tiers of government in, for example, Brazil and Nigeria. The resources for development in the less developed councils are very scarce and should therefore be cooperatively managed for optimality, in the interest of the localities. Indeed, it has been gradually
recognized that politics – administration cooperation in the less developed councils, for example, Nigeria, appears to be healthier than the dichotomy which Wilson (1887) had stressed.

And it has also been gradually agreed that active, competitive and cooperative intergovernmental relations (IGRs) (Erero, 1998) in the less developed councils, for example, Nigeria and Brazil, seem healthier than The literature on this matter (see, e.g., Aghayere, 1991; Aghayere, 2008; Nchuchukwe, 2003; Ikelegbe, 2005; Imhanlahimi and Ikeanyibe, forthcoming) and available information agree that the Local Governments have not been doing enough to protect their financial autonomy. It was further revealed that Local Governments have been receiving the bulk of their funds from external sources, that is, the federal government. For example, between 1993 and 2006, the Nigerian federal government’s finances to the Local Governments have ranged between 88.8 per cent in 1995 and 96 per cent in 2006. From 1999, the federal government’s financial allocations to the Local Governments have not been below 91 per cent.

On the other hand, the Local Governments have contributed paltry sums between 1993 and 2006 as their internally generated revenue (IGR) to their financial needs. These have ranged from 3.5 per cent in 2006 to 8.7 per cent in 1995. Information available shows that Local Governments’ Internally Generated Revenue in Nigeria has been going down since 2001, ranging between 3.5 and 5.6 per cent as against 5.1 and 8.7 per cent between 1993 and 1999. This is an average of 5.83 per cent which is even higher than the average of about 4.18 per cent that Aghayere (1997) found in respect of Local Governments in Edo State, which placed much emphasizes on low internal revenue generation by Local Governments.

The State governments as another external revenue source have not been very helpful to the Local Governments as their contributions have ranged between 0.3 and 0.9 per cent between 1993 and 2006. More disturbing, as Ola and Towe (2005) and Aghayere (2008) have reported, is that the State governments interfere with federal government’s financial allocations to the Local Governments. This is in addition to the said default in State governments’ statutory contribution of 10 per cent of their Internally Generated Revenue to the Local Governments.

Local Governments in Nigeria need adequate autonomy that can facilitate their operations and development of the localities. This should emanate from institutionalized democratic process of elections for representative Local Government councils as and when due. This should be in line with what obtains at the State and Federal government levels where elections are timely conducted. More will be said about democratic consolidation below.

Adequate autonomy should be manifestly accorded Local Governments in other areas such as finance, revenue generation and expenditure, personnel administration and development matters. The literature that has largely, if not indeed entirely, agreed about poached Local Government autonomy will recognize adequate Local Government autonomy when it is granted by higher level governments. Adequate Local Government autonomy will forestall the current alibi that Local Governments make with inadequate autonomy for their diminutive development impact in their areas.

**CHALLENGES OF FUNDING NIGERIAN LOCAL GOVERNMENT COUNCILS**

Worried by the poor performance of the Local Governments, in spite of their empowerment through what Ikelegbe (2005: 48) called ‘increasing autonomy’ since the 1976 Local Governments reforms, the government set up the Dasuki Committee in 1984. Its report expressed confidence in government’s structural, financial and personnel arrangements for the Local Governments, among other matters. It however noted that the problems of the Local Governments were basically operational, ‘arising directly from the behavior and attitudes of the persons who operated the system’ (Nigeria, 1987: 120). Yet there is quite some agreement in the literature that Local Governments in Nigeria encounter all the above problems.

Local government is the third tier of government as contained in the section of the 1999 constitution. In spite of the powers vested in this tier of government, there has been public outcry about its poor performance, in spite of the several sources of revenue available to it. This study intends to verify the genuineness of the public outcry particularly that Local Government Councils has at its disposal about 25% of its allocation from the Federation account.
Local Governments have depended extensively on allocation from the Federation account which accounts for between 88-91% of their total income which is often mismanaged due to high level corruption by the local government functionaries who are often ill-equipped to play the expected roles.

Added to the above is the fact that not only that the states fail in their duties to remit 10% of their Internally Generated Revenue to Local Government Councils but also interfere with the allocation from the Federation account to Local Government Councils, thereby reducing what is accruable to the Council.

Another problem is lack of respect for the constitution. Both the Military and Civilian Governments have illegally dissolved Local Government Councils and in their stead constituted unconstitutional structure that will dance to their whims and caprices which has often subjected Governance at that level to a lot of corruption and abuses.

By the existing guidelines, each Local Government is expected to have a population size of 150,000, so that through collection of taxes and levies they will be able to raise enough Internally Generated Revenue to run an efficient Local Government Administration, but since the creation of later Local Governments were politically motivated, about 242 Local Government Councils (31.27%) have a population of below 150,000 people and so are unable to stand on their own as they cannot obtain adequate revenue for their operations.

Personnel Administration is one area of Local Government Administration that is not covered by any constitutional, legal, but administrative provisions, which accounts for why (Local Government Service Commissions) all over the country, claim monopoly of personnel matters with the result that Local Governments have little or no control over their personnel. In Kogi State, all employees on Grade Level 07 and above are unified staff of Local Government Service Commission. For example, Kogi state Local Government Service Commission stated in its manual that it has responsibility “to appoint, post, promote and discipline employees of the Local Government on salary Grade Level 07 and above. it is largely a situation in which the end users of personnel have little say in their administration. Most Local Government Service Commissions exchange their annual reports so as to know what others are doing. Though it has some advantages of uniformity but it limits the power of Local Governments because “he who pays the piper dictates the tune”.

NATURE AND PATTERN OF FUNDING NIGERIAN LOCAL GOVERNMENT COUNCILS

The guidelines on the 1976 Local Government reforms gave clear powers to Local Government Councils when they stated that membership of Local Government Councils should be predominantly elected either by direct or indirect elections from local communities … (Nigeria, 1976, Para 21). This was further dragged into the 1979, 1989 and 1999 constitutions. In section 7, of each of the constitutions, it emphasized the need for a democratically elected council while in section 8, it discussed the issue of establishment, structure Finance and functions of such councils; by directing the state to enact a law to that effect.

The Federal Government has immensely contributed to the financial stability of Local Government Councils in two (2) basic ways. First through financial allocations to them which presently stands at 25% of revenue available to the Federation. And second, is through constitutional provisions for many of their revenue sources as enshrined in for example, sections 149 and 162 of the 1999 constitution. (see e.g. Aghayere, 1991, Aghayere, 2008, Nchuchukwe, 2003,) where state governments are required to remit 10% of their Internally Generated Revenue to Local Government Councils, other sources include Internally Generated Revenue to Local Government Councils which is the paltry collection of taxes and tenement rates.

PROBLEMS OF FUNDING ANKPA LOCAL GOVERNMENT COUNCILS
The following have been identified as problems that have inhibited growth and development of Ankpa Local Government Council.

1. **HIGH LEVEL OF CORRUPTION:** Corruption was rated as the greatest indicator of underdevelopment in Ankpa Local Government Council. It was revealed that funds meant for capital projects were shared amongst party leaders and functionaries of Local Government Service Commission. The wages was also revealed to have been over bloated because of the presence of Ghost workers on its payroll. It was revealed that Ankpa Local Government Council which is 3rd in size has more work force than even Dekina and Okene that are bigger in sizes.
2. Like other Local Government Councils, the staff of Ankpa Local Government Council are ill equipped to perform the functions of their office in such a way that there will be results.

3. The state is also a contributory factor as they do not only fail to meet their obligations of remitting 10% of their Internally Generated Revenue to the Councils but also interfere with the allocation from the Federation account.

4. Local Government Functionaries are not responsible to their immediate constituency but to Local Government Service Commission who are their employers, the end result is that they conserve funds to satisfy their employers so that they can remain relevant instead of developing their localities. The present arrangement where there are no elected Councils but appointed Directors of Local Government who function as Ag. Chairmen is an added problem.

Ankpa Local Government has a lot of potential for greater Internally Generated Revenue which are either not fully utilized or embezzled with the result that there is low Internally Generated Revenue that cannot adequately support development.

They also shy away from the collection of personal income tax from the citizenry and tenement rates. One of the reasons for their inability to collect such taxes and rates appears to be the onerous task in the collection and another reason seems to be the avoidance of harsh criticisms from the public for non-performance.

GAP IN LITERATURE

Literature abounds on the abysmal performance of Local Government Councils in Nigeria, in spite of the enormous sources of revenue available to them, but non relates to Ankpa Local Government Council. It is as a result of the limited number of literature on the subject under review that I found the works of the underlisted scholars very useful in explaining some issues on the funding challenges facing Local Government Councils. Commenting on that issue (e.g. Aghayere, 1997; Omoruyi, 1995, Ola and Towe, 2005) who in their works advocated that State Governments should extend the rightful financial allocations to Local Government Councils as the Federal Government does. State Governments should also totally eliminate all forms of interference with Local Government’s Revenue from the federation account.

The gap in literature that this study intends to fill is the fact that there is no record of any study in this area in the recent past, and so, what was found in other Local Governments/States will be related to Ankpa Local Government Council.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF ANALYSIS

The essence of theoretical frame work in Social Science research cannot be over emphasized. According to Obasi (1999) theoretical frame work means a device or scheme for adopting or applying the assumptions, postulation and principles of a theory in the description and analysis of a research problem. Theories are essential tools for scientific inquiry, analysis and reliable understanding of how social systems operate. Just as it is useful for the architect to build a miniature model of a proposed building, so it is useful for a Social Scientist to build conceptual model of such abstract matter as organization. According to French (1978) a model is a symbolic phenomenon. As observed by Oguonu and Anugwon (2006), the main reason behind the use of theoretical frame work is for the study to find a generalization to enable a validation of the theory at the end of the study. Theoretical frame work links the study theoretically with the state of knowledge in the area and gives the study the much needed theoretical backing. It is this assertion that underscores the importance of theories in understanding a study of this nature.

The theoretical framework for this study is the systems theory as propounded by David Easton. According to the systems theorists, “a system is essentially an assemblage of things interconnected or interdependent, so as to form a complex unity” (Koontz et al. 1982). All systems, except perhaps the University, interact with, and are influenced by their environment (political, social, economic, ethical, technological etc), and in turn, influence its environment. An important element in the systems approach is the emphasis on input-output analysis.

According to Adamolekun (1983) “A system is represented as receiving inputs from the environment. Worthy of note is that a system needs support from its environment in order to survive. Thus, it receives inputs of support such as payment of taxes, obedience to rules and regulations etc. Equally important is the fact that consequent upon the outputs, some new inputs are generated and feedback into the system through the feedback mechanism. These are again processed and converted to output. Thus; the systems approach is cyclical”.

73
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY
A sample size of 100 respondents was drawn from amongst the staff population of Ankpa Local Government. Available statistics obtained from Local Government Service Commission indicate that the sample size of 100 represents 20% of the total population of staff of the Local Government. The questionnaire instrument of research methods was used.

METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION
In collecting data for this research, copies of questionnaire were delivered to the respondents by the researcher through the assistance of 6 members of Local Government staff representing various departments. The instrument was administered in about 3 instances at the Local Government Headquarters. A period of 7 days was allowed to enable respondents carefully respond to the questionnaire. At the expiration of the 7 days period, 98 of the 100 questionnaire were retrieved and used for data analysis.

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION
ASSUMPTION OF THE STUDY
In this study, questions were asked on adequacy or otherwise of funds available to local government and to also know whether the available funds were properly managed. Responses are presented in the Table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE I</th>
<th>QUESTIONS</th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>% OF</th>
<th>NO</th>
<th>% OF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S/NO</td>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
<td></td>
<td>NO</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Is the Allocation from the Federation Account to Ankpa Local Government Council adequate?</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>91.8</td>
<td>08</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Is the Allocation from the State to Ankpa Local Government adequate?</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>90.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Are your salaries promptly paid?</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>96.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Are the facilities at your disposal adequate?</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>94.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Is the Council living up to its responsibility of providing rural feeder roads/clinics?</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>89.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Has the Council assisted in the provision of Benches and other facilities for primary schools in recent past?</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>90.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE II</th>
<th>Embezzlement and Mismanagement</th>
<th>% of Embezzlement and mismanagement</th>
<th>Inadequacy of funds</th>
<th>% OF inadequacy of funds</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>88</td>
<td>89.7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE III</th>
<th>Ankpa Local Government is living up to its responsibilities in terms of its obligation to staff/rural Community.</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Strongly Agree 2</td>
<td>Agree 4</td>
<td>Undecided 2</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree 50</td>
<td>Disagree 40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2012
In your own opinion, what do you consider to be the major reasons for poor performance of Local Government Administrators?  
Corruption, Inefficiency, Interference by the state and Local Government Service Commission and abuse of the constitution.

Make useful suggestions on how Local Governments could become more productive.  
Training/re-training of staff, reduced corruption, increased autonomy, non interference by the state and fear of God.

Source: Field Survey, 2012

1. IS THE ALLOCATION FROM THE FEDERATION ACCOUNT TO ANKPA LOCAL GOVERNMENT COUNCIL ADEQUATE?  
From table I above, about 91.8% of the respondents are of the opinion that allocation from the Federation Account is adequate while the remaining 8.2% indicated that it is not adequate. This goes to confirm that the allocation is truly adequate and the only challenge is in the management of available resources.

2. IS THE ALLOCATION FROM THE STATE TO ANKPA LOCAL GOVERNMENT COUNCIL ADEQUATE?  
Only a negligible 9.2% agreed that the allocation from the state is adequate while as much as 90.8% are of the view that it is far from being adequate. This confirms the views expressed by Ola and Towe (2005) and Aghayere (2008) that the state governments interfere with Federal government’s Federal allocations to Local Government. This is in addition to the said default in state government’s statutory contribution of 10percent of their Internally Generated Revenue to Local Government Councils”.

ARE YOUR SALARIES PROMPTLY PAID?  
A negligible 3.1% agreed that their salaries are promptly paid. This may be the favoured group who because of their intimacy with the power that be, are given salary advances because Governance is not run according to the rule of the game, while the absolute majority of 96.9% affirmed that salaries are not promptly paid. This is occasioned by inclusion of ghost workers on the wage bill which blow the salary of the Local Government workforce beyond proportion.

1. IS THE COUNCIL LIVING UP TO ITS RESPONSIBILITY OF PROVIDING RURAL FEEDER ROADS/CLINICS  
The 94.8% of the respondents said that Ankpa Local Government Council has failed in its responsibility of providing rural feeder roads/clinics, thereby defeating the purpose of its creation, which is the provision of grassroots development. Only a negligible 3.1% agreed that they provide these facilities and their evidence cannot be relied upon in the circumstance.

HAS ANKPA LOCAL GOVERNMENT COUNCIL ASSISTED IN THE REPLACEMENT OF BROKEN DOWN TRANSFORMERS IN RECENT PAST?  
A gulping 89.7% of the respondents have attested to the fact that part of the local government headquarters have been without power supply in the last four years due to breakdown of transformers and the Local Government Council has not been able to come to their rescue, whereas 11.3% agreed that they provide. The latter group may be those from the same constituency with the chairman. This inability to deliver the expected dividends of democracy has defeated the purpose of local government creation.

HAS THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT COUNCIL ASSISTED IN THE PROVISION OF BENCHES AND OTHER FACILITIES FOR PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN RECENT PAST?  
90.8% of the respondents have said no, while only 9.2% have agreed that they provide. It would be a statistical error to support the views of the later group.

The study also revealed that the abysmal performance of Ankpa Local Government Council is not occasioned by inadequacy of funds but embezzlement and mismanagement of public funds as evidenced by table III.
where 89.7% and 91.8% have agreed that...embezzlement and mismanagement of public funds are the bane of Ankpa Local Government Council as opposed to 11.3% and 8.2% respectively that had alluded the poor performance to inadequacy of funds.

Table III reveals that Ankpa Local Government Council is not living up to its responsibilities in terms of its obligation to staff/rural community as attested to by the respondent’s views.

It was further confirmed that states have not only failed in their duties to provide the 10% Internally Generated Revenue but also interfere with the allocation from the Federation account.

It was further confirmed that majority of functionaries at the Local Government numbering about 62.2% are of low moral standard which accounts for their poor performance as they appeared not to have conscience. This can be buttressed by the fact that 32 and 29 respondents have strongly agreed and agreed respectively that low moral standard is largely responsible for poor performance at the Local Government level.

The findings resulted from low moral standard, embezzlement and mismanagement.

Questions were asked on reasons responsible for the poor performance of Local Government Councils, in spite of available resources and they were further requested to profer possible solutions on how Local Governments could become more productive.

On the poor performance, they adduced a number of reasons among which are low moral standard, corruption, inefficiency, mismanagement, interference by the state government in the appointment of local government functionaries instead of election, interference with the allocation from the Federation account and unholy influence of God Fathers.

The following suggestions were advanced with a view to making Local Government Councils more productive:
- Adherence to the constitutional provision so that functionaries of local councils are elected instead of being appointed.
- Non interference of the state in the allocation from the Federation account.
- Training and retraining of Local Government functionaries.
- Beaming of search light by anti corruption agencies like ICPC and EFCC on Local Government functionaries.

**HYPOTHESIS ONE**

The abysmal performance of Local Government Councils in Nigeria is due to lack of funds. The hypothesis was formulated to know if truly it was the lack of funds at the Local Government Level that is responsible for the poor performance of Local Government functionaries. From the findings of the study as evidenced by the response on Section A, Question I, Section B Questions 4 and 6 where their views... Respectively are that 91.8% of the respondents agreed that the allocation from the Federation account is adequate. Furthermore, in Questions 4 and 6 of Section B, 89.7% and 91.8% of the respondents as opposed to 11.3% and 8.2% have agreed that embezzlement and mismanagement rather than inadequacy of funds is responsible for poor performance at the Ankpa Local Government Area.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Embezzlement and Mismanagement</th>
<th>% of Embezzlement and Mismanagement</th>
<th>Inadequacy of Funds</th>
<th>% of Inadequacy of Funds</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>If no, why?</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>89.7</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>If no, why?</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>91.8</td>
<td>08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2012

**HYPOTHESIS TWO**

The poor performance at the Local Government level is not due to paucity of funds, but embezzlement and mismanagement.
It can be seen from the table above that, 11.3% and 8.2% of the respondents respectively have agreed that it is not the paucity of funds that is responsible for poor performance of Local Government functionaries; rather, embezzlement and mismanagement of funds.

**Findings**

The findings of this study that in-spite of the several sources of revenue available to Ankpa Local Government Council, it has the difficulty of discharging its constitutionally assigned responsibility of grassroots development. The sources of revenue available to Ankpa Local Government Council include: 25% of the allocation from the Federation account to all the 774 Local Government Councils; 10% of Internally Generated Revenue from the state which is not often remitted in full, tenement rate and community tax, fees, charges and debt financing, etc. The challenges confronting Ankpa Local Government Council include: High level of corruption by Local Government functionaries who are often ill-equipped to perform the functions of their office, if not, an allocation of 25% from the Federation account is high enough for the third tier of Government to discharge its responsibilities.

Added to the above is the fact that not only that the state fail in its duties to remit 10% of its Internally Generated Revenue to Ankpa Local Government but also interfere in the allocation from the Federation account that often reduce what accrued to Ankpa Local Government Council. The lack of respect for the constitution was identified as another problem as both the military and the civilian administrations have illegally dissolved elected Local Government Councils and appointed in their place, caretaker committees or Ag. Chairman which has often subjected Governance at that level to corruption and abuses.

It was also found that Ankpa Local Government also shy away from the collection of the personal income tax from the citizenry and tenement rates in order to avoid the harsh criticisms from the public over non-performance. The study having identified the fact of poor performance of Ankpa Local Government Council has advanced a number of suggestions with a view to bettering the lots of people at the grassroots level though improved performance of Local Government functionaries.

**CONCLUSIONS**

It can be concluded from the findings of this study that there are several sources of revenue available to Ankpa Local Government Council which has not been well managed.

It can also be concluded from the findings of this study that not minding the enormous challenges facing Ankpa Local Government Council and other councils Nationwide, they are not insurmountable. According to the study, it is acknowledged that if the identified suggestions are utilized, the third tier of government will perform better.

**RECOMMENDATIONS**

Based on the findings of this study, it is recommended that Ankpa Local Government Council, like other Local Government Councils must be given its rightful place as provided for in the constitution, that is, allocation to the Council must not be interfered with and that the state must as of necessity remit 10% of its Internally Generated Revenue.

One of the reasons adduced for poor performance at the Local Government level is the Quality of its personnel. Therefore, Local Government functionaries should be trained and retrained in order to enhance their efficiency.

Officers to be appointed into the key positions of Local Government Council must be men and women of proven integrity that will live above board, so that all revenues, to the council are promptly collected and utilized for the good of all.

The present situation where Local Government employees are under the unified Local Government Service Commission should be modified to reduce abuses.
The role of God Fathers in election and appointment of Local Government functionaries should be carefully investigated and modified in order to reduce the high level of corruption. The governor should take personal interest in this matter and closely monitor it.

Ankpa Local Government should be given the desired autonomy so that people of no consequence are not allowed to erode their powers.

REFERENCES
PROXIMATE DETERMINANTS OF WOMEN’S USE OF BIRTH CONTROL METHODS IN OTA, OGUN STATE

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ABSTRACT
Fertility regulation and pregnancy prevention are among the major health challenges of the 21st century in sub-Saharan Africa, especially in Nigeria. Contraception has been identified as an effective means of combating the problem of unwanted pregnancy and unsafe abortion and it is equally an effective means of family planning and fertility control and therefore very important in promoting maternal and child health. Women between ages 18 and 47 (n=143, mean=30.4 years) were sampled. A survey research questionnaire made up of four trajectories and consisting of sixteen (16) items was used in this study. The study made use of frequency counts, percentage, t-test analysis and regression analysis. The SPSS software was used to analyze the data. Results indicate a good knowledge of types of contraception with more than a third (83%) aware of condom as a contraceptive method. However, very few women were aware of modern contraceptive methods such as implants (9%) and spermicides (5%). The study indicates that knowledge of contraception (β = 2.244; t = 2.356; p < .05), employment status (β = 1.955; t = 2.257; p < .05) and age (β = 1.530; t = 2.203; p < .05) were good predictors of women’s contraceptive use. There was also a significant difference in women’s use of contraceptives based on contraceptive self-efficacy (t = 3.387, p < .05). Based on these findings, the study shows the need for strong advocacy, enlightenment and community mobilization for improved awareness and use of contraceptives in fertility control and preventing unwanted pregnancies.

Keyword: Women, contraceptive use, birth control, unwanted pregnancy
Introduction

The United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) and others have recognised the need for specific health sector reform and for the expansion of health services to meet the reproductive and sexual health needs of women (UNFPA, 1997). In many parts of Africa, adolescent and women sexuality and reproductive health (SRH) remains a highly charged moral issue, which is compounded by the fact that in most cases, reproductive health services are not oriented towards adequately meeting needs (Katz and Naré, 2002; Warenius, Faxelid, Chishimba, Musandu, Ong'any and Nissen, 2006; Wood and Jewkes, 2006). Addressing adolescent SRH therefore requires multifaceted interventions that include gaining community-wide acceptance in addition to providing information, life skills, support and access to youth-friendly services for adolescents and young and old mothers (Bearinger, Sieving, Ferguson and Sharma, 2007; Mmari and Magnani, 2003; Williamson, Parkes, Wight, Petticrew and Hart, 2009).

Birth control methods are the deliberate limiting, usually by contraceptive means, of the number of children born (Encarta, 2009). Contraceptives are devices, drugs, or methods for preventing pregnancy, either by preventing the fertilization of the female egg by the male sperm or by preventing implantation of the fertilized egg. A woman who uses contraception may have more opportunities to be able to work and engage in community-based activities because having fewer children may relieve some of the domestic burden inherent in raising a large family. A second side to this also exist. The same woman may be negatively perceived by the community for failing to produce as many children as expected. Conclusively, the impact of birth control use or non-use on the lives of women is multifaceted; depending on contextual and mediating factors. The UNFPA has detailed some of the consequences of denying sexual and reproductive rights worldwide. Amongst these are several morbidities and mortalities (UNFPA, 1997).

Reproductive health care services are essential for the exercise of reproductive rights and additionally, women's rights to dignity and autonomy are being abused in the existing delivery of reproductive health services in many countries (Moronkola, Ojediran, Amosu, 2006; Cook, 1995; Germain and Ordway, 1989). In Nigeria, about 800 women out of every 100,000 die in the process of giving birth to other Nigerians (Federal Ministry of Health, Save the Children, ACCESS, 2009; Society of Obstetric and Gynecology of Nigeria, n.d.). This figure masks wide regional disparities which range from 339 per 100,000 live births in the South West to 1,716 per 100,000 live births in the North East as indicated by the presentation from a recent study on Maternal Mortality Situation and Determinants in Nigeria. Furthermore, other Reproductive Health indices are also dismal; the contraceptive prevalence rate is 8.9% and total fertility rate of 5% (Society of Obstetric and Gynecology of Nigeria, n.d.). As reported by Godoue, Gabhainn, Vignes, Ross, Boyce & Jodd (2008) in a study on contraceptive use in 24 countries, they observed that adolescent fertility regulation and pregnancy prevention are among the major health challenges of the 21st century in developing and developed countries. Contraception has been identified as an effective means of combating the problem of unwanted pregnancy and unsafe abortion. It is equally an effective means of family planning and fertility control and therefore very important in promoting maternal and child health. Access to quality reproductive health and family planning services remain poor in Nigeria.

Effective and consistent use of contraception involves engaging in a set of skills which include frank communication about birth control between partners, dealing with partner demands, and acquisition and use of specific devices (Gilchrist and Schinke, 1983). As a result of this cognitive-behavioural intervention, students showed marked improvements in efficacy ratings of their own abilities to use birth control, exhibited more effective contraceptive problem solving abilities, and had greater intentions to use contraception at next intercourse than did a group of students not receiving the intervention. In an attempt to build efficacy through a cognitive-behavioural treatment, Gilchrist and Schinke (1983) developed an intervention for adolescents who presented factual material on reproduction and birth control together with skills training and practice.

Amazigo, Silva, Kaufman and Obikeze (1997) observed that the gravity of the problems of contraceptive use is more highlighted by the 1990 Demographic and Health Survey which discovered that about 40 percent of all teenage women in Nigeria had either given birth or were expecting their first child. However, the 2008 edition of the Nigerian Demographic and Health Survey (NDHS) found that only 9.7 percent of married women use a modern method of contraception, while 20% of women have an unmet need for family planning services. With access to information about methods to delay and space births, unmet need tends to increase as more women want to use contraception. A study by Ugoji (2008) showed that young people often know little or have incorrect information about contraception and even when they can name contraceptives, they
often do not know where to get them or how to use them. But in a survey of 2388 Nigerian Undergraduates, Arowojolu, Ilesanmi, Roberts and Okunola (2002) discovered that 87.5 percent were knowledgeable about contraception and approve its use.

Research has shown that women’s reproductive health is largely ignored in most parts of Africa due to cultural practices and in some locales, religious considerations. The staggering rate of teenage pregnancies, unwanted pregnancies and other health issues arising from lack of birth control reveals an urgent need for reproductive health information especially as it relates to birth control measures. Nigeria has the highest fertility/morbidity level in Africa. Lack of adequate knowledge of birth control methods impact negatively on the use of contraceptives and this consequently leads to high rate of miscarriages, unsafe abortion, stillbirths, unwanted children and a reduction in employment prospect for women. Other complications such as infant or maternal deaths might also occur (Machel, 2001; Magadi, 2003, 2006). In addition, available evidence shows that most pregnancies to adolescent girls in sub-Saharan Africa are unintended or mistimed and the use of family planning methods among this group remains low (Cleland, Mohammed & Shah, 2006; Magadi, 2003; Magadi and Curtis, 2003; Manzini, 2001). As noted by Moore, Miller, Glei & Morrison (1995), inconsistent, ineffective or non-use of contraceptives are risk factors for unintended pregnancy. The purpose of this study is to examine the proximate factors such as marital status, age, level of education, employment status, religion, and knowledge of contraception and self efficacy that determines women’s use of birth control methods in Ota, Ogun State.

Contraceptive use is an instance of healthy behaviour that requires behaviour change. In conceptualizing this study, some theories such as the Health Belief Model and the Theory of Planned Behaviour were employed to serve as guide and signpost for the study. Theories and models of health behaviour have grown largely out of social psychological literature. Health behaviour theories are extremely important to both our understanding of health behaviours as well as form a basis from which interventions aimed at increasing health behaviours are developed. Two theories formed the bedrock of this study and the first is the Health Belief Model (Rosenstock, 1974), a widely used psychological model in explaining and predicting health behaviours by focussing on attitudes and beliefs of individuals. The second was the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TpB, Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). This theory also predicts deliberate behaviour, because behaviour can be deliberate and planned.

Methods
Design
This study employed descriptive survey method. Leedy & Ormrod (2001) describe the survey method of research as the research that simply looks with intense accuracy at the phenomenon of the moment and describes precisely what the researcher sees, making a careful record of what is observed so that he can analyze the meaning of the information obtained. According to McQueen & Knussen (2006), the survey method helps to collect data from large numbers of participants on a particular topic and may involve self-report questionnaires or highly structured interviews. This method was adopted because of its flexibility and effectiveness in information gathering.

Sample and Sampling Procedure
A total of 143 respondents were involved in this study. Stratified and simple random sampling was employed in selecting the respondents to cater for demographic variables such as location of clinic/health centre, age and type of vocation/employment among others.

Instrument
The instrument used for data collection was a 16-item questionnaire titled “The Determinants of Contraceptive Use Questionnaire”. The questionnaire was derived from several sources including previous literature, discussion with women, and input from my students. The questionnaire was divided into four sections. Section A was based on demographic data with includes age, employment status, religion, marital status, number of children and education qualification. One question was added to this section seeking to establish the participant’s knowledge of the different types of contraceptives. Section B has eight (8) items measuring contraceptive self efficacy. Section C was designed to elicit information on knowledge of contraception with four (4) items while Section D elicited information with four (4) items on participant’s use of contraception. The sections were structured as a Likert-type rating scale but recoded during analysis.
as categorical variables, for example, the self efficacy scale was later recoded as either high self efficacy or low self efficacy.

**Psychometric Properties**
The Determinants of Contraceptive Use Questionnaire was designed, pilot tested and validated by the researchers. The reliability estimate of the scales obtained from a test-retest coefficient range from 0.73 to 0.87 for the three scales making up the questionnaire, with a Cronbach alpha of 0.79. This was sufficient for the conduct of the study. The questionnaire was certified by peer researchers to have content validity. For the construct validity, the study has a convergent validity (.75 to .86) with the KABP (Ingham & Stone, 2006).

**Procedure for Data Collection**
The questionnaire forms were administered to the respondents with the aid of trained research assistants who doubled as interpreters where necessary. They helped to interpret to those who could not speak and/or understood English. The questionnaires were collected on the spot. This ensured 100% response rate. Data was collected from October 2012 through to early January 2013. The data were expressed as both descriptive and inferential statistical methods, such as frequency counts and percentages, t-test and regression analysis and a P-value of ≤0.05 was considered as significant. All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS (SPSS version 17 for Windows, SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL).

**Ethical Considerations**
Prior to administering the questionnaire, the purpose of the study was explained to the participants. Participation was voluntary and there was no incentive given for participation. Those who agreed to participate were made to sign while others opted for oral acceptance. Anonymity was assured by asking participant not to write their names on the questionnaire forms. There were no identifiable risks to the participants. They were also informed about their right to quit at any time during the study.

**Research Question**
1. What is the knowledge level of the participants on the different methods of contraception

**Hypotheses**
1. There is a significant combined contribution of age, educational qualification, number of children, contraceptive knowledge and employment status in the prediction of women’s use of contraception
2. There is a significant difference in the use of contraception based on the self-efficacy of women

**Data Analysis**

**RESULTS**
Table 1 reveal that more primary school holders (39.2%), married (64.3%) and those with two or three children (44%) constituted the majority in this study. Participants between 26 and 35 years accounted for 65 (45%) of the sample while those between 18 and 25 years and 36 years plus made up 24% and 31% respectively. In terms of employment status, 46% are employed by government or private firms while 42% were self employed. 17 women reported they were unemployed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Socio Demographic Variables n = 143</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age (mean = 30.4)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-25 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-35 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36 years +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Marital Status</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2: Knowledge of Contraceptive Methods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Methods</th>
<th>Frequency (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Condoms</td>
<td>119 (83)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Injectables</td>
<td>66 (46)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implants</td>
<td>13 (9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spermicides</td>
<td>7 (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstinence</td>
<td>48 (34)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Withdrawal</td>
<td>37 (26)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emergency contraceptive</td>
<td>11 (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pills</td>
<td>91 (64)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IUD</td>
<td>68 (48)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 reveals that majority of the women (83%) are aware of condom as a contraceptive method and this was quickly followed by pills (64%), IUD (48) and injectables (46%). Other methods are abstinence (34%) and withdrawal (26%). The information indicates that very few women are aware of implants (9%) and spermicides (5%).

Table 3a: Relative Contribution of the Predictors on the Criterion Variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor Variables</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t-ratio</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>13.868</td>
<td>2.993</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>knowledge</td>
<td>2.244</td>
<td>.953</td>
<td>.221</td>
<td>2.356 .020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment</td>
<td>1.955</td>
<td>.866</td>
<td>.223</td>
<td>2.257 .026</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No of Children</td>
<td>-1.390</td>
<td>.032</td>
<td>-.127</td>
<td>-1.347 .180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>1.530</td>
<td>.695</td>
<td>.207</td>
<td>2.203 .029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>.521</td>
<td>.318</td>
<td>.032</td>
<td>2.278 .693</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dependent Variable: Contraception Use

Table 3a reveals that number of children (β = -1.390; t = 1.347; p > 0.05) and level of education (β = 0.521; t = 2.278; p > 0.05) of the five predictor variables were not predictors of women’s contraceptive use. Contraceptive knowledge (β = 2.244; t = 2.356; p < .05), employment status (β = 1.955; t = 2.257; p < .05) and age (β = 1.530; t = 2.203; p < .05) were strong predictors of women’s contraceptive use. Knowledge of contraception was however the strongest or most potent predictor of women’s contraceptive use. The first part of the hypothesis which states that there is a significant relative contribution of age, educational qualification, and number of children, contraceptive knowledge and employment status in the prediction of women’s use of contraception was accepted for knowledge of contraception, employment status and age but rejected for number of children and level of education.
Table 3b: Combined Contribution of the Predictors on the Criterion Variable and Model Summary of Multiple Regressions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>1351.966</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>270.393</td>
<td>5.610</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>6603.460</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>48.200</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7955.427</td>
<td>142</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), knowledge, Employment, No of children, Age, Education
b. Dependent Variable: Contraception Use

Table 3b reveals that when all the predictor variables were entered into the regression model at once, there was a significant combined contribution \( r = .412, r^2 = .170; F(5, 137) = 5.610; p < .005 \). In this study, 17 percent of the variation in women’s use of contraception appears to be accounted for by the combination of knowledge of contraception, number of children, employment status, age and education. The second part of the hypothesis which states that there will be a combined contribution of the predictor variables was accepted.

Table 4: t-test on Use of Contraception based on Self-Efficacy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self Efficacy</th>
<th>No of Cases</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std Dev</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t value</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>24.10</td>
<td>6.910</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>3.387</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>19.43</td>
<td>8.068</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The resulting difference in self-efficacy and use of contraception shows that there is a significant difference in women’s use of contraceptives based on self-efficacy \( t = 3.387, p < .05 \). The hypothesis was sustained.

Discussion

In this study, knowledge of contraception, employment status and age were good predictor of women’s contraceptive use while level of education and number of children were not. However, 17 percent of the variation in women’s use of contraception was accounted for by the combination of number of children, knowledge of contraception, employment status, age and education. Study in Nigerian population did not show association between number of children and use of contraception (Amos, 2007; Narzary, 2009) and a multivariate analysis by Rahayu, Ufomo and Mcdonald (2009) showed that age above 30 years, having more than 3 children and having a secondary level education was associated with higher use of contraceptives in Indonesia. In this study, knowledge of contraception was an important predictor of women’s contraceptive use. Report from Alan Guttman Institute (1994) supports the view that women are likely to use contraception because contraceptive information is available. In a study by Ranjana & Awdhesh (2012), it was reported that women who have married at age 18 or above are more likely to use contraceptive. Hence, age is of great importance in women’s use of contraception. A study by Padma, Kamat & Sajjan (2003) showed that education was not associated with use of contraceptive methods, but the study by Belachaw and Asnake (2007) showed that more number of literate women used contraceptives compared to illiterates while Bhasin, Pant, Metha & Kumar (2005) noted that more number of illiterates used contraceptive methods compared to literates but the difference was not statistically significant.

This study revealed that though women were aware of different types of contraception, very few were aware of modern methods. Levels of contraceptive knowledge are high, and usage is higher among older women. Narzary (2009) the result reveals that there is a huge difference in contraceptive use between women who knows all modern methods of contraception and those who knows only some of them. Higher contraceptive use was associated with higher educational level (Agyei & Migadde, 1995). Greater knowledge about contraception was found among women with a secondary or higher education, among women with three or more surviving children and among urban women.

In this study, young women aged between 18 and 25 years had low self-efficacy (56%) compared to high self-efficacy in the 26-35 year range (81%) and older women above 35 (86%). However, there was a change in the trend as regards knowledge of contraception. Younger women (18-25 years) displayed better knowledge of contraception (74%) than older women (61%). Women with high self efficacy were more favourably disposed to contraceptive use than women with low self efficacy. Hence, self belief in the use of
contraceptives actually increases and predicts contraceptive use. It is well documented that women with high self efficacy are motivated, well driven, striving always for success and competitive while women with low self efficacy are seen as failures or quitters. To achieve self-directed change, people not only need reasons to alter risky habits, but they also must believe in their ability or efficacy to exercise personal control (Bandura, 1992; Gecas and Schwalbe, 1983). The findings of this study corroborate those of Brafford and Beck (1991), Heinrich (1993) and Levinson (1986). These studies indicated the importance of self-efficacy in the use of contraception. They all agreed that individuals with higher self-efficacy were more likely to use contraception.

**Conclusion and Recommendations**

The State of the World Children Report 2009 stated that 1 out of 9 global maternal deaths occurred in Nigeria. If people, especially women and young girls are not aware of good contraceptive methods, there will be increase in the incidence of unwanted pregnancies. It is found that having knowledge of various contraceptive methods has a great effect on its use and with increase in age and education; there is also steady increase in contraceptive use. There is the need to educate women on modern contraceptive methods and their use. Also, enlightenment campaign and other forms of psycho-education targeted at women and their reproductive needs may help build their self confidence in the ability to use contraceptives as self-efficacy correlated highly with the use of contraception. More effort is therefore expected from government agencies and ministries in the quest for better enlightenment, enabling environment and policies geared towards encouraging women’s use of birth control methods.

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IMPACT OF NEIGHBORHOOD, AND PEER PRESSURE ON ADOLESCENTS DELINQUENT BEHAVIOUR IN IBADAN METROPOLIS

By

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Abstract

This study addressed the relationship between neighbourhood, peer group influence and adolescent delinquency among secondary students in Ibadan metropolis. Using data from primary source collected through “Adolescent Delinquent Behaviour Questionnaire (ADBQ)” developed by Ma and Leung (1991) and Ma, Shek, Cheung and Lee (1996), the findings of the study revealed that neighborhood was significantly related to adolescent delinquent behaviour, peer group influence was also significant related to adolescent delinquent behavior. On the basis of these findings that the researcher recommended that governments (the Federal, State and Local government) should make the environment more friendly to the adolescent by making sure that such building as hotels, beer parlous are not located around school and residential places. Also both the parents and teachers in the school should also assist to monitor the activities of adolescent both in and outside the school in other to check the influence of peers on the adolescent and to correct them when they go astray.

Keywords: Neighborhood, Peer group influence, Delinquency

Introduction

Adolescence is a developmental transition between childhood and adulthood. It is generally considered to begin about age 12 or 13 and ends in the late teens or twenties. It should be noted however, that the physical basis for adolescence has actually begun long before the ages and its psychological ramifications may continue long after.

More importantly, a central question that adolescents usually ask is “who am I?”. In other words, adolescents try to identify what differentiate them from significant others. The question of who they are and what they will amount to actually begins right from infancy, when babies first discover that they are separate from their mothers. Children begin to find answer to the questions of who am I and what will I become? As they learn the boundaries of self, shed much of their egocentric thinking, and size up; their skill and values in the mirror of their peer group (Papalia & Olds, 1992).

This question of self- identity attains its peak during adolescence when physical, cognitive, social and emotional development also reaches its peak. For instant, at the age of fifteen, most girls have the body of a woman with the capability to engage in the adult sexual behaviour. A girl knows she will soon be responsible for her own life and will have to make choices such as how to make life, the kind of work to do, decisions about sexual relationship and other relationships, and they are often accompanied by emotional confusion and conflict. Male adolescents also experience similar trends in their course of development.

They become uncomfortable with the ties that bind them to an older generation, they often sees mothers and fathers as inhibiting more than helpful. Yet while teenagers look up to their peers as companions in their struggle for independence, they will still turn to their parents for important guidance and emotional support (Papalia & Olds, 1992, Osinowo & Folarin, 1989).
Adolescence is usually a problematic period for most people because of its physical and emotional implications and these could lead to serious problem for some. Two major problems that have been identified and that can drastically affect a young person’s life are juvenile delinquency and unplanned pregnancy. However, despite the fact that people see this problem as “normal” or typical, it should be noted that both are signals that a young person is in trouble and needs help. It is thus necessary to identify and to address the predictors of adolescent’s delinquent behaviour at appropriate points in their development for prevention purpose.

Statement of Problem

Owumi (1994) and ifaturoti (1994) reported that the recent trend in Nigeria shows that juvenile delinquency is now pervasive, appearing every where from the large metropolitan city to the rural areas of the country that were once thought to be immune to urban problems. Obioha (1994) found that in big city like Ibadan, a close observation would reveal a preponderance of adolescents engaging in sexual behaviour, drug abuse, stealing, cultism and a host of other delinquents behaviour in schools and in the neighbourhood. Aderinto (1996) in his study of adolescent delinquency in Ibadan and Lagos metropolis found that the facts of delinquency expressed by these adolescents were multifaceted and ranged from running away from home, truancy, underage drinking, drug abuse, wandering, armed robbery, stealing, raping, violent offence and murder. Udegbe and Omololu (1994) reported that adolescents were engaged in four general forms of sexual violence, which include physical assault, gang rape, individual rape and verbal assault.

However, the major problem now, confronting the Nigerian society at large is the rate at which the rising delinquency of adolescents has drastically affected the environment. It is against this background that this study set out to ascertain the influence of family and peer group factors on adolescent delinquent behaviour of adolescents in Ibadan metropolis.

Objectives of the Study

The objective of this study therefore is to find out the impact of neighborhood and peer group influence on adolescent delinquent behavior with aim of determining their importance in controlling delinquency.

Research hypotheses

1. There will not be significant relationship between neighborhood and adolescent delinquency.
2. There will not be significant relationship between peer group influence and adolescent delinquency.

Literature Review

Quite a grate deal of factors serves as precursors to adolescent behaviour. Osinowo and Taiwo (1998) identified these factors such as family factors like parent–child separation, physical abuse and neglect, school factors like truancy and dropping out of school, peer-related factors like delinquent siblings, delinquent peers, and lastly, community and neighborhood factors like socio-economic status of parents, availability of drugs, community disorganization, exposure to violence and neighborhood adults involved in crime.

The range of behaviours defined as delinquent tend to be broad, as a result of different antisocial behaviour engaged in by adolescents that can be termed delinquent or that would fall under the jurisdiction of juvenile court. Much of these behaviour includes fighting, truancy, premature sex, rape, running away from home and not abiding by parents rules, an act of omission or commission that is ordinary not considered criminal except when engaged in by a minor (usually someone under age 17 or 18). It should be noted that in some countries, all juveniles could be categorized as delinquents. In such countries delinquency, then, includes a much greater range of behaviour than does crime (Papalia & Olds, 1992 Lauer & Lauer 2002).

Rogoli & Hewitt (1999) argued that in deciding who the delinquent is, it will not be prudent to use rigid, legal definition, because nearly all children committed acts for which they could have been institutionalized had they been caught and prosecuted to the full extent or law. They submit that it is also not instructive to argue that all children are delinquents, even though it true that practically all-young people have committed delinquencies.

It is factual to assume that level of delinquency of individuals differs. Most children are only sporadically or occasional involve in delinquency. To confirm an adolescent as being delinquent, is to evaluate his or her
behaviour along a series of continuum with each continuum reflecting a different dimension of behaviour. These continua emphasize the frequency, seriousness, and duration of behavior (Barlow & Theodore, 1992). Thus a juvenile delinquent is a child (adolescent) who has shown a consistency in behaviour that falls toward the extreme right end of each continuum. The number of times the individual has committed each delinquent act such as stealing, truancy, fighting, running away from home etc will determine if the child is really delinquent or not. In other words, delinquency is only established after an extended period of time. Adolescent delinquent: is a child with a long and problematic history.

The cost of juvenile delinquency is difficult to assess, but it is worthy to note that it is considerable due to it is impact on psychological and physical well-being of the individual involved, the family and the entire society at large. A delinquent child brings shame to the family, disrupts marital harmony and contradicts the standard norm of the society. Larson and others, (2002) define adolescence as the period of transition between childhood and adulthood that involves biological cognitive and socio-emotional changes. They stated that adolescence is preparation for adulthood and the futures of any cultures hinges on how effective this preparation is.

Although the age range of adolescence can vary with cultural and historical circumstance. In the United State and most other culture today, adolescence begins at approximately 10 - 13 years of age ends between the ages of about 18 and 2.

The developmentalist describe adolescence in terms of early and late period. Early adolescence corresponds to the middle school or junior-high school years and includes most pubertal change. Late adolescence refers to or approximately to the later half of the second decade of life In the late adolescence. Career interests, dating and identity exploration are often more pronounced than in the early adolescence. While the old vie of adolescence was that it is a singular uniform period of transition resulting in entry to the adult world, current approaching emphasis a variety of transition and events that define the period, as well as their timing sequence (Larson and other, 2002; Sangian and Peterson, 2000).

However, today developmentalists believe that change do not ends with adolescence and stated that adolescence is part of the course and as such is not an isolated period of development. Although it has some unique characteristics, what takes places during adolescence is connected with development and experience in both childhood and adulthood (Baltes, 2000; Demik and Androleti, 2003; Santrock, 2004).

Adolescents

There is a generalization that reflects Impression and beliefs about adolescents. Bernice Neugarten (1988) Stated that the problem of adolescents should not be viewed as one of generational inequity, but rather as a major short coming of the society.

The word adolescent have been viewed both negatively and positively as the 20th century, adolescent have been portrayed as abnormal and deviant rather than normal and non-deviant. Adolescent have been associated with crime victimization, accidents, and violent juvenile crime, which accounted for nearly half (46%) of all coverage of youths (Gilliam and Balls, 2001).

However the positive views of adolescents have been establishment. Daniel (1988) found no support of such negative view. He assessed the self images of adolescent around the world and stated that 73 percent of adolescents hand a positive self-image.

The adolescents were self-conflict and optimistic about their future. Although three were some exceptions, as a group, the adolescents were happy most of the time, enjoyed life, expressed confidence in their sexuality, showed positive feelings toward their families and felt they had the capacity to cope with life’s stresses and not exactly a storm- and- stress portrayal of adolescence.

However, many studies indicate that a single factors or a single defining situation does not cause child and adolescent antisocial behaviour. Rather, multiple factors contribute to and shape antisocial behaviour over the course of development. Some factors relate to characteristics within the child, but many others relate to factors within the social environment (e.g., family, peers, school, neighborhood, and community contexts that enable, shape, and maintain aggression, antisocial behavior, and related behaviour problems.
Methodology
Ex-post-facto research design was used for this study. One hundred and eighty one (181) delinquent adolescents from five Local Government Areas of Ibadan metropolis were sampled for this study. These include Ibadan North, Ibadan North East, Ibadan North West, Ibadan South East and Ibadan South West Local Government Areas of Oyo State.

The purposive clustering sampling technique was employed to select the adolescents from remand homes, schools and among street urchins residing in unapproved and uncompleted building, under bridges and at motor garages. From these identified groups (clusters) the researcher used the random sampling technique to select 181 delinquent adolescents. From the location of the targeted sample 36 were selected from remand homes, 60 were selected from secondary schools, 58 were selected from motor garages, 13 were selected from under bridges while 14 were selected from uncompleted buildings. These respondents were of different sex, educational background, socio-economic and, religious affiliation. All the participants were Nigerians.

Instrument
A 30 item structured questionnaire tagged “Adolescent Delinquent Behaviour Questionnaire (ADBQ)” constituted the main instrument for this study. The questionnaire had two sections, A B, and C. Section A measures the socio-demographics of the participants with items such as sex, age, educational background, socio-economic status (parents’ income, education of parents, and employment status of parents), record of previous arrest for any criminal act, family factors like, number of siblings in the family, home background e.t.c Section B contained questions on the intensity of corporal punishment and how often they been punished by their parents. Section C contained 24 item adapted from the 65 item adolescent delinquent behaviour questionnaire developed by Ma (1998) tagged ABQ. The adolescent response were scored on a four point rating scale format of strongly agree (SA), agree (A), Disagree (D) and strongly disagree (SD). Of the 24 items, 6 item each measured adolescent behaviours relating to sexual activities, 6 items measured delinquent behaviours in the family and 6 items measured delinquent behaviours in the community. The reliability and validity of the state of the Adolescent Behaviour Questionnaire score were demonstrated to be good in studies by Ma and Leung (1991) and Ma, Shek, Cheung and Lee (1996) with the reliability ranging from 0.80 to 0.90. the present researchers revalidate the scale and discovered that the whole scale had an internal consistency (alpha that the whole scale had an internal consistency (alpha coefficient) of 0.87 and a Guttman split half of 0.40. the subscale that measured delinquent behaviours relating to sexual activities had an alpha coefficient of 0.82 and a Guttman split 0.71. the subscale that measured delinquent behaviours relating to family had an alpha coefficient of 0.89 and Guttman split half of 0.78.

Permission to carry out the research with their inmates was sought through the officers and the social worker unit of the organizations. Questionnaires were administered on the adolescents through the help of supervisors in the remand homes and the guidance councilors in the selected secondary schools. For adolescent street children, the researcher sought the permission of the national union of road transport workers (NURTW) chairman of the selected motor garages to use the adolescents in their garages for the research. The researcher was able to administered questionnaires on the adolescent street children through the assistance of two research assistants. Those who could not read very well were assisted by the researcher and his assistant to fill the questionnaire. The Frequencies and percentages were used to analyze the demographic section of the questionnaire. The stated hypotheses were tested using the person product moment correlation statistics at 0.05 level of significance to establish the identified relationship between the variables of interest in the study.

Results and Discussion
Table 1: Showing Background of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criminal Record</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>181</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criminal records</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stealing</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>22.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abusing</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>15.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raping</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The table shows that 50 (24.3%) respondents had no criminal records while 131 (75.7) respondents had criminal records. This portrays that majority of the sample population had criminal records which are a concomitant variable of delinquency.

41 (22.7%) respondents had engaged in stealing, 28 (15.5%) respondents had engaged in abusing, 37 (20.4%) respondents had engaged in rape, 11 (6.01%) respondents had ran away from home, 23 (12.7%) respondents had engaged in fighting, 20 (11.0%) respondents had engaged in cheating, while 21 (11.6%) respondents had engaged in selling Indian hemp. The implication of this finding is that more respondents expressed the delinquent criminal acts of stealing, raping, abusing and cheating respectively in that order. These are usually the serious stage of delinquent behaviour. Others engaged in more terrible acts like running away from home, fighting, and selling Indian hemp.

The table also shows that 95 (52.5%) respondents indicated that their homes are located in densely populated areas while 86 (47.5%) respondents indicated that their homes are located in sparsely populated areas. Also 108 (59.7%) respondents indicated that their homes are located in densely populated areas while 73 (40.3%) respondents indicated that their homes are located in sparsely populated areas. The implication of this is that delinquency is more easily acquired in high density areas where abusive language, stealing, cheating and the other factors that make for delinquency is very rampant. The table further shows that 56 (30.9%) respondents indicated that their homes are not located near hotels and beer parlours while 125 (69.1%) respondents indicated that their homes are located near hotels and beer parlours.

The above table shows that 50 (24.3%) respondents had no criminal records while 131 (75.7) respondents had criminal records.
parlours. 84(46.4%) respondents indicated that their homes are not located near higher institutions while 56(30.9%) respondents indicated that their homes are located near higher institutions. 109(60.2%) respondents indicated that their schools are located near hotels and beer parlours while 72(39.8%) respondents indicated that their schools are located near hotels and beer parlours. 110(60.8%) respondents indicated that their schools are located near higher institutions while 71(39.2%) respondents indicated that their schools are not located near higher institutions.

The implication of this is that delinquency is more easily acquired in high density areas, environment where brothels, beer parlours were located as children are well exposed to various delinquent acts and crimes been committed by adults. Delinquent acts and crimes are learnt the same way good behaviours are been learnt. More also closeness of schools and homes to higher institution also afford the children to mingle with delinquent adult who are very likely to teach the young ones various types of anti social behaviours. Majority of the delinquents may probably have learnt their delinquent acts from these various sources.

Hypotheses 1: There will be no significant relationship between neighborhood and adolescent delinquency

Table 2: Pearson Product Moment correlation analysis showing the relationship between societal factors and adolescent delinquency.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>r cal</th>
<th>r critical</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Neighbourhood factors</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>9.03</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>.300</td>
<td>.195</td>
<td>&lt;.05</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adolescent Delinquent Behaviour</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>73.16</td>
<td>15.22</td>
<td>179</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows that hypothesis one which stated that neighborhood factors will not be significantly related to adolescent delinquency was rejected (r calculated (.300) > r critical (.195) p,0.05). This means that societal (neighbourhood) factors were significantly related to adolescent delinquency. The reason for this finding could be that delinquency or acts related to it have to be learnt on the basis of closeness rather than from a societal (transcendental) level. This study’s findings is supported by the findings of researchers which states that societal factors such as access to weapons (Edelma, 1995, Larson, 1994) media violence (Dorfman, Woodruff, chavez and Wallace, 1997, Webber, 1997) and equitable educational opportunities (Mayer, 1995) lead youths to be more delinquent in their actions.

Hypothesis Two: Peer factors will not significantly relate to adolescent delinquency was analyze with the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient and the result is shown on table two below.

Table 3: Pearson Product Moment Correlation analysis showing the relationship between peer factors and adolescent delinquency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>r cal</th>
<th>r critical</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Peer factors</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>11.21</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>.419</td>
<td>.195</td>
<td>&lt;.05</td>
<td>Sig</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adolescent Delinquent Behaviour</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>73.16</td>
<td>15.22</td>
<td>179</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows that hypothesis two which stated that peer group influence will not significantly relate to adolescent delinquency was rejected (r-cal,(419) > r-critical,(195),p,<.05). This means that peer group influence was significantly related to adolescent delinquency. This finding is supported by the findings of Webber (1997) who found out that peer group influence has a causal link to adolescent delinquency. A strong reason for this finding could be that when an individual moves with delinquent peers, it is more likely that he will develop a delinquent attitude because of his closeness to such a group.

It should be noted that friends teach each other things and learn from each other. Delinquent acts are easily learnt from peers because of their contagious nature and the excitement they provoke. This study’s finding is also supported by Bandura (1997) social learning theory which states that people learn from examples set by others such as family and peers. Delinquent acts can and is learnt and the principal source of the learning is peer oriented. Osinowo and Taiwo (1998) supported this findings when they established that adolescents engage in delinquent acts because they have learnt that doing so is the best way to get what they want. In this particular case peer group influence will more often than not push one in such a direction through dares, taunts and appeals to manhood or courage. If an individual feels that delinquent acts will
make his or her life better and enable him or her get what he or she wants, the likelihood that they will engage
in such acts will be determined mainly by peer pressure. This is called the principle of needing to belong.

This finding is also supported by the study of Taylor, McGue, Iacono and Lykken (2000) that apart from
 genetics, the difference in the delinquent activities of siblings is accounted for by non-shared environmental
 factors like peer attachment.

Discussions
The findings from the study revealed that there were significant relationships between neighborhood, peer
group influence and adolescent delinquency. Government should take into cognizance the importance of
adolescents when designing the public school system. This is because it is usually when adolescents are in
school that they imbibe delinquent attitudes. Government can help safeguard the interest of youths at this
stage by using a well-structured school system as a buffer against negative environmental influences, which
buffet them at this stage. This finding is supported by (Edelman, 1995; Larson, 1994), media violence
(Dorflan, Woodruff, Chavez, & Wallack, 1997; Webber, 1997), and inequitable educational opportunities
(Mayer, 1995) lead youth to become more delinquent (Webber, 1997). That in neighborhood where there
is availability of hard drugs such as marijuana cocaine and other illicit drugs, such neighborhood encourages
delinquent acts. More also if such neighborhood also expose adolescents to media violence, inadequate
educational facilities and exposure to crime and availability of weapons as a result of wars or inter ethnic
conflict can increase delinquent acts.

The study further revealed that peer group influence is significantly related to adolescent delinquency.
Antisocial children with earlier ages of onset tend to make friends with children similar to themselves.
Consequently, they reinforce one another’s antisocial behaviour. Children with ADHD are often rejected
due to their age-inappropriate behaviour, and thus are more likely to associate with other rejected and/or
delinquent peers. The influence of delinquent peers on late-onset antisocial behaviour appears to be quite
strong. Association with antisocial peers has been shown to be related to the later emergence of new
antisocial behaviour during adolescence among youths who had not exhibited behaviour problems as
children. Less adult supervision allows youths to spend more time with delinquent peers. This finding was
supported by Thrasher, (1972). He found that Outside of the home, one of the major factors contributing to
youth violence is the impact of peers. In the early school years, a good deal of mild aggression and violence
is related to peer rejection and competition for status and attention. More serious behaviour problems and
violence are associated with smaller numbers of youths who are failing academically and who band together,
often with other youths rejected by prosocial peers (Thrasher, 1972).

He suggested that successful early adjustment at home increases the likelihood that children will overcome
such individual challenges and not become violent. However, exposure to violent or aggressive behaviour
within a family or peer group may influence a child in that direction.

Conclusion and Recommendations
In conclusion, the study shows that neighborhood factors generally have significant effect on the adolescent
delinquency, which incidentally has impact on the society, the youths as well as their parents. Governments
both at the national and state levels should make sure that hotels, beer parlours and institutions of higher
learning are not located within the residential areas or school areas which can have a great negative influence
on the adolescents. More also government at all levels should ensure that they put in place welfare
programmes to cater to the needs of delinquents.

Government should take into cognizance the importance of adolescents when designing the public school
system. This is because it is usually when adolescents are in school that they imbibe delinquent attitudes.
Government can help safeguard the interest of youths at this stage by using a well-structured school system
as a buffer against negative environmental influences, which buffer against negative environmental
influences, which buffet them at this stage.

More also parents should also be up and doing in their responsibilities by making sure that they monitor their
adolescent and also desist from behaviour that could influences the adolescent in picking antisocial
behaviour. Also both the parents and teachers in the school should also assist to monitor the activities of
adolescent both in and outside the school in other to check the influence of peers on the adolescent and to
correct them when they go astray.
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MASS MEDIA AND TERRORISM: WHO CALLS THE SHOTS?

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Abstract

The rise in terrorist activities and fast-growing media coverage of terrorism forms the fulcrum of this study as it examines the relationship between mass media and terrorism and to find out whether actually a symbiotic relationship exist between them. Terrorism is a word that is politically and emotionally charged as it involves the use of force, violence and threats in bringing about political, religious or ideological change. There can no meaningful terrorist act without the mass media. The media, therefore, to an extent, are catalysts that facilitate terrorist activities. Terrorists need mass media for publicity and mass media owe the society the right to know what is happening around it. This symbiosis has resulted in prolonged debates among scholars in attempt to determine who calls the shots: mass media or terrorism. This study, therefore seeks to determine whether actually a symbiosis exists between mass media and terrorism and extent of influences.

Key words: Terrorism, mass media, counterterrorism strategies, Boko Haram.

Introduction/Conceptual Clarification

The terrorist attacks on the World Trade Centre (WTC) in the US on September 11, 2001 ushered in a new phase of modern terrorism and its attendant media coverage. The unfolding news stories that followed reinforced a long-held belief that communication media are a defining characteristic of a country’s political, social and cultural systems. The media coverage of the attack and rescue effort in all media was knowledgeable, courageous and sensitive. The September 11 attack was not only unprecedented in human history, but also showed that the mass media can bind communities together by disseminating messages that become a shared experience. However, there still exist a marginal gap between media coverage of terrorist activities in developed countries and developing countries. The recent activities of the dreaded Islamic Boko Haram in Nigeria calls for serious discussion on the effectiveness of the media in the fight against terrorism and to examine at what extent do the mass media call the shot in the fight against terrorism.
Mass media

Mass media are the channels of disseminating messages as well as institutions and personnel that transmit mass messages to mass audience. Mass media are pervasive in modern life. People need the mass media to express their ideas widely without which, expression of ideas would be limited to people within earshot. The new paradigm of terrorism is somewhat a consequence of sophistication of information and communication technology which is particularly manifested in the fact that terrorist organizations have recognised the importance mass media has on the accomplishment of their aims. It is the aim of terrorists to appear in the most popular programmes in order to gain not only mass publicity, but also legitimacy. The media, therefore, make it possible for terror groups to use the mass media as a powerful gun, in such a way that mass media serve in the interests of terrorists against its own will. To achieve their aims, terrorists carefully select the places in which they carry out their attacks in order to provide the best media coverage. Television, for instance, is a veritable medium for reportage of terrorist activities due to its audiovisual quality and timeliness. After terrorists flew jetliners into the World Trade Centre and the Pentagon, most American adults turned to the three major networks to follow the story. There was no measurement of the daytime television audience on September 11, 2001 but that night, at least 80million Americans were watching ABC, CBS or NBC throughout prime time. Television has become the leading news medium in reporting terrorist acts and most preferred medium by terrorist organisations to drive their ideological messages to a wide audience and government. This is because television imposes its own perversions on the other information media, beginning with its fascination with pictures and the basic idea that only what is visible deserves to be news. Television therefore, tends to set the agenda of all news media (Ramonet, 2002). The obvious example is the 9/11 attacks in New York where media of all sorts were able to capture and document this incredibly visual attack with sensational pictures, videos and personal stories. One major objective of terrorist groups is to get maximum publicity for their terrorist activities especially through television medium. Television medium is an effective tool for terrorists because of the images and pictures they broadcast to the public thereby creating fear. The images have so much influence on the public, the policy makers and influence both local and foreign policies.

Terrorism

Definitions of terrorism vary considerably due to its inherent ferocity and violence. Terrorism involves the use of threat of violence and seeks to create fear, not just within the direct victims but among a wide audience. It is designed to have psychological effects that reach far beyond its impacts on the immediate victim or object of an attack. The causes, nature and modus operandi of terrorist activities make it a very complex trend to discuss, thus Sproat (1991, p.27) calls for extreme care in defining and applying the term ‘terrorism.’ He argues that labelling of a particular group that has implemented such actions as ‘terrorists’ per se is either theoretically impossible because it is the individual acts that are terrorists. Legal statutes in most countries around the world regard terrorism as a crime as a result of 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. By whatever reason or cause, terrorists attempt to justify their use of violence, by arguing that they have been excluded from, or frustrated by the accepted processes of brining about political change. The degree to which it relies on fear distinguishes terrorism from both conventional military forces and guerrilla warfare. Koh (2002, p.148) defines terrorism as criminal acts intended or calculated to provoke a state of terror in the general public, a group of persons or particular persons for political purposes whatever the considerations of a political, philosophical, ideological, racial, ethnic, religious or other nature that may be invoked to justify them. Terrorist groups rely on dramatic, often spectacular, bloody and destructive acts of hit-and-run violence to attract attention to themselves and their cause. Through the publicity generated by their violence, terrorists seek to obtain the leverage, influence and power theory otherwise lack. Carsten (2008) definition of terrorism underlines the psychological and tactical aspects of terrorism. According to him, terrorism is defined as political violence in a asymmetrical conflict that is designed to induce terror or psychic fear (sometimes indiscriminate) through the violent organisation and destruction of non-combatant targets (sometimes iconic symbols). Such acts are meant to send a message from an illicit clandestine organisation. The purpose of terrorism is to exploit the media in order to achieve maximum attainable publicity as an amplifying force multiplier in order to influence the targeted audience(s) in order to reach short-and mid-term political goals and/or desired long-term end states. Terrorist attacks are usually carried out in such a way as to maximise the severity and length of the psychological impact.
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 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). Terrorism is a form of asymmetric warfare and is more common when direct conventional warfare will not be effective because forces vary greatly in power. The strategy of terrorist is to commit acts of violence that draws the attention of the local populace, the government and the world to their cause such as in 1972 at the Munich Olympics; the Black September Organisation killed 11 Israelis. The Israelis were the immediate victims but the true target was the estimated 1 billion people watching the television event. Coakley (2009, p.226) vividly describes the 1972 Munich Olympics mayhem. On that fateful early morning hours of September 5, 1972, members of a Palestinian terrorist group called Black September entered the Olympic Village in Munich, Germany. Dressed in athletic warm-up suits and carrying sport bags containing grenades and automatic weapons, they entered a bedroom that housed Israeli athletes participating in the Summer Olympic Games. They shot and killed a wrestling coach and a weightlifter and captured nine other Israeli athletes, one of whom was from the United States. After a twenty-one-hour standoff and a poorly planned rescue attempt, seventeen people were dead – ten Israeli athletes and one coach, one West German police officer and four terrorists. The remaining terrorists were sought out and killed by Israeli commandos.

The targets of terrorism are usually innocent citizens in order to create an atmosphere of fear, intimidation and insecurity. Some terrorists deliberately direct attacks against large numbers of ordinary citizens who simply happen to be in the wrong place at the wrong time. They can as well target diplomats and diplomatic facilities such as embassies and consulates; military personnel and military bases, business executives and corporate offices and transportation vehicles and facilities such as airlines and airports, trains and train stations, buses and bus terminals and subways.

In conclusion, we can therefore deduce that there are three perspectives of terrorism: the terrorist, the victims and the general public. This relationship forms a tripartite matrix, for instance, terrorists do not see themselves as evil but freedom fighters. They believe they are legitimate combatant fighting for what they believe in, by whatever means possible. A victim of a terrorist act sees terrorists as criminals with no regard to human life. Often, the victim is affected as a result of accident or a malicious object of target. The general public’s view of terrorism is the most unstable due to its different views about what constitutes a terrorist activity. A terrorist act may be viewed different by the general public depending on the ideological viewpoints of the terror group and modus operandi.

**Mass Media and Terrorism: A Symbiotic Relationship**

The September 11, 2001 terrorist attack on US soil opened a new epoch in the understanding of modern terrorism and its attendant media coverage. The hijack of four commercial airplanes by suicide terrorists associated with al-Queda and its massive destruction of the World Trade Centre complex and a large portion of one side of the Pentagon killing more than 3,000 people left the world in utter awe. Ever since the awful incident, media coverage of terrorism has remained remarked with each striving to determine who calls the shots.

Terrorism and media are mutually related in many ways. Terrorists need media coverage in order to achieve maximum publicity for the messages they intend to express to the public. There exist symbiotic relationships because media industry trends and patterns for media contents production head towards preference of sensation-seeking contents, whereas terrorist organisations can, due to their actions, ensure themselves maximum presence in the mind. Terrorists need publicity preferably free publicity in order to alert the world that problems exist that cannot be ignored and must be addressed. Through the media, they aim to publicise their political causes, inform both friends and foes about the motives for terrorist deeds and explain their rationale for resorting to violence. The news media, particularly the broadcast media, give massive coverage to terrorist acts because they satisfy their certain conventional requirements of live broadcasts, as they are emotionally significant or highly dramatic; compelling to view or read; involve some dramatic uncertainty; are delimited in time and space or they can be sufficiently focused to sustain the audience attentions. Explaining the symbiotic relationship between mass media and terrorism, Hoffman (2003, p.133) outlines two special areas in which the symbiotic relations between media and terrorism has a negative influence on public and government decisions. The first is the public notion in terms of personal danger from terrorism, due to which, for example, arises a certain fear of travelling and tourist arrangement are being cancelled.
Second are the pressures the media impose on the governmental decision making especially in crisis management. For Wilkinson (2007, pp. 51-64), media exposure may be a primary goal of those carrying out terrorism, to expose issues that would otherwise be ignored by the media. However, some consider this to be manipulation and exploitation of the media. The modern technologies have made it possible for small terror groups to use the mass media as a powerful gun, in such a way the mass media serve in the interests of terrorists against its own will. But, opinions on the real relationship between media and terrorism vary greatly. Truman (2003, p.135) observes that terrorists need media coverage in order to achieve maximum publicity for the message. They achieve the desired maximum coverage by selecting a target and engaging in a kind of symbolic action that is usually dramatic. Terrorists carefully select the places they carry out their attacks in order to provide best media coverage and win government and people’s sensitivity to their messages.

The audiovisual quality of television makes it a veritable tool of media coverage of terrorist activities. Terrorists have learnt that the media are of paramount importance in their campaign that the terrorist act by itself is next to nothing whereas publicity is all. Through the media, terrorists seek a favourable understanding of their cause if not their acts. Terrorists believe the public ‘needs help’ in understanding that their cause is just and terrorist violence is the only course of action available to them against the superior evil forces of state and establishment.

The symbiotic relationship between terrorism and mass media is anchored on what media want when covering acts of terrorism and what terrorists want from mass media. The media play vital role in the public enlightenment of terrorist acts. When dealing with media coverage of terrorism, it is important to consider the different effects which that coverage has. In covering terrorist incidents, media want to protect the society’s right to know and to make the story as timely and dramatic as possible. Without media’s coverage, terrorist acts are arguably wasted, remaining narrowly confined to the immediate victim(s) of the attack rather than reaching the wider ‘target audience’ at which the terrorists’ violence is actually aimed (Hoffman, 2006, p.174). However, Wieviorka (1993, p.43) dismissed the symbiotic theory of media and terrorism relationship and offered the following modes of relationship between the media and terrorism: (i) pure difference in which the terrorists neither seek to frighten a give population group beyond their intended victims nor to realise a propaganda through their acts; (ii) relative indifference in which perpetrators are indifferent on news about terrorist’s violence; (iii) the media-oriented strategy in which terrorists use mass media as an instrument to spread messages of threats and finally, (iv) total break-relationship in which terrorists come to view the media organisations, editors and journalists as enemies to be punished and destroyed.

Terrorists’ means of communication greatly vary. Technological advancement in communication and modern warfare software and military hardware have tremendously facilitated terrorist acts and enable terrorist groups to utilise media tools with greater convenience. They employ newest information technology such as Internet to post messages to web audiences instantaneously and simultaneously. Terrorist organisations know that any terrorist action without the media will have no effect on the targeted audience. As a result, they want the media to recognise their ideological cause and give legitimacy to their modus operandi.

The major argument of the symbiotic nature of relationship between mass media and terrorism is anchored on the premise that terrorist activities do not only involve the media as instruments of distribution, but that media practitioners are directly affected by those activities. Modern terrorism is media terrorism because the media are attracted by extreme acts not only because it is their duty to report on any major even but also, because, at the same time, the dramaturgy of terrorism attracts large scale attention.

Are Mass Media Collaborators in Terrorism?

News on terrorist activities has also pitched mass media against society. The question is: are mass media collaborators in terrorism? The fact is that there can never be successful terrorist act without mass media. Terrorist groups seek media coverage that causes damages to their enemy. This is particularly noticeable when the perpetrators of the act and the rationale for their acts remain unclear. They want the media to amplify panic and fear in order to influence government policies or drive home an ideological viewpoint.
On the other hand, the media want to protect society’s right to know and to make the story as timely and dramatic as possible. It is argued that in essence, media are not collaborators but media practitioners often have no objection to playing a constructive role in solving specific terrorist situations if this can be done without excessive cost in terms of story loss or compromise of values.

**Mass Media and Counterterrorism Strategies**

The media play vital role in counterterrorism strategies. The main objective of terrorist organisations is to get maximum publicity. As one of counterterrorism strategies, mass media censor organisations through self-restraint and regulation in order to discourage terrorist activities. In doing this, irresponsible media behaviour can be neutralised if one sees to it that an expert link with the media and planned news broadcasting become an indispensable part of security and intelligence services’ response to every terrorist campaign as well as of the process of planning and crisis management. Government want media coverage to advance their agenda and not that of the terrorists and to have the media present terrorists as criminals instead of glamourising them. As counterterrorism strategies, Wilkinson (2002, p.125) identifies the following strategies:

- responsible and accurate reporting on incidents may increase vigilance among the public (e.g., with respect to unusual parcels, suspicious persons and behaviours);
- the media may transmit warnings issued by the police to the public as well as instructions on how to behave in dangerous situations;
- the media with international reach may offer valuable data on foreign movements, relations between various persons and terrorists and different terrorist organisations, new types of weapons and possible future threats, such as the planning of an international terrorist spectacle or signs warning of a novel threat;
- the media also constitute an absolutely indispensable forum for quality discussions on terrorism’s social and political implications as well as for the development of appropriate procedures and countermeasures;
- the media will remind authorities that the response to terrorism should comply with the rule of law, basic rights and requirements for social justice.

**Media Coverage of Terrorism: A Case of Boko Haram in Nigeria**

The word ‘Boko’ in Hausa language means ‘book’ while ‘Haram’ means ‘forbidden, ungodly or sinful.’ Boko Haram literally means ‘book (Western education) is sinful.’ The Islamic sect has over the years unleashed terror and mayhem on Nigerian government and citizens in its anti-Western education campaign. Like the mustard seed, the sect grew in size and sophistication of warfare operations against government agencies, the media, churches and innocent citizens. In swift commando styles, the dastardly terrorist activities of Boko Haram sect have manifested in various attacks on police and military formations, personnel and churches across the Northern parts of the country.

Ever since the activities of the sect assumed wider dimension, the Nigerian mass media have remained at the forefront as agent of counterterrorism strategy. Unlike the symbiotic relationship that usually exists between terrorist groups and mass media, the relationship between Boko Haram sect and the Nigerian mass media has been anything but symbiotic. The sect accuses the media of unfair and inaccurate reporting of its activities while Nigerian mass media accuse the sect of infringing on the media right to objective reporting of the activities of the sect. The effectiveness of media response to the activities of the dreaded Boko Haram sect hinges on media’s role in creating public perception, acceptance or rejection of criminal behaviours the world over. The mass media can achieve this by building positive and courageous attitudes in the people in response to the sect’s threats.

**Conclusion**

It is indispensable that terrorism and mass media are interrelated in a specific way. Whereas terrorist groups use the media as conduit pipe to send their ideological viewpoints to the public in form of intimidation and violence, the media highlight what is going on in the society to make people more aware of what is going on and to prepare them accordingly. The media also have a moral obligation to create awareness and educate citizens about how to counteract and prevent various acts of terrorism. Terrorists have become ‘media competent’ by knowing and applying the principles of attracting media in most of their activities.
References
GOVERNMENT SPENDINGS AND POVERTY REDUCTION IN NIGERIAN’S ECONOMIC GROWTH

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ABSTRACT
This study was carried out to investigate the link between government spending and poverty reduction in Nigeria’s economic growth. As the government of Nigeria faces development challenges that are key to both welfare and improvements for its population and enhancement of the economy in particular, this study acts as a source of information on various ways of adopting effective measures of achieving economic stability through an aspect of fiscal policy known as government expenditure. Therefore, this study adopted time series econometrics analysis and descriptive statistics to determine the impact of government spending on Nigerian’s economic growth. This research work employed the use of multiple regression model based on Ordinary Least Square (OLS) method in order to achieve the objectives mentioned above, the variables used are Poverty Level (Dependent variable) and the explanatory variables; Agricultural Credit Guarantee Scheme Fund (ACGSF) and Government Expenditure on Agriculture (GEA). It covers the period of years 1980-2009, and the data was mainly from CBN statistical bulletin. The regression result shows that public spending has significant impact on Poverty reduction in Nigeria. It is estimated from the result that 1% increase in Agricultural Credit Guarantee Scheme Fund (AGCSF) will, on the average lead to decrease by 0.06% in Poverty Level. Based on the findings above, the study recommends that effort should be made by the Government to see that rural farmers benefit the opportunities surrounding her expenditures as this will also contribute to Poverty Reduction in Nigeria. The study equally recommends that Government funding on agriculture should be channelled to farm mechanization. This will help to create employment and boost food production, thereby reducing poverty.

Keyword: government, poverty, economy, growth, reduction.

INTRODUCTION
The size of government spending and its effect on poverty reduction, and vice versa, has been an issue of sustained interest for decades. The relationship between government spending and poverty reduction has continued to generate series of debate among scholars. Government performs two functions- protection (and security) and provisions of certain public good (Al-Yousif Y, 2000). Protection function consists of the creation of rule of law and enforcement of property rights. This helps to minimize risks of criminality, protect life and property, and the nation from external aggression. Under the provisions of public goods are defense, roads, education, health, and power, to mention few. Some scholars argue that increase in government spending on socio-economic and physical infrastructures encourages economic growth. For example, government spending on health and education raises the productivity of labour and increase the growth of national output. Similarly, expenditure on infrastructure such as roads, communications, power, etc, reduces production costs, increases private sector investment and profitability of firms, thus fostering economic growth. Supporting this view, scholars such as Abdullah HA, (2000), Ranjan KD, Sharma C, (2008) and Cooray A, (2009) concluded that expansion of government spending contributes positively to economic growth.

Over the past decades, the Nigeria’s public sector spending has been increasing in geometric term through government various activities and interactions with its Ministries, Departments and
Agencies (MDA’s), (Niloy et al. 2003). Although, the general view is that public expenditure either recurrent or capital expenditure, notably on social and economic infrastructure can be growth-enhancing although the financing of such expenditure to provide essential infrastructural facilities including transport, electricity, telecommunications, water and sanitation, waste disposal, education and health-can be growth-retarding (for example, the negative effect associated with taxation and excessive debt).

The size and structure of public spending will determine the pattern and form of growth in output of the economy. The structure of Nigerian public expenditure can broadly be categorized into capital and recurrent expenditure. The recurrent expenditure are government expenses on administration such as wages, salaries, interest on loans, maintenance etc, whereas expenses on capital projects like roads, airports, education, telecommunication, electricity generation etc., are referred to as capital expenditure. One of the main purposes of government spending is to provide infrastructural facilities and the maintenance of these facilities requires a substantial amount of spending. The relationship between government spending on public infrastructure and economic growth tends to be an important analysis in developing countries, most of which have experienced increasing levels of public expenditure overtime (World Development Report, 1994). Expenditure on infrastructure investment and productive activities (in State-Owned Enterprises) ought to contribute positively to growth, whereas government consumption spending is anticipated to be growth-retarding (Josaphat and Oliver, 2000).

However, economies in transition do spend heavily on physical infrastructure to improve economic welfare of the people and facilitate production of goods and services across all sectors of the economy so as to stimulate rapid growth in aggregate output. Empirical studies (like Ram, 1986; Deverajan et al., 1993; Nitoy et al., 2003) have found that there exists positive correlation between economic growth and public spending on infrastructural facilities. Manufacturing industries do consider infrastructure services or facilities before locating their production base in order to gain large economies of scale and reduce cost of production. Also, to increase total industrial output at a cheaper price in the economy.

Following the World Bank’s Development Report (1994), developing countries invest $200billion a year in new infrastructure representing 4 percent of their national output and a fifth of their total investment. The result has been a dramatic increase in infrastructure services-for transport, power, water, sanitation, telecommunications, and irrigation. The provision of infrastructure services to meet the demands of business, households, and other users is one of the major challenges of economic development in developing countries like Nigeria.

Statement of the Problem
In Nigeria, government spending has continued to rise due to the huge receipts from production and sales of crude oil, and the increased demand for public (utilities) goods like roads, communication, power, education and health.

Besides, there is increasing need to provide both internal and external security for the people and the nation. Available statistics show that total government expenditure (capital and recurrent) and its components have continued to rise in the last three decades. For instance, government total recurrent expenditure increased from N3, 819.20 million in 1977 to N4, 805.20 million in 1980 and further to N36, 219.60 million in 1990. Recurrent expenditure was N461, 600.00 million and N1, 589,270.00 million in 2000 and 2007, respectively. In the same manner, composition of government recurrent expenditure shows that expenditure on defense, internal security, education, health, agriculture, construction, and transport and communication increased during the years; 1977-2007. Moreover, government capital expenditure rose from N5, 004.60 million in 1977 to N10, 163.40 million in 1980 and further to N24, 048.60 million in 1990. The value of capital expenditure stood at N239, 450.90 million and N759, 323.00 million in 2000 and 2007 respectively. Furthermore, the various components of capital expenditure (that is, defense, agriculture, transport and communication, education and health) also show a rising trend between 1977 and 2007.
Unfortunately, rising government spending has not translated to meaningful growth and poverty reduction, as Nigeria ranks among the poorest countries in the world. In addition, many Nigerians have continued to wallow in abject poverty, while more than 50 percent live on less than US$2 per day. Couple with this, is dilapidated infrastructure (especially roads and power supply) that has led to the collapse of many industries, including high level of unemployment. Moreover, macroeconomic indicators like balance of payments, import obligations, inflation rate, exchange rate, and national savings reveal that Nigeria has not fared well in the last couple of years.

Objectives of the Study
The general aim of the study is to investigate the link between government spending and poverty reduction in Nigeria. However, our specific goals is

- To examine the impact of government spending on poverty reduction in Nigeria.

Theoretical Literature
Economic theory has shown how government spending may either be beneficial or detrimental to economic growth. In traditional Keynesian macroeconomics, many kinds of public expenditures, even of a recurrent nature, can contribute positively to economic growth, through multiplier effects on aggregate demand. On the other hand, government consumption may crowd out private investment, dampen economic stimulus in the short run and reduce capital accumulation in the long run. Strictly, crowding-out is due to fiscal deficits and the associated effect on interest rates (Diamond, 1989). Studies based on endogenous growth models distinguish between distorting or non-distortionary taxation and between productive or unproductive expenditures. Expenditures are categorized as productive if they are included as arguments in private production functions and unproductive if they are not (Barro and Sala-i-Martin, 1992). This categorization implies that productive expenditures have a direct effect upon the rate of economic growth but unproductive expenditures have an indirect or no effect. The issue of which expenditure items should be categorized as productive or unproductive is debatable and may be difficult to define a priori.

Economic analysis and popular opinion often conflict. An example is the connection between the revenues and expenditures of the public sector. Common sense suggests that there should be a strong and logical connection between the two sides of the budget. For example, if an average citizen in any country is asked what he or she thinks about the desirability of a particular expenditure increase, the answer is often related to how the respondent thinks the increase will be financed. Similarly, while most people do not like tax increases, again their attitudes seem likely to depend to at least some extent upon what they think will be financed. People are right. Revenues and expenditures are inextricably linked. Indeed, as Musgrave (1969) has long emphasized, “a theory of public finance remains unsatisfactory unless it comprises both the revenue and expenditure sides of the fiscal process (p. 797).” Nonetheless, despite this admonition, and despite common sense, traditionally most formal economic analysis of either tax or expenditure changes has been conducted under the assumption that there is no connection between what happens on one side of the budget account and what happens on the other side.

Government spending is an important topic, one that has caught the attention of several researchers for over a century. A great deal of the research pursued in the last decade has introduced institutional elements such as party fragmentation (Mukherjee, 2003), degree of representation (Milesi, Perotti and Rosagno, 2000) and electoral competition (Tavits, 2004) as predictors of government growth. Great focus has also been placed on the level of analysis, evidenced by a concern with disaggregating government spending into two main types: public goods and services being one type and transfers and subsidies as another (Persson and Tabellini, 1999).

Concern for government spending has interested researchers of comparative politics for over a hundred years. Researchers have been interested in the mechanisms that fuel the expansion of the public sector for over a century, evidenced by Wagner’s important contributions in the late 19th century (Peacock and Scott, 2000). A great deal of research has emerged, very diverse in theory, methodology and data (Lowery and Berry, 1987).

Perhaps the forefather of all theories of government growth is Wagner’s Law of Increasing State Activity. This theory posits a relationship linking industrialization, urbanization and education to the expansion of the
public sector (Bird, 1971). Wagner’s Law posits that increases in public goods are a product of increased demands by organized industrial workers, coming at the costs of growth in the private sector (Gandhi, 1971; Goffman and Mahar, 1971). Bureau Voting Theory rejected the role of industrialization and urbanization, suggesting that the main driver of public sector expansion is an artificial demand for government services created by self-interested government employees (Niskanen, 1971). Fiscal Illusion theory tries to explain government growth by linking convoluted tax systems to the masking of the costs of public goods. According to this theory, tax systems can hide the costs of public goods and therefore stimulate their growth (Goetz, 1977). Empirical support for these theories have varied, causing them to loose some of their impetus.

Even in this case, however, no unique answer emerges since, by definition, what differential incidence does is to compare the distributional effects of any particular change with some other change. The results will thus depending upon the nature of the change with which it is compared. One might perhaps think of comparing any tax change with a precisely offsetting change in an equal yield set of perfectly neutral taxes (“lump-sum taxes”) that affect neither distribution nor allocative decisions. Since no such set of taxes can exist, however, in practice differential incidence analysis is usually carried out by comparing a proposed change in taxes (or transfers) to an equal-yield change in a comprehensive proportional income tax (or occasionally, as in Shoup 1969), some other general levy such as a uniform value-added tax). Despite the many conceptual and empirical problems with such analysis, it is the best we can do—and so that is what we do. Analogous problems arise in analyzing the effects on allocative efficiency of alternative ways of financing public expenditures. Unsurprisingly, in the traditional economic literature these problems have been resolved, to the extent they have been resolved at all, in a similar fashion—although in this case, unlike that of incidence analysis, most analysts seem to have fewer qualms about positing the existence of an alternative “perfectly efficient” tax system.

Government spending is usually suggested that the net impact on growth (as measured by aggregate output) of the crowding-out effect of public expenditure clearly depends on the relative marginal productivity of the public and private sectors. The externality effect of public expenditure enhances growth by raising private sector productivity. Here, a higher level of such expenditure could achieve a high growth rate. The opposing natures of the crowding-out and externality effects rest on the proposition that the structure of public expenditure, rather than merely its level, would be of considerable importance.

In analyzing the composition of public expenditure, the traditional approach has been to divide it broadly into the categories of public consumption and public investment. This classification is important in a dynamic framework because it focuses attention on the impact of public expenditure on private savings and investment and, hence, capital accumulation. Another area of interest in the literature has to do with the complementarity or substitution between public and private expenditure as they affect private savings. Like the case of taxation, the empirical evidence of the growth effects of public expenditure (as a share of GDP) is inconclusive (Ram, 1986; Levine and Renelt, 1992; Barro and Sala-i-Martin, 1995). One reason for this inconclusive evidence is that the direction of causation is usually difficult to ascertain. It is sometimes suggested that another reason for this inconclusive evidence is that the relationship between growth and fiscal variables may not be particularly monotonic over the levels of these variables or over income, or both. In fact, it can be argued that increasing levels of public expenditure would first raise and then reduce growth (Tanzi and Zee, 1997).

POLICIES AND PROGRAMMES FOR POVERTY REDUCTION IN RURAL NIGERIA.

Poverty reduction is in the main a task for economic policy and requires some antipoverty programmes directed at the rural poor. In Nigeria, development policy has had three fundamental objectives: economic growth and development; price stability, and social equity. These objectives were to be achieved through national development plans (NDPs) which were designed to alleviate poverty by achieving an improvement in real income of the average citizen, equitable distribution of income and a reduction in the level of unemployment and underemployment. It is therefore, within different theoretical models for development that past policies aimed at bringing development to the rural areas of Nigeria are designed. Realizing that approximately 70 percent of the poor live in the rural areas, where they depend largely on agricultural pursuit, public policy on agriculture was therefore, expected to impact positively on the rural poor as well as other sectoral policies that have positive rural biases.
From the standpoint of time, the policy-development trends with serious implications on rural poverty in Nigeria can be examined from two main perspectives: before independence and post independence era. The colonial administration prepared and implemented the Ten-Year Plan of Development and Welfare for Nigeria: 1946-1956, essentially with the sole objective of improving cash crop production and urban infrastructure, particularly roads and communications. Little attention was paid to rural development as it had little relevance to the imperial interests. The period before 1954 witnessed the development of the regional export economies-cotton and groundnut in the North; cocoa and rubber in the West and oil palm and kernel in the East. The 1954 Federal constitution and the process of regionalization placed rural development as a residual item and it was therefore treated as a regional responsibility, just like agriculture, education, etc. Nevertheless, the autonomy associated to regionalism gave each of the three regions a free hand to set its own pace for development. Since revenue came mostly from agricultural exports, the regional governments tried to provide basic infrastructures particularly roads to haul commodities from the rural areas. Since the population was largely rural, and the regions were largely supported by the wealth of the rural areas, educational facilities, potable water as well as health facilities were put in place in the rural areas. Although these were inadequate, they marked a humble beginning and a conscious attempt to improve the lot of the rural people. During this period of internal self-government, which lasted until 1968, the various regional governments operated and based their development plans on the assumptions of perfect knowledge of the problems of the rural people. Some of the schemes undertaken during this period include the Farm settlement/school leavers farms by the three regional governments; the Tree Crop Plantation (developed through the Development Corporations) of the Eastern and Western governments and the Small Farmer Credit Scheme.

With the attainment of independence in 1960 however, the subject of rural areas assumed greater importance in the scheme of national development. Thus the First National Development Plan: 1962-1968 allocated 13% of the gross capital outlay to agriculture and primary production. However, whatever gains made were wiped off by the civil war. By 1965, the new federal ministry of agriculture was very cautious not to mention agriculture in its plan so as not to hurt the spirit of the 1963 constitution yet, the political powers of the old regions brought out the need to coordinate agriculture at the centre. Consequently, three areas were identified for federal assistance to agriculture in the second National Development Plan- 1970-74. These were:

- grants for the development of agriculture, forestry, and livestock and fishery;
- establishment of a National Credit Institution; and
- Special Agricultural Development Schemes where the federal government enters into both financial and management partnership with state governments in carrying out projects.

The Third National Development Plan: 1975-1980, which allocated 7.2% of the N43.36 billion budget estimates to agriculture and rural development sector was essentially a continuation of the development process and policies begun in the preceding plan. The post 1975 period witnessed series of rather panic measures embarked upon by the Federal Government, including the Operation Feed the Nation (OFN), Agricultural Development Programmes (ADPs), River Basin and Rural Development Authorities (RBRDAs), and the Green Revolution Programme. Of all these, the ADPs received better attention and a systematic approach to project planning while the other schemes mentioned above remained as political slogans.

By the second half of the 1970s and early 1980s, the trickle down development strategy has started to wane. Emphasis shifted towards addressing development and poverty issues at the grassroots in rural areas with believe that the rapid growth in the rural economy is the most promising way to reduce poverty and check rural-urban drift. Nigeria was not left out of this new thinking as several programmes were initiated with varying degrees of successes. As argued by Onimode (2003), the economic policies that have semblance of positive policy initiatives on rural poverty reduction include the followings:

i. Universal Free Primary Education (UPE);

ii. Subsidy programmes for various activities, especially agriculture, social services and credit;

iii. Primary health care including the “health-for-all by year 2000” programme;

iv. Rural water supply scheme;

v. Rural electrification by Rural Electrification Boards (REBs);

vi. Directorate for Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI);
vii. Credit guidelines, rural and community banking schemes,
viii. National Directorate of Employment (NDE);
ix. Small-and Medium-Scale Enterprises (SME) Programme; and

ASSESSMENT OF PROGRAMME/INSTITUTIONS FOR POVERTY ALLEVIATION

Efforts at improving the rural areas of Nigeria predated the independence of the country in 1960. The major efforts made in pre-independence and the early days of independent Nigeria according to Omale and Molem (2003) were in the area of farm settlement schemes. The aim of these farm settlements was to bring scattered small communities together so that they could take advantage of economies of scale in farm inputs, agro services, marketing, etc. These schemes recorded little or no achievement because those they were affected were not involved at the planning stages. Since then, a number of government programmes have been put in place to improve basic services, infrastructure and housing facilities for the rural population, extending access to credit farm inputs, and creating employment. Most of the programmes were however, not specifically targeted towards the rural poor, though they affect them. Such programmes included specific multi-sector programmes (water and sanitation, environment, etc) as well as sector-specific programmes in agriculture, health, education, transport, housing, finance, industry/manufacturing and nutrition.

Ilori (1999) categorized rural poverty related programmes into three: development programmes, palliative measures popularly known as the Social Dimension of Adjustment (SDA), and the sector-specific poverty related programmes. Examples of development programmes are: rural electrification schemes; rural banking scheme; and Operation Feed the Nation later named Green Revolution. Palliative measures include programmes such as the Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI), the National Directorate of Employment, and Family Support Programme. The major sector-specific poverty related programmes include the National Agricultural Land Development Programme (NALDA), micro credit schemes such as Peoples Bank, Community Bank etc. All the programme put together are meant to provide a catalytic impetus for the take-off and subsequent advancement of the rural areas towards:

a) Linking them to national and international economic systems;
b) Increasing rural household income;
c) Providing basic socio-economic and physical infrastructure;
d) Efficient resource allocation to shift attention and interest of the private sector towards investment in rural areas to enhance rural development; and,
e) Enhancing rural welfare. Some of the programmes that have direct bearing on rural poverty in Nigeria are examined as follows:

The National Agricultural Land Development Authority (NALDA)

To solve the problems of low utilization of farmlands, increase farm sizes and hence productivity to alleviate rural poverty, the Federal Government initiated a national agricultural land development programme under the National Agricultural Land Development Authority (NALDA) in 1991. NALDA as an executing agency was empowered to develop between 30,000 and 50,000 hectares of land in each state of the federation during the 1992-94 National Rolling Plan periods. It was also to see to the placement of at least 7,500-12,500 farmers within the area developed such that each participating farmer member lives within 3km-5km radius of his farmland. The programme on the whole was to:

a). provide strategic public support for land development;
b). promote and support optimum utilization of the nation’s land resources for the accelerated production of food and fibre;
c). encourage and support economic size farm holdings and promote the consolidation of fragmented farm holdings;
d). encourage the evolution of economic size villages;

Better Life Programme (BLP)

In 1987, the Better Life Programme was first introduced as a programme mainly for rural women by the then First Lady, Mrs. Maryam Babangida. The programme was generally aimed at complementing the existing Federal Government policy to develop the rural areas. The programme’s objectives were:
a) The desire to stimulate and motivate women in rural areas towards achieving a better and higher standard of life, as well as sensitise the general populace to the plight of rural women;
b) Educate women on simple hygiene, family planning, importance of childcare and to increase literacy;

As the implementation of the programme progressed, it was realized that the scope of the programme had to be widened to include urban women and cooperatives where men were members. Thus, the name was changed from Better Life Programme for Rural Women to Better Life Programme (BLP). The programme generally covered many areas that relate to enhancing labour productivity and entrepreneurship development. Areas covered include: health, agriculture, education, social welfare and cooperatives. The formation of cooperatives in the programme has direct bearing to entrepreneurial development. Numerous fishing, farming, marketing, weaving and sundry craft cooperatives were set-up. The cooperatives were supported in terms of access to credit facilities from People’s Bank, which owes its existence partly to the Better Life Programme. Thus, a linkage was effectively created between the two agencies.

During the Abacha regime, the programme appeared to narrow down its activities and was re-named Family Support Programme (FSP) with greater emphasis on the health component. However, in an attempt to create a more embracing socio-economic poverty alleviation programme by the regime, a new agency called Family Economic Advancement Programme (FEAP) was established. The FEAP was established to stimulate economic activities by providing loans directly to Nigerians through cooperative societies and informal associations.

**People’s Bank of Nigeria (PBN)**
The PBN was set-up by Decree No. 22 of 1990 with the following mandate:
a) the provision of basic credit requirements to the under privileged Nigerians who are involved in legitimate economic activities in both rural and urban areas and who cannot normally benefit from the services of orthodox banking systems due to their inability to provide collateral securities; and
b) the acceptance of savings from the same group of customers and make repayment of such savings together with any interest thereon, after placing the money, in bulk sums, on short-term deposits with Commercial and Merchant Banks.

**The Agricultural Credit Guarantee Scheme**
In 1977, the Agricultural Credit Guarantee Scheme Fund Decree, whose objective was to provide cover in respect of loans granted for agricultural purposes, was promulgated. It was believed that this would encourage commercial banks to loan investment funds to the agricultural sector including the small-scale rural dwellers. However, the main beneficiaries of this programme were the large scale and educated farmers.

**The River Basin Development Authorities**
In addition, in 1977, eleven River Basin Development Authorities were established to undertake food production and the provision of rural infrastructure. In 1986, they were re-organized and directed to focus on land and water resources development.

**The National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP)**
Introduced early in 2001, NAPEP is the current Programme which focuses on the provision of “strategies for the eradication of absolute poverty in Nigeria” (FRN, 2001:3) NAPEP is complemented by the National Poverty Eradication Council (NAPEC) which is to coordinate the poverty-reduction related activities of all the relevant Ministries, Parastatals and Agencies. It has the mandate to ensure that the wide range of activities are centrally planned, coordinated and complement one another so that the objectives of policy continuity and sustainability are achieved.

Thirty-seven (37) core poverty alleviation institutions, agencies and programmes were identified. The poverty reduction-related activities of the relevant institutions under NAPEP have been classified into four, namely:
(i) Youth Empowerment Scheme (YES) which deals with capacity acquisition, mandatory attachment, productivity improvement, credit delivery, technology development and enterprise promotion;
(ii) Rural Infrastructure Development Scheme (RIDS) which deals with the provision of potable and irrigation water, transport (rural and urban), rural energy and power support;
(iii) Social Welfare Service Scheme (SOWESS) which deals with special education, primary healthcare services, establishment and maintenance of recreational centres, public awareness facilities, youth and student hostel development, environmental protection facilities, food security provisions, micro and macro credits delivery, rural telecommunications facilities, provision of mass transit, and maintenance culture; and
(iv) Natural Resource Development and Conservation Scheme (NRDCS) Which deals with the harnessing of the agricultural, water, solid mineral resources, conservation of land and space (beaches, reclaimed land, etc) particularly for the convenient and effective utilization by small-scale operators and the immediate community.

In effect, the current poverty eradication programme of the country is centered on youth empowerment, rural infrastructure development, provision of social welfare services and natural resource development and conservation. Details about these are provided in the Blueprint for the schemes under the National Poverty Eradication programme (as revised in June 2001). In the attempt to overcome the inadequacies of previous programmes, the NAPEP Blueprint has the following features (Aliu, 2001:12 13):
· it adopts the participatory bottom-up approach in programme implementation and monitoring;
· it provides for rational framework which lays emphasis on appropriate and sustainable institutional arrangement;
· it provides for pro-active and affirmative actions deliberately targeted at women, youths, farmers and the disabled;
· it provides for inter-ministerial and inter-agency cooperation;
· it provides for the participation of all registered political parties, traditional rulers, and the communities;
· it provides for technology acquisition and development particularly for agriculture and industry;

EMPIRICAL LITERATURE

The size of government expenditures and its effect on long-run economic growth, and vice versa, has been an issue of sustained interest for decades. The received literature, essentially of an empirical nature, has proceeded at two levels. One set of studies has explored the principal causes of growth in the public sector. Wagner’s Law - the “Law of increasing expansion of public and particularly state activities” (Wagner, 1893) - is one of the earliest attempts that emphasize economic growth as the fundamental determinant of public sector growth. Empirical tests of this hypothesis, either in the form of standard regression analysis (Ganti and Kolluri, 1979; and Georgakopoulos and Loizides, 1994, to cite only a few) or in the form of error-correction regression (see, for instance, Kolluri, Panik and Wanab, 2000, and the literature cited therein), have yielded results that differ considerably from country to country.

The other set of studies has been directed towards assessing the effects of the general flow of government services on private decision making and, more specifically, on the impact of government spending on long-run economic growth. Macroeconomics, especially the Keynesian school of thought, suggests that government spending accelerates economic growth. Thus, government expenditure is regarded as an exogenous force that changes aggregate output. Here, again, empirical work, either in standard regression forms (Landau, 1983) or error-correction regressions (see, for instance, Ghali, 1998, and the literature cited therein) finds diverse results. Although each line of enquiry has thrown interesting light on the phenomena, in neither case has the assumed causative process been subjected to rigorous empirical pre-testing. Purely a priori judgements for choosing between the two competing postulates are rendered difficult for at least three reasons: Firstly, there is the possibility of feedback in macro relations, which tend to obscure both the direction and the nature of causality. Secondly, as demonstrated by Ahsan, Kwan and Sahni (1992), in the public expenditure national income nexus, failure to account for omitted variables can give rise to misleading causal ordering among variables and, in general, yields biased results.

Singh and Sahni (1984) initially examined the causal link between government expenditure and national income. Subsequently, their work has generated many other studies, the results of which range the full continuum from no causality to bi-directional causality between these two variables.

The provision of social and physical infrastructure through public investment and expenditure on some goods and services theoretically can indirectly improve productivity in the private sector through a more efficient allocation of resources. Other benefits of government expenditure include the correction of market failure and the preservation of property rights through legislation and the provision of security services. Conversely from an accounting perspective, an increase in government consumption is achieved at the expense of capital
formation or private consumption. Some developmental economists of the structuralist school posit that some categories of government expenditure are necessary to overcome constraints to economic growth. Chenery and Syrquin (1975).

The findings of Landau (1983) that the share of government consumption to GDP reduced economic growth was consistent with the pro-market view that the growth in government constrains overall economic growth. These findings were robust to varying sample periods, weighting by population and mix of both developed and developing countries (104 countries). The conclusions were germane to growth in per capita output and do not necessarily speak to increases in economic welfare. Economic growth was also found to be positively related to total investment in education. In a later study, Landau (1986) extends the analysis to include human and physical capital, political, international conditions as well as a three year lag on government spending in GDP. Government spending was disaggregated to include investment, transfers, education, defense and other government consumption. The results in part mirrored the earlier study in that general government consumption was significant and had a negative influence on growth. Education spending was positive but not significant. It was unclear why lagged variables were included given that the channels through which government influence growth suggest a contemporaneous relationship.

Barro (1991) further notes that for a broad group of 98 countries that growth in real per capita GDP was positively related to initial human capital and negatively related to share of government consumption in GDP. The work by Ashauer (1989) focussed on a demand side hypothesis that a high marginal productivity of government spending would yield multiple expansions in output. To the extent that these expenditures are productive, a reduction in expenditures may affect longer term movements in productivity. The income effects arising from government expenditures feed into Wagner’s Law that addresses the income elasticity of public goods. Although, his findings which employed U.S. data indicate that non-military public capital and in particular ‘core’ infrastructure were important to productivity they did not support Wagner’s hypothesis.

Ram (1986) marked a rigorous attempt to incorporate a theoretical basis for tracing the impacts of government expenditure to growth through the use of production functions specified for both public and private sectors. The data spanned 115 countries sufficient to derive broad generalizations for the market economies investigated. The impact of government spending on growth acted through two channels, the externality and the distortion taxes.

Cashin (1995) incorporates the impact of distortionary taxes on growth through use of an endogenous growth model encompassing public investment and transfers. The inclusion of taxes was based on the notion that the size of government is limited by the need to finance such spending through taxes. Distortionary taxes were found to be iminical to growth while public transfers and capital were growth enhancing. The positive impact of transfers on growth represent a new finding in panel data estimations. The policy implications suggest that those categories of government spending that are complementary inputs to private production functions are growth enhancing.

Most studies that utilize government consumption as a ratio generally find a negative correlation with growth while those that utilize the rate of growth in government spending generally find positive correlations. The broad range of variable used in the studies suggests no clear theoretical basis for the specifications which are in the main very ad hoc. The research agenda therefore needs to depart from the neoclassical models of Solow (1956) and Swan (1956) that linked long run growth to exogenous technical change.

**Model Specification**

In this study, hypothesis has been stated with the view of ascertaining impact of the Government Spending on Poverty Reduction in Nigeria. In capturing study, these variables were used as proxy. Thus, the model is represented in a functional form. It is shown as below:

\[ PL = F(ACGSF, GEA) \] 3.1
Where
PL = Poverty Level (Dependent variable)
ACGSF = Agricultural Credit Guarantee Scheme Fund (Independent variable)
GEA = Government Expenditure on Agriculture (Independent variable)

In a linear function, it is represented as follows,

$$PL = bo + b_1 ACGSF + b_2 GEA + U_t \ldots 1.2$$

Where
bo = Constant term
b_1 = Regression coefficient of ACGSF
b_2 = Regression coefficient of GEA
U_t = Error Term

Presentation of Results
This research work employed the use of multiple regression model based on Ordinary Least Square (OLS) method.

Modeling LPL by OLS

$$LPL = +3.988 -0.0644 LACGSF +0.1074 LGEA$$

$$T* = (12.431) (-1.797) (4.653)$$

$$S.E = (0.3208) (0.0358) (0.0231)$$

$$t_{0.025} = 2.056$$

$$F (2, 26) = 20.56$$

$$R^2 = 0.6126$$

$$DW = 0.433$$

Analysis of Results

T-test: It is used to test for the statistical significance of the individual estimated parameters. The calculated t-value for the regression coefficients of LACGSF and LGEA are -1.797 and 4.653 respectively. The tabulated t-value is 2.056. Since the calculated t-value of LGEA is greater than the tabulated t-value at 5% level of significance; we conclude that its regression coefficient is statistically significant. However, the calculated t-value of LACGSF is less than the tabulated t-value. Therefore, its estimated parameter is statistically insignificant.

Standard Error test: It is used to test for statistical reliability of the coefficient estimates.

$$S(b1) = 0.0358$$

$$S(b2) = 0.0231$$

$$b_1^{1/2} = -0.0322$$

$$b_2^{1/2} = 0.0537$$

Since $$S(b1) > b_1^{1/2}$$, we conclude that the coefficient estimate of $$S(b1)$$ is statistically insignificant. However, $$S(b2) < b_2^{1/2}$$, hence its coefficient estimate of $$S(b2)$$ is statistically significant.

F-Test: This is used to test for the joint influence of the explanatory variables on the dependent variable. The $$F_{calculated}$$ Value is 20.56 while the $$F_{tabulated}$$ Value is 3.37 at 5% level of significance. Since the $$F_{calculated}$$ value is greater than the $$F_{tabulated}$$ value, we conclude that the entire regression plane is statistical significant. This means that the joint influence of the explanatory variables (ACGSF and LGEA) on the dependent variable (PL) is statistically significant.

Coefficient of Multiple Determination ($$R^2$$) It is used to measure the proportion of variations in the dependent variable which is explained by the explanatory variable. The computed coefficient of determination ($$R^2 = 0.6126$$) shows that 61.26% of the total variations in the dependent variable (LPL) is influenced by the explanatory variables namely: Agricultural Credit Guarantee Scheme Fund (AGCSF) and Government Expenditure on Agriculture (GEA) while 38.74% of the total variation in the dependent variable is attributable to the influence of other factors not included in the regression model.

Durbin Watson statistics: It is used to test for the presence of positive first order serial correlation. The computed DW is 0.433. At 5% level of significance with two explanatory variables and 29 observations, the tabulated DW for dL and du are 1.270 and 1.563 respectively. The value of DW is less than the lower limit. Therefore, we conclude that there is evidence of positive first order serial correlation.

Implication of the Result
The regression result above shows public spending has significant impact on Poverty reduction in Nigeria. It is estimated from the result that 1% increase in Agricultural Credit Guarantee Scheme Fund (AGCSF) will, on the average lead to decrease by 0.06% in Poverty Level. The sign borne by the parameter estimates
is in conformity with the economic a priori expectation. The result is in conformity with the assertion of Ravallion, (2002) which states that “public spending contributes to poverty reduction which is sometimes thought to be small, because its relative economic importance usually falls when low-income countries successfully develop”.

However, the sign borne by the parameter estimate of GEA does not conform to the a priori expectation. There existed a positive relationship between Poverty level and GEA. Government Expenditure on Agriculture increases while poverty is on the increase. This can be attributed to the inability of farmers to benefit directly from the opportunities surrounding government expenditure on agriculture.

Conclusion
There can be no meaningful Poverty Reduction without adequate spending by the government. In government expenditure, there is need to fund the agricultural sector. Such people in the sector are;
• Predominance of small scale producers with little asset base and working capital.
• Need to cultivate a new set of agricultural entrepreneurs to drive technological change in agricultural production.
• Long gestation periods for agricultural production.
• Public subsidies for critical agricultural infrastructure with spill-over effects on the economy.
• Risks and Uncertainties from natural causes.

Agriculture is fundamental to the sustenance of life and is the bedrock of economic development, especially in the provision of adequate and nutritious food so vital for human development and industrial raw materials for industry.

The importance of poverty reduction is reminiscent in the roles played by the poverty alleviation programme as a means of understanding, controlling, altering and redesigning of economic growth (Oluwemi 2001). Agricultural financing has a link with poverty reduction. As once remarked by Roseboom (1994), “In a developing economy, poverty reduction cannot be dealt without agricultural financing”. Thus, this research work examines agricultural funding as a means of poverty reduction in Nigeria.

Recommendations
• In the bid to achieve poverty reduction through public spending, the annual budget by the federal government should be considered with utmost care so as to enhance the adequate funding of the agricultural sector.
• Government funding on agriculture should be channeled to farm mechanization. This will help to create employment and boost food production, thereby reducing poverty.
• Effort should be made by the Government to see that rural farmers benefit the opportunities surrounding her expenditures as this will also contribute to Poverty Reduction in Nigeria.
• The CBN can as well advise commercial banks to allocate a reasonable percent of their lending to agriculture so as to reduce poverty in the society.
• There is need to understand the endemic problems of the agricultural sector. This will help to ascertain the allocation of funds by government and private individuals for better financing.
• Increase on Salaries/wages most at times makes work attractive. This should be the case in the agricultural sectors. As the income or wages of farmers increase, this will cause an inducement on unemployed youths in engaging themselves in the agricultural activities thereby contributing to poverty in the society.
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MODERNIZATION AND AGEING PATTERNS IN NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT
Today, aged Nigerians are not endowed with societal status as their counterpart in traditional society. The acceptance of Western culture and education based on modernization and ideas of industrial revolution which free humanity from the chains of nature and tradition. This study relying on secondary sources of data, the study revealed presently, society has created youth centred with a set of value, freedom and rapid dissemination of new ideas. The religious, educational moral and political functions of the aged have been taken over by new institutions in Nigeria. Therefore, all these modern institutions have created cultural obstacles on aged where the aged are abandoned socially and psychologically, making them unnecessary, marginal and alien to the society and the culture is no longer their own but the societal trends to assess individual on what the person has achieved deleterious influence on the prestige of the aged. The study recommended the revitalization of cultural values to enable establish the morals that could restore function and encourage the participation of aged in the modern era.

Key Words: Modernization, aged, culture, education and tradition.

INTRODUCTION
Traditional cultures still regard their elders as authoritative decision-makers and a valuable source of counseling and wisdom. But much of modern society, enamored with the beauty of youth, the flash of high technology, and material recognition and gain, seems to have forgotten the value of the dimension of accumulated experience and knowledge. Today, the persuasive lack of accurate information on the contribution of older people make them unproductive and dependent in the society.

Again, the traditional values that underpin family support system are under pressure and are beginning to change. Richard (2002), observes in traditional societies older persons have control over certain resources and are viewed as the guardians of wisdom. Consequently, they are treated with great respect and they occupy positions of status. But modernization and industrialization are causing these traditional value systems to change and value placed on economic, success and formal education. As the status of aged in traditional societies erodes, the traditional support prove insufficient. Then, modernization is a product of migration, youths who tend to be the most mobile members of society, are attracted in the city by the promise of existing charges and new career opportunities. At city, they marry and establish permanent residence, thus breaking up the extended family; which causes residential segregation of the generations and accentuation of social differences between them.

Urbanization has a tendency to glorify youth as the embodiment of progress and achievement, youth is viewed as the means for attaining progress. The rapidity of change in urban means that young are socialized for a very uncertain future. The traditions and accumulated experience of old generations are increasingly seen as irrelevance because they no longer apply to the emerging order of things which create the generation gap. Therefore, urbanization is a process of transformation of a total society and place the aged in a very difference position from youth generations and the net result is lower status for the aged. As society develops
social structures are replaced with devaluing structures, indication of the view that modernization brings a more civilized culture, where the aged are abandoned socially and psychological, making them unnecessary, marginal and alien to the society and the culture is no longer their own but belongs to the young generation.

PROBLEMS OF MODERNIZATION ON AGEING IN NIGERIA

In modern society, the aged are abused physically, emotionally or psychologically through verbal abuse, humiliation or intimidation or even denied financially. For instance, a trusted youth, could illegally use or misappropriate the aged financial assets or property. Also, abuse takes place within the family. This involves neglect, such as the failure to provide attention, adequate food, clean clothing, safe and comfortable place to live, good health care, personal hygiene and the opportunity for social contacts.

Moreover, aged suffer from loss of respect within the family, which are disrespectful, dishonouring, isolating or contemptuous. Social or domestic violence, which exist in relations between an older person and his family. Sadly, the perpetrators of violence and abuse against older persons are most often among family members, friends or acquaintances. And, the aged abuse themselves, through self-neglect. Sometimes, cultural abuse place on aged women for causing bad luck to families or a community in the form of illness and death. Troll (2000), says incidences have been reported where a woman has been ostracized, tortured, maimed or even killed if she failed to flee from the community.

Consequently, their abuse are based on political violence, tribal or communities war which affect them (older persons) directly or indirectly, through displacement. The special needs of displaced older persons are rarely provided, in refugee camps, older persons often lose out when forced to compete for food and health care distribution. Here, the aged causes a range of long term physical and psychological health problems which include permanent physical damage, medication and alcoholic dependency, lowered immune system response, chronic eating disorders and malnutrition, depression, fearfulness and chronic anxiety, suicide tendencies and death. Thus, the indirect and human costs of abuse of older people result from reduced productivity, diminished quality of life, emotional pain and suffering, distrusts, the loss of self-esteem, disability and premature death.

Mostly, in the economic area, aging influences economic growth, savings, investment and consumption, labour markets, pensions, taxation and the transfers of wealth, property and care from one generation to another. Also, the aged population affect the healthcare, family composition and living arrangements, housing and migration. Daniel (2008), views on the political arena (1993), general election population produced a powerful voice in the nation, which influence voting patterns and representation. The older voters mostly, read, watch the news, educate themselves about the issues, and they vote in much higher percentages than any other age groups in society.

According to Akinson (2006) ideas on Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) that the population of older persons is growing by 2 percent each year. Then, the ageing group which is considerably faster than the population as a whole in the nation and the population is expected to continue growing more rapidly than other age groups for at least in the next 25 years. The growth rate of those 60 or older will reach 2.8 percent annually in 2010 – 2030 (OECD). The rapid growth will require far reaching economic and social adjustments of the nation.

Change Perception on Aging

Aging is a complex sequence of changes; the organs and function of the body are impaired, where some people have mild or severe psychological disorders brought about by degenerative diseases or other causes. Then, there are changes in sensory and motor capacities of processing functions associated with intelligence and in its physical basis.

Moreover, people’s position in society changes; their beliefs, attitudes and personal qualities alter, as does their behaviour. Really, the content and organization of one’s experience changes, which is traced from those major factors of individual biology, genetics and adaptability, then, there are existence of natural losses in cognitive capacities in wisdom, knowledge and experience.

The ageing are recognized through some changes in farming crops to less labour intensiveness, more conservative and subsistence oriented, not able to adapt to technological change and less willing to experiment with new modes of production and any time they could stop farming because of illness (ageing).
At present; the OECD recorded that civil servants men become eligible for full pension at the age between 60 and 65 years while the most common standard retirement age for women is between 55 and 60 years.

**Ageing and Gender Patterns**

The population that certainly requires care is the oldest old (OECD), those 80 years of age or older. But some have developed strategies for caring for themselves and for each other, and thus able to receive and give care and support, to remain independent and to have control over their own lives. Really, the percentage of the oldest old is growing very rapidly and there is an urgent need to expand care and security networks. The most vulnerable older person are women, who are more lack basic literacy and numeracy skills, less likely have paid work, and less likely be eligible for pensions where they are available. Women are eligible for pensions because of their lower pay and interrupted work histories; they are more likely to receive lower pensions. Older women who have lost their partners greatly outnumber their male counterparts. Hence, widows are often denied access to or control over resources. In this case, women’s inheritance right are poorly established in our society. For this reason, women sink into poverty in their older years.

Then, the feminization of the older population is a phenomenon. Basically, women have traditionally fewer opportunities to earn and save. More often than not, they are paid less than men for the same work and they are more likely find work in the informal sector. When they do work in paid labour force, their participation is likely be shorter and more irregular, as they may interrupt their careers to fulfil older family obligations on to provide care to an older family member. Because women are less than men, when they do receive pensions, the pensions may provide less. And, unfortunately for women, social security which is supposed to provide security for older persons, was created for the benefit of wage earners and usually does not recognize the value of household work, child rearing and elder care.

Furthermore, our cultural and legal systems also discriminate against women. In reality, our women often have a lower inheritance than men. Under some systems, daughters inherit only half as much as their brothers and mothers inherit even less. And sometimes, when a woman becomes a widow, she may retain custody of her children, while the legal guardianship poses to a male relative and with it control of the children’s assets and property. And, the extreme form of discrimination occurs when due to local catastrophes, accidents, crop failure or poor weather and older women may be accused of witchcraft. Then she may be ostracized, chased away, between or even killed. And, essential challenge is to promote a culture that values the experience and knowledge that come with age.

Moreover, the intervention to treat the social, economic, and political conditions that are fertile ground for abuse of elders can improve the general conditions of life of older persons and can reduce the violation of their rights as well as those of other population group. The goal is to promote the human rights and to protect the rights of older men and women have led to the recognition of elder abuse as a human rights issue.

Again, society could gain by providing the elder group with social infrastructure and some finance for mutual support activities or for any other activities that would allow them to join forces, to place collectively with other generations, and to link up with external agencies – including for seeking employment or credit based on their vast ideas and experience in society.

However, the good cultural values can result in enabling processes that can restore function and expand the participation of older people in all aspect of society, through establishing the age friendly or provision of well lit streets and good transport systems, recreation services that offer exercise programmes for older people, educational services that offer life long learning and literacy programmes, social services that can provide hearing aids or instruction in sign language, enabling rehabilitation programmes, cataract and hip replacement surgery etc.

Traditionally, old age has been associated sickness, dependency, and a lack of productivity. Today, this traditional view is considered just plain wrong; and now, public ideologies reflect this change. Most people are quite able to adapt as they grow older and remain independent well into very old age. But in modern era, older people continue to work in paid and unpaid work. Voluntary activities of older people make an important to society. By encouraging and enabling their participation, and realizing their vast potential as resources, the problem of an ageing population would be transformed into the benefit of a mature base.
Consequently, the provision of a balanced social protection could enable societies who are willing to plan to be able to afford to grow old. The goal must be to recognize and harness the skills and experience of older people and to ensure adequate living standard for them. And mostly, women are much more likely to sink into poverty in their older years. Then, security schemes to alleviate poverty must be taken into account that most of the older poor are women, of whom many have limited experience in the labour market.

RECOMMENDATION
Basically, strong effort must be developed to reduce the incidence of major disease, guidelines on physical activity and healthy diet must be established, and in this case, public awareness campaigns are needed to discourage tobacco use and the misuse of alcohol and drugs. Health and social service professionals must be trained to counsel older people on healthy activities, and special effort must be made to reduce the risk of social isolation. In addition, health professionals must be trained in the specialized care of older persons, which can require very different approaches and treatments than care for young people.

Indeed, efforts must also be made to include older people in prevention and education efforts to reduce the spread of HIV/AIDS, and this can be done through the development of health and disease prevention. And, other health-related issues which must be confronted are:
- Provision cost effective, equitable and dignified long-term care.
- Reducing inequalities in access to primary health care and long-term care.
- Eliminating age discrimination in health and social service systems.
- Ensuring high standards and stimulating environments in residential care facilities.
- Ensuring that all people have the right to death with dignity.
- Ensuring policies that allow people to die where they choose, surrounded by whom they choose.
- Make cost-efficient treatments, such as cataract surgery and hip replacements, available to older people with low incomes.
- Increasing affordable access to medications.
- Encouraging a wide range of suitable housing options.

In modern period, the growing awareness of the abuse of older persons and changing social policies must create the enactment of new legislation to criminalize elder abuse and to increase penalties for certain crimes against older persons. And, in some cases, regulations and policies could be adopted to supplement state laws and to establish enforcement systems.

CONCLUSION
For good result orientation and the best option forward for elder people in Nigeria, these methods must be adopted as follows:
- Development of screening and assessment tool for use in primary health care settings
- Establishing an education package on elder abuse for primary health care professionals.
- Creating and disseminate a research methodology kit to study elder abuse.
- Building a minimum data set concerning violence and older people.
- Ensuring dissemination of the research findings through scientific journals.
- Establishing a national inventory of good practices.
- Mobilize civil society through raising awareness of the widespread magnitude of abuse.

Other strategies are:
- Watching their weight, because ageing obesity people are risk of age related disease of cardiovascular.
- Rest and sleep, their bodies need adequate and sound relaxation.
- Stress, aging people should try their possible best to eliminate stressful ideology.
- Thoughts emotions and attitudes must be eliminated by the aging group because these do not have drugs.
- Exercise activities through walk, dance, playing gold, swim, lift weights activities must be develop by aging group.
REFERENCES
EVALUATING AGRICULTURE AS A SUSTAINABLE TOOL FOR POVERTY REDUCTION: THE EXPERIENCE OF ABAKALIKI URBAN, EBONYI STATE.

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ABSTRACT:
This research was carried out to assess Urban Agriculture as a sustainable tool in reducing poverty in Abakaliki urban of Ebonyi state. Specific objectives were outlined which includes; describing the socio-economic characteristics of urban farmers in the study area; identifying the various kinds of farming system practiced by the urban farmers in the study area; analyzing the farmers’ perceptions of the roles of Urban Agriculture in reducing poverty; Both descriptive and inferential statistics were employed to analyze the objectives. Data were collected from a total of eighty urban farmers randomly selected from the study area. Analysis of the data collected showed that Urban Agriculture was practiced mostly by women with 66.2%. Majority of the respondents (83.8%) were within the active age range of 21-50 years with 72.5% having one form of formal education or the other ranging from primary to tertiary education. Results of the analysis also revealed that majority (78.8%) of the respondents were married and 91.3% had households between 1-10 members. Majority (78.8%) of the respondents also had long farming experiences from 7 years and above and 93.7% used farm lands above 0.5 ha. The study further revealed that 73.7% of the respondents combined farming with other occupations, 57.5% earn below N50,000 annually from their farm income and 67.5% earn above N50,000 from both their farming activities and other economic activities. The results also showed that crop and livestock production were mostly practiced by the urban farmers with 86.3% into crop production and 62.5% into livestock production. About 61.3% of the respondents hired labourers to work for them and 70% produce at a semi-subsistence level. Residential compounds and vacant plots formed the major farming environments in the study area with 52.5% using their residential compounds and 43.8% using vacant plots. Also, the results of the five-point Likert scale showed that Urban Agriculture is perceived by the respondents as being able to give households better and stable access to food (4.67); provide extra income for the purchase of other necessities (4.71); help farmers to save (3.62); create employment opportunities for the urban poor (4.29); enable farmers to enjoy different diets at any time (4.23) and improve the general standard of living of farmers (4.72). Furthermore, the multiple regression analysis showed the effect of the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents on their farm income. The coefficient of multiple determination ($R^2 = 0.770$) indicates that 77% of the variations in the dependent variable (urban farm income) was attributed to the independent variables (socio-economic characteristics of the urban farmers). Age, farming experience, household size, farm size and number of farm enterprise showed positive relationships with farm income, while occupation showed a negative relationship with farm income. We find out that urban dwellers involved in Urban Agriculture should form cooperatives that are functional and well-managed. This will enable them to obtain credit easily even when they lack tangible security. Also Basic infrastructures like roads, electricity, and pipe-borne water among other basic infrastructures should be provided by the government and other private sectors. This will help improve the performance of urban farmers in Urban Agriculture.

Introduction
Agriculture plays a role in providing sufficient and available food for the teeming population of any nation, employment for both skilled and unskilled labour, raw materials for industries, income to farmers, shelter to people, regional development and foreign exchange to mention a few. Due to these provisions, agriculture has been considered as a very important factor influencing the standard of living of any country (Ekohwo, 2009). Agriculture can, therefore, be seen as a sustainable tool for reducing and fighting poverty.

Agriculture, until recently, was considered an exclusively rural activity; but as growth and development in various economies of the world, as well as, migration from rural to urban areas increased rapidly, agriculture has been found to exist in urban areas and has, for decades, served as a vital input in the livelihood strategies of urban households in developing countries. As a response to economic crises worsened by increased migration from rural areas to urban areas, Urban Agriculture has expanded rapidly within the last 20 years and this increase is expected to continue (Bryld, 2003).

According to Egbunna (2008), Urban Agriculture is not similar but complementary to rural agriculture and it is only connected to the urban areas and integrated only to the urban economic and ecological system. Also, the term Urban Agriculture was formerly used by only scholars and the media, but now it is used by even international agencies like the United Nations Development Program (UNDP), the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) and many others.

Benn (2005) stated that about 2.5 billion people in developing countries depend on agriculture for their livelihoods. Egbunna (2008) also claimed that out of this 2.5 billion people, approximately 800 million urban dwellers engage in Urban Agriculture worldwide and contribute to feeding urban residents. In West Africa, projected figures in the 20s indicate that up to 63% of the population will be found in urban areas which imply that more people will live in urban areas than in rural areas (Olanrewaju, 1999). Nwovu (2008) who cited Mougeot (1994) inferred that up to 40% of the African city population is involved in Urban Agriculture. Thus, today about 70% of the poultry feeds consumed in Kampala is produced within the city boundaries (Bryld, 2003). This implies that a good number of the African population is found in the urban areas and also a good number of them engage in urban agriculture. This also means that Urban Agriculture is not a new phenomenon in Africa.

Furthermore, Nigeria is not excluded as the issue of the existence of urbanization in the world is been discussed. Urbanization in Nigeria is increasing at a very fast rate. Urban areas in Nigeria are characterized with good and accessible roads, electricity, water supply, medical centres, educational centres, markets and so many other facilities beneficial to the urban dwellers. According to Nwovu (2008), the explosive rate of urbanization in Nigeria started since independence in 1960 due to the increasing migration of people from the rural areas to towns and cities in search of the greener pastures associated with the urban areas. Most areas excluding the known urban areas like Lagos, Kano, Abuja and Ibadan are now enjoying the advantages of these amenities of the urban areas and this shows that there exists an increasing trend in the number of Nigeria’s urban areas, as well as, the population living in them.

Urban Agriculture has now become a contemporary issue gaining importance and popularity especially in developing countries like Nigeria. This is because it has been discovered to be a sustainable tool for providing better health and nutrition, increased income, employment, food security within households, and improved community social life, thereby, combating poverty in urban areas.

The presence of Urban Agriculture in Nigeria has had positive effects on the cities and towns. Observations from a survey in Abuja confirms the fact that urban agriculture is sustaining a large number of unemployed and employed, as well as, skilled and unskilled people in Abuja, and it is the same for other cities in Nigeria (Egbunna, 2008). Urban Agriculture entails making use of several urban open spaces to produce agricultural products. This enables the urban people, especially the urban poor, to spend less of their cash income on food by producing their own food for household consumption and sale to other urban dwellers for extra cash.

However, the situation of urbanization and Urban Agriculture is not different in the study area in particular and in Ebonyi state in general. Ebonyi state consists of urban areas like Abakaliki and Afikpo with other areas getting close to urbanization, and participants of urban agriculture in this state use it to make their living and improve their standard of living. Therefore, it became pertinent to study one of the urban areas in the state to come up with suggestions and ways to integrate Urban Agriculture into the system of the study.
area. This will ensure that poverty is reduced, thus, making Urban Agriculture a veritable tool for poverty reduction in the study area.

Problem Statement
Agriculture, practiced in both rural and urban areas and known for its potentials, is a key to reducing global poverty. Nigeria, whose population is predominantly engaged in agriculture and also one of the great exporters of agricultural products, can be described as a paradox and this paradox is that the poverty level in Nigeria contradicts the country’s immense wealth. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, UNESCO (2010) reported that among other resources like human resources, petroleum and gas resources, as well as, other large untapped solid mineral resources, Nigeria is enormously endowed with agricultural resources, but rather than record remarkable progress in national socio-economic development, Nigeria is still sitting twentieth among the world’s poorest countries. The state of Nigeria’s poverty is due to the fact that the income obtained by the country is not evenly distributed to improve the socio-economic of the nation and that certain sectors of the economy like the agricultural sector have been ignored by the government (Ogen, 2007)

Egbunna (2008) stated that in 1988, at least 25% of the developing world’s absolute poor were living in the urban areas and they are expected to reach about 65% in 2020; and that the socio-economic profile of Nigeria indicates that up to 70% of Nigerians live below the poverty line. This indicates that poverty is becoming increasingly urban. According to the same author, this increased rate of poverty in the urban areas could be as a result of the high birth rates in poor families in urban areas. This could also be as a result of the increasing rate of migration of the rural poor to the urban areas.

According to the International Development Research Centre, IDRC (2003), most of the urban households spend about 40% to 60% of their income on food each year. Nigeria, as a country, is not in any way better as low income level, high incidence of poverty and high rate of urbanization have succeeded in crippling the capacity of both the urban middle class and urban poor households in buying all the food they need. Since the urban poor households lack the money to buy sufficient food to nourish themselves, they become constantly malnourished, weak and often sick. This makes them unable to work, which also makes them even poorer and hungrier. This situation often continues until death occurs for them and their families. It is then very obvious that poverty is a problematic issue that has eaten deep into the household of the urban poor in developing countries like Nigeria.

Furthermore, it is observed that a majority of the people involved in urban agriculture in developing countries are the urban poor who have to cultivate their own urban agricultural products for self consumption with surpluses being sold in the market. This means that Urban Agriculture provides food, creates savings in household expenditure on consumables, thus, increasing the amount of income allocated to other uses and generates more income for the urban poor through the sales of surpluses in local markets. Despite these obvious facts of the potentials of Urban Agriculture and its presence in Nigeria, the government and policy makers have deliberately ignored this important sector of the economy. Thus, the neglect of the government in integrating Urban Agriculture into the Nigerian urban system in a viable and sustainable way has left urban farmers in abject poverty even when they put so much effort in the practice of urban agriculture.

The urban poor who engage in Urban Agriculture, due to financial constraint, make use of untreated waste water for irrigation which sometimes results in the spread of diseases among the population, thus, leading to low productivity and production among urban farmers. Again, there is a problem of access to urban lands and other resource inputs necessary for high productivity in agriculture among the participants of Urban Agriculture which constrains them from achieving the full potentials of Urban Agriculture. Due to these posed problems, it becomes very necessary to carry out this research in the study area.

Based on these problems, this research work seeks to provide a possible panacea to the following questions: What are the socio-economic characteristics of the urban farmers in the study areas? What are the types of farming activities practiced by the urban farmers in the study area? What are the urban farmers’ perceptions on the roles of Urban Agriculture in reducing poverty in the study area? What is the relationship between the socio-economic characteristics of the urban farmers and their farm income in the study area? What are the constraints militating against Urban Agriculture in the study area?
Objectives of the Study
In broad terms, this research work is aimed at evaluating Urban Agriculture as a sustainable tool for poverty reduction in Abakaliki urban of Ebonyi state.

The specific objectives were to:
1. describe the socio-economic characteristics of the urban farmers in the study area;
2. identify the various kinds of farming activities practiced by the urban farmers in the study area;
3. analyze the urban farmers’ perceptions on the roles of Urban Agriculture in reducing poverty in the study area;
4. analyze the relationship between the socio-economic characteristics of the urban farmers and their farm income in the study area;
5. identify the constraints militating against Urban Agriculture in the study area;

Justification of the Study
Urban Agriculture seems to be a viable intervention strategy for improving the entire standard of living of the urban poor to earn extra income and grow their own food, as well as, improving the entire economy of any nation (Egbunna, 2008). The benefits of this study are usually associated with the cities and the nations that implement this practice.

However, to the urban farmers in the study area, this study will be of great assistance as it would create awareness among them concerning the benefits of Urban Agriculture.

It is also very apparent that policy makers and the government have channeled little or no attention to the practice of Urban Agriculture. This research work, as it highlights the potentials and problems associated with the practice of Urban Agriculture, would go a long way in enlightening the government and policy makers to capitalize on the benefits of Urban Agriculture and integrate its practice in their administrative agenda in a more viable way.

Without doubt, this research would also be useful to agricultural extension agencies and provide necessary information required for further studies in the field of Urban Agriculture.

Concept of Agriculture
The term agriculture was derived from two Latin words; the first being “Ager” which means a field or land, and the second being “Cultura” which means cultivation. Thus, agriculture could literally mean the cultivation of the field or land (Ekohwo, 2009). According to the same author, agriculture does not only entail the cultivation of the field for crop production, it also involves the rearing of animals for several purposes. The concept of the origin of agriculture can be attributed to the discovery made by the hunter-gatherers of the Pleistocene age (Amalu, 1998). Agriculture started around 15,000 BC when man survived by wandering, hunting wild animals and gathering fruits in the forest (Ekohwo, 2009).

Agriculture, over the years, has evolved from the rudimentary form of food gathering and animal hunting to a more developed form through which the economies of the world have greatly benefited from. As reported by Ogen (2007), the agricultural sector has had positive effects on many nations’ socio-economic and industrial fabric because of the multi-functional nature of agriculture. According to the same author, the agricultural sector is the engine of growth in virtually all developed and developing economies of the world.

The roles of agriculture in the economy of several nations are manifold. Agriculture is central to the economic performance of sub-Saharan African countries, and it is a source of income, employment and export earnings (Adenegan et al, 2004). The Participatory Ecological Land Use Management, PELUM (2005) stated that agriculture provides employment for up to 60% of the entire population in Africa. According to the same source, agriculture constitutes the backbone of most African economies as it is still the largest national income contributor, the biggest source of foreign exchange, the main generator of savings and tax revenues, as well as, the dominant provider of industrial raw materials in these African economies.

According to Nnoke and Ezike (2000), food which is the basic need of man is provided by agriculture through plant and animal proteins, oily plants which are sources of fats, cereal crops, root and tuber crops,
as well as, fruits and vegetables which give vitamins and minerals. The agricultural sector has the potential to be the industrial and economic spring board from which a country’s development can take off (Ogen, 2007). According to the same author, agriculture, being the economic sector that most affects the natural environment, advances from its primary function of providing food, employment, income and lots more to shaping the landscape, providing environmental benefits, guaranteeing the sustainable management of renewable resources and contributing to the viability of both the rural and urban areas.

**Urbanization**

Urbanization remains an issue that is discussed nationally and globally. The United Nations Population Fund, UNFPA (2007) defined urbanization as the movement of people from rural to urban areas with population growth equating urban migration. According to the same source, urbanization could also be referred to as the physical growth of urban areas as a result of global change. Increase in urbanization leads to increase in urban population. The rapid growth of the global urban population is one of the most striking features of the demographic shift taking place in the world (Moore *et al.*, 2004).

The United Nations (2002) reported that the percentage of the global population residing in the urban areas increased from 32% in 1955 to 45% in 1995; this increase continued to about 47% in 2002 and is expected to reach about 67% in 2015. These global population data portray a world that is becoming increasingly urban in nature.

However, no developing country can afford to ignore the phenomenon of urbanization. Henderson (2002) stated that urbanization in many developing countries over the past half century seems to be increasing at a very rapid pace. The United Nations (2006) reported that the urban population living in Africa increased from 294 million in 2000 to 347 million in 2005 and is expected to reach about 742 million by 2030; the Asian urban population was also reported to have increased from 1.36 billion in 2000 to 1.55 billion in 2005 and is expected to reach about 2.63 billion in 2030; while the Latin-American urban population was reported to have increased from 394 million in 2000 to 434 million in 2005 and is expected to reach about 609 million in 2030. According to the same source, the average annual rate of increase in urban population in developing countries is highest in Africa. The United Nations Habitat (2007) also reported that the urban population in sub-Saharan Africa is expected to rise from 39.7% to 53.5% of the continent’s population between 2005 and 2030.

Furthermore, urbanization is usually linked to industrialization and modernization which attracts many rural and small town dwellers to the big cities. With some expectations, these rural dwellers move from villages to big cities seeking for higher wages, better housing, better schools, hospitals and more job opportunities. As a result of this, urban areas have more problems to overcome, such as, pollution, overpopulation, drug abuse, congestion, crime, poverty, presence of slum areas, food insecurity and many more.

Moore *et al* (2002) asserted that well managed urban areas could play a vital role in the social and economic fabric of countries world-wide providing opportunities for education, better health care services and cultural enrichment to urban dwellers and those rural dwellers seeking these opportunities. According to them, urbanization levels are strongly correlated with levels of national income and levels of economic growth. Urbanization levels which could also be referred to as the level of economic growth in urban areas are relatively low in developing countries of Africa and Asia (Ruel *et al.*, 1998).

Nevertheless, since urbanization levels are strongly correlated with levels of national income and economic growth, urbanization itself which is the movement of people from rural to urban areas, should also be correlated with these national incomes and economic growth to sustain the lives of urban dwellers already dwelling in the urban areas and the rural dwellers migrating to the urban areas. In African countries, the relationship between the urbanization of people and sustained economic growth appears to differ from that of other countries (Fay and Opal, 2000). According to them, Africa, a continent consisting of some of the least developed and developing countries of the world, is known for its slow rate of economic growth and high rate of urbanization of people from rural to urban areas even during periods of negative growth. Africa’s urbanization without growth is not a puzzle, as the rate of urbanization of people from rural to urban areas and the rate of economic growth in Africa are irreconcilable.
The International Monetary Fund, IMF (2007) reported that Nigeria is experiencing one of the fastest urbanization rates in the world. This rapid expansion of the urban population and slow economic growth in the developing countries of Africa, for example Nigeria, therefore poses new and different challenges in ensuring poverty alleviation, food security, employment opportunities and access to basic services, such as, adequate housing, good water, sanitation, education and health care facilities in the urban areas (Kennedy, 2003).

Poverty: Concept and Definitions

Poverty, due to the extent of the damage it poses to the society and the affairs of humanity, has earned great recognition at the international, national and local levels, and has been a serious challenge to the governments of the world. Poverty is multi-faceted, changing from place to place and has been described in many ways. According to the World Bank (2010), poverty is hunger and not knowing where your next meal is coming from, it is the lack of shelter and having nowhere to go, it is being sick and not being able to see a doctor, it is the death of a child or an adult caused by an illness or by malnutrition, poverty is not having access to a school and not knowing how to read, poverty is being unemployed, poverty is powerlessness, lack of representation and freedom with no hope of change.

The United Nations Development Program, UNDP (1999), defined extreme or absolute poverty as the lack of income necessary to satisfy only basic food needs; while overall or relative poverty is defined as the lack of income necessary to satisfy essential non-food needs, such as clothing and shelter, as well as, food needs. These definitions of poverty are called income poverty. According to the same source, poverty could also be defined as the lack of basic human capabilities, lack of access to goods, services, infrastructures, energy, sanitation, communication, drinking water and other necessities to sustain basic human capabilities; this definition of poverty is called human poverty. Broca (2002) stated that poverty encompasses different dimensions of deprivation of the human needs for survival which include consumption and food security, rights, voice, information, security, dignity and decent work.

However, the reasons for the existence of poverty in the world today have been viewed from different perspectives by different people. According to Corbett (2009), some people believe that poverty results from the lack of adequate resources, such as, land and food that are necessary for the well-being and survival of the world’s people on a global level, while others see poverty as an effect of the uneven distribution of resources around the world on an international or regional scale. Whichever way poverty is viewed, it sure includes low income and the inability to acquire the basic goods and services necessary for survival. Poverty is a snare and an enemy of man which humiliates and dehumanizes its victims (Gberevbie et al, 2005).

Poverty Measurement

Poverty is usually measured and a common method to achieve that is based on income and consumption levels (World Bank, 2010). According to the same source, anyone whose income or consumption level falls below a certain minimum level necessary to meet the basic needs for survival is considered poor, and this minimum level is called the poverty line or poverty threshold.

However, poverty can be measured at the global level and at the country level. At the global level, Ravallion et al (2009) stated that the common poverty line has in the past been roughly US $1 a day; but as reported by the World Bank (2010), the revised poverty lines were recently set at US $1.25 and US $2 per day (2005 Purchasing Power Parity terms) and anyone living on less than US $1.25 per day is said to be in extreme or absolute poverty, while anyone living on less than US $2 per day is said to be in moderate poverty.

At the country level, the World Bank (2010) stated that each country measures poverty according to its level of development, societal norms and values; and because of differences in the level of development, norms and values, the poverty lines may change from country to country as each country uses poverty lines which are most appropriate to its level of development, societal norms and values. According to the same source, information on consumption and income is obtained through sample surveys in which households are asked to answer detailed question on their spending habits and source of income.

In international economics, the measurement of a country’s wealth or poverty can also be done using the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of that country which tells us how much income a country has in total and measures the aggregate yearly monetary income of all the country’s citizens and businesses (Corbett, 2009).
According to the same source, in order to figure out the poverty level of a country, the GDP figures of that country are calculated as GDP per capita. This can be done by dividing the country’s total GDP by the country’s population to give an indication of the average income per person. Countries with smaller population will have a higher GDP per capita as each person tends to have a greater share of the total national income. Corbett further explained that since levels of poverty also depend on how income and resources are distributed, this method gives no indication of actual distribution of income within a nation as countries with higher GDP might still have high poverty rates if a few people have more income and resources than others.

**State of the World’s Poverty**

According to the World Bank (2007b), up to 1.1 billion people lived on less than US $1.25 a day (extreme poverty) and up to 2.7 billion people lived on less than US $2 a day (moderate poverty) in 2001. This indicates that a large proportion of the world’s population lives in poverty, but this massive global poverty rate has been reported to be reducing at a very fast rate due to the recent activities of the United Nations through their Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) to half the number of the world’s population living in poverty by 2015.

According to the World Bank (2007a) the percentage of the population living in absolute poverty has decreased in each region of the world since 1990. The same source reported that between 1990 and 2004, East Asia and the Pacific reduced from 15.4% to 9.07%, Europe and Central Asia also reduced from 3.6% to 0.95%, Latin America fell from 9.62% to 8.64%, Middle East and North Africa fell from 2.08% to 1.47%, South Asia 35.04% to 30.84%, and Sub-Saharan Africa also reduced from 46% to 41.09%. This indicates that a larger percentage of the world’s poor still lives in Sub-Saharan Africa.

Cassel (2006) opined that despite the recorded decrease in the percentage of the world’s poor between 1990 and 2004, Sub-Saharan Africa which represents majority of the African continent might experience some level of increase in the percentage of the population living in absolute poverty. According to the same source, Africa will have difficulty keeping pace with the rest of the developing world in alleviating poverty; and by 2030, Africa might be the home to a larger proportion of the world’s poorest people than it is today. Juuko (2008) asserted that the number of the poor living in Sub-Saharan Africa almost doubled from 200 million in 1981 to 380 million in 2005 and if this trend persists, the world’s poor will live in Africa by 2015.

However, Africa is the only region in the world where poverty and hunger are still on the increase (PELUM, 2005). According to the same source, current projections have indicated that Africa will be the only continent that will fail to meet the United Nations Millennium Declaration to reduce poverty, hunger and diseases by 2015. PELUM also predicted that on current trends, Sub-Saharan Africa will meet the Development Goals in 2147, which is more than a century off target.

More so, UNESCO (2010) revealed that about 92% of the Nigerian population survives on less than US $2 daily, while about 71% survives on less than US $1 daily. This indicates that Nigeria is one of the victims of poverty. According to the same source, Nigeria and other African countries are not even close to achieving the Millennium Development Goals by the set target date which is 2015, and that Nigeria with its numerous resources and potentials is still sitting twentieth among the world’s poorest countries. This is a major embarrassment for the supposed “Giant of Africa”. Poverty, has indeed, become the face of Nigeria and poses a serious threat to the development of the country.

Furthermore, some factors are responsible for the continuous existence of poverty in Nigeria. Gberevbie et al. (2005) stated that some of these factors include poor macro-economic and monetary policies, neglect of the agricultural sector, bad governance, corruption and mass unemployment. UNESCO (2010) asserted that corruption and bad governance in Nigeria has led to inequality among citizens as some privileged few live in opulence, while majority of Nigerians continue to wallow in abject poverty. This situation has become so bleak to the extent that an average salary earner cannot comfortably support a family because of rising cost of food items, high cost of living, transportation, health care among other numerous challenges.

**Causes and Effects of Poverty**

The causes and effects of poverty are usually interactive and inter-related and this is because, what makes people poor also creates conditions to keep them poor. In other words, the causes of poverty lead to the effects of poverty. Poverty has many causes, some of which are basic.
One of the basic factors that lead to poverty is overpopulation. Corbett (2009) stated that excessively high population puts stress on available resources especially in developing countries as the entire population would have to compete for the available resources needed for survival. High birth rates, according to the same source, contribute to overpopulation as governments of developing countries often provide little or no support for family planning. Poverty could also cause overpopulation as it gives families little power to plan birth control methods. Corbett further stated that other factors that lead to poverty include high standards and costs of living, uneven global distribution of resources, inadequate education and employment, as well as, environmental degradation.

However, Shah (2010) asserted that major cutbacks in health, education and other vital service around the world have resulted from the structural adjustment policies prescribed by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank as conditions for loans and repayments. This makes structural adjustment a major cause of poverty. According to Gberevbie et al (2005), bad governance and corruption also leads to poverty, especially in Nigeria, as the National revenue of the country is usually stolen by the leaders. This leads to lack of opportunities as the governments fail to provide essential infrastructures for survival.

Nevertheless, poverty also has severe effects on those wallowing in it. According to Corbett (2009), some of the effects of poverty include malnutrition and starvation, exposure to infectious diseases, mental illness and dependence on drugs, as well as, crime and violence. Gberevbie et al (2005) asserted that the effects of poverty include lack and deprivation of the basic necessities of life. Shah (2010) also stated that due to poverty, about 640 million children live without adequate shelter, 400 million have no access to safe water, 270 million have no access to health services and about 10.6 million died in 2003 before they reached the age of five. This indicates that inadequate shelter, lack of access to safe drinking water, inadequate health services and death can be viewed as the effects of poverty and attributed to the causes of poverty.

Urbanization and Poverty

The United Nations (2002) opined that the world is becoming increasingly urban in nature due to the rapid movement of people from the rural areas to the urban areas. According to the same source, the urban population is increasing three times faster then the rural population. This increase in the world’s urban population has also led to an increase in the number of the urban population living in poverty and this has been found to be common in the developing countries (Mehta, 2000).

According to Ravallion et al (2007), one-quarter of the world’s poor now live in urban areas and this proportion has been increasing over time. They further reported that between 1993 and 2002, the number of people living in absolute poverty fell by 150 million in rural areas but increased by 50 million in urban areas; nearly one billion urban residents in the cities of the developing world are poor and the next decade will witness an increased number of these urban poor if this current trend continues. This indicates that more poor people are now in urban areas than ever before. This incidence of increased poverty in urban areas is known as the Urbanization of Poverty (Mehta, 2000).

However, increased urbanization of poverty is due to the fact that migration of people from rural areas to urban areas, which is very rampant in developing countries like in Africa, is continuous and increasing even when these urban areas, due to slow economic growth, have little or no social and economic opportunities to offer. Nigeria, for example, amidst her high revenue made from oil, still has poor infrastructures especially in the educational and health sector, epileptic power supply, lack of job opportunities, high costs of food and many more, even in the urban areas, and therefore, cannot always absorb all the additional people coming into the cities. Despite these, people are still migrating from the rural areas to urban areas.

Ruel et al (1998) stated clearly that increase in poverty in the urban areas is due to the fact that growth in the urban population outstrips and exceeds the capacity of the urban areas to provide adequate jobs, necessary infrastructures especially in the agricultural sector, effective market, better health care, good water, food security and sanitation. Clos (2011) also reported that Africa, which is the fastest urbanizing continent on the planet, is home to many urban poor people as the continent’s rapid urbanization outpaces its capacity to provide essential and basic services to the urban dwellers. Due to these, people who leave the rural areas to find better lives in the cities have no choice but to settle in shanty towns and slums where they lack access to decent housing, sanitation, health care, education and other basic needs, thereby, trading rural poverty for
urban poverty (UNFPA, 2007). These urban slums are typically overcrowded, polluted, dangerous and lack basic services.

Furthermore, Mehta (2000) reported that in all the regions where the number of absolute poverty has increased, a majority of them were in the urban areas which are supposed to be the key drivers of the global economy, and these urban poor are the worst affected group when there is sudden decline in the economic growth. By fostering economic growth, urbanization helped reduce absolute poverty in the aggregate but did little for urban poverty (Ravallion et al., 2007). Mehta (2000) further asserted that the urban poor, unlike the rural poor, are the most vulnerable group because most national governments in developing countries do not provide any safety nets for them.

Urbanization of poverty has, over the years, become a problematic challenge to the world and therefore requires immediate solutions. These solutions can only be offered by the joint efforts of the government and citizens. As a solution to this problem, the government could provide housing, create a new regulation transmigration program, provide skills training programs, develop the rural areas, provide adequate jobs or create other ways income could be generated by the people, for example, Urban Agriculture. In other words, the city government will have to be responsive and accountable to the urban poor, and adopt an inclusionary and participatory approach in which the urban poor will have adequate representation and voice (Mehta, 2000).

Citizens could also help by offering some good jobs to jobless people, provide low cost housing for the homeless people or indulge in crime-free activities that could generate income, for example, Urban Agriculture.

**Poverty Alleviation**

The key step in designing poverty reduction strategies and programs is the analysis of poverty which helps us to measure poverty, monitor its progress and understand the factor that are most powerful to improve lives in a given context (World Bank, 2010). The severe effects of poverty are becoming more worrisome and urgent actions towards its control and eradication are required.

PELUM (2005) opined that one of the ways to alleviate poverty globally is by providing aid to the world. According to the same source, the European Commission, EC has set out objectives and priorities to provide such aid; and this EC aid focuses on the fostering of sustainable economic and social development, the campaign against poverty, supporting and strengthening macro-economic policies, food security and so on. Aid is necessary in assisting developing countries to develop sound governance, effective infrastructures, quality health, education services and other basic needs for survival.

Furthermore, another way to alleviate poverty globally is through the Millennium Development Goals of the United Nations. According to the World Bank (2010), the Millennium Development Goals are centered on reducing by half the proportion of people living in extreme poverty in the world by 2015. Agriculture can also be a tool for reducing poverty especially in Africa. As reported by PELUM (2005), agriculture remains the key to achieving the poverty targets of the Millennium Development Goals in Africa.

Nevertheless, efforts have equally been made to combat poverty in Nigeria. Gberevbie et al (2005) stated that the Nigerian governments initiated different policies and programs between 1986 and 2004. According to them, these programs include Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures, DFRRI; Better Life Program, BLP; People’s Bank of Nigeria, PBN; Community Banks; Family Support Program, FSP; Family Economic Adjustment Program, FEAP; Poverty Alleviation Program, PAP; National Poverty Eradication Program, NAPEP; and National Economic Empowerment Program whose aims were to alleviate the sufferings of the people by providing them with employment opportunities and access to credit facilities. They further claimed that despite all these poverty reduction programs, poverty is still persistent and rampant in Nigeria and that the problem of poverty can only be reduced in the country by intensifying war against corruption. UNESCO (2010) also reported that the war against corruption in Nigeria has to be fought more vigorously if poverty has to be alleviated.

In addition, Gberevbie et al (2005) asserted that the policies of the Nigerian governments must reflect the needs and aspirations of the people at all times in order for the poverty alleviation targets to be achieved. To
reduce the poverty level in Nigeria to the barest minimum, the government should also, as a matter of urgency, work towards the diversification of the country’s economy to reduce dependence on oil revenue by revitalizing the country’s agricultural sector (UNESCO, 2010). According to the same source, mass literacy programs could also be embarked on since education is a potent weapon against poverty; the government should also create an enabling environment for business to thrive.

**Urban Agriculture: Concept and Definition**

Agriculture has become the subject of interest in many parts of the world over the years as its role in sustaining the environment cannot be over-emphasized. The most pressing challenge of agriculture is how it can meet the food need of the increasing population of the world. The world right now is becoming increasingly urban and there are key problems usually associated with these urban areas. Adedeji and Ademiluyi (2009) asserted that these key problems are urban poverty and food insecurity. Agriculture has been confirmed to be one of the keys needed to fight global poverty, therefore, the practice of agriculture in urban areas could be a positive response to the crisis of urban poverty. This practice of agriculture in urban areas could be referred to as Urban Agriculture.

However, various definitions of Urban Agriculture have been provided despite the fact that the concept’s overall nature makes it difficult to define. According to Adeyemi (2000), Urban Agriculture refers to the establishment and performance of agricultural practices in or near an urban or city-like setting. The Rural Centres for Urban Agriculture and Food, RUAF (2005) defined Urban Agriculture as the growing of plants and the raising of animals within and around cities. In a much broader context, Urban Agriculture comprises of the production, processing and distribution of foods like vegetables and animal products within urban areas (intra-urban) or at fringe (peri-urban) of urban areas aimed at basically providing food for personal consumption or sale for higher income and/or for recreational purposes (Baumgartner and Belevi, 2001).

According to Egbunna (2008), a comprehensive view of Urban Agriculture can be obtained by enumerating certain elements or dimensions that make up its definition. These elements include: type of economic activity involved in Urban Agriculture, type of location, type of products grown, production systems or scale of production, production destinations or degree of market orientation, type of actors and participants involved in Urban Agriculture and motivation.

Urban Agriculture comprises of different economic activities. According to RUAF (2005), these activities include agricultural production activities, related processing and marketing activities, as well as, inputs (e.g compost) and services delivery (e.g animal health services). Baumgartner and Belevi (2001) also stated that Urban Agricultural activities include the acquisition and utilization of necessary resources, inputs and services, production of goods, post-production activities like processing, packaging, distribution and recycling, as well as, consumption. They further stated that Urban Agricultural activities also include home gardening, horticulture of food and non-food products (ornamental plants), aquaculture, livestock production and forestry.

Urban Agriculture can also be described based on the location of its practice. Egbunna (2008) asserted that Urban Agriculture is usually carried out in and around cities or urban areas. She further stated that Urban Agriculture could also be carried out on homesteads (on-plot) or on lands away from the residence (off-plot), on built-up or on open-space sites, or on authorized or unauthorized sites through personal agreement, customary law or commercial transaction. According to RUAF (2005), Urban Agriculture may take place in locations inside cities (intra-urban areas), around cities (peri-urban areas), on private lands (owned or leased), on public lands (parks, conservation areas, along roads, streams and railways), or on semi-public lands (school yards or hospitals).

Urban Agriculture can also be described based on the type of products grown. It involves the production of food products, such as, crops (grains, root crops, vegetables, fruits) and animals (poultry, rabbits, goats, sheep, cattle, pigs, fish) (Egbunna, 2008). Urban Agriculture also involves the production of non-food products like aromatic and medicinal herbs, ornamental plants and tree products (RUAF, 2005)

Based on the scales of production, Urban Agriculture is usually practiced in micro and small scale farms which make up the majority of Urban Agriculture enterprises, in medium-sized enterprises and in large-scale enterprises (Egbunna, 2008). Urban Agriculture can also be described based on the destination of its
products. An important aspect of Urban Agriculture is that people practice it basically for self-consumption or for trade. Products gotten from Urban Agriculture are either used for consumption or sold at the farm gates, in neighbourhoods, in local shops, in local markets, to intermediaries or in supermarkets (RUAF, 2005).

The main forces that drive farmers to engage in Urban Agriculture are its potentials in ensuring food security and generating income. According to Adedeji and Ademiluyi (2009), the potentials of Urban Agriculture in fighting urban food insecurity and urban poverty are what motivate people to participate in Urban Agriculture. Based on the actors involved in Urban Agriculture, Baumgartner and Belevi (2001) stated that Urban Agriculture involves participants or actors which include producers; suppliers of resources, inputs and services; transporters; processors; retailers; promoters; managers; and the consumers of the Urban Agricultural products. RUAF (2005) added that the actors involved in Urban Agriculture are the urban poor and women, lower and middle level government officials, school teachers, as well as, richer people who are seeking a good investment for their capital.

Importance of Urban Agriculture

The importance of Urban Agriculture is increasingly being recognized all over the world. RUAF (2005) asserted that Urban Agriculture plays an important role in enhancing urban food security and nutrition as the costs of imports and the costs of supplying and distributing food from rural to urban areas are high and do not satisfy the demand of the population. According to the same source, Urban Agriculture also contributes immensely to poverty alleviation, local economic development and social inclusion of the urban poor.

Mougeot (2000) stated clearly that Urban Agriculture serves as a source of supply in urban food systems, serves as one of the several food security options for households and can also be used as a tool for making productive use of urban open spaces, for generating income and employment, treating and recovering urban solid and liquid wastes, as well as, managing fresh water resources more effectively. According to the same source, Urban Agriculture complements rural agriculture, has nutritional benefits, and has direct impacts on community welfare.

Urban Agriculture has some social, environmental and economical benefits (Hamm and Baron, 1999). According to them, Urban Agriculture, socially, helps to give direct links to food production, makes people stronger by putting their food security into their own hands, thereby, making them more independent and empowered, helps to educate people who have been increasingly removed from food production to start participating in it, and teaches people life skills, such as, how to be more self-sufficient. They further stated that Urban Agriculture, environmentally, creates better living environments by greening up the city and making it more productive, increases the amount of food grown and bought locally, thereby, decreasing carbon foot prints, and has direct impacts on urban ecology and reuse of wastes for food production; economically, Urban Agriculture also provides jobs and incomes for people, as well as, creates a better local economy that does not rely on food from far away.

According to Belevi and Baumgartner (2003), Urban Agriculture helps to improve public health and resource management by using excreta, waste water and organic waste. Urban Agriculture also has several recreational values as it helps in improving the social skills, self-esteem, physical and mental health of the individuals (Brown et al, 2004). Furthermore, Sempik et al (2002) also opined that the field of urban horticulture promotes human-plant relationships, induces relaxation and reduces stress, fear, anger, blood pressure, as well as, muscle tension. According to Belevi and Baumgartner (2001), increased greening of the cities leads to improved air quality, thereby, reducing respiratory diseases.

Constraints Militating against Urban Agriculture

The potentials of Urban Agriculture can only be fully exploited if a number of constraints hindering its practice are identified and removed. According to Olanrewaju (1999), the constraints associated with Urban Agriculture include inadequate technical and advisory services, inappropriate legal framework, poor production technique, low level of professionalism, poor access to credit, high cost and poor access to essential inputs and others.

Furthermore, Hamm and Baron (1999) also stated that other problems associated with Urban Agriculture are that most soils available for agriculture are contaminated, most agro-chemicals are too toxic and most of the
produce harvested goes to waste due to inadequate post harvest technologies. According to Egbunna (2008), prohibitive urban policies and regulations, as well as, theft of crops grown far from the farmer’s households are common constraints affecting the full participation of urban farmers in Urban Agriculture.

Mougeot (2000) opined that the negative perceptions of people towards agriculture also constitute some problems associated with Urban Agriculture. According to the same source, most people perceive that Urban Agriculture hampers urban development as agriculture interferes with more productive use or rent of land by other economic activities; others see Urban Agriculture as a threat to public health as most domestic livestock transmits brucellosis and echinococcus infection; while others perceive Urban Agriculture as not being profitable. Mougeot further stated that if these negative perceptions of people are arrested, Urban Agriculture would go a long way in ensuring food security, providing employment and generating income.

Study Area
The study area is Abakaliki urban of Ebonyi state. It is basically the capital city of Ebonyi State. Abakaliki comprises of two blocks with one under Abakaliki Local Government Area and the other under Ebonyi Local Government Area.

The study area covers a land mass of about 106 km² and is bounded in the North by Izzi Local Government Area, in the West by Ezza North Local Government Area, in the South by Ikwo Local Government Area and in the East by Cross River State. Abakaliki urban lies between latitude 4°N and longitude 8°E. The area lies within the tropical rainforest belt and its rainfall pattern is bimodal. Its mean annual maximum and minimum rainfall are 2000mm and 1800mm respectively. The minimum and maximum temperatures are 27°C and 31°C respectively (EBMOI, 2003).

According to the National Population Commission, NPC (2006), Abakaliki urban has an estimated total population of 151,723 with 72,443 making up the male population and 79,280 making up the female population. The inhabitants are Igbo speaking people with Izzi language as their dialect. The inhabitants of the area are also engaged in diverse economic activities like farming, trading, civil service, rice milling, and quarry activities among others.

Model Specification
The implicit equation is:
\[ Y = f(X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, X_5, X_6) \]
The explicit equation is:
\[ Y = b_0 + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + b_3X_3 + b_4X_4 + b_5X_5 + b_6X_6 + et \]
Where;
- \( Y \) = Urban Farm Income
- \( X_1 \) = Age (years)
- \( X_2 \) = Farming experience (years)
- \( X_3 \) = Household size
- \( X_4 \) = Occupation
- \( X_5 \) = Farm size (hectares)
- \( X_6 \) = No of farm enterprise
- \( b_0 \) = Constant
- \( b_1 \) – \( b_6 \) = Parameters of regression
- \( et \) = Error term

Socio-Economic Characteristics of the Respondents
The socio-economic characteristics of the respondents studied include gender, age, educational level, marital status, household size, years of farming experience, farm size, occupation, farm annual income and total annual income.

The systems of agriculture practiced by the respondents include subsistence, semi-subsistence and commercial agriculture. The result of this analysis is shown in Table 4.
Table 4: Distribution of Respondents According to the System of Agriculture Practiced in the Study Area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>System of Agriculture Practiced</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subsistence</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi-subsistence</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>80</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Field Survey, 2011.

Table 4 shows that majority (70%) of the respondents practice semi-subistence agriculture, while 30% practice other systems of agriculture. This means that most of the respondents engage in semi-subistence Urban Agriculture. This agrees with Egbunna (2008) who claimed that urban farmers practice semi-subistence agriculture as they produce their own food for personal or household consumption and sell some to other urban dwellers for extra cash.

Location of Urban Farms in the Study Area

This involves the areas where the urban farms of the respondents are located. The result of this analysis is shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Distribution of Respondents According to the Location of their Urban Farms in the Study Area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Residential compound</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>52.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vacant plots</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>43.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Road sides</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ponds</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>86</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Field Survey, 2011.

*Multiple responses recorded

Table 5 shows that about 52.5% of the respondents practice Urban Agriculture within their residential compounds, 43.8% use vacant plots, while 11.3% practice Urban Agriculture in other locations. This means that the residential compounds of the respondents and vacant plots are the major areas where Urban Agriculture is practiced in the study area. The multiple responses indicate that some of the respondents carry out farming operations on more than one location. This finding supports Egbunna (2008) who stated that Urban Agriculture can be carried out on the homesteads of farmers or on vacant lands away from the residences of the farmers.

**NB:** Any mean score greater than the Decision Rule (DR) of 3.0 indicates that Urban Agriculture has an effect on poverty reduction.

From Table 6, the perceptions of the respondents show that Urban Agriculture plays the outlined roles except in creating a healthy environment and improving health. Based on the analysis, Urban Agriculture is perceived by the respondents to be capable of enabling households to have better and stable access to food (4.67); providing extra income for the purchase of other necessities (4.71); helping farmers to save (3.62); creating employment opportunities for the urban poor (4.29); enabling farmers to enjoy different diets at any time (4.23) and improving the general standard of living of farmers (4.72). These findings agree with that of Musiimenta (2002) who stated that Urban Agriculture supplies food to farmers, enables farmers to save cash that would have been spent on food purchases and improves the entire socio-economic status of urban dwellers. Mougeot (2000) also justifies these findings by opining that Urban Agriculture serves as a reliable food security option for urban households, encourages savings and generates income individuals. Egbunna (2008) also asserted that Urban Agriculture is a veritable tool for generating employment and income for the urban poor.

However, Urban Agriculture is also perceived by the respondents as not being able to create a healthy living environment and improve public health (2.78). This is in line with the views of Mougeot (2000) who claimed that most people see Urban Agriculture as a threat to public health as most of the livestock reared in urban areas transmit brucellosis and echinococcus infection. According to the same source, the use of untreated
waste water for irrigation in urban areas results in the spread of diseases among the population. This finding refutes that of Belevi and Baumgartner (2001) who claimed that Urban Agriculture, through increased greening of the cities, improves air quality, thereby, reducing respiratory diseases and improving public health. This implies that Urban Agriculture, generally, has a great potential in reducing poverty in urban areas and among urban farmers.

Effects of the Socio-Economic Characteristics of the Respondents on Farm Income

The dependent variable, $Y$ (urban farm income) was regressed against the independent variables which include Age ($X_1$), Farming experience ($X_2$), Household ($X_3$), Occupation ($X_4$), Farm size ($X_5$), Number of farm enterprises ($X_6$) and the random error term $(e_t)$. The result of this analysis is presented in Table 7.

Table 7: Multiple Regression Result of the Relationship between the Socio-Economic Characteristics of the Urban Farmers and their Farm Income

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable Symbol</th>
<th>Variable Name</th>
<th>Regression Coefficients</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$Y$</td>
<td>Urban Farm income</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$b_0$</td>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-29789.96</td>
<td>12965.380</td>
<td>-2.298</td>
<td>0.024**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$X_1$</td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>33.076</td>
<td>280.653</td>
<td>0.118</td>
<td>0.907</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$X_2$</td>
<td>Farming Experience</td>
<td>1066.892</td>
<td>861.827</td>
<td>1.238</td>
<td>0.220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$X_3$</td>
<td>Household Size</td>
<td>6887.783</td>
<td>1375.080</td>
<td>5.009</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$X_4$</td>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td>-4125.690</td>
<td>2393.936</td>
<td>-1.723</td>
<td>0.089***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$X_5$</td>
<td>Farm Size</td>
<td>32171.905</td>
<td>6462.925</td>
<td>4.978</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$X_6$</td>
<td>No of Farm enterprise</td>
<td>18583.525</td>
<td>5256.511</td>
<td>3.535</td>
<td>0.001*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2011.

*significant at 1% level
*significant at 5% level
*significant at 10%

$R^2 = 0.770 = 0.770 \times 100 = 77\%$

Adjusted $R^2 = 0.751 = 0.751 \times 100 = 75.1\%$

$F$-Ratio = 40.747

A multiple regression model was adopted to analyze the relationship between the socio-economic characteristics of the urban farmers and their farm income in the study area. Based on the analysis, the computed coefficient of determination ($R^2$) was 0.770 or 77%. This indicates that about 77% of the variations in the dependent variable, $Y$ (urban farm income) was influenced by the combined effect of the independent variables, $X_1 - X_6$ (the socio-economic characteristics of the urban farmers), while the remaining 23% of the variations in the dependent variable, $Y$ was caused by some other important variables that were not included in the regression model.

The result obtained in Table 7 shows that age ($X_1$) was positively related to farm income, although it was not statistically significant. This means that as one’s age advances, farm income increases. This also implies that older farmers tend to generate more farm income than younger farmers. This refutes the findings of Okutte et al (2007) who concluded that younger farmers are more active in agricultural practices which could generate more income for them. This also disagrees with Babatunde et al (2007) who noted that young farmers are stronger than old farmers and are expected to cultivate larger farm lands which enable them to produce more and generate more income. This positive correlation did not meet the a priori expectation because aged farmers often lack the strength to farm while young farmers have the energy to farm for even longer hours.

Farming experience ($X_2$) showed a positive relationship with farm income, although it was not statistically significant. This means that the income generated from urban farms is dependent on the farmers’ years of experience. This is an indication that longer term involvement in urban farming enables farmers to generate more income. This is in consonance with Ayanwale and Oluwale (2008) who claimed that farm experience is important in achieving increased income. The a priori expectation was met.
Household size ($X_3$) was positively related to farm income and significant at 1%. This implies that the larger the farmer’s household size, the higher the income generated. The a priori expectation was met because a large household size tends to supply family labour which helps to increase the farm output. This is in conformity with the findings of Ndanitsa (2007) who opined that married farmers with large household size have the chances of supplying family labour to work on their farms which may increase the size of land cultivated, increase output and increase income.

The negative coefficient of occupation ($X_4$) indicates that it had a negative relationship with farm income. It was also significant at 10%. This indicates that increase in the number of occupation engaged in by farmers leads to low farm income. This implies that farmers engaged in several occupations tend to generate low income from their farming occupation which may be because their involvement in other occupations diverts their attention from farming. This is in line with Adenegan et al (2004) who opined that increased involvement in other non-farm occupation by farmers diverts their attention from agriculture which could lead to small-scale production and low farm income for them. This deviates from the a priori expectation that engagement in several occupations increases total income. This total income could be invested in the farming occupation which in turn leads to the generation of more farm income.

The farm size ($X_5$) of the respondents was positively related to farm income and was significant at 1%. This means that the larger the farm size of respondents, the higher the farm income. This agrees with Babatunde et al (2007) who stated that the cultivation of large farm lands by farmers generate more income for them. This is also in consonance with Okoedo-Okojie and Onemolease (2009) who reported that larger farms strengthen farmers’ capacity to produce more which brings in more income for the farmers. The a priori expectation was met because large farms are expected to give larger farm output which when sold generates income for the farmers.

The number of farm enterprise ($X_6$) had positive relationship with farm income and was significant at 1%. This implies that the higher the number of farm enterprises owned by a farmer, the higher the income generated by such farmer. This is in line with the findings of Akinsanmi and Doppler (2005) who stated that farming families which engage in more than one farm practice or enterprise tend to generate high income. The a priori expectation was met because farmers with more than one farm enterprise or practice are expected to generate more income than those having just one farm enterprise or practicing one type of farming system.

The final estimated regression equation is shown below:

$$Y = -29789.96 + 33.076X_1 + 1066.892X_2 + 6887.783X_3 - 4125.690X_4 + 32171.905X_5 + 18583.525X_6 + et$$

$Y = $ Urban Farm Income

$X_1 - X_6 = $ Socio- Economic Characteristics

et = error term

Values in bracket = Standard Error

Symbols (*) represents level of significance

* = Significant at 1%

** = Significant at 5%

*** = Significant at 10%

Summary

This research was carried out to assess Urban Agriculture as a sustainable tool in reducing poverty in Abakaliki urban of Ebonyi state. Specific objectives were outlined which includes; describing the socio-economic characteristics of urban farmers in the study area; identifying the various kinds of farming system practiced by the urban farmers in the study area; analyzing the farmers’ perceptions of the roles of Urban Agriculture in reducing poverty; Both descriptive and inferential statistics were employed to analyze the objectives.

Data were collected from a total of eighty urban farmers randomly selected from the study area. Analysis of the data collected showed that Urban Agriculture was practiced mostly by women with 66.2%. Majority of the respondents (83.8%) were within the active age range of 21-50 years with 72.5% having one form of
formal education or the other ranging from primary to tertiary education. Results of the analysis also revealed that majority (78.8%) of the respondents were married and 91.3% had households between 1-10 members. Majority (78.8%) of the respondents also had long farming experiences from 7 years and above and 93.7% used farm lands above 0.5 ha. The study further revealed that 73.7% of the respondents combined farming with other occupations, 57.5% earn below N50,000 annually from their farm income and 67.5% earn above N50,000 from both their farming activities and other economic activities.

The results also showed that crop and livestock production were mostly practiced by the urban farmers with 86.3% into crop production and 62.5% into livestock production. About 61.3% of the respondents hired labourers to work for them and 70% produce at a semi-subsistence level. Residential compounds and vacant plots formed the major farming environments in the study area with 52.5% using their residential compounds and 43.8% using vacant plots. Also, the results of the five-point Likert scale showed that Urban Agriculture is perceived by the respondents as being able to give households better and stable access to food (4.67); provide extra income for the purchase of other necessities (4.71); help farmers to save (3.62); create employment opportunities for the urban poor (4.29); enable farmers to enjoy different diets at any time (4.23) and improve the general standard of living of farmers (4.72).

Furthermore, the multiple regression analysis showed the effect of the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents on their farm income. The coefficient of multiple determination ($R^2 = 0.770$) indicates that 77% of the variations in the dependent variable (urban farm income) was attributed to the independent variables (socio-economic characteristics of the urban farmers). Age, farming experience, household size, farm size and number of farm enterprise showed positive relationships with farm income, while occupation showed a negative relationship with farm income.

**Conclusion**

Urban Agriculture has great potential in alleviating poverty among urban dwellers, as such, it needs to be encouraged and sustained. From this research, the contribution of Urban Agriculture to poverty reduction is low when viewed from the backdrop of the farm income earned which could be as a result of certain constraints militating against Urban Agriculture.

More importantly, it is very necessary to give recognition to this veritable strategy for poverty reduction. The government should re-direct their attention to agriculture, especially in the urban areas, and include it in their policies. The nature and success of any intervention aimed at developing Urban Agriculture in this country will depend on the awareness and will of the various stakeholders. Finally, there is need to carry out further studies on Urban Agriculture systems in Nigeria.

**Recommendations**

The following recommendations were made based on the research findings:

1. Government should embark on sound policies geared towards proper financing and development of agriculture, thus, creating enabling environments for the establishment of more networks of financial institutions in the urban areas. This will enhance urban farmers’ access to these institutions, thereby, leading to increase in their potentials for investments in agriculture.

2. The urban dwellers involved in Urban Agriculture should form cooperatives that are functional and well-managed. This will enable them to obtain credit easily even when they lack tangible security.

3. Basic infrastructures like roads, electricity, and pipe-borne water among other basic infrastructures should be provided by the government and other private sectors. This will help improve the performance of urban farmers in Urban Agriculture.

4. Government should allocate some of its urban lands for agricultural purposes. This will enable the urban farmers to cultivate more lands and obtain more output.

5. The urban farmers should be empowered through education. This will enable them to participate fully in Urban Agriculture. More so, this will help expose the urban farmers to new agricultural technologies and acquire more skills.

6. Agricultural inputs should be made available to urban farmers at subsidized rates. This will encourage the urban farmers to engage more in Urban Agriculture.
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PARADOX OF ‘WARNING STRIKE’ IN STATE-SECTOR INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS IN NIGERIA

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Abstract
Realities sometimes run counter to expectation. This is the case with warning strikes in Nigeria’s state-sector industrial relations. Ideally, a warning strike is embarked upon by employees as a means of bringing the employer to favourable response and stave off prolonged, disruptive and economically costly strikes. In this paper, a comparative review of cases of warning strike in Nigeria’s private and public sectors as well as in selected OECD countries in literature was undertaken. The finding is that in the OECD countries employers and employees take advantage of warning strike to prevent the ‘mother strike’. Strikes are scarcely allowed to occur in the private sector in Nigeria and in the few cases that occur; parties take advantage of warning strike and strike ultimatum to engage in negotiation and conflict resolution. Contrary to the experience of the private sector, in Nigeria’s state sector, warning strike constitutes ‘opportunity lost’; workers frequently embark on warning strike but end up with the main strike because the potential for nipping disputes in the bud inherent in warning strike is neglected. Explanation for the behaviour differential lies in two factors. One is the contradictory status of the state as employer, party, regulator and adjudicator. Two is superiority complex suffered by state officials which hinders their readiness to engage in collective bargaining. While state officials must cure their status and attitude barriers, state officials and unions must cultivate attitude of mutual respect.

Keywords: warning strike, state-sector, mother strike, opportunity lost, superiority complex, contradictory status.

Introduction
All over the world, industrial strike still remains a universal response to perceived exploitation and injustice among employees in the work place. Despite that acclaimed universal utility, the concern for the cost of strike particularly among employers is unceasing. Efforts aimed at eliminating strikes altogether or at least reduce their economic and social cost remain a top priority in management and development studies. With respect to warning strikes, this paper has two aims. The first is to contribute to the continued search for workable antidotes against the disadvantages of industrial strike generally. The issues of concern in strikes relate to frequency of occurrence, length of time of work stoppage, loss in production and revenue and other costs involved. Second is to draw attention to the functional consequences of warning strikes as a tool of conflict containment which appears not to be generally unrecognized or carelessly ignored and to orient parties to trade disputes to tap into the opportunities inherent in warning strike to stem the tide of protracted strikes in the economy.

Industrial Strikes have had a long history of association with collective resistance to anti-labour and anti-people policies and actions of managements and governments all over the world. As far back as 14 November, 1152 BC, Wikipedia recorded a strike by artisans of the Royal Necropolis at Deir el – Medina in ancient Egypt under Pharaoh Ramses III. This is reputed to be the first known workers’ uprising in recorded history. As was the case in this example, strike is seen as a mechanism to usher in social change and liberate from oppression those that are perceived to be suffering neglect, exploitation or discrimination. Quite expectedly, strikes have characteristically produced mixed reactions. It tends to stimulate enthusiasm, voluntarism and expectation of positive outcome on the part of those that embark on it. On the other hand, it tends to inspire resentment, opposition and resistance on the part of management and government, those
against whom it is directed. This is however not the sense in which we have described it here as paradoxical. Those reactions can rightly be described as normal expectations because those who will benefit from strike will be glad about it, while for management or government against whom the outcome might most likely be rising cost and dwindling profits, it will be unacceptable.

Experts have categorised strikes into several types. Each type is applied to a specific purpose and to achieve intended outcomes. The types include wild cat or unofficial strikes; picketing or refusing to work and preventing others from working by rallying outside the work-place; sit-down strike or attending work but refusing to work; work-in strike or attend work, work and refuse to be paid; work-to-rule, ‘partial strike’ or ‘slow down’ where workers works strictly according to the rules and instructions and no more even this strict adherent impedes productivity; sympathy strike or strike in support of or in solidarity with another set of striking workers; jurisdictional strike undertaken by a union to assert the right of its members to particular job assignment; and warning strike, the strike before an anticipated main strike. The last type is the subject of focus in this paper. Generically, any strike action including a warning strike may involve a combination of one or a few of these genres of strike depending on the outcome that is intended by the action or the surrounding circumstances.

**Definition of Warning Strike**

A warning strike is work stoppage by a union of workers that may last hours, days or weeks aimed at serving notice to the employer of a waiting main or longer strike action in the nearest future. A warning strike does not necessarily mean that the main strike is imminent or inevitable. Rather, it is conditional or subject to the failure to address the demands put forward by the workers that are issuing the threat. As can be seen in the definition of warning strike, there are distinguishing features that separate it from other types of strike. Those distinctive features go to the root of its peculiar nature and they are supposed to be reasons for which it should be seen and treated differently by all parties. For example, a warning strike is work stoppage alright, but it is futuristic and anticipatory in its focus and intent. It operates more as a shield rather than as a sword; it is a conflict management mechanism or an alternative dispute resolution devise of a sort. Best (2006) listed four features of ADR mechanism as non-violent, mutual satisfaction of parties, least expensive and post-settlement preservation of relations. A warning strike, if adequately harnessed, possesses these characteristics inherently. Those who call a warning strike do not intend an escalation of hostilities but desire amicable settlement, which is why they did not embark on the full-scale strike with its full complements in the first instance. Although a warning strike might be disruptive or costly, the emphasis is not on the immediate action or in the losses incurred at the immediate circumstances. Rather, emphasis is on the looming disruption, larger in proportion and longer lasting that the action is intended to avert or prevent. It is usually preceded by a due notice of action which is an intentional measure aimed at accentuating the warning strike’s functional character in dispute resolution and restoration of industrial harmony. If the notice is harnessed even the warning strike itself may be avoidable.

**Warning Strike as Opportunity Lost**

The twin issues of paradox and the object which this paper addresses arises from the apparent consistent failure on the part of the employer (particularly government) to harness the qualities and potentials of warning strike in contemporary Nigerian labour scene. And so while intrinsically it might be intended by workers to operate as a tool of conflict containment, in reality it has helped ‘very little to prevent possible out-break of industrial discontentment or its metamorphosis into open conflict or strike. It has done little to arrest the breakdown of industrial relations between government and the unions representing government employees. In a majority of cases, issues over which warning strikes are called have deteriorated to full-scale hostility. The paradox alluded to is linked with this disappointed expectation and its repeated failure to bring parties to terms of an amicable settlement without proceeding to the main strike action as threatened. The waiting strike that is intended to be contained by the warning strike often occurs or, at any rate, eventually so. The object of this paper is to interrogate the situation in which such a potent mechanism as warning strike with its inherent high probability for conflict containment/management has instead consistently failed to stave off strike or restore industrial harmony between government and its employees. This is in spite of the huge confidence which the public workforce appears to repose on it. A two-pronged comparison of public-private sector and North-South economic divide analysis is attempted. This is to show the environmental and situational forces that account for the differing levels of successful application of warning strikes across those divides in arresting the deterioration of labour relations.
In many parts of the world, the law on trade disputes requires a union embarking on strike to give a definite and specified period of notice to the employer prior to the commencement of the strike. In many countries in Europe, at least 24-hour notice is required. Strike notice is however not the same thing as strike ultimatum or warning strike. The notice requirement applies also to warning strike. Sometimes a union may issue an ultimatum of term of days or weeks requiring management to meet some demands failing which a strike action will commence. That action could be a warning strike. In this case, the ultimatum may serve as notice of warning strike action.

**Government and Misappropriation of Warning Strike - Successes and Failures**

Warning strikes became a strategy of frequent resort among trade unions in the Nigerian public sector from the turn of the new millennium in 2000. Before that date unions were used to issuing ultimatum to their employers. Ultimatum is still issued nowadays but it is an embellishment to warning strike because that concept is gradually falling out of fashion. The word ‘ultimatum’ as an approach to industrial grievance processing and its connotative emphasis on force, compulsion, and mandatory order has military connection having been devised largely under military rule. From about 1999 when the country returned to civil rule terminologies such as that might have been adjudged to be contextually inappropriate. Many other concepts popularly used under military rule but now discarded include ‘immediate effect’, ‘task force’, ‘sole administrator’, ‘decree’, ‘ouster clause’ etc. A few still survive though (including occasional reference to ultimatum) as relics of culture of militocracy. In the place of ultimatum, the concept and practice of warning strike has become generally more acceptable because of its relative civility and persuasive connotation as well as the undertone of readiness to negotiate. It blends more with the mood in an atmosphere that extols collective bargaining. Where it is used currently reference is to a time within which responses namely consultation, mediation, collective bargaining etc, are expected rather than a date from which drastic reaction is to follow. In a number of cases nowadays, after the expiration of the deadline, no serious reactions follow immediately because emphasis is on official readiness to bargain.

In addition to the change in political context another factor that contributed to the preference of the concept and practice of warning strike is the apparent growing ineffectiveness of the orthodox methods of drawing the attention of the employer in the event of a declaration of industrial dispute. In that era lobbying, appealing, mediation, persuasive meetings, newspaper advertorials and feature articles to inform and educate the public etc, were used along with the issuance of ultimatum. (The first of the two Figures ‘A’ below illustrates the futile attempts by ASUU using those methods to persuade government to sign the 2000 Agreement while the second ‘B’ shows the failed efforts by the same Union to secure the reinstatement of the 49 University of Ilorin lecturers sacked by their employer for involvement in a national strike within a local strike). Such was the state of ineffectiveness of those approaches that an alternative approach was found in warning strikes. The figures are now indicating the failure of warning strikes.

**FIGURE A**

**EFFORTS MADE BY ASUU TO PERSUADE GOVERNMENT TO SIGN THE AGREEMENT OF DECEMBER 18, 2000.**

Between December 18, 2000 and today, ASUU has made strenuous efforts to persuade the FGN to sign the agreement as a matter of course. ASUU has been unsuccessful solely as a result of what has now become clear, on the part of government as dishonesty, total lack of integrity and unwillingness to appreciate the role of education in national development.

Let me mention some of the efforts made to persuade Government to see the need to sign that Agreement. Between December 18, 2000 and the end of January 2001, the union was in constant touch with the Chairman, Prof Ayo Banjo and some members of the Government Negotiation Team, urging them to persuade the Federal Government to conclude the negotiation process by signing the agreement.

**January 27:**

Letter to Prof. Ayo Banjo on the need to persuade Government to sign the agreement.
January 30:
Reply from Prof Banjo pleading for patience and promising that, Government was about to sign the agreement. During the same period a visit was paid to Alhaji Sule Katagum (a prominent member of government team) also to underline the need to sign the agreement at once. Alhaji Sule Katagum promised to get in touch with NUC Executive Secretary and Prof. Ayo Banjo and appealed for patience.

Further letters were written to Prof. Ayo Banjo and Alhaji Sule Katagum informing them of NEC’S decision to withhold action in deference to them.

A national press conference was organized to educate Nigerians on the potentially volatile problem. Our branches and zones addressed press conference and issued press statements on the dangers inherent in Government’s failure and refusal to sign the agreement.

February 8:
ASUU-NEC issued a strong statement on the matter. Government was not moved.

February 12:
A letter was written to the new Minister of education detailing ASUU’s perception to the problems of the university system including the need to sign that Agreement.

February 19:
A letter “Avoiding a Brewing Crisis…..” was written to several individuals in the country urging them to intervene to persuade FGN to sign the agreement and save the system.

February 20:
Meeting with:
- Minister of Education, Speaker, House of Representatives
- Special Assistant to Head of Service
- Special Assistant to the Special Adviser to the President on Education.
- Informal meeting with Executive Secretary, NUC, a phone discussion with Special Adviser to the President on Education.

February 21:
Meeting with: Minister of Education
- Special Adviser to President on Education
- Repeat visit to Speaker of the House of representatives.

February 27:
Meeting with:
- ASSUU National Trustee, Alhaji Hassan Sunmonu
- Chairman, House Committee on Education
- Alhaji Sule Katagum.

February 28:
Meeting with
- Prof. Ayo Banjo
- Repeat Visit to Chairman, House Committee on Education

March 01:
Meeting with
- NLC President

March 02:
Contacts with Special Adviser to the President on Education.

FIGURE B
THE UNION'S EFFORTS TO PERSUADE GOVERNMENT TO REINSTATE THE 49 SACKED UNIILORIN LECTURERS

Our Union has borne Government provocation and bad faith with equanimity and maturity. We have taken the following measures to ensure that the numerous violations of the Agreement are reversed.

On our sacked members at Unilorin:

* A court injunction was obtained by our branch at Unilorin to prevent the sack. This was ignored by Unilorin authorities.
* A communiqué was issued at the end of negotiations in June 2001 signed by both the Federal Government and ASUU calling for the reinstatement of our sacked members.
* A letter conveying a directive for the reinstatement of our members was sent to Unilorin by the NUC in June 20001.

Formal protest letters on the refusal of Unilorin authorities to reinstate our member at Unilorin were General Obasanjo. These were ignored.

* The FGN/ASUU implementation Committee has issued two reports both directing/recommending the reinstatement of our members. These have been ignored up to date.
* A Reconciliation Committee under the auspices of the NUC intervened and recommended the recall of our members. This was also ignored.
* The leadership of our Union had met with the Council of Unilorin to negotiate an amicable settlement. The Council and Administration of Unilorin frustrated this effort.

The Union has formally reported the matter to the Committee of Vice-Chancellors.

* We have appealed to numerous prominent individuals in the nation both in and out of Government who have in turn interceded with Government and Unilorin Authorities. No positive result was achieved. We have placed the matter continuously at the bar of public opinion; Public opinion which decidedly favours the recall of our members has been ignored.
* The central labour organ (NLC) and the national body of students (NANS) have made positive representations on the recall of our members. This has been rebuffed.
* We have presented the matter before the National Assembly-the House of Representatives and Senate.
* We have met, for the first time in the history of our Union, a sitting President of the nation on the matter of our sacked members and other aspects of violations of the Agreement. Instead of solving the problem all we got was presidential abuse.
* We have presented this matter to many relevant international organizations e.g. ILO, Human Rights Commission of the United Nations. Some of them have to our knowledge made representation to Government on the matter.


Essential Significance and Success of Warning Strike

Although warning strikes have recorded a few successes the tilt of the score card is on the negative side owing to the fact that more of failures than successes have been recorded against this approach in averting future crisis.

In terms of successes, experience shows that three sectors, namely oil, media and health have fared relatively better than others. For instance, early in July 2008, the Radio, Television and Theatre Arts and Allied Workers’ Union of Nigeria (RATTAAWU) and the Nigerian Union of Journalists (NUJ) jointly issued a 21-day ultimatum to government to pay arrears of balance of monetization allowances to its members or face a full scale strike. In a few days within the period of the ultimatum the then Minister of Information and Tourism in whose portfolio the unions fell summoned a meeting of the executive of the aggrieved unions assuring them that there was no need for the proposed strike because the allowances were an obligation of government which it must pay. The main strike was thereby averted. The significance of the industry involved to government is however noteworthy in this uncharacteristically prompt and positive response. Only a few civilian governments in a multi-party political system can afford a show down with their radio and television workers without playing into the waiting hands of their opponents. Moreover, these media also function as the public propaganda machines of government as well as the means by which it engages the electorate and garners the legitimacy of civil society.
About the same time in 2008 precisely on June 21st the National Union of Petroleum, Natural Gas Junior Staff Workers issued a 21-day ultimatum to the government indicating that on Friday 11th July a full scale strike would ensue if the demands of the tanker drivers were not met. Government did not wait for the ultimatum to expire on the 11th of July but began preliminary consultations with the executive of the Union. Meanwhile petrol cues began to build up at filling stations apparently because tanker drivers had threatened to stop lifting products on the expiration date. Government intervened and the Union called off the strike on Sunday, 13th of July. Four days later on Tuesday 15th July, government began negotiation with the Union and the mother strike was shelved. Nationally, any threat by tanker drivers is viewed with seriousness because they remain the only lifters and distributors of petrol, diesel and kerosene all over the country. A single day disruption of the flow exposes the people to untold hardship and possible shut down of the economy. In fact pressure over their ultimatum is applied more from the court of public opinion than by the unions themselves. And so any threat of strike by any of the unions in the oil industry is treated with measured urgency by the government owing to the prime position that oil occupies among the sources of government revenue and the immediate massive socio-economic and political upheaval that will ensue from a nation-wide strike. And so the way government reacts to threat of strike by oil, media or medical workers is different from its response to other unions. Generally, therefore, it might seem that positive responses such as this are few because in the government’s reckoning there are just a few sectors of the economy that possess such essential significance.

Illustrations of Failure of Warning Strike

For instance, in 2007 two unions of professionals employed in the government sector embarked on separate strike actions by their respective unions. These were ASUU and the Nigeria Medical Association (NMA) under the government of President Yar’ Adua. There was a marked difference in government reaction to these two unions although its usual delayed response was relived in both instances. The respective strike actions were preceded by 7-day warning strike. In both cases government kept quiet up until the expiration of the warning strike and the main strikes commenced. In other words, the warning did not help to stave off the main strike in any of the cases. But the similarities ended there. By comparison, while the strike by lecturers lasted 13 weeks (March 26 – July 1st) the strike by medical doctors was allowed for only 2 weeks (Feb. 26 – March 10). Thus although the salutary role of the warning strike was lost in both cases, doctors secured more prompt response owing to the essential nature of the services which they render to the public, a status that education or teaching does not enjoy. The immediate cost of doctors’ strike is counted in terms of number of deaths and no responsible government will play politics with a matter of life and death. Thus in the case of doctors’ strike warning strike failed to deliver the motive intended by the union but the essential nature of its services came to their aid. While the case of NMA may be assessed as relative success the case of ASUU was an abysmal failure of warning strike.

The experience of ASUU in 2009 was a similar to 2007 a negative one. This was a strike embarked upon by the union to pressurize government to sign the collective agreement reached with government negotiators during two years (2006 – 2008) of re-negotiation of the 2001 agreement. Government refused to sign the agreement. However, before the strike began on June 22nd 2009, it was preceded by a two-week warning strike. The warning expired without any response from government and the main strike inevitably ensued. However, the 2009 agreement was signed on Wednesday 21st October and the strike was called off on Friday 23rd having lasted for 18 weeks which is about the normal span of a semester (Author’s file).

Towards the end of the year in 2011, another case of failure of warning strike was recorded when ASUU again engaged the government over non-implementation of the 2009 agreement. Before that period, the executive of ASUU constantly reminded the government at every opportunity that the level of implementation of the agreement was not satisfactory. As usual there was no response from government. The Union resorted to a 7-day warning strike from 23-30 September, 2011. Still there was no answer. Consequently, the National Executive Committee of the Union rose from a meeting at the University of Port Harcourt and declared an immediate, total, comprehensive and indefinite strike beginning from midnight of December 4th 2011. The strike was not called off until 2nd February, 2012 clinching 8 weeks from the 2011/2012 school year in all government-owned universities.

Having cited those examples from ASUU some might observe that that behaviour is specific to ASUU-Government relations. However, two recent experiences of the Nigeria Labour Congress (NLC) and the Trade Union Congress (TUC) while adding to the mounting cases of disappointment with warning strike
demonstrate that it is, instead, a common experience in the public sector. Both cases are related to the demand for increase in minimum wage for the Nigerian worker. Driven by the high cost of living, the NLC/TUC in 2008 made a demand for Fifty-two Thousand Two Hundred Naira (#52,200) national minimum wage from government. The federal government agreed and set up a negotiating team comprising of federal and state governments, labour and the organized private sector. The negotiating team was chaired by former Chief Justice of the Federation, Alfa Belgore. The team completed its assignment in April 2010 and recommended #18,000. The NLC/TUC patriotically accepted though pointing out that that amount was far too inadequate to ensure basic sustenance for the average worker and his family. The team also drafted a Minimum Wage Bill which was to be sent by government to the National Assembly so that implementation could begin. But many months passed and government refused to send the Bill to the Assembly. Meanwhile, the National Assembly had indicated to Labour that it will give the Bill accelerated passage once the Executive presents it. In order to press home its demand, the NLC and TUC stated that:

Since Government does not want Nigerian workers to have better minimum wage and higher salaries, the NLC has directed that a nation-wide warning strike should hold from Wednesday 10th to Friday 12th November, 2010 (NLC/TUC, 2010).

This strike threat came and went without government doing anything over the Minimum Wage Bill. However, the Bill was belatedly sent to the Assembly which passed it rather promptly. The Bill received the accent of the President and it became law in late March, 2011 almost a year later (Author’ file).

As if the trouble with the Minimum Wage was not yet enough, from the date of signing the Bill into an Act the trouble of its implementation began. Even though the State Governments were represented in the negotiation they refused to implement alleging insufficiency of fund. They demanded removal of petrol subsidy as a pre-condition being a source from where they could generate additional funds. Even the Federal government failed to implement the new law among its employees. Futile meetings, issuance of impossible conditions, bureaucratic acrobatics and summersaults and negotiations without headway took the better part of the next four months. Meanwhile the workers became restive and impatient. On 30th June 2011, the NLC and the TUC gave a two-week ultimatum to states and Federal Government to start immediate implementation of the new national minimum wage or face a total nationwide strike at the end of the ultimatum. The two-week ultimatum expired on 13th July. The NLC/TUC then approved a 3-day national warning strike beginning on Wednesday 20th July 2011 to press for the full implementation of the minimum wage by the Federal and State Governments. ASUU joined to observe this order but all to no avail. The Minister of Labour at the time put up an argument that the new minimum wage was not a general salary increase and so rather than being a comprehensive upward review of the wage structure of the public service, the new table provided only marginal increases in the salaries of Grade Levels 1-6. This interpretation caused major misunderstanding between labour and government which stalled further processing of the wage increase up until the New Year, 2012.

The case of the Nigerian Union of Teachers (NUT) was not remarkably different. On the 28th of May 2008 Nut gave a 20-day ultimatum to government to commence implementation of the Teachers’ Salary Scale or face a main strike. To assist the process, on 11th June the Union backed the ultimatum up with a 3-day warning strike. Both the ultimatum and the warning strike came to an end without any response by the government. The main strike began on the 30th of June. The main strike was called off by the union without any definite achievement on 29th July. Therefore it lasted for 5 fruitless weeks (Author’s file). Again the warning strike and the ultimatum could not avert the ultimate happening of the mother strike. Several more examples of failed warning strikes can be cited in the country’s public labour relations scene but the point has been made and citing more examples is considered unnecessary. An explanation of this pattern of behaviour is attempted at the end of this paper.

**Sectoral Distribution of Warning Strikes**

Experiences documented in literature indicate a disproportional prevalence of warning strikes in Nigeria’s public sector in the last decade. In this period, warning strike crept into prominent status as a grievance processing devise; although a preponderance of occurrences has been in the government rather than private sector of the economy. Unions of government employees it would appear have been more active in collective bargaining and strike action than their private sector counterparts. The education sector has been very vibrant in this regard particularly the tertiary levels where university academic and other unions have become
synonymous with regular boycott of services. The Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) as recent as September 23 – 26, 2011 embarked on a warning strike in protest against non-implementation of the 2009 Agreement with the government. The three other University unions namely: Senior Staff Association of Nigerian Universities (SSANU), Non-Academic Staff Union (NASU) representing the junior staff and National Association of Academic Technologists (NAAT) in 13 South-South Universities embarked on a one-week warning strike for similar purpose, that is, to call government to implement the 2009 agreement as it concerns them from October 25, 2010. Having not achieved their aim, the national bodies of these three unions re-enacted another one-week warning strike starting on Monday, 3rd October 2011, demanded in addition, implementation of the extension of the retiring age from 60 to 65 years. The threat of impending warning strike by the executives of these unions was widely reported in November of the same year. The Nigerian Union of Teachers (NUT) began a 3-day warning strike on June 11, 2008 over Teacher’s Salary Scale. The public sector chapters of Radio, Television, Theatre Arts and Allied Workers Union (RATTAWU) and the Nigerian Union of Journalists (NUJ) early in July 2008 issued a 21-day ultimatum to government within which time it should pay arrears of balance of monetization allowance to its members or face a full-scale strike (Author’s file). Still in the public sector, Ogun State Chapter of the Nigeria Labour Congress NLC embarked on a 7-day warning strike from October 13, 2011 to press home civil servants’ demand for reversal of the 300% income tax hike. It was also intended to make the government of the State to make a pronouncement on when it would pay the N8.5 billion it owed members in unremitted pension deductions. In a comparable situation, laboratory scientists of the Association of Medical Laboratory Scientists of Nigeria, Anambra State Branch observed a 5-day work-to-rule from November 17, 2011 over government refusal to implement an agreed scheme of service. Similarly, oil workers represented by their unions, the National Union of Petroleum and Natural Gas Senior Staff Association of Nigeria (PENGASSAN) and National Union of Petroleum and Gas Workers (NUPENG), began a 3-day warning strike over perceived insecurity (killings and kidnapping) of their members in Delta State operational facilities on October 10, 2011. The Unions resolved that if the ill complained about persisted after the warning strike, they will be left with no other option than an indefinite strike action. Although these unions cover private as well as public sector workers in the industry, strike by tanker drivers or oil workers generally as in the extant case are a lot of the time targeted on government rather than the private sector operators. The list of public sector warning strikes is much longer than we have been able to present here. And the assumption is that there are features in the character of state employment which renders the sector more strike prone. It is also analytically useful to mention that in recent decades one of the de-industrialization effects on the economy is to shrink the volume of private sector workers thus tilting the private labour market into the buyer’s rather than the seller’s market. (More will be said on this later in this paper). The general observation is that because of the apparent glut in the labour market, the bargaining power of unions in the private sector arm of the economy has been severely whittled down. By comparison, information in literature from the West presents a more balanced strength of public and private sector trade unions. The experience may not be two different in the other de-industrializing economies in Africa. For instance, the entry for Kenya is about Kenyan university lecturers who under the auspices of Universities Academic Staff Union (UASU) embarked on a warning strike on Friday, 11th November 2011 over a new pay structure and allowances for members1 The experience from the industrialized economies presents a different structure. Unions representing employees in the public as well as those in private employment are calling out their members on warning strike. For instance, the union representing grocery workers in San Diego Area, California called workers in three stores – Alberstsons, Vons and Ralphs on a warning strike at the expiration of a 72-hour ultimatum. The same unions were part of an earlier 141-day strike in 2003-4 which reportedly cost the stores US$1.5 billion2 An Austrian private sector strike experience is worthy of mention here too. The International Federation of Chemical, Energy, Mines and General Workers Union; an Austrian Affiliate, PRO-GE and GPA djp representing salaried employees in Print, Journalism and Paper Union, on October 12, 2011 called out its members on a 1 – 3 hour warning strike. The grouse was what they described as the 2011 wage package. Some 300 Austrian

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1 Wikipedia, the Free Encyclopaedia, ‘Strike Action’ accessed December 11, 2012

1 ‘Kenyan Universities Lecturers embark on Warning Strike as talks collapse’

employers had a taste of the reaction of the Metal workers. Something similar to this happened among German steelworkers. Here, the International Metalworkers Federation, IG Metall carried out a 2-hour warning strike in North-Rhine, Westphalia, Lower Saxony and Bremen about the middle of November 2011. Steelworkers all over the county took turns to observe the directive within the days stipulated. Their demand among others included a pay raise of 7% for the 75,000 steelworkers in the German states. The case of German workers in the US bases in Germany is a mixed bag of private citizens working in a foreign state agency in their own country. The warning strike was called from the start of the working day to noon to support their demand for a 5% increase in salary. The offer of a one-time 300 euro payment per person in the 2011 and 2012 fiscal years was said to be unacceptable. In another German private sector case, a 3-hour warning strike by members of Union NGG against Kraft Foods Management in Berlin on April 27, 2011 helped to secure a wage agreement for the workers. The warning strike was also found attractive in another private works in Munich, Germany. In this case, employees of Infineon, the German semi-conductors giant staged a warning strike on Thursday September 30, 2005. Their grievance was a plan by management to close the group’s factory in Munich- Perlach which would result in lay-off of some of its members. They might not have achieved their aim but they had the courage to pressurize government.

Still in Berlin, Germany, a Saturday morning wildcat warning strike in May 17, 2011 by EasyJet flight crew (110 pilots and 240 cabin staff) under the union, ver.di was intended to pressurize EasyJet to reach an agreement on pay rise. It was reported that the same union had staged another warning strike earlier in April of the same year. In other words, in the West, warning strike appears to have remained a well sought after tool of organized private sector inspite of the global strain and stress in the economy arising from the global depression also known as financial meltdown.

Also, within Western economies the public sector has had a fair experience of warning strike giving rise to a better balance than the case in the developing economies. The first example is the warning strike embarked upon by GA United at Southern Illinois University Carbondale, USA. The interest in this illustration goes beyond its being a public sector example. In some parts of the world including Nigeria, graduate assistants are provisional staff and not tenured staff and cannot therefore join or form a trade union. In the extant case, GAs are combining to advance their unique position and interests just the same way that confirmed staff are doing in other societies. In Israel, medical doctors in state-run general public hospitals, geriatric and psychiatric medical centres called a 2-day work-to-rule warning strike from 4 – 6 April, 2011. The Doctors had a full bag of grievances particularly what they described as public sector pay disparity with comparable position to the doctors which the Israeli Medical Association was poised to redress through the strike action. On October 11, 2011, the DFS Air Traffic Services Agency suffered a warning strike by GDF Union. The DFS had about 6,000 employees, coordinating about 10,000 flights a day making Germany’s skies the busiest in Europe. It was over pay and working conditions and the threat of warning strike was aimed at sending unequivocal message to DFS over the workers determination to go extra mile to achieve their demands.

The British example is worth recalling. In October 2011, millions of public sector employees balloted over whether or not their union will take part in a ‘day of action’ which was to begin on November 30, 2011 in protest over pension reform. Nurses, Midwives, teachers, civil servants, university teachers, immigration

5 ‘Warning strike brings improved wages at Kraft Foods’ cms.iuf.org/?q=node1957 accessed 14/06/2011
8 ‘EasyJet flight crew warning strike disrupts Berlin service’ atmonline.com/operations/maintenance/news accessed 17/05/2011
and customs officers etc were all mobilized to join the 24-hour protest strike. 12 While the UK example concerns the civil and public servants generally, the Hungarian case involved pilots and flight attendants of the Hungarian airline company, Melev the staff of which staged a 2-hour warning strike on 19 March, 2011 to put pressure on the management over an agreement for more favourable rest hours; 14 instead of the 12 after-hours-of-work European Union minimum rules. 13 The German public services experienced a one-day warning strike on January 29, by rail workers under the auspices of Transnet and GDBA which together represent 130,000 rail workers across several German cities.

The examples indicate that in the strong economies of Europe and America, warning strikes are as much a potent tool of grievance settlement in the private as well as in the public sector. The experience by distinction is that in Africa and Nigeria in particular a preponderance of cases of warning strike occurs in state-sector institutions. In the West, the private sector has expanded, deepened and consolidated its dominance in the productive and service sectors of the economy. Whereas in the developing world the state apart from being the single largest employer of labour is also the relatively more stable, dominant and more active segment of the economy than the private sector. In the specific case of Nigeria, hostile investment environment made up of corrupt public officials, epileptic socio-economic infrastructure, high cost of energy and unstable electric power, frequent change of sector-related policies are among factors that have led to the contraption of the private sector. This is an effect aptly described as de-industrialization. The process has severely affected the strength of the trade unions and the bargaining power of organized labour in the private sector.

The Objects of Warning Strike

The purposes fought by means of warning strike by workers all over are diverse but constitute mainly of matters connected to the terms and conditions of employment of workers. In Africa, Europe or America examples show that strikes are presaged by mass disaffection and discontentment among union members and the actions of the executives of the unions are often a derivative of the pressure mounted by members on the elected executive to find a solution to the issues of concern and in dispute.

For instance, ASUU’s warning strike of September 25, 2011 was aimed at bringing the Federal and State Governments of Nigeria, their employers, to implement the neglected segments of their 2009 collective agreement. The observation was that while government quickly met the wage raise component of the agreement, ostensibly to pacify the lecturers, a substantial part of the agreement on terms and conditions was left unattended two years after as at the date of that strike. The Union, in February 2011, in a paid advertorial as part of the build up to the strike, sought public understanding and sympathy listing the neglected parts of the collective agreement. The Union reminded the public that the re-negotiated agreement of 2009 was delayed for four years as the 2001 agreement was expected to have been reviewed in 2006. There was also complaint about the serious horse-trading by government between the time of reaching consensus and eventual signing of the document into collective agreement in 2009. Government refused to sign adopting such delay tactics as arguing that it could not sign to bind state governments and substantial part of the four-year loss was on that account. Chief among the unimplemented agreement which led to the warning strike are: amendment of the Universities (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act and the Pensions Reform Act to raise retirement of the professor from 65 to 70 years; increase in budgetary allocation to Education with an eye on the UNESCO bench mark of 26% of total annual budget (Education share of annual 2011 Federal budget is as low as 5%); major funding provisions, review of some laws e.g Joint Admissions and Matriculations Board Act, National Universities Commission Act etc; and the Earned Allowance component of the agreement etc.

About the NUT, the quest for a separate Teacher’s salary Scale was the bone of contention. For SSANU, NASU and NAAT, their object was similar to the ASUU cause, namely to bring the government to implement the contents of their 2009 agreement with the Unions. As was observed in the case of ASUU only partial and selective implementation was done by the government and the members felt that it would be circumlocutory to commence another negotiation on the implementation of collectively negotiated and signed agreements. It was surmised that what needed to be done was to ‘force’ government to honour its part

of the contract particularly as President Jonathan following his boss, President Yar’Adua under whom he served earlier as Vice-president, undertook to protect the rule of law during his tenure. For Ogun State Chapter of the Nigeria Labour Congress, their 7-day warning strike was directed as lifting the burden of 300% income tax hike by the new government of Governor Ibikunle Amosun. They did not forget to include in their baggage of demands a call for the Governor to indicate when he will pay the N8.5billion owed workers in deducted but unremitted pension contributions. The oil unions, NUPENG and PENGASSAN were poised to guarantee the security of their members against killing and kidnapping that was said to be rampant among oil workers in Delta State at the time. The strike by NLC (National) was to press home the union’s quest for the implementation of the 18,000 naira national minimum wage which was the subject of an earlier collective agreement with government. The Laboratory scientists struck in protest over the refusal of the authorities to implement what they called ‘the scheme of service and the law’ as they affect medical laboratory science practice in the country (Author’s file).

Examples from other African countries, Europe and America show substantial convergence in all continents on the objects of warning strikes. For instance the strike by UASU, representing Kenyan University lecturers in November 2011 had several ‘bread and butter’ issues in its contemplation. They wanted the government of Kenya to implement a new salary scale that was expected to double the basic pay of lecturers and improve their allowances. By this increase, their intention was to eliminate discrimination that made university teaching non-attractive. They wanted pay parity with their counterparts in the public service. Key among other demands were medical insurance, leave and book allowance. Broad-based dissatisfaction with the terms and conditions of university teaching can be gleaned from these demands. There isn’t any difference between this and the European experience. The Austrian Metalworkers struck in furtherance of their demand for increased wages. German steelworkers envisaged a 7% pay-rise for the 75,000 strong union members. In addition, they were asking that trainees be given permanent status as workers rather than as temporary staff while older employees were allowed to work part-time. It is cost effective for the employer to exploit new employees as untenured staff while working the fewer old and experienced hands beyond their health limits because they were more productive and require less supervision and generate less wastage at work. But the Unions were, on the other-hand considering the welfare of members which needed to be balanced with profit of the management. Members of the Israeli Medical Association had a full bag of issues behind their two-day strike in April 2011. The Chairman of the Association, Dr. Leonard Eidelman informed that the strike was intended to make the Ministry of Finance more flexible and less rigid in negotiations. They wanted pay rise, pension fund, and financial incentive for those working in rural areas or in understaffed fields such as neo-natology and paediatric ancology and increase in average time to see a patient from the current 10 minutes to 12 – 15 minutes etc. There was also demand for increased average consultation time per patient. It was argued that this would improve diagnostic accuracy and prognostic effectiveness which was in the interest of the patient and the Israeli medical service generally. The Ministry of Finance was however concerned with the cost implication of these innovations to the government. The core ideological issue was that of balancing the competing demands on government and the scale of priority of health issues to the government. The German air traffic workers’ strike in October 2011 was over pay and working conditions. Union and management accepted a 5.2% pay rise by arbitration but the union wanted more members to be promoted faster and this led to break down of negotiation and the strike. Both higher wages and promotion are key aspects of workers’ welfare and the air traffic workers were here behaving true to type. The Union of German workers in US bases in Bamberg laid down their tools for 6 hours in support of the objects of strike. They rejected a unilateral one-time 300 euro payment per person in the next two fiscal years opting instead for negotiated agreement rather than unilateral award. That is to underscore the point that the process by which agreement is reached is as important as the agreement itself and workers are adept at protecting their cherished rights to negotiate, dissent, compromise and agreement. 

Examples from other African countries, Europe and America show substantial convergence in all continents on the objects of warning strikes. For instance the strike by UASU, representing Kenyan University lecturers in November 2011 had several ‘bread and butter’ issues in its contemplation. They wanted the government of Kenya to implement a new salary scale that was expected to double the basic pay of lecturers and improve their allowances. By this increase, their intention was to eliminate discrimination that made university teaching non-attractive. They wanted pay parity with their counterparts in the public service. Key among other demands were medical insurance, leave and book allowance. Broad-based dissatisfaction with the terms and conditions of university teaching can be gleaned from these demands. There isn’t any difference between this and the European experience. The Austrian Metalworkers struck in furtherance of their demand for increased wages. German steelworkers envisaged a 7% pay-rise for the 75,000 strong union members. In addition, they were asking that trainees be given permanent status as workers rather than as temporary staff while older employees were allowed to work part-time. It is cost effective for the employer to exploit new employees as untenured staff while working the fewer old and experienced hands beyond their health limits because they were more productive and require less supervision and generate less wastage at work. But the Unions were, on the other-hand considering the welfare of members which needed to be balanced with profit of the management. Members of the Israeli Medical Association had a full bag of issues behind their two-day strike in April 2011. The Chairman of the Association, Dr. Leonard Eidelman informed that the strike was intended to make the Ministry of Finance more flexible and less rigid in negotiations. They wanted pay rise, pension fund, and financial incentive for those working in rural areas or in understaffed fields such as neo-natology and paediatric ancology and increase in average time to see a patient from the current 10 minutes to 12 – 15 minutes etc. There was also demand for increased average consultation time per patient. It was argued that this would improve diagnostic accuracy and prognostic effectiveness which was in the interest of the patient and the Israeli medical service generally. The Ministry of Finance was however concerned with the cost implication of these innovations to the government. The core ideological issue was that of balancing the competing demands on government and the scale of priority of health issues to the government. The German air traffic workers’ strike in October 2011 was over pay and working conditions. Union and management accepted a 5.2% pay rise by arbitration but the union wanted more members to be promoted faster and this led to break down of negotiation and the strike. Both higher wages and promotion are key aspects of workers’ welfare and the air traffic workers were here behaving true to type. The Union of German workers in US bases in Bamberg laid down their tools for 6 hours in support of the objects of strike. They rejected a unilateral one-time 300 euro payment per person in the next two fiscal years opting instead for negotiated agreement rather than unilateral award. That is to underscore the point that the process by which agreement is reached is as important as the agreement itself and workers are adept at protecting their cherished rights to negotiate, dissent, compromise and agreement. The 24-hour UK public and civil servants planned for November 30, 2011 was a protest over pension reform. Government planned to scrap final salary pension, to raise the retirement age and increase employee contributions. While the negotiations were on-going, the one-day action was intended to send a clear, unified message to the authorities that workers reject the proposals. In Berlin, the Jacobs Coffee Factory warning strike led to wage raise in June 2011 while the March 19, 2011 episode involving the Hungarian Malev Airline Company was not for wages but to put pressure on the management to increase the rest hours between end of one flight operation and the commencement of another beyond the existing 12-hour rule. The EasyJet flight crew strike of May, 2011 was over pay rise. Infineon employees in Munich in September 2005 struck to prevent management from closing down some facilities that would lead to lay-off of some members. In a similar
vein CGIL Federation, the Italian left wing trade union struck in protest over the failure of President Berlusconi’s government to indicate how it intended to cut its budget deficit as demanded by the European Central Bank. This was a pre-emptive move aimed at sending a clear message to the government that the working population was waiting for the policy and it was good notice for government to roll into the package a clear cushion against unmitigated hardship for workers.

The two examples from America and one from Australia display similar objects as above. GA United in Southern Illinois University aimed to secure the contract and working conditions of graduate assistants. The union of grocery store workers for Albertsons, Vons and Ralphs in San Diego County struck to reverse the situation, in which some 62,000 union members had been without contract renewal since March, 2011. The strike was meant to put pressure on the management to get these technically laid-off members back to work. The example from Oceania’s Australia involving Quantas’ 3,800 baggage handlers, catering, freight and ground staff in September 2011 was for, among other demands, better pay and working conditions of service. To sum up for this segment, pay, promotion, pension, allowances, leave, security of tenure, the right to bargain, working incentives, retirement protection, cost of living, etc are the common grounds across all the continents upon which workers threaten and carry out warning strikes.

**Strike Interest and Disproportional Concern for Cost**

Warning strikes involve costs and benefits. The interest of public or private employers is often drawn to the losses incurred during the period of a strike. Hardly do people spare any thought on the gains of strike. In Nigeria the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) routinely estimates the monetary value of economic activity ‘lost’ during any national strike. For example, of the 8-day national strike and protests that occurred from Monday, 9 January 2012 till Monday 16 January 2012, the NBS estimated the cost at N207.4billion. This was a strike called to register the discontentment of the citizens over the withdrawal of official subsidy by the Federal government on the price of petrol imported into the country. Another source, US TODAY, January 18, 2012 estimated the loss at US$1.3b. Three sectors of the national economy were most severely affected. These include the Whole Sale and Retail Trade, Crude Petroleum and Natural Gas and Crop Production sectors. These sectors lost N86.9 billion, N28.7 billion and N15.2 billion representing 42%, 14% and 7% of the total losses respectively.

It would have been illuminating to estimate the loss from the transport sector which might also have incurred substantial losses given the restriction of movement during the entire period. Sometimes, in addition to economic losses other costs may be involved. Where the protests assumed a violent dimension human lives and loss of property may also accompany the economic losses. If medical doctors are involved in the withdrawal of services, death toll would most probably rise in the hospitals and generally among those in the population that might be unfortunate to be ill at that time. The concern for the cost of strikes is often aimed at fuelling the propaganda against strike action. It is rare to have people discuss the gains or benefits of strike. it is taken for granted that strikes are generally wasteful and hardly ever beneficial. For instance in the strike case cited above no mention was made of the eventual return of the pump price of petrol to N97.00 down from N140.00. Similarly, while estimating the period of purposeful academic activities - lectures, research, and ancillary academic activities lost during the ASUU strike which was on before the subsidy strike and which continued during and after that strike, analysts are quick to forget the realisation of the 70 year retirement age which the Senate quickly passed in its bid to find a way out of that strike. It will be advisable to factor into the cost-benefit analysis of that strike the other positive gains such as the concessions wrested from government in meeting the demands of the Union. Such a balanced approach will help to correct the traditional habit of seeing only the down side of strikes.

**Employer Reluctance and Inevitability of Warning Strike**

In all the examples investigated three factors are the recurrent correlates of warning strikes across the continents. These are:

(i) Refusal to commence or continue negotiation or re-enter negotiation;
(ii) Refusal to sign agreements reached; and
(iii) Reluctance to implement the terms and contents of collective agreements by employers.

In most cases, it is the reaction of management or government that precipitates rebelliousness across the ranks of organized labour. Starting from home university-based unions, that is, ASUU, SSANU, NAAT and NASU hinge their call for warning strike on what they call undue delay and lack of interest of the authorities in implementing the agreement they freely entered into. The reaction of the Vice chancellor of the University
of Abuja, Prof. James Adelabu depicts the typical provocative reaction of the authorities. He described ASUU strike as ‘unwarranted’ and gave three reasons for his view, one, the strike will cause ‘unnecessary’ distortion of the academic programmes of universities. Two, it will disturb the relative industrial peace in the institutions and (iii) the Federal government and most universities have responded positively to ASUU demands. The mark of positive response in his university is that salaries are paid promptly. This is an example of one-sided perception of the strike. His concern was for government but spared no time to consider any specific unimplemented agreement as listed earlier in this paper. Such comments provoke violent reaction and in such cases silence could have been wiser if speech was not going to balance conflicting interests. There were several instances in the past when ASUU blamed the decision to go on strike, among other reasons, on the apparent official lethargy to accede to its demands. On Sunday, December 4, 2011, ASUU embarked on a ‘total, comprehensive and indefinite strike’ following the failure of the earlier 7-day warning strike to elicit positive response from government. Lethargy among employers is a constant and recurrent predisposing factor in warning strikes in both public and private sector enterprises. For example, on the San Diego grocery stores strike. United Foods and Commercial Workers observed that they went into negotiation to keep the profits of their employers and also protect members’ jobs but that they got more of what they described as ‘same stonewall from management’. The workers further blamed management for unwillingness to compromise as it was more concerned about ‘hoarding their billions in profits than reaching a fair deal for their employees’. The case of Kenyan University lecturers was a higher stone wall of government response. Government was definite in its response absolving itself from blame among other reasons for lack of funds, involvement in war with Al-Shabaab extremists in neighbouring Somalia and surreptitiously accused UASU of lack of patriotism. Workers of Ogun State public service resolved to go on strike, as they rationalized that they have had several dialogue with government without any positive result. Oil workers in Delta State embarked on the 3-day warning strike from October 10, 2011 because ‘it was becoming worrisome’, they petitioned, ‘that our recurring calls on the government at various levels and agencies to discuss and resolve the myriad of killings and kidnappings facing the state had proved abortive’. Frustration and disappointment are therefore enabling ground factors in warning strike. The 3-day NLC/TUC warning strike of July 20, 2011 followed hopelessness and despair among workers following several months of fruitless negotiations, failure to continue with negotiations and blatant refusal by some states to implement the Minimum Wage Act, 2011 even though it was a Federal legislation. The Israeli Medical Association resorted to warning strike after over 8 months of fruitless negotiation with government for better working condition for members. The Association reasoned that such an action might make the Ministry of Finance more flexible or less rigid. German workers in US bases in Germany called warning strike as following-up to collective deadlock and breakdown of negotiation. Some warning strikes are intended to stave off imminent hardship. In this regard, Infineon employees in Munich, Germany staged a warning strike to prevent management from closing the group’s factory in the town, which would lead to loss of jobs for some members. Austrian metalworkers went on strike ‘after second round bargaining on 12 October 2011 failed to close pay differences’. Warning strikes or perhaps strikes generally tend to be invariably employer-instigated and employee executed.

When all these factors are superficially analysed, the prima facie conclusion is that while workers and their unions sue for industrial peace, employers through negligence or outright greed and insensitivity condone labour conflicts and strikes. Strikes indeed manifest the diametrically opposing divides of interests in the work place between the employer and the worker. Karl Marx and the disciples of Marxism have shed sufficient light on the subject via the doctrines of dialectical materialism, class antagonism, alienation and revolutionary change under the capitalist mode of production and socio-economic relations. In the workplace, the conflict between capital and labour has been rather crudely explained by the theory that what capital loses is labour’s gain and vice versa. In other words, the more capital pays out to labour’s demands, the higher will be the cost and the lower the profit margin. If this fundamental divergence of interest was to stop there the implication for inter-class conflict would be minimal. But when this dichotomy is read together with Marx’s notion of separation of labour from labour’s product, one of the four dimensions of alienation, the implication assumes a fractional and caustic dimension for labour-capital relations. The introduction of this dimension suggests that labour-capital contest is not limited to the preservation or reduction of profit. The idea that:

*The more the workers spends on himself, the more powerful the alien object would become, which he creates over-against himself, the poor he himself – his inner world, becomes the less belongs to him as his own* (The Economic and Philosophic Manuscript p.72)
On the implication of this for alienation of labour, Marx continues......

.... the more the worker produces, the less he has to consume, the more value he creates, the more valueless, the more unworthy he becomes; the better formed his product, the more deformed becomes the worker; the more civilized his object, the more barbarous becomes the worker (The Economic and Philosophic Manuscript p.73)

Although there is a lot in contemporary existence to justify the idea that hard work pays and greater effort begets better reward, an apparent contradiction to Marx, there appears to be a sublime universal concern among workers all over the world that unless and until management is pushed, forced and shaken it might not, out of its own volition and to the satisfaction of workers agree to reduce its profits and increase benefits accruing to labour. This is like an affirmation of the Marxist doctrine of harder work begetting less benefit to the worker. The other side of the story though is that management has more than labour’s demands to contend with. It must in addition contend with raw materials, clients, sales, the regulatory authorities, the laws guiding production, shareholders, community responsibilities where it is located, security, costs, creditors and debtors, physical assets, administration, survival, orderly change and profits. In other words, labour and the applicable terms and conditions are very significant responsibility of management but it is not the total picture of the gamut of its concerns which add up to a higher total cost. Management, like government, has a huge responsibility of balancing out the competing demands and interests of the innumerable constituencies. The idea is that what labour perceives as neglect, lethargy or greed may sometimes be a fall-out of the error of balancing out and resolving conflicting interests in the workplace and in society. It might indeed be a decision making disequilibrium rather than contempt for the work force. By extension, refusal to negotiate, to sign or implement collective agreements might in some cases not be owing to greed or insensitivity but to the considered outcome of the implications of the exercise for organization survival, competitiveness and goal attainment.

Why Warning Strikes fail in Nigeria’s Public Sector

Why the state authorities in Nigeria do not take advantage of the window of opportunity provided by aggrieved workers through warning strike to stave off impending protracted strikes is not easy to understand. Two factors are adduced.

The first is the role conflict facing the state as employer, party, regulator and adjudicator of industrial relations matters. It also has the duty to manage the economic and political affairs of the country in addition to labour relations. Sometimes the state is perceived as giving out conflicting cues by unions with which they are involved in dispute or negotiation. Beyond meeting the demands of the workers, the state has a lot of other contending obligations, sometimes even more compelling, which may make it unable to behave as expected in its status as a party to an industrial dispute. For example, in its perennial dispute with ASUU, government continues to blame its inability to meet its obligations in the collective agreement on shortage of funds as there are a number of other contending needs. Government often canvases that even the entire annual budget of the whole country will not be enough to transform the Nigerian university to a state that will be satisfactory to the Union. Being party, regulator and adjudicator sometimes results in mistrust over the genuineness of the intention of government action. For instance, Nwabueze (2006) construed the Trade Union Amendment Act, 2005 as the climax of bourgeois scheming for power. Trade unions saw the legislation as a ploy to weaken rather than empower organized labour. There is wide suspicion over transparency of state action and this also accounts for the recurrence of trade disputes in the state sector. Thus, government officials shun warning strike because they erroneously imagine that government is a sovereign authority and so become undemocratic, high handed, biased and domineering in their reaction to strike action. Strike is thereby interpreted as a challenge to the basic authority of the state and must be crushed, and discouraged rather than be encouraged or institutionalised.

Secondly, there is hardly any doubt that the Nigerian state is traumatized and harassed and its sovereignty openly challenged by internal religious and ethnic strife at present. With the Amnesty Programme for Niger Delta militants it was as if it had found the antidote to that source of armed attacks. But by the new surge of violence in Bayelsa state in January 2012, it seems that the sector was only smouldering. Boko Haram, the violent Saafiyah Islamic sect has unleashed successful murderous attacks of unimaginable proportions on the State particularly in the Northern part of the country. The state response is feeble and uncoordinated and this has cast a doubt on the ability of the state to guarantee the security of life and property of its citizens.
The national strike by labour and protests by labour and civil rights organizations that shut the country down for one week in January 2012 are tissues of destabilizing events that may distract or distraught a state. Most of these examples though are recent events while state recalcitrance on warning strike is an old habit. There is no doubt that the state is going through difficult times at the moment and this might have added to its current distraught behaviour. It is preposterous to imagine that the state sees protracted work stoppages as socio-politically functional. Is there any imaginable way by which the state can benefit from self-allowed labour anarchy, industrial chaos and social disorganization? I say so because when they ultimately open up they condemn strike as disruptive, unpatriotic and confrontational; meaning that they do not perhaps see it as socially congenial. Or is it a case of manifestation of the endemic Third World culture of impunity common in its governments? Is it a case of delusion of class safety, security, or of invincibility? Can it be class naivety, or self-conceitedness, or a state of intra-class confusion as to what is in the best interest of the ruling elite? Or why are they unwilling to arrest industrial strike and nip it in the bud? If one suggests state arrogance or insensitivity to the yearnings and desires of the working people one will drag the discussion into the traditional capitalist-labour adversarial trench dug by Marx, Engels and Lenin. Enough of 18th and 19th Century explanations of a 21st Century experience. The underlying idea though is similar to the Marxist tradition but the configuration of social forces and relationships in contemporary society is sufficiently different to warrant the search for new explicator variables.

As an entry point, governments in Nigeria as in most parts of the global South in the contemporary world suffer from a superiority syndrome or complex in relating to the people in civil society. They suffer from a delusion of grandeur and superiority over the electorate or the subaltern classes over whom they exercise the enormous powers of the state which is under their control. This complex is displayed in the sit-tight presidents in the Arab world, in the autocratic regimes that dot the map all over Africa, in the culture of impunity that is so common in government and public affairs from Syria, to Zimbabwe, to Sudan and Cote d’ Ivoire. This complex is the product of an institutionalized system into which persons subsequently appointed or elected into state offices step imbibing this abnormal mentality. As an institutionalized attitude it manifests in its cognitive, affective and behavioural components. Neophyte state officials get inducted, learn and acquire the knowledge through experience, develop a perspective that the feeling is good and go ahead to unleash it without remorse or any sense of guilt, rather carelessly against the people. In the course of time, this attitude with mutually reinforcing class cues becomes a way of behaving that is typical and acceptable within the ruling class. People in government feel that meanwhile they own the stage, power is in their hands and they could do as they wish. This is the Board room mentality. Government is perceived as an incorporated company; a private limited liability company at that in which senior politicians and bureaucrats constitute the owners and members of the board of directors. One tragedy is that the company is not seen as a public limited liability company in which board members are answerable to the shareholders, in this instance, the citizens. The other tragedy is that unlike the normal private limited liability company management is not directly involved in income-yielding production activities. Instead, they are contented with receiving statements of current balance from the Central Bank and the Petroleum Ministry and their concentration is on distribution of resources. The interest is not how the cake is baked because as long as the oil companies are at work revenue is guaranteed. They can spend any proportion of the annual budget fight security threat in the oil fields but not on improving the living conditions of the inhabitants of the Niger Delta. Concern is about how revenue is shared, that is who gets what. This is one-sided balance sheet government which accounts for a number of anomalies in the public service. One, even an idiot who knows nothing about revenue management can and have been in charge. Two, this makes politics and public office lucrative and the quest for it as a do or die affair. Three, corruption is endemic and normative. The policies are neither production/revenue nor people-centred but expenditure centred.

The converse of the superiority complex is a strong belief and feeling that individuals, groups and institutions outside government or in civil society are inferior relative to the operators of the state. This feeling if strong enough, by itself, reinforces state officials’ delusion of grandeur and superiority. So it is a quality required to be a complete member of the ruling elite. The elements of civil society are perceived to be inferior in terms of lack of knowledge about state matters, on the state of the country, lack of capacity to understand the intricacies of the workings of government and foreclosure from opportunity for prebendal14 self-

enrichment out of the resources of the state. They are generally, relatively poorer. Some among them may have superior education as compared to state officials but by entry into office the officials have gained ascendency over those others their superior education notwithstanding.

It is pertinent to point out that the attitude of delusion of superiority is a defence mechanism to cover up for apparent inadequacies. In the refusal to negotiate with aggrieved unions it is one of several possibilities. Government is either economical with the truth, or lacks astute negotiating skills and is afraid to be openly outclassed, or afraid to confront unfulfilled promises of yesteryears, or is afraid to enter into fresh commitments the terms of which it might not be able to meet in future. It is these and not other considerations that lead to unwillingness to negotiate. In each case of negotiation with ASUU, for example, the Union assembles an intimidating array of veterans who have been in the business sometimes for over three decades. Government on its part hurriedly assembles ad-hoc negotiating teams lacking in experience and pedigree. They are consequently David before Goliath. Government resorts to arm-twisting, flexing of raw power, and executive bravado trying to recover grounds lost at the negotiation table in the Industrial Court or by issuing unilateral executive awards and declarations. It returns to delusion of grandeur and superiority as a defence.

The resort to unilateral awards to labour by government rather than agreement through mutual negotiation and consensus is one apparent index of the superiority syndrome and the culture of impunity. When the removal of oil subsidy imbroglio unleashed by the Nigerian government on January 1st 2012 emerged, government fixed the pump price of petrol at 141 Naira per litre. Organized labour comprising the Nigeria Labour Congress (NLC) and the Trade Union Congress (TUC) called a general strike supported by street protests. They went into negotiation. Talks broke down several times apparently because government and labour had fixed their minds on the limits of compromise. Labour insisted on the return of price per litre to its original 65 Naira. The final price of 97 Naira per litre was not a product of collective agreement between the Unions and government but rather a unilateral award by government. This again is a return to impunity, to delusion of grandeur and superiority rather than the democratically valued norms of collective bargaining.

The superiority complex is reinforced by a set of fallacious assumptions which reveal its empirical/operational inadequacies and policy ineffectiveness. These include that:

* Politicians, top government officials and senior line bureaucrats are superior beings imbued with superior knowledge, wisdom, and intellectual skills so much so that only they know what to do, say or avoid in the best interest of the state and society.
* Those that criticize government even if constructively or take exception to any of its policies are unpatriotic, diversionary and enemies of progress.
* The sovereignty of the state which inheres in the people as symbolized by the constitution is confused as sovereignty of the government. Consequently, government is perceived as above its own laws, and as an institution that does no wrong. It is always right.
* Those in government are not the problem of society; they constitute the solution while the rest of the people are the problem. That saddles government with the role of checking the excesses of elements of civil society.
* The best government is the tough, uncompromising and ruthless government that displays courage and unwavering decisiveness when dealing with the ordinary citizens.

Owing to these reasons any declaration of trade dispute in the public sector is tantamount to declaration of war against the person of the President, line Minister and government and is interpreted as a calculated to destroy, disrupt and challenge the authority of the government.

And this leads us to the explanation of the lethargic attitude of government in its handling of warning strikes which is that because:

The presidency is lofty, deified, and its entry into negotiation with its employees and collections of civil society interest amounts to drawing down the reputation of government and subjecting it to ridicule and
disrespect, government shows that it is not weak, meek and pliable by resisting invitations to negotiate. This is the clearest statement of the superiority complex. Unilateral award by government in circumstances of trade dispute is more compatible with the mindset depicted by the foregoing assumptions behind the superiority syndrome.

Conclusion
The central argument of this paper is that contrary to the ordinary expectation that the threat of warning strike would encourage or pressurise the employer to come to negotiation with organized labour, the situation in Nigerian public sector is the direct opposite. Warning strike was shown to have failed in a number of cases to avert the occurrence of the main, usually protracted strike. For the purpose comparison examples were drawn from literature to show that warning strikes succeed more in this regard in private and public sector industrial disputes in the advanced economies. This might not be unrelated to the higher level of development of the norms of industrial democracy including mutual respect between the employer and employees, and a stronger commitment to the culture of settling trade disputes through collective bargaining. In the Nigerian context the psycho-social superiority versus inferiority complex, a theory which conditions top government functionaries to feel that as agents and proxies of government they are superior to the ordinary citizens in lower echelons of government, those outside government in non-governmental organizations, groups and individuals are in several ways inferior. Against that background negotiating with workers or succumbing to the threat of warning strike would portray the government as weak and fallible, a characteristic that is intolerable among the ruling elite. Such behaviour correlates with the widespread brazen impunity, corruption, and lawlessness among top politicians and bureaucrats who act on behalf of the state. It is also observed that this behaviour is allowed in the context in which the props of democracy such as the media, the judiciary, public opinion, mass movements, trade unions, the academia and the law, together do not provide effective deterrence for the norm of playing god when occupying public office. Government officials need to define warning strike and strike generally as a constructive, civilized and lawful tool of dispute settlement rather than as confrontational, destructive and calculated to undermine the authority of the government. The superiority syndrome must be addressed by government institutions and non-governmental institutions charged with training and influencing the orientation of politicians and public officials. Key among the training institutions that can effect the change are the National Orientation Agency, the Administrative Staff College of Nigeria, National Institute for Policy and Strategic Studies, National Defence College, National Institute for Labour Studies, Centre for Management Development among others. The universities and tertiary educational institutions, the press including television, radio and newspaper and political parties also have a role to play. The reorientation is desirable because successful collective bargaining and peaceful industrial relations assumes the equality of the associating parties and mutual respect for one another. Strike against government cannot be an exception to that golden rule.

Bibliography
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FACTORS INFLUENCING THE CHOICE OF FAMILY SIZE AMONGST FEMALE HEALTH PROFESSIONALS IN UDUTH SOKOTO

By

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Abstract

Studies have shown that various factors influence a woman’s decision on the number of children to have. These include religion, culture, socio-economic status, government policies and basic human rights. All these exert different degrees of influence by acting singly or in combination to determine the choice(s) a person makes (FOS 1990). This work is an empirical study done at the Usmanu Danfodiyo University Teaching Hospital Sokoto, Nigeria, to examine the factors in the choice of family size amongst female health professionals. A total of 95 respondents were drawn from various professional cadres and data collected through self administered questionnaire. The analysis of the data showed that 53 (29.5%) of respondents were influenced by their spouses, 43 (23.9%) by the reason that they needed assistance later in life and 42 (23.3%) indicated that their educational background influenced their family size. Only 7 (3.9%) of the respondents said sex preference had an influence on their family size decision. Other reason such as uncertainty of survival to adulthood was given by 24 respondents. The study then concludes that many factors act singly and in combination to influence the choice of family size amongst women.

Keywords: Choice of Family size, Health Professionals, Spousal Influence, Sex preference and Educational background.

Introduction

A woman’s family size is the number of children she has at the end of her child-bearing years (Habiger VM 2007). This is also known as her total fertility. The number of children a woman actually does have could be different from the desired number that she would like to have, but for predictive information, this desired number could give an information on the actual number she might finally have.

African women averagely have the desire to have a large family size to show how potent or fruitful they are; with this, Nigerian women averagely are no exception to this (NPC 2000). An average Nigerian woman has total fertility of 5.7 according to the demographic data in the UNICEF state of the world’s children (UNICEF 2006). This means that, the number of children that would be born per woman if she were to live to the end of her child bearing years and bears children at each age in accordance with prevailing age specific fertility is 5.7. However this figure is only an average. The total fertility rate for Nigerian women with no education is about 6.4 and that for women with post-secondary school education is 2.1. This shows that highly educated women have smaller family size than uneducated ones (UNICEF 2006).

The socio-economic status has a role to play. It is assumed that decision makers carefully weigh costs and benefits of making choices to satisfy personally defined objectives (Rasul 1993), therefore changes in the socio-economic status could lead to women revising their fertility preferences over time (Fapohunda and Poukouta 1997). Based on the above, Easterlin theory postulates that demand for children is affected by 3 factors; price, income and tastes. For price, this includes direct expenditure and opportunity cost of bearing and raising children. The relationship is thus, the higher the price the lower the demand. Also an increase in
income leads to an increase in children demand. Taste; the greater the taste for children is, the higher the demand (Caldwell and Caldwell 1987). In Africa, there exists a low level of economic empowerment for women, which is supposed to lead to a decrease in family size, but this does not occur, as families (women) use their children as hope for a better future, thus, these children become somewhat an investment for these families. Nigerian women have also followed in this pattern, since women of low socio-economic status have a high fertility rate so as to protect their future, by such, these children act as a source of wealth to their families especially when the parents are old.

Religion is another factor that has affected desired family size among women. Women who are Christians have a lower desired family size than those who are traditional African religion adherents because of its attachment to cultural practices (Ejezie, 2003). For Muslims, the family size may tend to be on the high side but this does not mean that all the children are from a single woman since polygamy is allowed in this religion (Fapohunda and Poukouta, 1997).

**Statement of the Problem**

The desire to limit child bearing differs by certain background like level of education. According to the 1999 National Demographic and Health Survey (NDHS) which show that among those who already had six children and wanted to have no more, only 43.1% have no education while 86.4% of them have post secondary education. This also shows that the highly educated women desire to limit their family size more than do their uneducated counterparts (NPC, 2000). Therefore a major determinant of family size is level of education. It has been assumed that once a woman is educated, she will have a small family size but this is not wholly true; according to 1990 National Demographic and Health Survey, women with no education have a total fertility rate of 6.5, while those with primary education only, had total fertility rate of 7.1 (Ejezie, 2003). Although highly educated women tend to have smaller family size than their uneducated counterparts; the above statistics show that education may not be the only factor that affects total fertility rate.

It is also known that the desire to limit family size is affected by culture. In some cultures like that of Asia, their cultural practices do not necessarily support an increased family size. These cultural practices include marriage types (polygamy) and also the lifestyle of the people. It is also known that, there is greater polygamy in Africa than in developing world counterparts like Asia and South America (Askoak, 2000). Nigeria data (NDHS-1999) revealed that 35.7% of all currently married women are in a polygamous house hold (NPC, 2000). In the African culture, a woman is given a title when she has many children and is considered evil when she has none. Those with one child are said to be semi barren (Caldwell and Caldwell, 1990). These factors have resulted in African women having a high number of children. In Nigeria, there is no exception to this fact, so women in Nigerian, tend to have a high number of children, so as to fulfil their ‘main job’ (providing children to the husband) (Askoak, 2000). Also because lineage is so important amongst Africans, African women tend to want to have high number of children. Africans have two times larger families than their Asian or Latin American counterparts (Caldwell and Caldwell 1990). Another very important finding by Caldwell and Caldwell is that the choice of family size in most African setting including Nigeria is made mainly by the husband. Other cultural factors include decrease in age of first marriage and respect for ancestors (Adebusoye 2001).

Another important factor that affects desired family size decision among women are government policies, i.e. those programmes put forward by the government to check the population size of the nation or the world as a whole. In 1960s, the United Nations put forward population aid prognosis, whose target was aimed at birth control as a means of checking problems of population explosion, like growing food crisis. Since then other population policies have been propagated, mainly aimed at birth control and family planning. This had led to a reduction relatively of population size and individual desired family size. There are other legislations like women empowerment, payment of couples with few children, high taxes for each additional child. These are just some of the various policies that are available, meant to check population size and desired family size (Weeks, 1990).

The question one asks is what are those factors that have influenced the decision of highly educated women to have small families? If these factors are known, can some of them be used to influence women without (with little) education to adopt small family size.
Rationale for the Study
There is the need to know the factors that influence women to have small families; since this is of great benefit to our country in this present stage of development. The result of large families will surely lead to detrimental effects on health facilities, education, agriculture and this will in turn impact negatively on the health of the citizens.

Also, the maternal mortality rate for Nigeria is about 800-1100/100,000 live births (FOS,2000); this will definitely reduce if there is a drop or a smaller family size. This also will reduce the infant and under five mortality rates. Since more women will survive to take care of their children. Morbidity rates for both children and mother will also decrease since there will be less strain on the health care facilities leading to better quality of care.

Since women and children make up two thirds of the population, the number of those affected directly or indirectly makes the knowledge of these factors very important. It is in realization of the impact of a small family size on the health of individuals that necessitated this study, which will serve as a basic tool for data that could be used by government and other policy formulators.

Aim and Objectives
The main aim of this study is to determine the factors that influence family size decisions among female health professionals in Usmanu Danfodiyo University Teaching Hospital, Sokoto. While the objectives are:
1. To determine the desired family size among the study population.
2. To determine the current number of children per health worker.
3. To ascertain the factors that influences the desire to have more children.

Methods
This study was carried out at Usmanu Danfodiyo University Teaching Hospital (UDUTH) located in Sokoto metropolis in the North Western part of Nigeria. Sokoto State, the seat of the caliphate, is a predominantly Muslim community with majority of the people of the Hausa/Fulani extraction.

This was a cross sectional descriptive study. The study population was made up of female health professionals working in UDUTH. There were two hundred and thirty-four (234) female health professionals working in UDUTH, made up as follows; Doctors (10), Pharmacist (2), Laboratory Scientist (8) and Nurses (214).

The sample size was calculated using the formula
\[ n = \frac{Z^2PQ}{d^2} \]
where:
- \( n \) = sample size
- \( z \) = Confidence error = 1.96
- \( p \) = Prevalence from previous study.
- \( Q = 1 - p \)
- \( d^2 \) = degree of accuracy = 0.05 or 5%

Prevalence from previous study is 6.0% wanted more than 4 children (IFPP, 1997).

\[ N = \frac{1.96^2 \times 0.6 \times 0.94}{0.05^2} = 86.6 \]

Because of attribution of questionnaire, 10% was added.
Sample sizes 86.6 + 8.6 = 95.2
Sample size = 95

The instrument for data collection was a self-administered questionnaire. The sample was proportionately distributed based on the population of each category of female health workers. The proportions were as follows Doctors (4), Pharmacist (1), Laboratory Scientist (3), and Nurses (87). Respondents were randomly selected from the respective groups making use of computer generated set of random numbers.

The data was processed manually using appropriate statistical methods with level of significance at \( \leq 0.05 \).
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
The result of the data analysis is presented in a way to highlight the background variables of the respondents and the correlations between some of the variables.
Ninety-five (95) questionnaires were distributed but only Ninety-three (93) returned.

Table I: Demographic Characteristic of the Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age (Years)</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15-24</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>65.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tribe</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hausa/Fulani</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>40.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Igbo</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yoruba</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Doctor</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurse</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>91.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pharmacist</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laboratory Scientist</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Religious Affiliation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Islam</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>54.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christianity</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>45.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>74.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separated</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 1 above, most of the respondents are within the age range of 25-34 years making up about 61(65.6%). No respondent was below 15 years or above 54 years. Most of the respondents were Muslim by religion and are mainly of the Hausa/Fulani extraction. Most of the respondents are married, 69(74.6%).
Table II: CURRENT NUMBER OF CHILDREN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Children</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>93</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean number of children is $2.5 \pm 1.91$

From table II above most respondents have no children 20 (21.5%) followed by those with four children 18 (19.4%). The number of the respondents without children could be explained by the number of those who were single (20).

Table III: DESIRED NUMBER OF CHILDREN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Children</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>46.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>93</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table III shows that the most desired number of children was four (4) (46.3%), none of the respondents desired to have one child, while only one person desired to have eight children (1.1%).

Table IV: IDEAL NUMBER OF CHILDREN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Children</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>34.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In table IV above most of the respondents chose four children as the ideal number of children a woman should have. Since the respondents were educated, their responses may be based on their knowledge of the national policy on the number of children per woman.

| Total | 12 | 11 |

Table V: FACTORS INFLUENCING DESIRED FAMILY SIZE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACTORS</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Husband Decision</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>29.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistance</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>23.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex Preference</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>23.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religion</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>16.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table V above some of the respondents gave more than one factor for the desired family size, this explains why we have a total of 180 responses. Majority of them indicated spousal influence as a factor 53(29.5%); followed closely by need for assistance 43(23.9%); and education 42(23.3%).

Table VI: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CURRENT NUMBER OF CHILDREN AND DESIRED NUMBER OF CHILDREN.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. Of Children</th>
<th>Current No. of Children (x)</th>
<th>Desired No. of Children (y)</th>
<th>x - x</th>
<th>y - y</th>
<th>(x - x)²</th>
<th>(y - y)²</th>
<th>(x - y)(x - y)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>-7.3</td>
<td>94.09</td>
<td>53.29</td>
<td>-70.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-1.3</td>
<td>-10.3</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>106.09</td>
<td>13.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>-9.3</td>
<td>22.09</td>
<td>86.49</td>
<td>-43.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>44.89</td>
<td>15.69</td>
<td>58.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>59.29</td>
<td>1069.29</td>
<td>251.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>-4.3</td>
<td>-2.3</td>
<td>18.49</td>
<td>5.29</td>
<td>9.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>-3.3</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>10.89</td>
<td>22.09</td>
<td>-15.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-9.3</td>
<td>-7.3</td>
<td>86.49</td>
<td>53.29</td>
<td>67.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-10.3</td>
<td>-9.3</td>
<td>106.09</td>
<td>86.49</td>
<td>95.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>93</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>444.01</td>
<td>1558.01</td>
<td>367.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[
x = \sum x = 10.3 \quad y = \sum y = 10.3
\]

\[
r = \frac{n \sum (x-x) (y-y)}{\sqrt{(x-x)^2 (y-y)^2}} = \frac{367.01}{\sqrt{444.01 \times 1558.01}} = \frac{367.01}{\sqrt{691772.02}} = 0.44
\]

There is a positive correlation between current number of children and desired number of children (Table VI).

DISCUSSION

The entire respondents fall within the age range of 18-54 years, with 82.8% of them being between 25-44 years. This should be expected for female health professionals, given the length of time it takes to become a health professional. Most respondents 61 (65.6%) are between the age of 25-34 years.

A total of 61 (65.6%) (about 2/3) of the female health workers have three children or less with a median of 2.5. This is similar to the national average, which are 2.1 children for women with post secondary
A total of 20 (21.5%) respondents currently have no child, which could be explained by the number of single ladies among the health workers. However, 19.4% of study population has 4 children which is almost twice the national average for women with their level of education. The possible reason for this high proportion of respondents having this fertility rate could be spousal influence which has caused respondents who have decided to stop bearing children, to have more because their spouses desired it. So despite their high level of education, their spouses still exert a lot of influence on the fertility choice of the respondents (Isiugo-Abanihe, 1994).

Only 8 (8.2%) of respondents currently have 6 or more children. This finding is consistent with the known rule that highly educated women do not generally have large families (NDHS, 2003).

Twenty (21.5%) of the respondents do not currently have children. This has resulted in these women initiating childbearing at older age and so end up having fewer children than their uneducated counterparts; for these women the absence of children is by choice. Also, some of these women were not yet married therefore they will have to get married first before having children. Infertility is also a possibility why these women did not have children.

The survey showed that 43 (46.3%) of respondents would like to have only 4 children, 19 (20.4%) would like to have 3 children; while about 8 (8.6%) would like to have 5 children. This means that 75.3% of the study population would like to have between 3 to 5 children. The median desired number of children is about 4 children. This is in contrast to the 6.4 total fertility rates for a woman without education in Nigeria (UNICEF, 2006).

A total of 19 (20.4%) of the respondents indicated that they would like to have 6 or more children. This is as a result of spousal influence or cultural/religious values. A surprising finding is that 3 (3.2%) of the respondents indicated their desire not to have children at all. This finding is quite uncommon in Africa and Nigeria where family pressures always bear on the woman to produce children (Caldwell and Caldwell, 1990).

Out of the 93 respondents, 53 (29.5%) of respondents indicated that spousal influence affected the decision on the number of children to have, but 70.5% indicated that this would not influence their decision. This does not agree with result of a study in Abia State where 83.3% of women said that spousal influence affected their desired family size (Ihejiamaizu, 2001). Also, this shows that in these women, effective male participation in family planning will have a notable effect on fertility issues.

A total of 43 (23.9%) of respondents said that assistance from children later in life informed the decision for their family size. This is in conformation with an earlier study which showed that a woman’s children are her insurance for old age so the more children she has the better for her since her children will take care of her in her old age (Ejezie, 2003). Another study showed that 59.6% of women said children were their only hope of support at old age (Caldwell, 1987). A total of 29 (16.1%) of respondents choose religion as the determinant of their family size decision. Since it is known that Islam allows for a large family size, and most of the respondents are Muslims, yet the percentage is low; this goes to show that, even though religion is a factor, it is not so much a major factor to determine family size among educated women.

Only 42 (23.3%) of the respondents indicated that their educational background had contributed to the choice of their desired family size. One would have expected that educational background would have played a greater role in the decision of these women to have a particular family size. These health professional are aware of the risks and problems associated with a large family size and so are supposed to be educationally primed but from this study 76.7% did not agree that their educational background had influence on their family size decision.

About 7 (3.9%) respondents said that sex preferences had influenced their family size decision. Since in some tribes, male children are regarded highly more than their female counterparts especially the Igbo and coincidentally, 85.7% of those who choose this factor were Igbos.

The co-efficient of correlation between current and desired number of children is +0.44. This means that those who currently have high number of children desire to have more children, than those who currently have less number of children.

CONCLUSION
In this study, it was observed that the median number of children the respondents currently have is 2.4 which is similar to the national of 2.1 average for women with similar level of education (UNICEF, 2006). However about 19.4% of the respondents have 4 children which is double the national average. It was also observed that spousal influence, need for future assistance and education were the major factors that influenced their choice of family size. However 29(16.1%) of the respondents indicated religion as a factor; which may be due to the fact that the study area is predominantly an Islamic state.
RECOMMENDATIONS

It has always been known that educated women tend to have fewer children than the uneducated ones. Therefore with the knowledge of these factors that influence fertility choices, one can adapt them to less educated women to produce the same results. We therefore recommend the following:

1. Encourage male participation in family planning measures.
2. Educate girls, so that she can make informed decisions.
3. Women must be empowered so that they can take right decisions.

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TOWARDS INTEGRATING TRADITIONAL AND MODERN COMMUNICATION SYSTEMS FOR EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION IN NIGERIA

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Abstract
This paper belligerently calls for a holistic integration of traditional and modern communication systems for effective communication in Nigeria. The call, as the paper argues, is anchored on the fact that both the structure and function of traditional and modern communication systems cannot alone yield effective communication in our peculiar environment. The paper further contends that the information needs of the Nigeria society have become too enormous, and so complex, that an integrated approach using both traditional and modern communication systems has become an imperative. To this end, the paper recommends that integration of traditional and modern communication systems should be guided by appropriateness to the geographical and social environment, as well as relevance to overall objectives of the communication activity. Communication scholars have also been challenged to, through research, bring forth more practical ways in which the interface of traditional and modern communication systems can yield more positive results in effective communication in Nigeria.

Introduction
It is rather ironical that traditional communication has become a subject of surging interest in intellectual circles at a time when the world has been taken by storm, as it is about to be swallowed up by sophisticated devices and infrastructure of the Information and Communication Technology (ICT). This is given credence to by what Wilson (1990, p. 280) has remarked:

A time there was when any discussion on these (traditional communication media and systems) would only elicit something akin to an alarm by one’s colleagues, a concern that bordered on whether one has almost reached the end of one’s academic pursuits.

The renewed attention may not be unconnected with the enormous development challenges that our largely rural and impoverished societies in under-developed nations are grappling with; and the seeming inability or impotency of the westernised mass media systems to easily turn the situation around. This position finds footing in the experiences of the dominant development paradigm, when it was assumed that the development of under-developed countries could easily be achieved through the transfer of western technologies. As such, the role of communication within this dominant paradigm, as Singhal and Sthapitanonda, cited by Yahaya (2003), observed, was a one-way directional flow of information and top-down approach to development. The role of the mass media was assumed in larger than life proportions to be that of an all powerful effect without scientific basis for implication of exposure to mass media. The rest of this discourse dwells on examining how traditional communication techniques would be incorporated within the modern communication systems to achieve effective communication in the Nigeria milieu.

Understanding Traditional Communication Systems
An array of nomenclatures has been coined to represent what we generally know as traditional systems. Ugboajah (1985), acknowledged for his unwavering interest in this area of communication studies came up with the popular coinage “oramedia”, Nwuneli (1981), is cited by Nkala (1990), to identify with the term “folk media” whereas Adesauoye (1990), documents Omu to prefer the term “informal Transference Media”. Ayantayo (2001), following the intellectual footsteps of the lives of Doob (1961), and Finegan (1970), called
the term “indigenous communication systems” while Akpabio (2003), coins somewhat near version called “indigene media”. Curiously, apart from the term “folk-media” subscribed to by Nwuneli (1981), the rest of the coinages somehow fail to capture whole essence of traditional communication appropriately. When we equate folk media with the traditional style of communication in a community or society, we will appreciate that it captures traditional communication well. On the contrary, Ugboajah’s oramedia, which is a hybrid of oral and media, tends to mean that traditional communication finds manifestation in oral forms only – which is not so, in anyway. Omu’s coinage of “informal transference media” is also misleading and inappropriate. It is absurd to suggest that communication in traditional settings is informal. While informal situations may arise, other situations present themselves in very formal ways as in coronations, marriages etc. The shortcomings of Akpabio and Ayantayo’s terms stem from their erroneous allusion that traditional communication is only indigenous to, and limited to Africa. Moreover, if this were so, modern communication systems should also be tagged indigenous since they have been originated by the western nations.

Arising from these multiple coinages are the equally multiple variants of definitions of traditional communication. Ayantayo (2001, p. 30), referring closely to the African context says that African “indigenous communication are means by which African people communicated with one another in the primitive era.” This is apparently one of the most misleading definitions of traditional communication. Does it mean now that since society is in the modern age, traditional communication has ceased? Or is the author suggesting that we are still in the primitive age if we continue with traditional communication practices? We doubt whether there is something inherently primitive about traditional communication. Ugboajah (1985, p. 116), had also defined traditional communication. However, his definition appears more of a description than definition. He had maintained that ora media meant: 

*Mythology, oral literature (poetry, storytelling, proverbs), masquerades, rites of passage and other rituals expressed through oracy, music, dance, drama, use of costume, social interplay and material symbol which accompany people from womb to tomb and much beyond.*

Out of the many definitions of traditional communication, this paper is more given to the one rendered by Wilson (1990, pp. 280-281)

... traditional communication is an admixture of social conventions and practices which have become sharpened and blended into veritable communication modes and systems and which have almost become standard practices for society.

This rendition is succinct when one realises that the mode of interaction of people in any society goes beyond speech codes. Other non-speech codes derivable from activities and practices in the society setting equally go a long way in communicating meaning as well.

Outlets or channels abound through which traditional communication is carried out. Jengo (1986), towing the same line with Ugboajah (1971), maintained that in traditional settings, the media commonly employed are poetry, stories, rituals, theatre (dances and songs) among others. These are the same with what Wilson (1987), grouped under idiophones, membranophones, aerophones, symbology, signs, objectifies, colour schemes and music.

**Traditional and Modern Communication Systems: A Symbiosis**

Against all negative comments passed on traditional communication systems as primitive, outmodelled and that its values are impediments to change or obstacles to modernization, Wilson (1990) insists that there are inherent characteristics of traditional systems of communication which offer comparative advantages. Such include that traditional communication is authoritative, credible, definitive, time honoured, transactional, customary and ubiquitous as well as integrative, low cost, non-alienating, adaptive and popular. These characteristics present traditional communication as a potent system for ensuring effectiveness in communication in Nigeria, when combined appropriately with the mass communication. The marriage of these two systems of communication is informed by the fact that both the structure and function of traditional and modern systems cannot alone yield effective communication in our peculiar environment. Traditional communication with its consumer friendliness, cheap nature and ease of use also carries with it irritating liabilities of very limited coverage, imprecision and is grossly prone to distortion.
Modern communication systems also, in spite of wider reach and high fidelity among several other pay-offs can sometimes be too elitist and too alien for our masses especially the ruralites that constitute the majority. The modern media systems are also not helped by poverty that pervades our society; in addition to poor state of amenities and absence of infrastructure as roads and electricity. The modern communication system at the moment is only promoting knowledge gaps and creating information have and have-nots. Inadequacies of the mass media to satisfy information needs of society without incorporating traditional practices of the society was noted by Schramm (1964, p. 106), when he remarked that “the mass media like other parts of society cannot develop far in advance of other social developments.” This statement, perhaps, formed the framework within which Agun (1986, p. 35) said:

… experience has shown very clearly that the effectiveness of any medium of mass communication depends essentially on the overall organization of services into which it is integrated and the socio-political framework in which it operates.

It is in conviction of this that the UNESCO Inter-governmental Conference on Communication Policies in Africa held in 1980 in Yaounde, Cameroon, submitted, in its report of the following year, a recommendation that member nations should incorporate in their national communication policies measures designed to ensure the greater use of traditional forms of communication. This, the UNESCO body advised, should span social, educational and cultural purposes and that; these should be integrated with modern communication media in national development projects.

Strategies for Incorporating Traditional Communication in Modern Communication Systems

It is still largely true, as UNESCO (1956, p. 1), has commented, that, “in developing countries, the greater part of the people live in the hinterland, and are frequently isolated by illiteracy and lack of transport.” Today, life conditions have worsened, and illiteracy is not just a feature of rural life but is even preponderant among urban dwellers too. In spite of these, current indications show that there is an improvement in the literacy level of the ruralites as compared to the past decades. A research carried out in Mbakyaha, a ward in Vandeikya Local Government of Benue State showed that seven out of every ten people living in the area can read and understand Short Message Services (SMS’s) in their native Tiv language. Similar or even higher figures can be obtained in other rural communities in Nigeria.

Reaching such rural people with community newspapers, for example, will not be a problem at all. Such print media can craft information incorporating familiar traditional techniques as fables and proverbs to drive home the desired messages. An anti-AIDS awareness campaign for example, that uses folk tales which paint gruesome consequences for a recalcitrant person will be capable of forcefully conveying the message to the rural reader. This same multi-media approach can be employed in town based media too.

Besides the print word, it is widely held that the entire Nigerian society like most other African societies is largely dominated by an oral culture. This lends the electronic media easy application. As Nwuneli (1985) had explained, the electronic media can effectively combine forces with traditional media of songs, drama, drama/theatre, folk media, instrumentation, proverbs etc to bring about an information revolution. He cited the 1971 incident in Nigeria when cholera first broke out in Nigeria. Since most Nigerians were unfamiliar with the disease, it became very difficult to sensitise them easily. Traditional media of songs came handy when a popular juju musician was used to compose songs about the disease; the mesmerizing tune made the campaign a success. Information spread through electronic media is being currently used, minimally though, to fight the dreaded HIV/AIDS epidemic. The 2015 elections can also immensely benefit from these techniques if songs are melodiously composed in all local languages of the country and regularly played on all radio and television stations.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The ever changing nature of life requires that mankind flows with the tides of time to be in tandem with prevailing realities. One of such realities is that the information needs of mankind have become too enormous and complex that an integrated approach using both traditional and the modern communication systems has become an imperative. This is not to suggest that the era of traditional communication has been supplanted by modern communication. The movies did not and will not kill stage theatre just as the proliferation of churches in the moulds of Pentecostals, Lutherans, Methodists; evangelicals and so on have not killed the Catholic Church.
Like the Catholic Church, which has read the times and is flowing with it, weaving together the traditional practices of the host communities alongside modern mannerism of newly “fashionable” churches, so is it required of communication systems to smoothen their edges to pave way for an interface that will bring about effectiveness in interactions.

Towards this then, the following suggestions are made:

1. Integration of traditional and modern communication systems should be guided by appropriateness to the geographical and social environment as well as relevance to the overall objectives of the communication activity.

2. Increased use of local languages in the mass media should be encouraged especially in mass media outlets that target the rural public.

3. In addition to provision of social amenities in rural areas, governments, individuals and other bodies should sponsor the setting up of village communication centers where exposure to mass mediated messages will be buoyed and possible feedback elicited.

4. Communication scholars should continue with research to bring forth more practical ways through which the interface of traditional and modern communication systems can yield more efficiency (positive results).

References
"PRESS FREEDOM, THE NIGERIAN JOURNALIST AND THE FREEDOM OF INFORMATION (FOI) ACT: WHAT DOES THE LAW SAY?"

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ABSTRACT
The press and government in Nigeria are like two strange bed fellows. Despite global changes in Human Rights issues and efforts by other countries in the world to entrench every aspect of human rights into their nation’s constitution, Nigeria shows no tangible commitment towards freedom of expression as a pivotal aspect of our fundamental human rights. This paper looked at the concept of freedom of expression and its effectiveness in Nigeria. It also viewed the role of the Nigerian journalist and how he has been encouraged to practice his profession, the nature of journalism, its functions and how effective the practice of journalism has been in Nigeria. The problem of this paper is the harsh environment under which Nigerian journalist operate, the repressive press laws trailing him in pursuit of his duties and the risks occasioned by these deplorable work conditions. The crux of this paper, however, is that the expected relief from the recent Freedom of Information Act 2011 turned out to be a placebo. The Act offered the media, no specific protection. It merely imposed duties and responsibilities on the media without explicitly providing the media any right or privilege beyond the general right to freedom of expression guaranteed all other citizens.

KEY WORDS: Press-freedom, Journalist, Information-Act, Immunity, Repressive-laws

INTRODUCTION
Throughout the history of mankind, people have really fought for the freedom of speech. Laws have been passed and wars fought over people's rights to express ideas publicly. Freedom of expression is a fundamental human right which is universally acclaimed and entrenched in the constitutions of most countries of the world, following the Human Rights Declaration of 1948 by the United Nations. Section 39(1) of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (as amended) states that:

"every person shall be entitled to freedom of expression, including freedom to hold opinions and to receive and impart ideas and information without interference".

The basic role of the press is to uphold the fundamental objectives contained in the Nigerian Constitution by holding the government responsible for, and accountable to the people. This explains the precarious position the media occupies in the socio-economic and political life of the people. The media ranks next, after the three arms of the government, hence it is termed "The Fourth Estate of the Realm". A run through all the Nigerian Constitutions up to the most recent, which is, that amended in 2011 shows that the media is accorded very prominent position. Many societies owe their social development to the dynamism of freedom of expression.

Press freedom is actually an extension of freedom of expression. The concept of press freedom has been an age long principle of the custodian of information. Hence, everyone every nation is in favour of it and shall be very glad to protect it. Accordingly, Stevenson (1995:63) rightly observed that:
"everyone is in favour of freedom of press. The problem is a lack of agreement on what it is and who has it..."

This simply means that press freedom is still a rare commodity in the world. This is why Nigerian journalists, like their counterparts in some countries of the world, are still agitating for press freedom today. Press freedom is the journalist's liberty to disseminate information without fear or interference. Blackstone (2001:1) described the concept of liberty or freedom of press thus:

"The liberty of the press is indeed essential to the nature of the free state, but this consists in laying no previous restraint upon publications... Everyman has an undoubted right to lay what sentiments he pleases before the public, to forbid this is to destroy the freedom of the press; but if he publishes what is improper, mischievous, or illegal, he must take the consequences of his temerity".

Simply put, press freedom will therefore mean "the freedom a journalist has to perform his duties without interference of any kind, while still maintaining ethical standards". Freedom of press is very essential to a democratic state and its denial will lead to grave consequences. For as Kofi Anan (2003:23) rightly posited:

"In every society, freedom of the press is essential to transparency, accountability, good governance and the rule of law. It cannot be suppressed without the consequences for social cohesion and stability. when it is sacrificed, whatever the reason invoked, the chances are that conflict is not far down the road".

Concurring to the above views, Fatai Williams (1981), former Chief Justice of Nigeria opined that:

"When men and women are driven away from public arena where debate is free, they are driven into cellars where revolutions are borne, it is even better to have uproar than whisper"

This further emphasises the consequences of gagging the press or restricting journalists by interfering with their sources and means of acquiring information for dissemination to the public.

LEGAL BASIS FOR PRESS FREEDOM IN NIGERIA
Press freedom and freedom of expression are the same subsets of freedom of information. It is virtual and global. It thus deserves the attention given to it by the world powers such as the United Nations Organisation, the European Union, and the African Union who have incorporated in their conventions and charters, freedom of expression as a fundamental human right. Article 19 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Article 9 of the African Charter on Human and People's Rights and Article 10 of European Convention on Human Rights all contain provisions for ensuring freedom of opinion and expression. Article 19 of the UDHR (1948) succinctly states that:

"Everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression. This right includes freedom to hold opinion without interference, and to seek, receive and impart information and ideas through any media regardless of frontiers".

Since Nigeria subscribes to all these conventions, they form the legal basis for press freedom in Nigeria. The scope of press freedom however depends on individual countries of the world, and the extent of the relationship of the media and the government in each country. The question therefore is, do Nigerian journalists enjoy freedom of press and expression, do they effectively carry out their duties irrespective of the very many laws they have to obey, most of which often infringe their freedoms in the discharge of their duties? Has the metamorphosis of the Freedom of Information Bill to the freedom of information Act brought succour to the Nigerian Journalist? Is he adequately covered by the provisions of this Act? Is there any
special immunity covering him in the conduct of some of his sensitive duties such as publishing classified and confidential matters. These are some of the questions this paper seeks answers to.

THE JOURNALIST
Professionally, a journalist is a person who performs journalistic functions. Oftentimes, he is generally referred to as a reporter. Onwubere (2000: 86) lists these journalistic functions to include: gathering, processing and disseminating information to the audience of mass media. According to Lawrence (1988:6), a journalist is:

Any professional person who collects, prepares and edits information for publication or broadcast. Information is taken to mean news, background and commentaries.

He is obviously not a passive or a docile player in the realm of governance. He is rather an active participant who not only gathers information to disseminate to the audience but equally processes information for easy access, comprehension and for the benefit of the general public. In line with this view, Donsbach, cited in Kunczik (1998:11) defined a journalist as “someone involved in shaping the content of mass media output, be it gathering, evaluating, sighting, processing or disseminating news, comment or entertainment.” To be able to effectively carry out these functions, a journalist must understand the nature of the profession. The question therefore is: what is the nature of the journalistic profession, and especially in Nigeria?

JOURNALISM
There are diverse views and opinions as to what the definition of journalism is. Wikipedia defines journalism as “the discipline of collecting, verifying, reporting and analysing information gathered, regarding current events, including trends, issues and people”. Anola (2005:3) cited in Ogunyombo (2006:13) defined journalism as the “gathering, preparing and communicating of news and current affairs.”

These definitions simply acclaim the fact that journalism, by its nature avails people of necessary information which they require for making meaningful decisions in life. This is rather a privilege, so those who are trained to perform journalistic functions must do so under the observance of certain ethical rules. Hence, the journalist must consider himself as a selfless entity working first and foremost for the people rather than himself. In every democracy, journalists work for the country, city or community. For according to Dardene (2005:6) cited in Ogunyombo, (Ibid) “journalism exists because of people, not the company, nor government nor editors and publishers”.

THE NATURE OF JOURNALISM
Journalism practice differs from one society to another due to the “political philosophies” operating in the different societies. Siebert, Peterson and Schramm in propounding the Four Theories of the press (Authoritarian, Libertarian, Soviet-Communist and Social Responsibility theories) in 1956 rightly stated that the “media of every nation takes the form and colouration of the government under which they operate”. The form and colouration of the government in Nigeria, right from the colonial era to present democracy has been very repressive for journalism practice. The opponents of press freedom claim that the press has gone too far in exercising its freedom to publish under the guise of a freedom of speech provided for in the democratic constitutions. Hence, the concept of press freedom has not actually been sincerely addressed by any known government in Nigeria. The different governments have all only paid “lip service” to it.

Consequently, journalists are faced with all kinds of hazards on their jobs. Ekpu (1996:47) identifies some of these hazards as ranging from mere arrests and torture to maiming and killings. The Nigerian situation is among the very bad cases of media repression worldwide. He remarked that though many journalists were regularly tenants in several prisons, the turning point of the hazards of the profession was the brutal murder of Dele Giwa, former Editor-in-Chief of Newswatch in 1986.

In the wake of all these, the proposal for the Freedom of Information Bill (FOIB) came as a most welcome relief to most Nigerians and particularly the journalists. They have followed its journey from birth, over 12
years ago to actualization on 24th May 20011 with very keen interest. Whether or not the actualization of the Freedom of Information Act (FOI) has and will enhance the nature of journalism and good journalism practice in Nigeria is part of the worries this paper tries to unravel.

Since journalism began in 1859, the profession has witnessed remarkable changes in size and composition. In the views of Omu (1996:1), the profession has metamorphosed from “a place of refuge for frustrated and depressed people in the 19th century and an unprofitable frustrating and soul depressing career of the 1930s to an attractive dignifying and much sought after profession in the 1990s. How really attractive this profession will continue to remain with the enactment of the FOI Acts is another interest of this paper.

GENRES OF JOURNALISM
This refers to the different sequences or categories under which journalistic writings or specialised works of professional journalists can fall. Esiri (2005:25) call them the different scopes of the activities of journalists. There are quite a variety of these journalistic activities but only a few general or commonly used ones are listed below.

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The journalists perform their functions under any of these genres of journalism.

FUNCTIONS OF JOURNALISM
Among other things, journalism as a profession, in the words of Marshal McLuhan, has turned the world into a global village. This is perhaps the most valued function of the profession as this encompasses other functions. In Enahoro’s views, “journalism is a profession meant for only those “who want to help to save the world”. He posits that journalists are hired labourers whose responsibilities are not to their employers but to the human race”. (Enahoro in Akinfeleye (1990:21). Journalism practices the natural law of justice and serves as the people’s court. It helps to ensure that government serves rather than exploit the people. It makes the people better citizens by making their lives better through valuable information they receive from the press. (Dardenne Op.cit) In trying to unite and strengthen both society and individuals, journalism serves democracy. To accomplish these all important tasks, journalists must therefore be given a free to access information rather than, use punitive legislation to intimidate them.

A notable communication scholar, Harold Lasswell classified the functions of communication into four basic items viz: Surveillance, Correlation, Socialization, Entertainment. All these are within the purview of the business of the journalism as each function of communication can be discretely performed by a journalist under the above listed genres of journalism

SITUATION ANALYSIS / PROBLEM
The Nigerian journalist is endangered specie as he is bombarded with all kinds of dangers in the pursuant of his duties. He is often harassed, persecuted, detained and sometimes maimed in his search for information and truth. In spite of all these, he still stands by his profession and bears the consequences and pays the price of choosing a noble profession.

Right from the colonial masters, through independence, to the period of neo-colonialism, to the current post-independence democratic era, the Nigerian journalist has suffered different kinds of injustices, repression
and humiliations in the line of duty. Way back as 1925, 1928 and 1929, notable Nigerian journalists or co-owners of newspaper were either being sent to jail or fined some huge amounts of money, over the mere expressions of their views or for publishing the truth.

Even after independence, Nigeria still operates some obnoxious press laws which were enacted by the colonial masters. Some of these laws are: the Newspaper Ordinance which was re-baptised in 1964, the Official Secrets Acts (1962), Defamation Act (1961) the Seditious Publications Act (1961). A host of draconian decrees under the various military government such as Decrees 2 (State Security), Decree 4 and decree 11 (Protection Against False Accusation), decree 12 (Prohibition of circulation) just to mention a few.

This anti-press culture equally came in form of prosecutions, arson or closure of some print media houses. The face off between the government and the press climaxed in the killing of Dele Giwa (Chief Executive of Newswatch Communications in 1986 by persons suspected to be agents of the state (Umoru, 2006:10).

It is true to observe that, the return to civil rule may have improved the relationship between government and the press, but then, Nigeria is not yet a free and open society. The signing into law of the FOI Act, notwithstanding, several press organisations in Nigeria are still not emancipated from the fear of censorship. Despite the proliferation of rights, the constitutional provisions for the press have not been fully enforced. Both the military regimes and civilian administrations have severally violated the constitutional provisions for press freedom.

The media, fondly called the Fourth Estate of the realm is a powerful tool for shaping and influencing people’s minds and opinions. If not properly handled, could become dysfunctional and portend grave consequences for the entire nation. Perhaps, our future hope for a better Nigerian press lies in the provisions of this almighty Freedom of Information (FOI) Act of 2011. What it says and the provisions it has made for the protection of the journalist in pursuant of his duties is the meat of this paper!

REVIEW OF THE FREEDOM OF INFORMATION (FOI) ACT
Prior to the signing into law, on 24th May, 2011, the FOI Act, Nigeria had no law protecting citizens seeking information about public records. Rather, most Nigerian laws have secrecy clauses which prohibit the citizens from getting free and easy access to vital information on issues that affect their well-being and social developments. For instance, the Official Secrets Act, the Penal Code, the Criminal Code are all laws that have earned journalists different kinds of maltreatments at different points in time. The FOI Act was long awaited for 12 years (1999 to 2011), before it came to maturity, with the hope that it will provide the much expected succour for Nigerian journalists.

The FOI Act provides for the legal right of every Nigerian to access information, records and documents from the government and private bodies carrying out public functions. The Act sets the limits, within which the government and other private bodies must make information available on request for anyone who needs the information. Where access is denied, there are provisions in the Act for judicial review and legal redress.

This FOI Act applies to all arms of the government – the Executive, Legislative and Judiciary. However, there are certain categories of information that are exempted from the general right of access. These include: information on defence and security matters, conduct of international affairs, law enforcement investigations, trade secrets, financial, commercial, technical and solicitor/client privilege and information on test and examination.

The FOI Act passed through the normal legislative procedures of 3 readings and a public hearing from its proposal 12 years ago until it was signed into law by President Goodluck Jonathan on 24th May, 2011.

The FOI Bill Proper
Has 32 sections including:
1. Commencement
2. Short Title
3. Information about government Institution
4. Request for access to records
5. Time for granting or refusing applications
6. Transfer of application
7. Extension of time limit for granting/refusing application
8. Where access is refused
9. Fees
10. Record keeping/maintenance
11. Destruction or falsification of records
12. Exemption of international affairs and defence
13. Exemption of laws enforcement and investigation
14. Training of officials on the right to information and on the effective implementation of this bill
15. Exemption to personal information
16. Exemption of third party information
17. Exemption of professional or other privileges conferred by law
18. Exemption of course or research material
19. Severability
20. Denial by a public institution to disclose records
21. Judiciary Review
22. Hearing in a summary way
23. Access to information by court
24. Court to take precaution again disclosing information
25. Burden of profession
26. Order to disclose information
27. Exempted materials
28. Protection of Public Officers
29. Documents under classification
30. Submission of reports
31. Complimentary procedures
32. Interpretation.

Title: Freedom of Information Act 2011
An in-depth review of the different sections of the FOI Act clearly shows that no specific consideration was given to the journalist irrespective of the dangers inherent in his job. The Act merely addresses all the Nigerian citizens collectively as though there is no recognition of the precarious nature of the journalistic profession. Apart from S17(a) which merely glosses through the protection of all the professionals and other privileges granted by law, there is really no particular reference to journalists or even the media as a whole. The Act is more or less a re-classification of “the classified documents” as previously contained in the Nigerian constitution.

The lawyers have often argued that the journalists are part of the general society and are ordinary citizens like every other person, and so need not be accorded any preferential treatment because of their job situations. In the same vein however, it must be unequivocally stated that journalists need not be lopsided with the general public. This is neither because they are exceptional citizens or a special breed but because they are an endangered specie who go the very extra mile to serve and save their nation at the very expense of their lives.

Journalists are not unaware of the fact that there is the dire need for them to maintain the confidentiality of their sources of information otherwise, their sources will dry up. Ethically, journalists are professionals who will not for whatever reason divulge their sources of their information. One would therefore, expect that these two points would have given the government enough confidence to make every information pertaining to public interest open to the journalists, irrespective of government’s own interest. Hence, to say that journalists need not be recognised for a specific grant of right to unlimited access to information is, to say the least, unfortunate.

CONCLUSION
The long wait for the FOI Act, from the time the bill was proposed in 1999 to its actualization as an Act on 24th May 2011 (12 years after) has been like a hope dashed. The expectations of succour from this Acts, was not, after all, achieved. This Act which contains more exemptions on the very crucial areas of public interest than the general areas of need is definitely not in favour of public interest. The lack of immunity or
any specific right or / and protection for journalists makes the provisions of the Act incomplete. The Act clearly jeopardises the aspirations of the journalists for a free press. The sections on exemption (Sections 12, 13-15, 16-18, 28 & 29) are the main areas of press interests, particularly, S29 which further emphasises the secrecy of “the classified documents”. Besides, the few cases judged since the inception of this Act has equally shown that the cases are generally under the judges’ mercy. In observing S24 of the Act (Court to take precautions against disclosing information), the judge may, as his spirit directs him, disqualify a request for access to any information being sought by the applicant.

The FOI Act has given a blanket authority (though with some exemption clauses) to every citizen to access information from any public institution without hindrance. While this may be adequate for the general public who may require the information being sought for just one or two single circumstances of public interest, the journalists require some large amounts of information and on regular basis, in pursuance of their duties. This calls for some special coverage or protection. Should there still be documents regarded as classified and confidential to the journalists? If there are, then, it means the government is merely giving powers to the citizens without coverage. Until such a period when our law makers will consider it necessary to compel the government to give the press the free hand they require for the effective performance of their watchdog function, then the social responsibility function of the press will be a wild goose chase!

Both the constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (S22) as amended and the FOI Act of 24th May, 2011, merely imposed duties and responsibilities on the media without explicitly giving the much acclaimed Fourth Estate of the realm any right or privilege beyond the general right to freedom of expression guaranteed all other citizens. The Act offered the media, no specific protection. This situation is not peculiar to Nigeria alone. Journalists should actually be seen as neutral entities whose business is merely to pass across information social development not for any particular bias. Until the current situation changes, our social development will continue to be in the hands of those who genuinely do not have much to offer humanity!
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CLIMATE CHANGE AND THE NIGER DELTA: SOME SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPLICATIONS AND COPING STRATEGIES

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Abstract
The Niger Delta Region is the bedrock of Nigeria’s economy. It generates over 90% of the nation revenue through oil production. Essentially, oil related activities have caused severe climate and environmental changes with attendant adverse impacts on the people’s livelihood. This paper highlights some of the main climate and environmental changes that have occurred in the Niger Delta Region highlighting the relationship between these changes and the people’s socio-economic prospects, and suggests possible institutional approach to ameliorating the problem.

Introduction
The Niger Delta is located in Atlantic Coast of southern Nigeria where River Niger divides into numerous tributaries. It is the second largest delta in the world with a coastline spanning about 450 kilometers terminating at the Ino River entrance (Awosika, 1995). The region spans over 20,000 square kilometers and it has been described as the largest wetland in Africa and among the three largest in the world (CLO, 2002). About 2,370 square kilometers of the Niger Delta area consist of rivers, creeks and estuaries, while stagnant swamp covers about 8600 square kilometers. The delta, with mangrove swamps spanning about 1900 square kilometers has the largest mangrove swamps in Africa, (Awosika, 1995). The delta falls within the tropical rain forest zone. The ecosystem of the area is highly diverse and supportive of numerous species of terrestrial and aquatic flora and fauna and human life. As opined by Iyayi (2004), it is richest in the world. The region is divided into four zones namely coastal inland zone, mangrove swamp zone, freshwater zone and lowland rain forest zone (ANEEJ, 2004).

The Niger Delta is highly susceptible to adverse environmental changes caused by climate change because it is located in the coastal region of the world. Coastal regions of the world are already experiencing flooding due to rise in sea level. Amid the impact of climatic change, the region is also faced with myriads of environmental problems resulting from oil exploration and exploitation activities. Reports on the environmental state of the Niger Delta are conclusive that the area has become an ecological wasteland. The objectives of this paper is to highlights in details the climatic and environmental changes that have occurred in the Niger Delta region and shows the relationship between these changes and poverty. It will reveal the weaknesses and deficiencies in the Nigerian Constitution in administering environmental rights to the people.
and suggests institutional and constitutional solution to the environmental degradation in the region and elsewhere.

**Climate Changes Induced Problems**

**Coastal Erosion**

The Niger Delta region is a coastal environment. The rise in sea level has been linked with global warming by the IPCC. According to the IPCC (1990), working with records over the last 100 years, have shown that a strong correlation exist between greenhouse gases emission and climate change and between global temperature and sea level rise. Global temperature is expected to rise by between 0.2 to 0.5°C per decade. The rise in temperature is expected to cause thermal expansion of sea and melting of polar ice. These will cause the sea level to rise for about 3-10 cm per decade during the next century.

In another report IPCC (2001), revealed that the large scale loss of land ice and thermal expansion of sea water has very likely contributed to the observed sea level rise. According to the International Federation of Red Cross (IFRC, 1999), sea level rise and flooding are already affecting millions of people world wide. IFRC report revealed that 10 million people are at constant risk of coastal flood and floods in general are making 3 million people homeless every year, and that the number of people affected by sea level rise is on the increase annually.

The occurrence of coastal erosion has been reported in the Niger Delta by Okon and Egbon (1999). The report of Awosika (1995) showed a rise in sea level along Nigerian coastal water. They did a mechanical analysis of tide data from 1960 — 1970 and reported mean sea level rise to be 0.462m above zero level of the tide gauge. In the report of Agbola and Olurin (2003), the World Bank ranked coastal erosion as needing moderate priority in the Niger Delta. Okali and Eleri (2004) reported that sea-level rise and repeated ocean surges will not only worsen the problems of coastal erosion that are already a menace in the Niger Delta, the associated inundation will increase problems of floods, intrusion of sea-water into fresh water sources and ecosystems destroying such stabilizing system as mangrove, and affecting agriculture, fisheries and general livelihoods.

The most important environmental problem facing the Niger Delta is coastal erosion. Although the World Bank has rated coastal erosion as needing moderate attention in the region, it is the most important impact of sea level rise in the region and should be given high priority attention.

Settlements in the coastal region have been uprooted by coastal erosion. In some places in the region especially in Forcados, some oil wells have been lost to the ocean due to erosion. Flooding of low-lying areas in the region has been observed. Coastal erosion poses serious problem for the economic activities in the Niger Delta especially natural sectors such as farming and fisheries; about 50% of the fishes consumed in Nigeria is from the Niger Delta and coastal vegetation especially the mangroves have been lost to coastal erosion (Awosika, 1995).

The Niger Delta could lose over 15000 square kilometers of land by the year 2100 with a one meter sea level rise. Calculations have also shown that a 20cm rise in sea level will inundate 3,400 km2 of region’s coastland (Onofeghara, 1990). It is estimated that with a sea level rise of 30cm, about 1 to 2 million people will be affected. It has been predicted that Nigeria will lose about $9 billion as a result of the sea level rise while at least 80% of the people of the Niger Delta will be displaced due to the low level of the region.

Other adverse effect of sea level rise in the Niger Delta is increase in salinity of both surface and underground water due to the instruction of sea water. This will lead to the death of aquatic plants and animals that can not tolerate high salinity. The brackish water is the home of several species of fishes and it is the breeding sites for several others. Apparently, the ecology of the brackish waters will greatly be affected and this may lead to lose of species. Some terrestrial plants that have low tolerance for high salinity will also be affected. Sea water instruction will have serious impact on food security in the region; because of it impacts on coastal agriculture. The salinization of underground water will lead to shortage of fresh water in the region, which will lead to insufficient drinking water. Many people in the region depend on underground water as their main source of water for drinking and for other domestic use. Other impacts of sea level rise on the Niger Delta region are changes in ocean dynamics and precipitation and health hazards.
General Flooding
While climate change will lead to increase aridity and desertification in northern Nigeria, it will lead to increase flooding in the southern part especially in the coastal regions. Flood in general has impacted negatively the livelihoods of many communities in the region. Flood and erosion remove top soil, destroy roads, affect fresh water resources and threaten lives and properties. Many people have been rendered homeless by floods and several roads have been made impassable. The usefulness of several roads has become seasonal, only passable during the dry months of the year.

In Egor and Ogida communities in Edo State, several houses have been abandoned by the owners due to floods and many more areas in the region are vulnerable to floods. Owners of the affected houses did not anticipate the problem they now find themselves when their houses were being built. For occupants of some of the affected house who are unable to relocate for financial reason will have to cope with the situation. This makes them vulnerable to different kinds of water-related disease such as malaria, dysentery, cholera, and diarrhea. Trauma resulting from the problem can lead to non-pathogenic diseases such as hypertension and diabetes. In some other instances, some areas are cut from other parts of the community. Some communities have gone to the extent of constructing woody pedestrian bridges across flooded areas so that they can have access out of their localities to carry out economic activities. The bridges have short life span because wood is biodegradable and it may last for only two or three raining seasons.

Changes in Rainfall Pattern
Meteorological data have shown that rainfall pattern in Nigeria has changed in the past decades. Oladipo (1995) reported that decline in the rainfall in Nigeria started in the beginning of the 1960s when a decade of relatively wet years ended. According to him, the persistence of below-mean rainfall in the last two decades in Nigeria is an indication of an abrupt change in climate. The region lie predominantly in the tropics having two seasons — the wet and dry seasons. The wet season occur from May to September, while the dry season begins in October and ends in April. The agricultural sector is highly sensitive to rainfall pattern especially in southern Nigeria where rain-fed agriculture is mainly practiced.

Food security has been defined as the ability of people to grow and obtain food (Sarah La Troije, 2002). It has been predicted that climate change will pose serious threat to food security. Climate change creates uncertainty in the rainfall pattern (timing and amount) and affects agricultural activities. As noted earlier, agriculture in the Niger Delta is highly dependent on rain and irrigation is seldom practiced. Changes in the rainfall pattern have greatly affected the agriculture in the region. Farmers in the region begin cultivation at the beginning of the rainy season. They plant their crops as the rain begins to fall in April. The rain falls periodically till the month of June/July (the peak of the rainy season), when rain fall more or less continually during the day. The periodic rainfall pattern before the peak in June enables farmers to cultivate various crops.

Farmers who plant after the first or second rain in March run into huge loss because the rains are delayed beyond the usual. The crops are scotched causing huge economic loss. Before this time farmers can predict the rain and they know precisely when to plant their crops. The crops after they are planted are watered periodically by rain before the peak of the rainfall in June. The amount of rainfall within the period before the peak is necessary for the optimum performance of many crops most especially the maize which is widely consumed in every part of Nigeria.

Changes in Vegetation
One important feature observed in the region is the almost complete absence of primary forests. This may be partly due to climate change and mainly due to human activities. Uncontrolled logging, agricultural activities, acid rain, oil exploration and exploitation, urbanization and mining activities contribute to lose of vegetation. The vegetation was dominated by grasses, sedges and shrubs with few scattered trees and they were mainly palm trees. In some parts, trees grow close to one another to form thick canopy over undergrowths. The changes in vegetation will have great implication for biological productivity consequently affecting biomass production. It will lead to the impoverishment of biodiversity and various plant species presently growing in the region may die off. The regeneration rate of biomass may also decline significantly affecting the amount of fuel wood available for local people. Full in the availability of biomass for local energy generation will bring more hardship to local people. Many will have to travel long distances
in search for fuel wood. Women and children are the most affected since they are responsible for the fetching of food for cooking.

**Socio-Economic Implications**

The people of the Niger Delta are highly dependent on the environment for their source of livelihoods. The region has been described as the richest wetland in the world and the home of numerous species of aquatic and terrestrial plants and animals. Before the discovery of oil in the Niger Delta, the people depended so much on the resources from their natural environment. They made their living from the exploitation of the resources of their land, water and forest as farmers, fishermen and hunters. They were attached and protective of their environment. The economic activities of people were soon distorted due to environmental degradation caused by climate change and exploration and exploitation activities of multinational companies. The devastating effect of the changing climate and the activities of oil companies on their farmlands, crops, creeks, lakes, economic crops and rivers are so severe that the people can no longer engage in productive farming, fishing and hunting as they used to do.

These days, the dominant economic activity of the people is trading. Only very few are employed in the industries and in the civil service. Though some still engaged in farming and fishing, they work more with little in return. Their fishing and farming have been impaired by the deploring environment. Their soil has been degraded. This is a major cause of poverty in the region.

**Coping Strategies**

Community-based adaptation has become an important term in the climate change debate. It recognizes the fact that environmental knowledge and resilience to climate change lie within societies and cultures (Mitchell and Tanner, 2006). Thus an understanding of how communities cope with climate change is important to develop community-based adaptation projects. The goal of community-based adaptation project is to increase the climate resilience of communities by enhancing their capacity to cope with less predictable rainfall patterns, more frequent droughts, stronger heatwaves, different diseases and weather hazards of unprecedented intensity (Mitchell and Tanner, 2006). We have already seen that the people of the Niger Delta are vulnerable to climate change. In the remaining part of this section, we will highlight the different ways communities and individuals have been coping with changes.

**Change of Occupation**

All parts of the earth will be affected by climate change, but the degree of damage resulting from the phenomenon will differ from region to region and will depend on the capacity of the different regions to cope with changes. Adaptation to climate change depends on the level of socio-economic and technological development. Many people in the Niger delta whose source livelihood once depended on natural sectors such as farming and fishing had to change their means of livelihood. Because of the degradation of their environment, they can no longer engage in farming and fishing. Hence, many are now traders, dealing on different kind of goods. Few persons work in the civil service, still fewer ones are employed by the multinational oil companies operating in the area and other industries. Some others are engaged in multiple activities in order to increase their income. For example those in the civil service may combine their civil service work with trading.

Change in occupation has caused the rate of rural-urban migration to increase at an alarming rate. This has particularly affected the workforce in the rural communities. Many people of the youthful age group migrate from the rural areas to the urban areas to seek for jobs in the formal sectors and to involve in trading creating a scenario where the urban areas are highly populated with people belonging to the country’s workforce. The elderly men and women are left in the rural communities. Change in occupation seems to be the only option for the people since their natural environment they once depended on has been adversely affected. Development strategies in the region should consider occupational changes and seek to strengthen this coping strategy.

**Coping with Floods**

As has been noted earlier, some areas are affected by flood and they are cut off from other parts of the community. In such areas, the use of pedestrian bridge has been developed locally so that the affected areas can have access to other parts of the community to enable them embark on their daily activities. The pedestrian bridge are made of wood, in some other cases they are constructed with earth materials such sand,
pieces of broken building blocks or some cases large granite stones. The bridges are constructed on community efforts and initiative, usually after waiting for the government for a long time without results. The bridges construct with wood have disadvantage; wood are biodegradable and thus have short life span. Those constructed by heaping sand are soon eroded by water.

At extreme cases of flood, many abandon their houses and completely relocate to other areas that are not affected by flood. Some others live in their houses for few months of the year during the dry season, after which they relocate and come back when another dry season begins.

Coping with Changes in Rainfall Pattern
We have seen that a large percentage of the people in the Niger Delta depend on climate-sensitive sectors such as agriculture and fishery. The changing climate has created uncertainty in the timing and amount of rainfall in every part of Nigeria. The pattern will be more severe in the rain forest zone of the Niger Delta where rain-fed agriculture is mainly practiced. Because of the uncertainties in predicting the rain, farmers now delay their time of planting. After the first or second rains watch the rains for sometime to ensure that the rains fall regularly enough before planting. These they do to keep their crops from being killed because of insufficient rain. The govern authorities in charge of climate data need detailed record of rainfall data from year to year and preinform farmers on the time to start planting working with the rainfall data from previous year. This will help to strengthen this strategy for adapting to variation in rainfall pattern.

Another way farmers in the region are overcoming this problem is by the use of fast-maturing varieties. Fast-maturing varieties of maize with high yields have been introduced and are being used by farmers. The risk involved in this strategy is that local species are being displaced by these varieties, though some farmers still cultivate the local ones. In future, new hybrid species may completely displaced local species; this may lead to the extinction of local ones. It is important that the right mechanisms are put in place to protect local species from extinction. Other crops such as cassava that are not affected by excess rainfall can be planted close to the peak of the rainy season, although fast-maturing species of cassava are also being used by farmers.

Concluding Remarks
We can see so far that the people of the Niger Delta are faced with myriads of environmental problems caused by climate change and the activities of multinational oil companies operating in the region. It against this background, that I propose an integrated approach in solving the problem in the Niger Delta. By an integrated approach, I mean a combination of several development strategies packaged into one piece. The integrated approach must have this key element. It must be participatory. The local people are the primary targets of development and development can only be precisely defined by them. It is only the definition of the local people to whom development strategies is directed at that is acceptable. Thus every development strategic must seek to view development from the perspective of the local people. The United Nations Declaration on the Rights to Development of 1986 recognized that the human person is the central subject of the development process and that development policy should therefore make the human being the main participant and beneficiary of development.
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BROADCAST MEDIA PRODUCTION METHODS, PROCESSES AND PROBLEMS FOR
ADVERTISING COPIES

By

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Abstract
This paper explains radio and television production methods, processes and problems. The paper examines
the anatomy of preproduction, production and postproduction phases of radio and television commercials.
Hence the paper identifies creativity, politics, ethnicity, unprofessional standards, dishonesty,
sensationalism etc. as some of the undoing of radio production. Similarly, budget burden, poor planning,
poor preparation, lack of modern equipment, lack of professional training, disrespect for ethical standard
etc. are addressed as some of the problems associated with television production. This paper concludes that
the biggest challenge however is the reluctance to embrace the Integrated Marketing Communication (IMC)
approach by advertisers and agencies in Nigeria. The paper calls for a change of attitude in this direction.

Keywords: Broadcast, Media, Production, Advertising, Communication.

Introduction:
Development of Broadcast Media in Nigeria
The development of broadcasting in the British colonies resulted from the British colonial policies to transfer
to the colonies structures of broadcasting modelled on the British Broadcasting Corporation, the extension
of BBC services to British expatriates in the colonies, and the development of local broadcasting services
by colonial administration (Katz and Wedell, 1977; p. 11). In Nigeria, for example, radio broadcasting was
available through relays of the Empire Services for almost twenty years, from 1932 to 1951. In addition, a
few hours of programming per week originated locally. Radio sets were still relatively expensive, as such,
wired distribution services were introduced. Signals from the United Kingdom were received over air on
shortwave and then rebroadcast through the cable network to small loudspeaker boxes. Programmes for the
indigenous audiences began in Nigeria in 1939, when the first brief programmes featuring Nigerian artists
were produced locally and broadcast under the auspices of the Public Relations Office (later to become the
Ministry of Information and Culture). It was only after the second World War that radio broadcasting became
relatively well established in Nigeria. By 1948 there were 12,000 radio sets in Nigeria, in addition to 8,000
wired boxes. Programmes were broadcast for eighteen hours a day, of which seventeen hours were relayed
from the BBC Empire Service.

Ladele, 1979; and Okigbo, 1988) shows that the wired broadcasting services in Nigeria was in fact commissioned on December 1, 1935 in Lagos and was the forerunner of the Nigeria Broadcasting Service
which was inaugurated on April, 1951. Six years later, the Nigerian Broadcasting Corporation, the first
public service broadcasting corporation of its kind in any colony, became operational on April 1, 1957. The
NBC was so established by the Federal Government of Nigeria Law – the Nigerian Broadcasting Act No.
39 of 1956. The Ordinance enjoined the Corporation to provide as a public service in the interest of the
Federation, independent and impartial broadcasting services for general reception within Nigeria and to
provide like services in countries and places outside Nigeria. The NBC then maintained a network of
service stations throughout the country with the call sign RADIO NIGERIA. In 1959, the NBC monopoly
was broken by the Western Nigerian Broadcasting Corporation (WNBC) at Ibadan.

According to Mackay (1964), the WNBC was established in 1959 to provide television and sound
broadcasting services. The initial emphasis was on television. Thus WNTV commenced operation in
October 1959, and is now the oldest television service operating in Africa. Sound broadcasting through

The rest of the story is clear: The Federal-controlled television came at the instance of the Nigerian Television Services (NTS) which was launched on April 1, 1962 on channel 10, Lagos. In the same year 1962, the Voice of Nigeria (international services of NBC) was inaugurated. In 1977. The NBC changed its name to the Federal Radio Corporation of Nigeria (FRCN). It relinguised all the NBC radio stations in the states to their respective state governments while maintaining the FRCN Network station in Lagos and the regional stations at Ibadan, Kaduna and Enugu. FRCN stations were charged to operate without commercial revenue.

Similarly, on April 1, 1976, the Federal Government took over all television stations in the country and on April 1, 1977, a new body known as Nigeria Television Authority (NTA) came into existence as the sole managers of national television (Okiogbo, 1988). Today, the authority has broadcasting stations in all the 36 state capitals, including the Federal Capital Territory. In addition, more than two-thirds of the 36 states operate local television stations, which are autonomous of Federal control. Radio and television commercials are, however, the primary focus of this write-up. Experience has shown that the production of radio and television commercials, as broadcast media, apply and follow the same development patterns or methods, and processes. Each medium, however, has its own distinctive problems. In discussing the broadcast media production methods, processes and problems for new and old advertising, this paper will, first, deal with radio on one hand and television, on the other hand. By this isolation, it is hoped that differences between the two, if any, shall be identified, and underlined.

RADIO PRODUCTION METHODS, PROCESSES AND PROBLEMS

The methods:
Producing radio commercial usually calls for intensive degree of creativity. This is because many listeners are busy people. And while the commercial is on, the listener may be busy doing other things or attending to other important responsibilities and duties. Yet the advertiser has a serious message to deliver to the listener at the same time. The most crucial offer from the advertiser, according to research, is “product category” (Sewall and Sarel, 1986; p. 52 – 60). To get the attention of customers not automatically attracted to a product therefore, radio commercial must carry good creative work, which makes the offering more vivid. Researchers believe vividness attracts attention, maintains interest and stimulates consumer thinking (Mitchell, Badzinski, and Pawlowski, 1994; p.199).

Also, researchers such as Ogilvy (1985; p.113 – 116), Weinstein (1985; p.70-74) and Simpson (1988; p.31) have recognized useful guidelines which, if creatively manipulated, could advance the attention–getting power of radio commercial. They include:
• If the commercial does not offer humour, then offer drama.
• Mention the advertiser’s name early and mention it often – at least three times.
• Remember that radio has no visual enhancements like TV, so if the name is tricky, spell it at least once.
• Be conversational, use easy to pronounce words and short sentences.
• Keep the message simple. Omit not needed words.
• Concentrate on one main selling point. Make the big idea crystal clear.
• Paint pictures with the words. Use descriptive language. Familiar sounds, such as a fine engine siren or a car engine, can help create a visual image.
• Stress action words rather than passive words. Use verbs rather than adjectives.
• Emphasize the product benefits repeated – with variations.
• Make the script fit the available time.

Also, the radio commercials are in various types. It could be straight announcement. This could be designed as integrated commercial. It could be musical, such as jingles, or musical commercials, it could be slice of life, or problem solution, if you like. And it could be radio personality, handled by a disc jockey or talk show host. In Nigeria, production can be done at local radio stations, or independent studios.
**The process:** The process of producing radio commercial occurs in three stages. Preproduction, production and postproduction.

**Preproduction:**
Preproduction phase involves all the preparatory activities and assignments undertaken before the main production starts running. Explaining the preproduction phase of the radio commercial process, Arens (2002: P.528) notes that the advertiser and agency perform a variety of tasks that allow production to run smoothly, on time, and within budget. To handle the tasks, the author notes that the agency assigns a radio producer from its staff or hire a freelance producer. Based on the script, the producer selects a studio and a director, determines what talent will be needed, estimates costs, and prepares a budget for the advertiser’s approval.

On how the production process is controlled to yield the finest sound reproduction, most adverts agencies use independent recording studios. The best audio studios, according to Arens, have experienced sound directors and technicians, close ties to well-known talent, and the latest recording equipment. Arens further observes that during the preproduction phase, the producer (or a casting director) searches for the right talent. This, he said, is an important decision, because talent is a form of icon or symbol for the product. Hence, the advertiser and the agency consider several factors before arrival at a decision: the person’s tone of voice, vocal acting skills and creativity, intelligence, style of thinking, and reputation, etc.

In addition to these, if the script calls for music, Arens says, the producer decides whether to use prerecorded music or hire a composer and/or arranger, as a result, any needed sound effect can be created or, most often, collected from prerecorded sources. All these decisions, of course, affect the budget, but they also have a dramatic impact on the effectiveness of the spots, Arens adds. By and by, once talent is hired, music prepared, and rehearsals through, then production goes.

**Production:**
Is the actual recording session where the talent works from a sound booth, while the director and editor work at an audio console in control room to record, mix and fine-tune the sound, the spot, while the recording is on.

**The postproduction**
Is the finishing phase, after commercial have been recorded, here, selections are made from a number of the best takes, while the sound engineer records music, sound effects, and vocals separately and then mixes them to produce the master tape. Thereafter, dubs or duplications are done onto what is called quarter-inch magnetic tape, before broadcast.

**The problems:**
As a matter of fact, radio commercial is among the quickest, simplest, and least expensive to produce. However, the problems, in producing radio commercial, especially in countries like Nigeria, has to do largely with creativity. Not that talent is lacking in the country, but the tendency to politicize and contract on the basis of ethnic consideration, other unprofessional standards, usually leave the best players out of the field. The result is often dawn-right poor production and absolute nonsense, some of the times. Lies, dishonesty in projecting product benefits, and outright sensationalism are part of the problems associated with commercial production on radio.

**TELEVISION PRODUCTION METHODS, PROCESSES AND PROBLEMS**

**The methods:**
Television commercial has the advantage of combining sound and sight. Yet, to motivate people to some action or attitude, to help position a product on the top rung of consumer’s mental ladders, researchers have found out that aesthetic cues such as lighting, pose of the model, setting and clothing style must be creatively manipulated to signal viewers (Moriarty and Sayre, 1992: p.5). And, to create a story that can establish a unique identity for the product is the collective mindset, which is a key factor in helping a product beat the competition (Randazzo, 1995: pp.28-51). Fantasies, however, should reflect product’s claims and be “repeated heavily” (Ogilory, 1985; pp.113-16).
Apart from the method of creativity which must effectively apply the psychological impact of colour, which could stimulate moods or feelings, television commercial uses the techniques of Live Action (which could give realism); animation (such as, cartoons, photo animation, stop–motion photography, and video animation) and special effects (which include everything from video and graphic manipulation to sound design and synthesized music).

Bovee and Arens (1992; P.396) have also listed certain crucial guidelines in the production television commercials. These include:

- Creating a pertinent, relevant, unforced opening. This permits the smooth transition to the rest of the commercial.
- Using a situation that lends itself naturally to the sales story. Avoid extraneous, distracting gimmicks.
- Developing a plot that is high in human interest.
- Creating a situation the viewer can easily identify with.
- Keeping the number of elements in the commercial to a minimum.
- Present a simple sequence of ideas.
- Using short sentences with short, realistic, conversational words. Be sure the script avoids “ad talk”.
- Leting the words interpret the picture and prepare the viewer for the next scene.
- Writing concise audio copy. Fewer words are needed for TV than for radio. Fewer than two words per second are effective for demonstration. Sixty-second commercials with 101 to 110 words are most effective; those with more than 170 words are least effective.
- Synchronizing audio and video.
- Running scenes five to six seconds on average. In general, no scene should run less than three seconds.
- Avoiding static scenes – use movement.
- Offering a variety of scenes without “jumping”.
- Handling presentations properly. See that they are identified, compatible, authoritative, pleasing, and nondistracting.
- Ensuring that the general video treatment is interesting and the commercial looks fresh and new.

The processes:

Like radio, television commercial occurs in three stages; preproduction, production and postproduction. **Preproduction** calls for good planning. Here, the producer takes a good study of the script, the storyboard and analyze the needed techniques for the commercial. In other words, prior production work which includes casting, arranging for locations, estimating costs, finding props and costumes, and other works. **Production** stage includes actual shooting. While the production is on, there is the need to control sound, lighting, and staging. Put in another way, at this stage, the commercial is filmed or videotaped. After production, comes **Postproduction**, during which time the film editor, sound mixer, and director actually put the commercial together.

In fact, selecting and splicing of scenes into their respective order, besides removing all the unneeded footage, take place during postproduction. The off-camera special effects or supers, and other required external sound and music or voiceovers are added to the sound track until the master is completed. Therefore, dupes are made and taken to the television station. Next is the broadcast.

The problems:

First, organizing television commercial takes pretty long time and huge budget. This is largely influenced by the range of planning, production, luxuries, use of children, superstar talent and directors, large casts, night and weekend filming, animation. Other reasons include the involvement of officials, special effects, stop–motion photography, location shooting, expensive set decoration or construction, special photographic equipment, additional shooting days, major script changes during a shoot, hierarchy of decision makers, approvers, and layers, and too many cooks (Roman and Mass, 1976; pp.76-81; Remond, 1976;pp. 21-24).

Poor planning and preparation is another major undoing of many who are into commercial production for television. This is what Andrew Olds (1990; pp. 26-29) saw when he says “advertising agency must have the savvy to budget large amount of money and spent them wisely”.

185
Admitting the same thing, Raymond (1987; pp.20–22) observes that, “The greatest waste of money in commercial production inevitably occurs because of a lack of adequate preproduction planning”.

In Nigeria some of the greatest undoings of producing television commercial, in addition to the above, are poor quality production as a result of lack of modern equipment, lack of professional training, wanton disrespect for ethical standards, and what have you.

It is important to note that the production methods, process and problems for new and old advertising copies do not attract any significant change. What changes however is the approach that the new advertising, which is based on the Integrated Marketing Communication (IMC) approach, introduces in the execution of the communication process.

In other words, new advertising differs substantially from the traditional process by mixing marketing and communications planning together rather than separating them. Usually, the new advertising approach starts with relating the message to the customer’s desire and expectations. This is to say, the process “begins with the customer and work back to the brand (Schultz, 1993; p.12). Thus, in a new advertising, the emphasis is on integrating the entire communication process and methods.

At present, the problem associated with the application of new advertising is that advertisers and their agencies in Nigeria and elsewhere do not yet seem to have embraced the approach maximally. The reason, as Nwosu and Nkamnebe (2005, p.13) note is that: The advertising practitioners may not fully embrace this new paradigm shift because of problem that may not have been unrelated to broad-based advertising training or lack of well trained advertising practitioners that are versatile enough to understand and use this new paradigm shift in their jobs, and of course the usual common resistance, reluctance or even willingness by advertising managers to adjust to change. For the advertisers, their seemingly slow readiness to embrace this new paradigm shift may not be unconnected to ignorance and the relatively higher cost of adopting this important innovation in advertising practice and management.

Conclusion
It is obvious that the production methods and processes of developing radio and television commercials are largely the same. Inspite of this, television producers will have to bother about certain special attributes such as creating appeals for sight, long planning and huge budget. It is also important to note that the availability of new technology demonstrated in computer graphics has helped greatly in producing high quality visual appeals, taste and prestige, among others. And, it is high time to fully accept and implement the IMC approach that promotes the design of messages tailored in line with customers’ needs and expectations.

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NEWS VALUES AND PUBLIC INTERESTS: TWO DEBATABLE CONCERNS

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Abstract
This paper delves into the contentious terrain of news values and public interests. The paper appraises the argument that editorial judgment, market force, and public interest are the key deciders of news. The paper however agrees that a symbiotic relationship exist among these critical factors in the news making process. But the paper holds that the whole essence of journalism or the making of news is to render credible service to the public because they have a right to know.

Keywords: News, Public Interest, debatable, values, editorial judgment

Introduction
Journalists are traditionally regarded as custodians of the public trust. In other words, journalism exists to render service to the public. This line of thinking suggests that media offerings ought to generally reflect or be driven by what the public wants or needs. But, is this always the case? Are editors, who are the final deciders of news, not influenced by other factors? In any case, there already is a raging debate on the news judgement notion. Who, what decides the final output, news values or public interests?

Agenda Setting Theory
As a theoretical basis for this paper, the agenda-setting theory explains the power of the mass media to set agenda for public debate and discourse. This implies that the mass media predetermine what issues are regarded as important at a given time in a given society. Agenda-setting theory does not ascribe to the mass media the power to determine what the public actually think. However, it ascribes to them the power to determine what the public is thinking about. The elements involved in agenda setting according to Folarin (2002; P.75) include:

1. The quality or frequency of reporting;
2. Prominence given to the reports through headline display, pictures and layout in newspapers, magazines, film, graphics, or timing on radio and television.
3. The degree of conflict generated in the reports; and
4. Cumulative media-specific effects over time.

As clearly stated by Becker, Mc Combs and Mc leod (1975; P.38), the focus of agenda setting has moved away from “the question of opinion formation, to specification of the media’s role in development of specific cognitions about issues in the public domain”. Indeed, the notion of agenda-setting function of the mass media specifies a strong, positive relationship between the emphasis of mass media news coverage and the salience of these news topics or issues in the minds of members of the public. This casual relationship or connection build by increased emphasis of a topic or issue influences or causes increased salience of that topic or issue for the public interests.

In other word, the mass media have the ability to structure our world. No wonder, research on the agenda-setting function of mass communication has its base in the writings of Lipmann (1922) on the role the mass media necessarily play in shaping our perceptions of public affairs, public interests. Other scholars such as Lasswell (1948) focused on media’s “surveillance” function, Schramm (1957) on media’s role in helping readers’ anticipation of events in the world around them.

The relevance of the agenda-setting theory is further buttressed by O’sullivan (1983) postulation when he described agenda-setting concept as the way in which the media wittingly or unwittingly structure public
debates and awareness. Hence, agenda-setting theory refers to the way that the media, particularly refers to the way that the media, particularly in news, current affairs, and documentary output, have the power to focus public attention on a defined and committed set of selected news issues, while ignoring others. The result is that some topics are widely debated, beyond the media in the public sphere, while others are ignored. The implication of the media power to fix issues or topics for public discourse lies in the ways that the new agenda is internalized by the audience or public. This relates to the general issue of the role of the media in defining social reality, and their roles as agencies of ideological or value transmission in society (Cohen and Young, 1981; Mc Quail and Windahl, 1981). Agenda-setting theory thus, vividly captures this process of media decision making that impact hugely on public interest.

News Values
The term news was first used by Walter Lipmann in 1922 in his Public Opinion Quarterly to capture the core values of news such as environment and pseudo environment. Today, there is a lively continuing debate among those who try to sort out the definition of news. Researchers often consider news values on the basis of certain standard criteria: conflict, progress, disaster, consequence, eminence, novelty, human interest, timeliness, proximity, etc.

A long-time journalist, Denis MacShane (1979) in his book Using The Media gives a backing to this view when he sums up what journalists are on the lookout for with five tenets: conflict; hardship and danger to the community, the unusual (oddity, novelty); scandal; and individualism.

Adapting this scheme to TV news value, Tunstall (1971) itemizes four points of difference:
1. In TV the visual is given pre-eminence.
2. News items, which include film of our own reporters interviewing or commentating on a story, are preferred.
3. TV makes use of a small fraction of the number of stories the newspaper carry, and even major TV items are short compared with newspaper coverage.
4. There is preference for “hard” stories or actuality on TV news.

MacDougal (1982; p. 114) sees news values as those factors that are considered by the purveyors of news in his choice of news among the uncountable number of events that occur on a daily, perhaps, hourly or even by the minute or by the second bases. Bittner (1989; p.255) admits that news value is a “relative term” that refers to the value or importance of an event or the potential impact of an event in relation to other events or potential news stories. These events or news or news items are, according to Tuchman (1979), subjected to a gate-keeping process which is apolitical, unbiased and should be an artful accomplishment attuned to specific understanding of social reality. In other words, the selection of news events is not a reflex action but a socially determined construction of reality.

News Values
Wilson (2005 PP.136-137) says news is about events that you did not know about at their breaking moments. He affirms that news is about events of yesterday (early morning news on radio and in newspapers). News, Wilson continues, is about what happened a moment ago, is ongoing and may happen tomorrow. Put simply, Wilson avers that news is about yesterday, today and tomorrow that frequently sought after menu in our global cafeteria of news events, where newshounds, in collaboration with several departmental specialists, spin out a seemingly endless roll of new delectable tales. To Wilson:

News is essentially a tale of woes that befall man in his giddy adventure through life … News is the tsunami’s rage against 200,000 souls lost in its anger … News is bin laden’s men raging against the twin towers of the World Trade Centre and the horrendous vengeance visited on the Afghans in search of the leaders of the pack. News is people in events geared to address the reader’s interest.

Public interests
Public is the grouping of individual brought into being as a social unit through mutual recognition of common problems for which common solutions should be sought, such a grouping needs various means of communication for its development and continuity. But, according to Mills (1956), the mass media had
developed in such a way as to hinder the formation of public. All the same, one sees evidence of the continuing existence of various audience formations with the characteristic of a public. Although rarely identified as such, most societies have an “informed public” – that section of the audience which is most active in political and social life and draws on many sources of news, especially the elite, opinion-forming and specialist press (McQuail; 1987). Secondly, many countries retain some elements of the party press or a press which does have political connections with readership groups (Seymour-Ure; 1974). Here the membership or supporters of a particular party form a public, which is also an audience. Thirdly, there are local or community audiences for a local publication, of the kind described by Janowitz (1952). In such cases the audience tends to coincide with the membership, hence social group (Stamm; 1985).

Finally, there are numerous particular audiences formed on the basis of an issue, an interest, or an occupation, which may have their own forms of social interaction and are not simply the creation of media supply. Instances of such publics are mainly to be found in relation to commonly instituted forms to avoid links either with more elite “informed publics’, or with party political groups, or with localities. This is less true of radio, but still partly so. There are also exceptions in relation to television, for instance where channels are deliberately profiled by socio-economic or taste differences (McQuail; 1987).

But what are public interests? Members of the public are interested in many things, news, documentary and information. They also show story preference for fictions, the exciting and unusual. There is also a demonstrable demand for the more comforting myths, for nostalgia and for social amnesia (Davis; 1981). In their day-to-day news presentations, are the media offering this service to meet the public interests? Are news values determined on the basis of what editors and reports want, or what their audience desires, as a matter of public service? Importantly, who decides news values, editors or market forces?

**News values and public interests: matters arising**

Two scholars: Defleur and Dennis (1981; 422) in their comprehensive definition of news, point out the need for news to be “shaped by a consensus about what will interest the audience”. This emphasis on public interests in news presentation resurfaced in the issues raised by the Commission on Freedom of the Press in its 1947 report, where it was pointed out that the media were failing to give the public a representative picture of the constituent group of society.

Currently, there is a raging debate within media circle on whether editors or market forces (i.e., what interest the media audience or public) should decide what constitute news or news values. Those who agree with the marketing approach (like Everett E. Dennis) argue that journalists underestimate reader, viewer or listener intelligence. They frown, that journalists betray poor understanding of what people will actually read, watch, and listen to. They complain that news people do not comprehend the role of television in delivering news to people who also read newspapers and listen to radio. They charge that, editors and reporters will continue to be elite. They will continue to get relatively isolated and out of touch with their communities, will continue to be removed from society. They will continue to be unlike their readers, viewers and listeners. Proponents of the marketing school believe that their strategy will save the day.

That is not all; opponents to the marketing proposition (like Melvin L. Defleur) contend that this line of thinking is flawed on the following points. One, the marketing approach to news regulates the press to a powerless dispenser of desired services. Two, editors take on a strange role; they do not make decision, but only grant requests to the public. Three, they do not determine what their public(s) need or should have; rather they provide the news that the public – the real editors in the marketing approach – say they want. Therefore, if the marketing concept of news determination were taken very far, they fear that journalism would become a passive and uninspiring profession.

Another position on this issue of whether marketing force or editorial judgement should decide what news is the believe that there is a natural symbiosis between editorial decision-making and public interests. News is an editorial matter naturally influenced by knowledge of the public interests. Editors are independent (at least it ought to be so) decision makers in journalism and not merely reactors and servants to members of the public. Service is crucial all the same, but, in doing so, certain standard values help determine news. As it seems, journalists have come to the conclusion that such values (like novelty, oddity, eminence, impact, conflict, human interest, currency, proximity etc) are agreeable to the public. Hence, the journalists rely on
them as they perform their so-called traditional functions of informing, educating and entertaining the public, etc.

**News Determinants**

This has to do with the criteria for news selection. News is determined or decided based on the importance members of the public or audience are perceived to attach to an event, issue or topic. Sometimes it is the potential impact an event, issue or topic is expected to have on its intended news hungry audience or public that increases its value for selection as news. In a gate-keeping system, editors as gate-keepers, they reserve the power to finally and professionally decide what makes news or not. The social environment provides vast opportunities and potentials for news. Newshounds, in their forage across the world’s vast news fields have for a long time now, identified and relied on certain values as guide-post in determining news for their news organizations. A few of these values are:

- **Impact:** this refers to the importance, significance of the event, issue, topic, etc. One way to know the important of an event is to decipher the results or what the consequences of a news story might be.

- **The Unusual:** this refers to the interruption of life’s routine, something odd, out of the ordinary such as a man biting a dog, a woman giving birth to quadruplet or even twelve babies at a time.

- **Prominence:** this refers to people, who are popular, or those in positions of authority, or those who are notorious such as the Boko Haram sect in Nigeria gaining notoriety for killing innocent people in Nigeria.

- **Conflict:** this refers to strikes, strifes, political campaigns and confrontations, ethnic rivalries, wars, etc. such as battle for “APC” as an acronym for registering political parties in Nigeria.

- **Proximity:** this refers to something physically or geographically close, or an attachment to those like you and those to whom you share affinity, common interest, etc. For instance, university students in Nigeria were worried and they kicked against students that were killed in Nasarawa State University in March 2013.

- **Timeliness:** this refers to the latest, recent events, such as the election of new Pope Francis I, first ever Latin American leader of the Catholic Church in 2013.

- **Currency:** this refers to a situation that has been around for a while whose time has finally come. It also refers to the newness, freshness of an event just brought to light, such as the probe of three Chief Judges in Nigeria.

Wilson, (2005, P. 142) has added to the list values such as: hardness (the factual quality), actualities (real persons or things), correctness (verifiability), balance (fairness), authorization (news source), utilization (value for society), and relative speed of delivery (fastness), etc.

Arguably, news values are not meant to serve public interests. Why? Because Udoakah, (1992;p.103) says “it is unimaginable that anybody would venture into newspaper and magazine publishing or broadcasting just to inform, educate and entertain the public without thinking of deriving some benefit in return”. Udoakah further observes that while it is true that members of the public could be instantly informed, educated or entertained by the mass media, one must not forget to ask what type of messages do mass media entertainments carry? To what use is the public expected to put the information and education it receives from the mass media?

Such questions as the scholar reasons will take the lid off the can of mass media objectives and give an insight into their long-term and undeclared objectives, some of which may be immediate or delayed. Udoakah’s position is very clear on the fact that the mass media do not exist for a public good. They are seen as promotional platform for their owners and dossiers of short comings for their owners’ political and economic or social rivals. What then determines news in this case; certainly not editorial judgement, not market forces or the controversial, public interests, or the goals of media organizations? Hence their distinct goals, naturally dictate their choice and presentation of events of the world. Take it or leave it Udoakah insist, the so-called news values are mere propaganda stunts to explain off the bias and selfish interest, which surround the operation of the mass media. In a world of interdependence, it is only natural that efforts are made to keep good relationships with those who are important to ones success. This is the purpose served by the vocabularies of news selection. They are for the “self-defense” of media operators and their owners (Udoakah, 1992; 104).
Stressing a point on curiosity plus a sense for what is new, interesting and different (news sense) Mencher (1996) observes that often, journalists find that curiosity pays off with good stories. The author states that what interests reporters usually interests readers and listeners. He notes that editors share various interests and concerns with their readers. Editors and the Public both want the same questions answered Mencher reasoned. Call it the feel for the public pulse or simply a commonality of interest, Mencher believes that whatever the description, the result is work that appeals to people. Adding a competitive angle to the argument, Mencher (1996, P. 125) note in the fifth edition to his book: *Basic media writing* that:

In addition to understanding what makes news, they (editor-gatekeepers) are aware of two other factors. Their need to match important news used by their competition and the changing nature of the public’s appetite for news.

Whatever interests news may serve: public, commercial, religious, political competition, etc., The American society of Newspaper Editors (1996) affirm that primary purpose of gathering and distributing news and opinions is to serve the general welfare by informing the people and enabling them to make judgment on the issues of the time. Ideally, the relentless acquisition and independent presentation of news is the way the press serves the public trust. Hence, Woo (2003; 28) notes: “Journalism is not an end in itself but only the professional means by which reporters and editors serve the public trust”.

**Conclusion**

The debate may continue and the concerns may be various. News would continue to be left, right and centre, North, East, West, and South. Whatever views one holds on the values that guide gatekeepers or the agenda setters of our time to decide what goes in and out of their media, editors will ever be strategic shapers of public world view. Therefore, let this function be handled with the utmost social responsibility it deserves.

One last word, as news is designed (or redesigned) to serve the valued public interests, let the journalist remember that their mission is disclosure, their canon, objectivity, their discipline, verification, their credo, the people’s right to know.

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AUDIENCE PERCEPTION OF THE USE OF BILLBOARD IN SHOWCASING GOVERNMENT’S SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS: A STUDY OF ANAMBRA STATE INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY BILLBOARD

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Abstract
Billboard are designed to catch a person’s attention and create a memorable impression very quickly, leaving the reader thinking about the advertisement after they have driven past it. In Anambra State, people are confronted with billboards of different kinds depicting the achievements of state government in various areas such Health, Education, Housing, and provision of infrastructures. The focus of this study is to ascertain audience perception of the use of billboard in showcasing government’s social development projects; a study of Anambra State Integrated Development Strategy (ANIDS) billboard. Survey research method was employed and purposive sampling technique was used to select the respondents from the three senatorial zones in Anambra State. Taro Yamani’s formula used in obtaining the samples size of 229 respondents from the population of 2,456,468 literate Anambrarians. The study found that significant number of people perceived the use of ANIDS billboard for showcasing social development projects as a wasteful venture by government, they also said that social development projects of government being showcased on the ANIDS billboard is purely a propaganda machinery of government. The study revealed that majority of people does not believe in the message content of the billboards. We therefore recommend that Anambra state government should be initiating people oriented programmes and policies, this will arouse enthusiasm amongst the people and as well make them to read such messages. Government should consider alternative means of showcasing its achievement rather than billboard medium as its cost so much to produce, thus the government should convene a town hall meeting monthly to brief the people on its achievements and developments strides.

Key Words: Audience, Perception, Billboard, Social Development and ANIDS.

INTRODUCTION
Billboard usage has been in existence for some decades now. Before the arrival of automobiles, primitive models of billboards were occasionally employed to inform people travelling on foot, horseback that an inn can be found ahead within a particular distance. The outdoor advertising medium came into existence in 3200BC as means of communication by the Egyptians, Bidemi (1999, p.136). Bovee and Arens (1985) posit that “outdoor advertising is the oldest form of advertisement and a medium with high impact rate. It attracts attention to itself through location, colour and boldness of its copy”. Billboard advertising relates to the usage of signs along the roadways for the purpose of advertising and prompting a range of products and services. It has become a common trend in contemporary Nigeria society to use billboard medium to publicize government’s acclaimed achievements or intended development programme. Even when such acclaimed achievements were accomplished using public fund like taxes and rates, those in government have
often used billboard to create an impression that such development programmes were privileges rather than obligation to the governed. Hitherto, actions of the government spoke for themselves, because they are there for everybody to see them in concrete terms and not through the advertising media.

However, the scenario has changed. The governments in Nigeria both federal, states and local governments have now taken over the billboard media as a veritable avenue to exhibit their achievements to the public. Whether the so called achievements are real or mere propaganda instincts, it appears to be no body’s business since the aims of the sponsors of such messages or programmes are met. Due to the power media wield on its audience and the outdoor advertising media’s strong visual effects coupled with the digital and iconic element for optimum power of convergence, the government of Anambra State presently has seen the billboard medium as strong propaganda tool for showing its governmental programmes. In this regard, the nooks and crannies of major towns and highways in the state are adorned with billboards of various sizes and shapes, depicting different government acclaimed achievements. It is obvious that the sponsors are cashing on the tremendous influence advertising (billboard) has on the audience.

Nonetheless, Skinner (1980) cited in Bidemi (1999, p.5) opines that “advertising is an attempt at controlling human behaviour by appealing to human conscience and emotions”. To government and politicians, advertising is a tool for mass mobilization hence the usage of billboard medium as veritable propaganda tool in showcasing its achievement by the Anambra State Government speaks volumes. It is against this backdrop that this study seeks to find out the perception of respondents on Anambra State government use of Anambra State Integrated Development Strategy (ANIDS) billboard in showcasing social development projects in the State.

**Statements of Problem**

Advertisers, politicians and advocates of different causes have extensively used billboard to showcase their products, services, ideas and campaigns. In Nigeria and in Anambra State in particular, most of the streets and towns are adorned with different sizes of billboards designed to win public’s attention to different campaigners’ messages. The specific aspect of the campaigns that have been attracted this paper’s attention is the government’s use of billboards to publicize its acclaimed achievements. Most of these billboards often show good roads, hospitals built, renovated schools, transformers and sundry essential infrastructures claimed to have provided by present government. However, these billboard and their contents cost the government so much, yet nobody can say with any certainty if the citizens are buying into the message. Thus, the paper aims to ascertain the perception of the audience on the use of ANIDS billboards in showcasing Social development projects by Anambra State Government.

**Objectives of study**

1. To determine whether the respondents read messages of government’s social development projects being showcased on ANIDS billboards.
2. To find out if the respondents perceive the use of ANIDS billboard as a wasteful ventures by Anambra state government for showcasing social development projects.
3. To ascertain whether the respondents would consider Anambra state government’s show of accomplished social infrastructure on the ANIDS billboard as a piece of propaganda.
4. To determine whether the respondents would believe in those projects being showcased by government on the ANIDS’ billboard.

**Research Questions**

1. Would you read the messages of governments social development projects being showcased on the ANIDS billboard?
2. Would you consider the use of ANIDS billboard as a wasteful venture by Anambra state government in showcasing social development projects?
3. Do you consider those social development projects of government being showcased on the ANIDS billboard as a piece of propaganda?
4. Do you believe in messages of social development projects being showcased on ANIDS billboard by the Anambra state government?
Theoretical Foundation

Media audiences have certain behavioural traits which determine how they respond to media and advertising messages, thus study are guided by two theories individual difference theory and persuasion theory. Individual theory proposes that individuals respond differently to the mass media according to their psychological needs and that individuals consume the mass media to satisfy those needs. The need may be for information, integrative (offering a sense of belonging to a group of similarly interested people). Bittner (1989, P.376) identified individual differences as a reason for different reactions to mass media messages. Okunna (2002, p.20) corroborated Bittner on the issue “even when the evidence is made up of people from the same social category, there are individual, unique characteristics which affect the extent of a reaction to a message. Okunna (1994, p.169), elaborated on individual characteristics and how it affects the interpretation of mass media messages when argues further “persuasive media messages could fail either partially or totally to have the effect which the mass communicator, an advertiser perhaps intended to have on you”. On the contrary, Okunna concluded that the same could have the intended effect on another member of the audience with a different psychological makeup. Similarly, Defleur et al (1985, p.148) observes that all consuming question that has dominated research and development of contemporary theory in the study of the mass media can be summed up in simple terms namely, what have been their? That is how; have the media influence us as individual in terms of persuading us? Defleur and his co-researchers made two interrelated empirical generalizations in their study of individuals and media effects in this order.

1. That the influence of mass media is rarely direct because it is always mediated by individual differences.
2. That the influence of mass media is rarely direct because, it is almost and always mediated by group membership or relationships”.

From, the ongoing studies, researchers have not exactly arrived at a consensus on media effects. What this portends that, in some cases, the desired effects may be achieved, while under certain conditions, the messages could be mediated upon by some external variables. This has opened an access for more studies on the behavioural patterns of the audience as it relates to the use of media messages. One of such studies hinges on perception. Perception is a way stimuli such as commercial messages, advertisements like the billboard advertisement use in showcasing government achievements by the Anambra State government, news etc, are interpreted.

In addition, Severin et al (1992, p.102) noted that interests, needs and motives determine not only what will arouse attention, but will hold. The duo posit an advertisement for a particular service or product may not have a significant effect in changing attitudes of a majority of that particular audience while some fraction of that same audience may be well disposed of such an advertisement. This is why Anambra state government employs the use of billboards in showcasing development projects. The second theory used in this study is Persuasion theory. The theory focus on psychological characteristics that affect a person’s perception and response to messages. According to De Fossard (1997, p.8) the characteristics include:

i. knowledge and skills
ii. Attitudes towards behaviour and social issues
iii. Predisposition or preference
iv. Beliefs and consequences
v. Attitudes towards the sources of the message.

Many of these are related to demographic characteristics, such as age, gender, ethnic group, income and level of education. Persuasion theory also draws attention to the importance of message factors and source factors in influencing an audience. De Fossard (1997, p.9) opines that Message factors are the characteristics of a message that make it appropriate and effective for a particular audience; how long or complex it should be, what languages is best etc. different audience will have different preferences for message style. Source factors are characteristics of a message’s source that make it interesting, relevant and persuasive for a particular audience member. Among the most influential source are: credibility, attractiveness, similarity, authority and expertise.

Persuasion is the process of changing the attitude and perception of a target audience through the content of mass media messages. Steiner (1972) posits that persuasion is a process in which a communicator attempts to induce the belief, attitude or behaviour of another person or groups. Persuasion is seen as a deliberate attempt to modify the attitude or behaviour of another person or group by transmitting a message through
the mass media or any other relevant medium. This portends the reason Anambra State government is using ANIDS billboard as a veritable avenue to change, control and whip up support for its government.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE
AN OVERVIEW OF ANAMBRA STATE
Anambra State was created on 27 of August 1991 from the old Anambra State which hitherto comprised of present day Enugu and Ebonyi States. The State has its capital at Awka. It is one of the five States in the South East of Nigeria. The name Anambra is an anglicized version of the original “Oma Mbala” the native name of the Anambra River which also cris-crosses the length and breadth of the state. The State has boundaries by the west with Delta state, Imo and Rivers States to the South, Enugu State to the East and Kogi State to the North. The indigenous ethnic groups in Anambra state are the Igbo (98% of population) and a small population of Igala (2% of the population) who live in the North western part of the State.

According to 2006 census, Anambra State is the eight most populated States in Nigeria and the second most densely populated State in Nigeria after Lagos with population of 4,177,828. The stretch of more than 45 kilometers between Oba and Amorka contains a cluster of numerous thickly populated villages and small towns giving the area an estimated density of 1500-2000 persons living within every square kilometer of the area. Anambra State is rich in natural gas, crude oil, and bauxite, ceramic and has almost 100 percent arable soil. In 2006, foundation stone laying ceremony for the first Nigeria private Refinery (Orient petroleum Refinery) was made at Nsugbe-Umuleri area with a capacity of 55,000 barrels per day and it was commissioned on August 30, 2012 by President Goodluck Jonathan. The State has lots of tourism sites such as The Agulu Crocodile Lake, the Ogbunike cave at Oyi local government area, the Igboukwu museum (ancient town known for astonishing metal crafts and bronze artefacts) and the great metal foundry (Uzuoka) at Awka.

The State boasts of a litany of great men and woman both dead and the living. These include, the first president of Nigeria Dr. Nnamdi Azikiwe, first Nigeria Senate president Akwaeke Nwafor-Orizu, Dim Chukwuemeka Odumegwu Ojukwu, Cardinal Francis Arinze, Chief Alex Ekueme (Second republic vice president of Nigeria), computer guru, Philip Emeagwali, Professor Chike Obi, Professor Chinua Achebe of “Things fall apart fame” and Chief Emeka Anyaoku.

ANALYSING POLITICAL AND BILLBOARD ADVERTISING
Political advertising is the marketing of ideas, attitudes and concerns about public issues, including political concepts and political candidates. The essential task of political advertising is to gain the confidence of the people for their acceptance of ideas and, in the case of political campaign advertising differs from commercial advertising in that the product is a person or a philosophy rather than goods and services. Also, political advert carries a moral implication, because the results have potentially far-reaching effects on the population at large. Nwosu (2003, p.152-153) defines political advertising as:
Deliberate, systematic and sustained efforts to promote the cause of a political party, political organization, group or individual political actors or other interest groups (including voters or the electorate) involved in any form in the furtherance of the political process or achieving the political objectives of any local government, state, nation or the international community.

Nwosu (supra) further asserts that political advertising may cover very many areas of the political process, party formation, political campaign, membership, public and private political communications, image building, political speeches, an media relations management, lobbying, legislative proceedings, executive relationships with various groups and many more of such spheres of man’s political existence in any society. Political advertising combine all the features of product advertisements to promote candidates and woo voters. The ads ensure organized dissemination of information about candidates and parties based on their programme and methods of implementing them if they eventually get to power (Inornem, 1995). Just like Anambra State government is using billboard to showcase its achievements.

However, the success of this venture will depend on how effective and persuasive the adverts are in marketing the candidates. West (1984, p.27) observes that communication play an important role in political campaigns, candidates communicate messages to various constituencies, which these audiences receive and interpret. Political advertisements which entered into election campaigns around 1952 (Reece, 2004) have since grown in size and style of presentation both in the print and electronic media. Although, it was not until the 90s that Nigerian politicians became aware of the power and effectiveness of political adverts, it
International Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities Reviews
Vol.4 No.1, 2013

has since been used as a major persuasive strategy in canvassing support during elections and after elections to showcase their achievements especially through the use of billboard.

The term billboard advertising relates to the usage of signs along the waysides for the purpose of advertising and promoting a range of products and services. Billboard advertisements are designed to catch a person’s attention and create a memorable impression very quickly, leaving the reader thinking about the advertisement after they have driven past it. Billboard advertising continues to be an effective method of reaching out to the consumers. Since these advertisements can be viewed by the consumers at any point of time, the principal aspects of its effectiveness are cost saving and greater market coverage. Billboards are surely an efficient method to publicize products and services anywhere and anytime.

More so, technological furtherance has also played a major role in supporting its cost –effectiveness. In earlier days, billboards were generally painted by hard, and this was a high-priced. But, with today’s cutting-edge computer technology, they can now be designed with aid of computers and printed on vinyl paper, and then fixed on to the backcloth. The end result is super ordinate advertisement in very less time and also at an affordable price.

**TYPES OF BILLBOARDS**

There are different kinds of billboards, below are some of them according to Rampur (2012):

1. **Poster billboards**: They are utilized for outdoor advertising. They are impressed on 8 to 30 sheets of heavy paper, according to the size. It could last for about a month, depending on weather conditions, after which it is best to remove them.

2. **Painted boards**: It is known as painted bulletins, are covered with an outdoor paint which is resistant to weather. Some outdoor paints are specially made to withstand fading.

3. **Vinyl boards**: It is one of the latest methods of billboards advertising. They have attractive color, durable life and really fine graphics and artwork. They have a brighter appearance, and look much better than conventional billboards. They are usually sprayed with an UV protective coat and can last for years. There is a possibility of damage from wind, since they are not stuck to the surface, instead are attracted to the edges. But of types, vinyl ones contribute largely to advertising effectiveness.

4. **LED billboards**: are from the newer lot of outdoor advertising tools. The bright backlight and use of different colors grab instant attention of the onlookers. The adverts that are displayed are of high quality, as they are generally computer prints, with the addition of animation and other visual effects, the ads are becoming more interactive.

5. **Scrolling advert**: Is also a good way of putting the world across. If the advertiser pays for the entire board, he or she has the advantage of displaying about 10-30 ads on the same billboards.

**STRENGTHS OF BILLBOARD**

Even though billboards are the most basic outdoor media used in reaching potential and actual consumers outside their homes. It has some advantages and disadvantages. Below are some of the benefits;

1. Messages on billboards can be viewed and reviewed as many times as possible. Nwabuez (2006, p.77) postulates that this provide high frequency of audience exposure to the message which is necessary in order to make an impression on the audience.

2. The billboard is a cost effective medium. It cost less to reach a greater number of people over a period of time than it would cost in other media. Just like other outdoor media, billboards offer the lowest cost per exposure of any major advertising medium (Arens and Bovee, 1994, p.471).

3. They are used to target consumers at odd times or during “unrelaxed” periods i.e. while they are on their way. This is different from other media which messages are consumed while the audiences are relatively relaxed.

4. Billboards are often large and intimidating, especially when placed in strategic places in middle of cities. This ensures that the message makes a quick but persuasive impression in the minds of the audience.

5. It ensures customized placement: you can place your billboard advertisement wherever you feel it will have impact the most.

**Weaknesses of Billboards**

1. Billboards targets only mobile audience. This means that if the target audience and not always on the road, its usage may become ineffective.
2. It is basically a reminder medium, i.e. reminds the audience of what they have watched, heard or
to as carried by other media. Thus, if the audiences have not yet been exposed to a message
through other media, they may find it difficult to understand a billboard message which is often
short does not contain enough messages.
3. It could be expensive to produce a billboard message initially and the huge cost may discourage
their usage.
4. Long-term commitment: billboards companies often have business enter into contracts that involve
long-term commitment mainly, this is because it takes a lot of time, energy and money to constantly
change billboards advert. According to Robertson (2012), billboard contracts usually cover duration of
three months. This makes billboard advertising less conducive to business that frequently change
their advertising companies on a weekly and monthly basis.

ANIDS PHILOSOPHY
After nearly three years at the election petitions tribunal and the court of appeal, Mr. Peter Greg obi was, on
March 15th, 2006, declared the duly elected candidate in the April 2003 governorship election in Anambra
State. He was sworn into office on Friday March 17, 2006. On May 1st 2006, governor Obi released a
publication he termed my contract with the people of Anambra State for the next 12 months. 30th April, 2006
to 30th April, 2007. This signaled high hope and spontaneous exultation among Anambraians as well as great
expectations. Anambra State was born a new dawn.

However, for the critical realists, anxiety welled up as they weighed the scary implications should Obi renege
on his avowed social contract with the people. Awake to his responsibilities, Mr. Obi deployed all in his
armoury towards a comprehensive enhancement of the State. He started first by exhorting Anambraians to
rediscover themselves and wriggle out of the psychological quagmire they had lived within the years past.
A structural reorientation programme was instituted to cleansed contaminated world view of Anambra
people and enable them both appreciate unfolding development strides of the State government. In other to
achieve some of its developmental goals, the State government adopted the millennium Development Goals
(M.D.G) as its vision, and because the M.D.G is multisectoral, the State adopted a multisectoral approach
towards achieving it. This gave birth to Anambra State Integrated Development Strategy (ANIDS) as the
vehicle for driving the vision simultaneously in every sphere. According to Obi he adopted M.D.G goals as
the state vision and ANIDS as a vehicle to reach that. “ANIDS help us to plan properly, budget properly
and execute our plans while receiving adequate feedback from the people, through ANIDS, we are working
on all sectors simultaneously” (www.nigeriamasterweb.com)

METHODOLOGY
This study used survey research method. It is the study of a group of people (respondents) by asking them
questions, which extract answers that will be used in providing an analytical and empirical solution to a
problem. The outcome is generalized on the entire population where a sample is studied. Nwabueze (2008,
p.180) notes that “Survey research studies both large and small population by selecting and studying samples
chosen from the population”. Supporting this stance, Ohaja (2003, p.74), states succinctly, “Topics
concerning public perception of or responses to issues require survey”.

POPULATION OF STUDY
The population of this study consists of the entire literate Anambra State indigenes between the ages of 20-
69, residents in the State whose population figure stood at 4,177828 based on the 2006 National population
Census. Below are the figures from each of the Local government areas.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A Anambra Central</th>
<th>LOCAL GOVERNMENTS</th>
<th>POPULATION FIGURES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Anaocha</td>
<td>284, 215</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Awka North</td>
<td>112, 192</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Awka South</td>
<td>189, 654</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Dunukofia</td>
<td>96, 517</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Idemili North</td>
<td>431, 005</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Idemili South</td>
<td>206, 816</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Njikoka</td>
<td>148, 394</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,468, 793</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: 2006 population and housing census of the Federal Republic of Nigeria
B. Anambra North

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO</th>
<th>LOCAL GOVERNMENTS</th>
<th>POPULATION FIGURES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Anambra East</td>
<td>152,149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Anambra West</td>
<td>167,303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Ayamelum</td>
<td>158,152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Ogbaru</td>
<td>223,317</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Onitsha North</td>
<td>125,918</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Onitsha South</td>
<td>137,191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Oyi</td>
<td>168,201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>1,132,231</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: 2006 population and housing census of the Federal Republic of Nigeria

C. Anambra South

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO</th>
<th>LOCAL GOVERNMENTS</th>
<th>POPULATION FIGURES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Aguata</td>
<td>369,972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Ekwusigo</td>
<td>158,429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Ihiala</td>
<td>302,277</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Nnewi North</td>
<td>155,443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Nnewi South</td>
<td>233,362</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Orumba North</td>
<td>172,772</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Orumba South</td>
<td>184,548</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>1,576,804</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: 2006 population and housing census of the Federal Republic of Nigeria

Sample size and Sampling Technique

A sample size is an individual portion by which the quality of more of the same sort is to be deduced or judged. Social Scientists agree that when a population is defined, the Taro Yamani’s formula can be used to determine the sample size, thus the researcher decided to use the formula. Below is the formula.

\[ n = \frac{N}{1 + N \cdot e^2} \]

Where
- \( n \) = Sample Size
- \( N \) = Population
- \( I \) = Constant
- \( E \) = Error margin

Since the researcher cannot reach out to all the 177 communities that make up Anambra State, a purposive sampling technique was adopted, in this method, the researcher selected sample subjects to confirm to some control measures dictated by some inherent characteristics of the population of interest. In choosing such samples, the researcher was guided by what he considers typical cases that are mostly likely to provide him with the requisite data or information that is representative of the entire population of interest. For example the educational background of the population of study as well as their age bracket.

Ohaja (2003, p.82) asserts that “purposive sampling is used when the researcher seeks certain characteristics in his sampling elements and wants to ensure that those chosen have the characteristics.” Similarly, Ikeagwu (1998, p.189) observed “the basic assumption behind purposive sampling is that with good judgment and an appropriate strategy, one can hand pick the cases to be included in the sample and thus develop samples that are satisfactory in relation to one’s needs” In this study, two local government areas were purposively
selected from each of the three senatorial zones in the state owing to their strategic nature as well as their collated estimated adult literate population of ages between 20-69 for effective representation. Here are the selected local governments.

1. Anambra Central

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO</th>
<th>LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA</th>
<th>POPULATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>AWKA SOUTH</td>
<td>189,654</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>IDEMILI NORTH</td>
<td>431,654</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Anambra North

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO</th>
<th>LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA</th>
<th>POPULATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>ONITSHA NORTH</td>
<td>125,918</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>ONITSHA SOUTH</td>
<td>137,191</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Anambra South

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO</th>
<th>LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA</th>
<th>POPULATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>AGUATA</td>
<td>369,972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>NNEWI NORTH</td>
<td>155,443</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, in determining the number of respondents to be administered with questionnaires in each local government area that were purposively selected, the researcher applied the Taro Yamani’s formula stated above in getting the sample size of 6142. The population of each of the selected local government areas from the three senatorial zones of Anambra State is divided by the sample size figure of 6142 as shown below.

\[
N = \frac{2456,468}{1+2,456,468 x 0.0025}
\]

Therefore, the sample size is 6,142

Hence, the workings:

1 Anambra Central

A. Awka South
Population 189,654
\[
6142 \div 189,654 = 31
\]

B. Idemili North
Population 431,005
\[
6142 \div 431,005 = 70
\]

2 Anambra North

A. Onitsha North
Population 125,918
Sample Size 6142 = 21

B. Onitsha South
Population 137,191
Sample Size 6142 = 22

3 Anambra South

A. Aguata
Population 369,972
Sample Size 6142 = 60

B. Nnewi North
Population 155,443
Sample Size 6142 = 25

TOTAL 229
DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

For the purpose of this study, two hundred and twenty nine (229) questionnaires were distributed to respondents, but 220 were filled, returned and found usable, yielding to 96 percent response rate.

4.2 Answers to Research Questions.

Research Question 1: Do you actually read the messages of government Social Development projects being showcased on the ANIDS billboard?

Table 1: Respondent readership level of government message on Social development project showcased on ANIDS billboard.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>14.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>83.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can’t say</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>220</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: 2013 field survey

From the table above, it is deducible that a total of 32 (14.5%) of the respondents read the messages of government Social development projects being showcased on the ANIDS billboard, 183 (83.2%) said no, while 5 (2.3%) of the respondents could not decide on the issue.

Research Question 2: Would the respondents perceive the use of ANIDS billboard as a wasteful venture for showcasing governments Social development projects by Anambra State government?

Table 2: Respondents perceives the use of ANIDS billboard as wasteful venture for showcasing government Social development projects.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>87.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>12.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can’t say</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>220</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: 2013 field survey

Table 2 showed that a total of 193(87.7%) respondents agreed that it is a wasteful venture to use ANIDS billboard to showcase government Social development projects by Anambra state government, 27 (12.3%) respondents said no and can’t say have nil.

Research Question 3: Would you consider those social development projects of government being showcased on the ANIDS billboard as a piece of propaganda?

Table 3: Respondents perceives the social development projects of government on ANIDS billboard as a piece of propaganda.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>85.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>12.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can’t say</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>220</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: field survey 2013

From the table , 189 (85.9%) respondents agreed that the social development project of government being showcased on the ANIDS billboard is purely a propaganda machinery of government, 27 (12.3%) disagreed to this notion, while 4(1.8%) could not say whether yes or no.

Research Question 4: Do you believe in the message content about the social development projects being showcased on ANIDS billboard by Anambra State government?
Table 4: Respondents view on the message content about the social development projects being showcased on ANIDS billboard.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can’t say</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: field survey 2013

The information on the table above suggests that 52 (24%) of the sampled respondents believed in the message content of social development projects being showcased on ANIDS billboard by Anambra State government, 152(72%) of the respondents does not believe in the message content, while 9 (4%) can’t say.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The findings suggests that 32 or 14.5% of the respondents said they read messages of government social development projects being showcased on the ANIDS billboard, 183 (83.2%) respondents said they do not read the messages, while 5 (2.3%) respondents can’t say. Contrary to the findings above, Nwabueze (2006, p.76) posits that “intimidating nature of these billboards in the middle of cities and on highways, including the high fidelity of images/messages on them, make a quick but persuasive impression in the minds of mobile audience”. Also, the analysis indicates that a significant 193(87.7%) respondents perceived the use of ANIDS billboard for showcasing governments social development projects by Anambra State government as a wasteful venture, 27 (12.3%) said it is not a wasteful venture.

In addition, 189 (85.9%) respondents agreed that social development projects of government being showcased on the ANIDS billboard is purely a propaganda machinery of government, 27 (12.3%) disagreed to this notion, while 4 (1.8%) can’t say. This finding is related to Ibe (2009) findings on “Newspapers coverage of infrastructural development in Anambra State under Peter Obis’s administration (a study of Vanguard and National Lights). Ibe (2009, p.43) asserted that “coverage of the infrastructural development in Anambra State under Peter Obi’s administration were mostly covered by national light newspaper (owned by Anambra state government) considering the fact that the ownership influence affected it, because its circulation and coverage is mostly based in Anambra State.

Also, 52 or 24 percent of the respondents believed firmly in the message content about the social development projects being showcased on ANIDS billboard, 152 (72%) said they do not believe in the message content, while 9 (4%) could not decide on the issue.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of this study, it is concluded that significant number of people in Anambra State does not read messages of government social development projects being showcased on the ANIDS billboards, while few of them barely read the messages. Majority of the people perceived the use of ANIDS billboard for showcasing government’s social development projects by Anambra State government as wasteful venture. On the contrary some of them think otherwise. They study found that most people considered those social development projects of government being showcased on the ANIDS billboard as a piece of propaganda, while some of them said is not a propaganda. Similarly, few respondents believed in the message content of social development projects being showcased on ANIDS billboard, while majority said they do not believed on such messages.

It is therefore, recommended that Anambra State government should be initiating peoples oriented programmes and policies, this will arouse enthusiasm amongst the people and as well makes them to read such messages. As the adage suggests “good market sells itself”. The government should do away with the idea of using billboard as propaganda tools for its governance, through showcasing of those acclaimed achievements on ANIDS billboard, rather if at all it wants to highlight its social development projects through billboard, proper measure must be taken to ensure that projects being exposed can be quantified. Also, government should consider alternative means of showcasing its achievement rather than billboard medium as its cost so much to produce, thus government should convene a town hall meeting monthly to
brief the people on its achievements strides. They can also use radio medium, it has potential of reaching numerous people.

In as much as publicity is a welcome development in every endeavour, the government should combine the mechanism of billboard advertising of its achievements with good democracy dividend, these are surest way possible for it to win back the peoples’ loyalty and acceptance. The relevant advertising regulatory agencies such as Outdoor Advertising Association of Nigeria (OAAN), Advertising practitioners’ council of Nigeria (APCON) etc should scrutinize the messages on the billboards being sponsored by the various governments as well as the political parties and their candidates to ensure that they comply with the advertising codes.

REFERENCES
APPENDIX

Unity Kapital Assurance plc,
41, New Market Road Onitsha,
Anambra State,
March, 2013.

Dear Respondent,

This study is designed to ascertain “Audience perception of the use of billboard in showcasing government’s social development projects: a study of Anambra state integrated development strategy billboard” (ANIDS). This is an issue of great importance to Anambra residents and general public. Kindly assist us by completing the attached questionnaires. All the information you give will be totally confidential. Thank you and God bless.

Yours truly,

Ezegwu Daniel / Mbonu Alfred

SECTION A

1. Sex (i) male (ii) Female

2. Age Bracket (a) 20-29 (b) 30-39 (c) 40-49 (d) 50-59
   (e) 60-69

3. Occupation (a) Civil servant/paid Employment (b) Student
   (c) Business (d) Others

4. Educational Background (a) First School Leaving Certificate
   (b) SSCE, GCE, WAEC (c) OND, NCE (d) BSC, HND
   (e) MSC MA, PhD (f) Others

SECTION B

1. Does the Anambra State government make use of billboard to showcase its governmental achievements? (a) Yes (b) No (c) Can’t say

2. Do you actually read the messages of government social development projects being showcased on the ANIDS billboard? (a) Yes (b) No (c) Can’t say

3. If yes, do you believe in the message content about the social development projects being showcased on ANIDS billboard by Anambra State government? (a) Yes (b) No (c) Can’t say

4. Do the peoples’ exposure to the ANIDS billboard advert messages of governmental achievements significantly shored up the governments image and acceptance by the governed? (a) Yes (b) No (c) Can’t say

5. Would you advice the government to continue with its ideas of using ANIDS billboard in showcasing its social development projects? (a) Yes (b) No (c) Can’t say

6. Is the use of ANIDS billboard in showcasing of its social development projects by the Anambra state government a wasteful venture? (a) Yes (b) No (c) Can’t say

7. Do you see those billboard messages of the state government as mere propaganda machinery? (a) Yes (b) No (c) Can’t say

8. Would you advice the government to continue with its idea of using ANIDS billboard in showcasing its social development projects? (a) Yes (b) No (c) Can’t say

9. What advice would you proffer to the government on the issue of ANIDS billboard advertisement? (a) To discard the use of billboard as propaganda tools and initiate people oriented projects.
   (b) To be convening town hall meetings periodically and be listening to the popular opinions as regards to good governance.
   (c) To go ahead with the billboard and media propaganda.
   (d) A and B above.

10. What do you appreciate most about those expose of government s social development projects on billboards? (a) Glossy and colourful designs
(b) Strong visuals effects /Appeal
(c) All of the above.
ANALYSIS OF ANTI GRAFT WAR AS AN ANTIDOTE TO NIGERIA’S CRISIS OF CORRUPTION

By

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ABSTRACT
Due to the lamentable state of the nation regarding corruption, the Nigerian state had at various times come up with policies and programmes to curtail the problem. Among these is the creation of EFCC and ICPC. The proper analysed wither the antigraft war of EFCC and ICPC really served as an antidote to corruption in Nigeria. Data came from both primary and secondary sources. The primary data was through observation and interview conducted to a sample (339) of EFCC and ICPC personnel as well as MPA Students, while the secondary data was gotten from literatures. It was found that the failure of ACAs to effectively curtail corruption was due to low autonomy, ineffective punishment and low commitment on the part of personnel.
It was recommended that ACAs should be fully autonomous; their staff be more committed; and punishments be reviewed and made more severe.

Keywords: Corruption, anti-graft, punishment, autonomy and transparency

Introduction
It will be very pertinent to begin by underscoring the fact that corruption is a malaise not peculiar to only one country, region or continent, but rather a hydra-headed dragon. In other words, corruption is a vice that undermines cross-cultural, cross-temporal and cross-national boundaries. This justifies why it has been condemned everywhere in the world and by all the major religions. However, this does not add to the sweat of the development theorists in propounding a unified theory on corruption. However, note should be taken that, even though there is no society that is completely corruption free, it does not mean the magnitude, incidence and manner are the same everywhere in the world. Along a similar line of reasoning, a website article (www.gorgeehusaini.org) asserts that, “it is a relative concept being a function of specific normative, social, historical, cultural, economic and political circumstances as well as legal instruments.”

Let us shun the nagging attempt to verify the origin of corruption in Nigeria and point out that it came to the open at the creation of modern public administration in the country (Wikipedia.org). Ours is a country that is blessed with abundant human and material resources that it was predicted after a decade of independence to be one of the world’s powerful and largest economies. Sadly, this is a dream Nigerians are still chasing as the country’s resources are withered away by the day with little to show in the living condition of the populace. This situation can not be divorced from the cankerworm of corruption that has now led the country to be labeled a “crippled giant” and 139th out of 176 most corrupt countries in the world (transparency.org). Regrettably, it now appears as if without corruption, the social, political and economic systems cannot function.
Consequent upon this sorry state of affairs, the government had at various times came up with different policies and programmes to arrest the situation. Among these is the creation of Anti-graft Agencies or otherwise called Anticorruption Agencies (ACAs). Inclusive are; the Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Commission (ICPC); the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC); and the Code of Conduct Bureau (CCB). These are autonomous bodies established by law and saddled with the primary task of fighting corruption in the land.

Hence, this paper is out to analyze the extent to which the anti-graft war waged the by ACAs serve as an antidote to Nigeria’s crisis of corruption with emphasis on EFCC and ICPC.

Statement of the Problem
Sections 1 (2) (a-b); 9 (1) and 14 – 18 of the EFCC Acts, 2004 are outright regarding the autonomy of the commission; staff regulations as well as punishments decreed for corrupt practices respectively, just as the ICPC Act, 2000 did in sections 3 (14); 3(8-26) and 4 (11-13). This is in complement to their tasks of entertaining and investigating complaints; creating awareness; collecting and ensuring asset declarations among others. The foregoing all boil down to nothing but the ultimate goal of curbing corruption. Thus, if the above are adhered to thoroughly, it is expected that the anti-graft war of ACAs will be a success. However, the curiosity in this paper is, has the anti-graft war of ACAs really served as an antidote to Nigeria’s corruption? In attending to the above problem, the following research questions were raised:

a. How autonomous are ACAs vis-à-vis the war against corruption?
b. How resourceful are the personnel of ACAs?
c. How strict and severe are the punishments for corrupt offences?

Objectives of the Study
The cardinal objective of this paper remains an analysis of anti-graft war as an antidote to Nigeria’s corruption. Apart from the above though, the following objectives were outlined:

a. To find out how autonomous are ACAs vis-à-vis the war against corruption.
b. To see how resourceful are the personnel of ACAs

c. To explore the strictness and severity of punishments for corrupt offences.

Hypothesis of the Study
This paper is guided by the hypothesis below:

\[ H_0: \text{Anti-graft war has not served as an antidote to Nigeria’s corruption.} \]
\[ H_1: \text{Anti-graft war served as an antidote to Nigeria’s corruption} \]

Scope and Limitation of the Study
This paper analyses anti-graft war as an antidote to Nigeria’s corruption. However, we recognize the fact that anti-graft war in Nigeria takes a verity of forms. As such, we chose to limit our concern to the role played by ACAs, or more specifically, the EFCC and ICPC. With regards to time, the paper covers the period between 2003 and 2011. This being the period the country witnessed a change both in government and leadership of the Commissions. Further, corruption being an ambiguous concept, emphasis is on economic and financial crimes reason being that they are keen to good governance and economic development. This is indeed one of the limitations of the paper. Others are time and resource constraints to have done better.

Significance of the Study
Due to the pervasive and endemic nature of corruption, a lot of researches have been conducted on it. But then, from the literatures available to the researcher, much is needed on corruption vis-à-vis the anti-graft war of EFCC and ICPC, particularly now that the commissions assume a larger-than-life position (Waziri, 2011). Thus, it is hoped this work will bridge the gap of knowledge in this area. Also, the findings of this research will help the government in reviewing its policies should the need arises. Moreso, the populace and the civil societies will be updated on the success or otherwise recorded by the anti-graft war of ACAs.

Review of Literature
Concept and Types of Corruption
Just like other social science concepts (e.g. poverty), corruption is difficult to define. In other words, it is an elusive and ambiguous phenomenon whose household and universal characteristics do not make easy to
define. It has been over-flogged in academic circles, yet no clear cut definition has been submitted. Perhaps, this is due to the fact that individuals, scholars and institutions view the term from their respective perception, discipline, environment and time-period. That is why Arnold (1970 in Farrales, 2005) argued that the definitions are either public office; market or public interest centered.

According to World Bank (1997), corruption is defined as the abuse of public office for private gain. Also, Transparency International (TI) (2004) defined it as the misuse of entrusted power for private gain. Johnston (1996 in EFCC 2009) sees it as the abuse of public roles for private benefit. To cut, it short, the contributions of Myint (2000) and Sen (1999 in Dike, 1999) are also not significantly different from the above assertions. What is observable from the foregoing is that, they see corruption as vice found only within the borders of public sector. But is corruption found only in the public sector? And what can we say of corrupt cases as currency counterfeiting and advanced fee fraud. Dike (1999) quoting Osoba (1999) define corruption as an anti-social behaviour conferring improper benefits contrary to legal and moral norms, and which undermine the authorities to improve the living conditions of the people. However, corruption is contrary to not only legal and moral norms, but also socio-cultural, political and economic norms.

The little above highlights the definitional crisis of corruption. Thus, the complexity and multifaceted nature of corruption could be unbundled through an understanding of the forms, types and activities that fall within it. And a comprehensive definition should address the “who, what, when, where and how of corruption”. By and large, we may take the term to mean any deliberate commission or omission of an act or behaviour which violates any public or civic order, either by an individual, group or corporate organization for a private gain.

Also, as with definition, there is no general consensus about the types of corruption. But the most common classifications are; political (grand), economic, systemic and bureaucratic (petty).

**Perceived Causes of Corruption**
World Bank (1997) argued that, “the causes of corruption are always contextual, rooted in a country’s policies, bureaucratic traditions, political development and social history”. It is most prevalent where there are forms of institutional weaknesses such as political instability, bureaucratic red tape, weak legislative and judicial systems. This is justified on the ground that corruption and such weaknesses are linked together and that they feed upon each other (Myint, 2000).

Many factors have been identified as the lakes that water the roots of corruption. The list cannot be exhausted, but here are a few of such: inequality, greed, lack of patriotism, bad leadership, lack of transparency and accountability, poor pay incentive, poverty, unemployment, monopoly, long military rule, poor sectoral linkages. In short, the causes of corruption in Nigeria are institutional, socio-cultural, political, judicial, economic and legislative.

**Perceived Effects of Corruption**
Surprisingly, there are some scholars termed “revisionists” in the 19th century who claimed that corruption is more beneficial than destructive. People like Pye (1965), Glueckman (1955), McMullan (1961) and Stils (1962) all subscribe to this view. They argued that corruption is beneficial to political development, strengthening of value system, easing transition from traditional to modern life and that it humanizes government and make it less awesome (Dike, 2003). However, a critical look at the manifestations and consequences of corruption especially in the contemporary period will make their argument a fallacy, to say the least.

Thus, like a deadly virus, corruption attacks the vital structures that make for society’s progressive functioning, and put its very existence into serious peril. Put differently, it threatens and subsequently destroys the social order and common good of the society. According to a web article (gorgeehusaini.org), corruption aggravates poverty; fuel conflict; sustain misery and injustice; and that it promotes bad governance and retards development. It went further to say that, it is an affront on human dignity, an assault on the human conscience, and a negation on the fundamental human orientation towards truth, justice and fair-play. In fact, corruption has been accused for not only the broken promises, but also dashed hopes and shallow dreams.
Indeed, it is impossible to overstate the poisoning which corruption brought to Nigeria. Literally, it undermines effective governance and erodes the social and moral fabrics of the nation (Dike, 2003). According to Yusuf (2000), “it is because of corruption that neither the landscape of Nigeria nor the standard of living of its citizens has significantly increased since independence, despite the huge deposits of natural and human resources in the country.” Therefore, as Idris (2011) submitted, corruption affects the economy, political circle, socio-cultural setting, administrative structure and the entire Nigerian environment.

Likely Strategies in Curbing Corruption
As has been said earlier, there exist no unified theory on corruption. While some countries grow up corruption related policies, others merely transplant. In Nigeria analytically, there is no particular regime or government that did not wage a war against corruption. However, such attempts suffered severe blows that it now appears as if corruption has been legalized in Nigeria. But Dike (2003) has said it all when he asserted:

“Some human ailments could require many dozens of medicines to be treated. Similarly, the menace of corruption which has eaten deep into the fabric of Nigeria would require all the “medicines” necessary to effectively control it. In other words, no simple and single remedy will do it; and the problem cannot be solved overnight, because... Corruption has been ingrained into the fabric of the society. Nigeria has in theory, the solutions in the book to tackle corruption; but like other issues (poverty etc) bedeviling the nation, implementation of the laws are the “Achilles heels” (vulnerable point) of the society”. (The Guardian, July 10th, 2002 in Dike, 2003).

Therefore, of no less importance now is the political will that will use words and action to tame the menace. But it should be noted that as Myint (2000) cautioned, emphasis must be placed on preventing corruption by tackling the root causes that give rise to it through undertaking economic, political and institutional reforms. He argued that anti-corruption enforcement measures such as oversight bodies, a strengthened police force and more efficient law courts will not be effective in the absence of a serious effort to address the fundamental causes.

By and large, aside of incorporating integrity doctrine and anti-corruption principles into the school curricula; good governance, transparency, accountability and the rule of law are the keys to tackling corruption in the society as corrupt leaders cannot wage an effective war against corruption (Dike, 2003).

The words of African Development Bank (2006) as reiterated by Idris (2011 are very relevant here. Hear this: “corrupt practices become the exemption rather than the norm if the likelihood of being caught is high, if the consequence once caught is predictable and severe, and if it is generally condemned by the society.”

Theoretical Framework: Systems Theory
The systems theory to organizational analysis is said to have many contributions, but H.A. Simon (1959) is credited as the foremost. It view an organization as a system of interrelated and interdependent set of elements, each of which makes a contribution to the survival of the whole and each of which depends on other parts of the system for its own needs. In otherwords, the sub-systems work toward synergy to accomplish organizational goals that could otherwise not be attained by a single sub-system. Thus, a part cannot be altered without affecting other parts. What the system analyst hope to do is to predict the system’s movement and offer the explanation or prescription for the relationship between its parts which afford it the best chance of accomplishing goals (Eghe, 2006).

A system consist of some key components that makes it a complete whole: input process, output, environment and feedback. The central guiding principle in the systems theory is the assumption of equilibrium between the parts as well as between input and output. ACAs in this context are a system made up of different departments and units that relate to achieve the goal of curbing corruption. This makes it necessary for them to collect input from their environment (nation) which is then transformed into outputs. These inputs include: petitions, complaints, demands, support and resources. They are then transformed through technical and managerial processes to give output in form of prevention, punishment, enlightenment and detection.

Methodology
Data for this study came through both primary secondary sources. The primary sources included interview and personal observation, whereas the secondary sources are from literatures which cover text books, magazines, journals, official publications, scholarly articles and the internet. Our population comprises of
the staff of EFCC, ICPC and 2010/2011 MPA students of ABU Zaria who were 2,207 altogether. On the part of the staff, they were believed to be familiar with the operations and activities of their respective commissions. While the MPA students were seen as a mini-Nigeria as each of the geo-political zones if not states of the country is represented. However, 339 elements were chosen using Yamane’s (1967) formula and stratified simple random sampling technique was employed. Data was analyzed qualitatively using content analysis and descriptive statistics.

**Results, Discussions and Findings**
The data gathered from the primary and secondary sources are presented and analyzed in this section. The variable discussed are the autonomy of ACAs; resourcefulness of their personnel; and severity of punishments. These were however examined in relation to the fight against corruption.

**Autonomy of ACAs**
ACAs’ ability to proceed with their activities without undue internal or external influence will go a long way in defining their performance. In other words, their cumulative independence is a good determinant of their effectiveness or otherwise. Autonomy here was considered from the points of: freedom from political interference; independence in decision making and financial autonomy. In view of the above, we interviewed the respondents regarding the general autonomy of ACAs. The result however indicates that it is not on the average as attested to by 52.5% of our respondents. On the ground of political interference, this is evidenced by the arbitrary removal of the Chairmen of particularly the EFCC so much so that the commission had not less than three Chairmen in a decade of its establishment. The commissions also face financial difficulties that often times we see, read and hear them pleading with the government to increase their allocation being their major source of fund, especially the ICPC.

**Resourcefulness of the Staff of ACAs**
Our respondents were asked to opine their views regarding the resourcefulness of personnel in the ACAs under study. This became necessary due to the fact that, no matter how the vision, mission, policy objective and prospects of ACAs may be, they will remain toothless unless the human factor is included. A checklist for resourcefulness here comprises of the availability, effectiveness, motivation, devotion, working tools as well as welfare packages of staff in ACAs. The responses gathered show that with the staff of EFCC, if not for the question mark on devotion are indeed resourceful. This is not surprising as the commission enjoys strong collaboration from both domestic and international donor agencies and security networks. The problem here is with the ICPC as it suffers shortage of personnel and working tools, and that the staff in stock are not strongly motivated.

**Severity of Punishments**
The World Bank (2006 in Idris, 2011) argues that corruption becomes the exemption rather than the norm if the consequence one caught are predictable and severe. No wonder these punishments are covered by sections 14-18 of the EFCC Act, 2004 and 4(11-13) of ICPC Act, 2000. Hence our interview covered issues as: effectiveness of punishments; level of convictions and prosecutions; as well as speed in trials. The result indicates that these punishments are infact ineffective and mild. And although convictions are fair-enough, prosecutions made were very poor. Sources from the secondary data further confirm this. For instance, John Yakubu of the Police Pension Fund was fined a paltry sum of N750,000 for stealing N27 billion. Also, in less than a decade of establishing EFCC, fairly 616 convictions were recorded while only 1,503 prosecutions were made despite the pervasiveness of corruption in Nigeria (Waziri, 2011).

To this end, the following findings were arrived at:

a. Generally, ACAs lack strong autonomy in their operations, and this is moreso with the EFCC.
b. While little is required to standardize the personnel of EFCC compared to their counterparts in ICPC, there is need for both to show commitment and fairness in their duties.
c. Punishments decreed for corrupt offences are ineffective and mild.

**Conclusion and Recommendation**
Nigeria’s socio-cultural, political and economic development has been hijacked by the menace of corruption. This is why the Nigerian government came up with several policies and programmes among which is the creation of EFCC and ICPC. Their primary task is to serve as an antidote to the country’s crisis of corruption. However, from the study conducted we can safely conclude that the war against corruption waged by ACAs
leaves much to be desired and this is blamed on their lack of total autonomy, ineffectiveness of punishments and partly on the need for commitment and fairness on the part of their personnel.

From the findings made by the research, the following recommendations are submitted:

a. The law should be strict in terms of the autonomy of ACAs as enshrined in their Acts.
b. ACAs should be funded directly rather than through the executive; and that transparency and accountability should be demonstrated by their managements.
c. The personnel in ACAs especially those in ICPC should be made more available; provided with necessary working tools; and should be more committed and fair in their duties.
d. The Nigerian law codes and statutes should be reviewed to keep in touch with modern day realities and be compatible with the gravity of a crime.

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FACEBOOK AND DIGITAL ACTIVISM: CONVERSATIONS ABOUT PEACE BUILDING IN NIGERIA BETWEEN A PRESIDENT AND HIS “FRIENDS” ON FACEBOOK

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Abstract
This study analyzed conversations between President Goodluck Jonathan and his Facebook ‘friends” about security problems in Nigeria. Specifically, the paper examined how social media, particularly Facebook, is providing a platform for Nigerians to speak about governance and leadership in the country. The method is a textual analysis of user comments on the President’s Facebook Page in response to his post about security challenges in Nigeria posed by terrorist activities of Boko Haram, an Islamic fundamentalist group. The paper also examined how comments of the President’s Facebook “friends” reflect the current political and economic situation in the country. The comments, analyzed through the prism of the encoding and decoding model, provides a framework for understanding the impact of the Internet and computer-mediated communication on free speech and civic participation in Nigeria. Findings of the study reveal that anonymity on the Web is emboldening Nigerians to demand for transparency from their leaders.

Keywords: Textual analysis, Terrorism, Political Conversation, Facebook, Nigeria

Introduction
New social technology is not only revolutionizing the way Nigerians interact with each other, it is increasingly making it easier for them to maintain contacts, and build new relationships. Facebook is specifically changing the way Nigerians are discussing issues that affect them. Even though the Nigerian constitution allows for free speech and expression, the situation in the country is not about freedom of speech, it is rather an issue where freedom after the speech is not guaranteed as both the media and people in the country are still constrained when it comes to expressing their views about governance and leadership in the country (Spiegel, 2011; Okonkwo, 2012; Adepegba, 2012).

Ranked number two after Google, Facebook, with more than 800 million active users, (Facebook Press Room, 2012) is popular among Nigerians, with the number of users rising from 400,000 in 2008 to 4.3 million in 2012 (Elebeke, 2012). Tapping into the viability of Facebook as a political communication tool, President Goodluck Jonathan opened a Facebook account in 2011 to discuss his “transformation agenda” and after his reelection, issues of governance about government policies. The friendly exchange and interaction between the President and his Facebook “friends” has however taken a different dimension, with the President’s Facebook page becoming a forum for dissertation by his ‘friends’ and other Nigerians protesting against the current security situation in the country.

Enraged by terrorist activities in the country, especially, a 2011 Christmas day attack on Christians at a church in Madalla, the bombing of the UN building in Abuja and terrorist attacks in Kano State by Boko Haram, an Islamic fundamentalist group in the country, President Goodluck Jonathan’s Facebook ‘friends’ expressed displeasure about the security situation in the country and his administration’s policies for addressing the problem. Taiwo (2012) described President Goodluck Jonathan as the most cursed president on Facebook. Even though he enjoyed a lot of support from his “friends,” his handling of the security problems seems to have changed their perception about him (Taiwo, 2012; Ikem, 2012; Egbunike, 2012; Okonkwo, 2012).

This paper therefore examined how Nigerians are, through these Facebook posts, raising fundamental issues about the terrorist activities of Boko Haram and the President’s policies for addressing the problem. Their interaction on Facebook is important for understanding how the social networking site is changing the way
Nigerians are discussing issues that affect them. This study therefore provides a framework for understanding the impact of the internet and computer-mediated communication on free speech and civic participation in Nigeria. The paper is divided into four sections: the first part is a review of literature related to this study; the second and third parts cover the theoretical framework and methods; while part four presents findings and the conclusion.

**Facebook and Political Communication: Review of Related Literature**

Several studies identify social networking sites as creating new opportunities and platforms for political expression and participation (Youm, 2003; Di Gennaro & Dulton, 2007; Madore, 2009; Coleman and Wright, 2008; Coleman and Moss, 2008; Kennedy, 2008; Emruli, Zejnperi & Agai, 2011). Social networking sites like Facebook enable politicians to reach and interact with thousands of people outside their geographic locations, more than they could achieve using traditional methods (Youm, 2003, Madore, 2009). Even though activities on Facebook center mostly on social interaction between users, their friends, and acquaintances, the network site is increasingly becoming a tool for political communication (Westling, 2007; Williams & Gullati, 2009; Espina-Letargo, 2010; Vitak, Zube, Smock, Carr, Ellison & Lampe, 2009). The interactivity taking place on this social network allows political leaders and government officials to account for their stewardship. It also gives people, an opportunity to contribute to political discourse, through the feedback they give on policy and issues of governance (Westling, 2007, Erikson, 2008, Karlson, 2011, Espina-Letargo, 2010). This form of mediated communication enhances public participation on political issues in an unedited and uncensored manner (Sundar, Kalyanaraman & Brown, 2003). Facebook plays a role in complementing and supplementing “existing real-world communities, real-world political issues, and real-world news stories” (Westling, 2007, p. 4) in the United States and countries like Macedonia (Emruli, Zejnleri, & Agai, 2011), Korea (Park, Lim, Sams, Nam & Park, 2010), the Philippines (Espina-Letargo, 2010) and the United Kingdom (Di Gennaro & Dutton, 2006).

The situation in Africa presents a unique perspective. In spite of inadequate internet and computer technology infrastructure, Africa is experiencing monumental growth in the number of social media users. Blackberry phones and other internet enabled mobile devices are providing alternative internet access for millions of people in countries like Nigeria (Bohler-Muller & Merwe; 2011, Nurudeen, 2012). A 2011 World Internet Statistics report shows the number of Facebook users in Nigeria has increased from about 400,000 in 2008 to over 4.3 million users by December, 2011. Information sharing among the Facebook users is changing the dynamics of information sourcing and dissemination and challenging the dominant roles of government-owned traditional media outlets in monopolizing information dissemination (Vlam, 2012). Increasing security challenges in the country, particularly, terrorist activities of an Islamic fundamental group, Boko Haram are triggering new conversations about the future of Nigeria (Guardian, 2011).

In spite of the opportunities that Facebook provides for political communication, there are questions about the effectiveness of the social network as a tool for political mobilization (Woolley, Limperos & Oliver, 2010). There is also a question about citizen participation in civic activities offline. While some studies (Tian, 2006.; Westling, 2007; Espina-Letargo, 2010) suggest a positive correlation between the political engagement of internet users and increasing traditional political participation, others (Sundar, Kalyanaraman & Brown, 2003; Papacharissi, 2004; Vitak, et al, 2011) argue that even when political groups mobilize Facebook users to support political causes online, very few of them engage in political activities offline. Other studies (Sweester & Weaver-Lariscy, 2008; Westling, 2007; Wright, 2008; Vitak, et al, 2011) raise questions about the characteristics of audiences, their demographic representation, the nature of the content, and whether or not the politicians read the posts or manage the Facebook pages themselves.

Although these questions raise important issues about the effectiveness of Facebook as a political communication tool, Facebook provides Nigerians some form of anonymity that allows them to share their views without intimidation; it is site where “lone individuals and colossal powers interact” (Mayer, 2009, p.58) in Nigeria.

This paper therefore analyzed Facebook posts by “friends” of President Goodluck Jonathan in response to this his comments about Boko Haram. Specifically, the paper examined what their comments reveal about the attitudes of Nigerians towards the security problems, as well as existing political, economic and power structures in the country.
Theoretical Framework: Encoding and Decoding.

Stuart Halls’ encoding and decoding model, which provides the framework for this paper, is important for understanding audience interaction with the sender of a message and with the message itself. The model emerged as a response to the traditional communication research which viewed the sender, message and receiver model of communication as being very “linear” in its interpretation of communication and for being a “mere circulation circuit” (Hall, 1980, p. 128). The encoding and decoding process begins with the producers (encoders) framing the message, while the readers (decoders) receive and interpret the meaning through interpretative frames they draw from their personal, cultural or social background (Gurevitch, Scannell, & Paddy, 2003; Aguayo, 2009). While the reader’s interaction with a text is active, the exchange is meaningful when the message is correctly decoded and produces the intended response from the reader because “meaning structures of the broadcaster cannot always be equated with the “meaning structures” of the audience (Hall, 1980, p. 131).

Hall (2012) identified three hypothetical positions through which meaning may be constructed by readers. The first position is: the dominant-hegemonic position where the audience is seen as accepting the connoted meaning in a message the way it is presented and decode it within a framework of the dominant code or ideology. Second is the negotiated position in which the audiences understand dominant connotations in a text, and accept or reject some aspects of codes, which sometimes hegemonic definitions of “national interest or geopolitical views.” The third position is the oppositional code. Here the audiences understand both the “literal and connotative inflection of a given discourse” but decode it in a contrary way” (p. 144). To identity the hypothetical reading positions of the encoding and decoding model, the paper examined the different reading positions of users who responded to the President’s Facebook posts on the security situation in Nigeria. This paper also analyzed how their articulation of the security situation in Nigeria is reflected in the reading positions they take and, how these interpretations raise key issues in the national discourse in Nigeria.

Method of Data Collection

The paper is a textual analysis of user comments on the Facebook page of Nigerian President Goodluck Jonathan. Textual analysis as a data gathering process allows researchers to gather information about how people make sense of the world. As a method, it provides a framework for understanding the ways through, which people from various cultures and subcultures make sense of their identities and their relationships with the world and their environment (McKee, 2003).

The paper analyzed comments of users on his Facebook posts. The study employed purposive sampling “based on predetermined criteria” (Piwoz, 2004, p. 8); the data was compiled from the personal Facebook page of President Goodluck Jonathan of Nigeria. A search using the name, “Goodluck Jonathan” on the search window of Facebook came up with 88 Facebook pages with the same name. The page set up by the President’s office, through, which he communicates with users about government policies was selected. It is important to make this distinction because even though there are several pages set up by the president’s supporters, only the page set up by his office had 678,829 likes and contained posts from the President about government policies. Only the comments posted in response to President Goodluck Jonathan’s comment on Jan. 23, 2012 about Boko Haram terrorist attack. The first 500 comments of users who responded to the President’s post comments were coded and analyzed.

Data Analysis.

Analysis of the texts involved very careful and reading of the Facebook posts and identifying aspects the Facebook posts that reflected different reading positions. Each re-reading of the text “is an attempt to listen for echoes of something that might expand possibilities of understanding. This is distinct from a search for themes, which is generally validated by the reemergence and repetition of specific ideas (Moule, 2002, p.29). Atlas.ti qualitative data management and analysis software was used to manage data. Meaning in the posts was generated using both inductive and deductive coding. Inductive coding began with close readings of text and consideration of several meanings within the text. The codes were tagged into meaningful categories that emerged from the data. Deductive codes were created based on the theoretical framework of the study, which will allow for identifying of reading positions of the users.

Findings.

Two reading positions of Facebook users were identified from their responses to the President’s post about security problems in Nigeria. First, comments of a majority of President Jonathan’s “friends” reflected a
More oppositional code positioning in their response to his Facebook posts. Even though their comments show that they understood both the literal and connotative meaning of the President’s post, they read it differently. For example, while the President’s post focused on the security problems in Nigeria, the user’s oppositional comments responded by pointing to what they viewed as the President’s bad leadership skills, poverty, corruption, economic marginalization and lack of transparency among political leaders. For example, majority of users blame corrupt policies and the corruption of political leaders in Nigeria as being largely responsible for the activities of Boko Haram in the country. For example, one user said:

*More than any religious ideological radicalism, nothing is more profoundly powerful and compellingly inciting terrorism as poverty and destitution. Poverty has one of the fiercest inciting powers that can propel destitute young people, like Boko Haram members, who have nothing to lose, and thus being used to murder innocent Nigerians. Poverty breeds rebellion, and rebellion breeds terrorism.*

Another comment reads:

*Am not surprised, you are supposed to be giving a speech and you kept the nation waiting for a speech that’ll never come yet you and your script writers have time to come on FB and spread BULLSHIT.*

Yet another user expressed disappointment at the President’s inability to tackle the problem, blaming the security problem on his bad leadership; he said:

Shame, shame, shame! You are intellectually bankrupt; you lack any real political intellect.

A large number of the posts tell the story of corruption and economic inequality in Nigeria. In response to this issue, some posts read:

“If you Mr. President can use 1 billion naira (about USD 6m) to feed your family for year, that amount can feed 2,336 families a year. What sacrifice u asking of us?”

“@GEJ: “I wish to remind you that the masses are part of the government too. You first tackle problems b4 imposing a burden on the common man, start by reducing the cost of governance (that's where you waste our money)

@GEJ: “how on earth will leader of suffering masses have 22 cars maintained with public funds? Who feeds with 3million a day, even if he feeds on elephant daily? When last did you pay for your own meals? When last did you buy fuel with the colossal salary and allowances? You were voted there to do our bidding but now you are power drunk…You guys have been robbing Peter to pay Paul. We are totally disappointed in you!”

More than any other issue raised by the “friends” of President Goodluck Jonathan on his Facebook page, comments about his leadership ability was a major theme. One of his ‘friends’ began his comment with:

“Letter to Emperor Goodluck Jonathan” and another, “The man has lied to us. He has put down policies to further pauperize us. There is no longer an illusion of who the president is. Instead of authority, he wields power. In place of constitution, he imposes impunity.”

Other posts referred to him as:

useless man” “you are a total disappointment” “hmm, you are a fool, a big fool.”

@GEJ shame, shame, shame! You are intellectually bankrupt; you lack any real political intellect”

For others, their disappointment in the President also implies “unfriending” him on Facebook. For example, two posts read:

@GEJ, “I will unlike this page because I'm disappointed you in... Any reasonable person should unlike this page” @GEJ, “I am so disappointed in you Jona, that from today, I have decided to unfriend you!”
The President’s Facebook “friends” who took a dominant code position acknowledged the security challenges in the country and commended the President for his policy of addressing the problem. In their comments, they reechoed the government’s arguments about underlying political reasons for the existence of Boko Haram. For example, one comment reads:

“Mr. President. I commend u 4 your wisdom on this Boko Haram criminal acts. Enough is enough. How can a minor bad group of people try to put a country of population of 16m into trouble? Sir, it is high time to rescue this matter to avoid 2nd civil war. This is political & ethnicity.

Some of them commended him for good leadership:

“My president, don’t listen to some illiterates that are calling u names, they are ignorance, carry go no shaking u are our messiah.”

“Our God sent President, continue trying. Real human beings know that you are moving towards the right direction. God Almighty will see us through.”

“Mr. President bad belle people will not allow you to do your work. Boko Haram is not our problem. It is the fault of your political opponents who do not want to see a South-South man become president. They will fail in Jesus name!”

Discussion.
The findings of this paper reflect the views of Facebook users about the security problem in Nigeria. Even though the comments were a response to his Facebook post about security, President Jonathan’s “friends” spoke about broader problems in the country. The posts also reflect the frustrations of the people about the corruption in the system; corruption among political leaders entrusted with power and responsibility. The comments about existing structure, power and economic imbalance between the rich and the poor in Nigeria and corruption, one of the major issues fuelling Boko Haram activities, reflects their oppositional reading of the President’s post. Even though majority of the Facebook comments reflected this position, others took a more dominant approach in their support for the President and the current administration in the country. For example, comments about corruption among political leaders and economic inequality between the rich and the poor, reflects the working-class dichotomous perception of the social structure, which seems to have emerged as an opposing situation that categorizes people in the country as "us and them.” “Them,” the “rich and any other persons perceived by them as constituting moral danger (Labinjoh, 1982. p. 130). Comments like “this oppression has gone on for too long. It’s time to stand up for our rights,” point to perceived feeling of oppression among the poor in society. The implication is no doubt income disparity between the rich and poor, economic policies that favor the rich and by extension, increases poverty among generality of the citizens. For example, the percentage of Nigerians living below the poverty line, who barely can afford bare essentials of food, shelter and clothing has increased from 54.7 percent in 2004 to 60.9 percent in 2010 (Brock, 2012).

Perhaps more than any other thing, existing structural imbalance between the rich and the poor in Nigeria can be linked closely to the problem of endemic corruption, which has permeated all strata of society and has adversely affected development and economic growth in the country. In spite of efforts to curb corruption through the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission and other similar agencies, Nigeria remains high on the corruption ranking table. The Global Integrity Report reveals that the integrity indicator for Nigeria reflects a weak overall global rating of 60 percent. Brock (2012) explains that the gap between the rich and the poor in Nigeria continues to grow because of the corruption of politicians in the country who, rather than cater for the needs of the people have continued to “milk cash” from the over 2 million barrels a day of crude oil export of crude oil. For example, even though the National Assembly passed the Freedom of Information Bill last year, the bill was first presented to the National Assembly in 1999. Oluokoya (2011) argued that it took so because political and public office holders in the country are holding on to documents in the country that could implicate them for corruption. The emergence of Boko Haram in the country is also linked to poverty and corruption among Nigerian leaders. Central Bank Governor, Sanusi Lamido explained that there is a direct relationship between the increasing violence of Boko Haram and the uneven distribution of national resources between the northern and southern parts of the country (Eyieyien, 2012). These issues remain at the core of national discourse in Nigeria.
Conclusion
Even though the oppositional and dominant code reading positions were reflected in the posts of users on the Facebook page of President Goodluck Jonathan; the negotiated code position proposed by Hall is not easily identifiable within the text. This to an extent validates the argument by Pillali (1992) about limitations in Hall’s idea of “negotiated readings.” The different readings are in a way negotiated by the readers and their negotiation of this reading enabled them to take either of the two decoding positions reflected in the Facebook posts. The internet and mediated communication can make it difficult to identify the negotiating process. This challenges the negotiated reading position arguments of the encoding and decoding model.

However, the conversation on Facebook between users and with President Goodluck Jonathan, points to the important role the social networking site is playing in empowering Nigerians to speaking to the problems of corruption and bad leadership in the country. Even though the goal of these conversations might not have been geared towards activism, issues raised by “friends” of President Jonathan, draw attention to the viability of social media as platform for mass mobilization and collective action. This trend provides a framework for further research on the impact of the internet and computer-mediated communication on free speech and civic participation in Nigeria and other developing countries.

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STATE, WORLD BANK AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA: SYNERGIES AND CONTRADICTIONS

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Abstract
There seems to exist a conviction in the Third World countries that their rural development problem can be overcome through a synergy or collaboration between the African States and International Development partners like World Bank amongst others. This conviction is further accentuated by the proliferation of rural development programmes and projects which are products of this synergy but asymmetrical relationship shrouded in contradictions. In Nigeria, the visible and fast selling currency in the rural development is National Fadama Development Project. Understandably, the programme is collaboration between the Nigerian State and World Bank. This study attempts an examination of the collaborative role of both the Nigerian State and World Bank in relation to the sponsorship and implementation of rural development programmes in Nigeria with emphasis on Second National Fadama Development Project (FADAMA II). The study is a product of a qualitative review of some selected empirical studies across the country. We argue that, the state cannot be fair in its role of rural development because, those who make policies by the state represent the state and its class structure of contradictions. World Bank and as a development partner or donor agency represents the international capitalist structure that is responsible for the establishment of the bank in the first place hence the programme has not achieved it objectives.

Keywords: State, World Bank, Rural Development.

Introduction
One of the main issues in the current debates on development world over and most especially in the Third World is the problem of rural development. The constraints to developing the rural areas as well as the problems of this critical sector have come to loom very large. For over four decades in Nigeria, all attempts to put the rural areas on course of development have failed. Conditions have continued to worsen in the rural areas in spite of their potentials. Therefore, major concern to Nigerian State, like any other states in Africa and policy makers is to identify appropriate strategy for rural development.

The rural areas in Nigeria, however, present problems that are a contradictory paradox of its natural resource endowment. As noted by Chinsman (1998), rural communities are seriously marginalized in terms of most basic elements of development. In addition, the inhabitants tend to live at the margin of existence and opportunities. Most rural communities lack potable water, electricity, health care, educational and recreational facilities and motorable roads. It is pertinent to note that rural development plays an important role in the Nigerian economic development both at the micro and macro level.

Onibokun (1987) sees rural development to be faced with the paradox that the production oriented rural economy relies heavily on non-productive people who are ill-equipped with outdated tools, technical information, scientific and cultural training and whose traditional roles and access to resources pose problems for their effective incorporation into modern economic systems, whereas the consumption oriented urban economy is flooded with people, many of whom are either unemployed or unemployable, or marginally employed or underemployed.

As Harriss (1982:15) has pointed out, the notion of rural development appeared in the 1970s and criticized severely the development policy so far applied in developing countries. The mainstream of Third World development policy in the 1960s attached importance mainly to economic growth through industrialization,
which was a discussion about what is desirable change. As for policies on rural areas and agriculture, their main goal was the growth of agricultural productivity through modernization. The agricultural mechanization policy was typical in this context.

However, being aware of the existence of the massive number of poor people in developing countries, criticism against such exclusively growth-oriented policy has increased. This criticism has affected developmental thought, thus making international organizations such as ILO and the World Bank to put more emphasis in the 1970s on such issue as poverty alleviation, correction of inequality and fair distribution of developmental results (Esho, 1987). The policy framework for rural development appeared with such a change of developmental thought. When poverty alleviation came to be the central issue in development, it was natural that the rural areas, where the majority of the poor lived, attracted the major concern. The growth-oriented policy so far applied in developing countries had only limited ability to tackle the poverty problem; the trickle-down effect, which means that if economic growth continues, the result trickles down to the poor. On the contrary, the rural development policy confronted directly the critical issue of poverty. Rural in the notion of rural development meant in this context a place where the poor live. In total, the notion of rural development has been strongly linked with the goal of poverty alleviation, and with the framework for development strategy emphasizing not only economic growth but also distribution and equality. Such an idea of rural development appeared and rapidly spread in the 1970s as the new approach for Third World development.

The challenges and prospects of rural development in Nigeria have been of great concern to the Nigerian State and other international non government organizations and donors which informs the collaboration between the Nigerian State and World Bank in the financing of National Fadama Development Project. The National Fadama Development Project has three phases namely: First National Fadama Development Project, Second National Fadama Development Project, and Third National Fadama Development Project. However, the last project is our concern here, in that, it gives us the leverage for proper examination because it serves as the concluding phase of the project.

Therefore, the study is to examine the collaborative role of both the Nigerian State and World Bank in relation to the sponsorship and implementation of rural development programmes in Nigeria with emphasis on Third National Fadama Development Project (FADAMA II). The study is a product of a qualitative review of some selected empirical studies across the country.

**State and Rural Development: A Review of Literature and Theoretical Explication.**

The twin concepts of state and rural development have received a considerable attention in the development debate. This debate has assumed a dimension that questioned the ideological bases of the role of the state and the desirability to develop the rural areas. Our concern here is not to critique ideological stand points of the debate but to situate the concepts of state and rural development within the framework of our discourse. The justification is anchored on the fact that, social concepts have multidimensional perspectives as there are scholars in social sciences. Therefore, there is tendency to misconstrue the contextual meaning of the concepts with the ideological meaning which apparently may result to conceptual ambiguity.

There are perspectives on what constitutes the state. In fact, even the two major ideological schools of liberalism and Marxism have different concepts on what constitute the State (Mato, 1999:82; Tenuche, 2001:42). Though scholars associated with a particular school of thought may agree on a central argument, there generally concepts cannot be exactly the same; hence the difficulty of what is the state.

As an authority for maintaining law, order and protection in the society, the state Vermani, (2006:61) argues, has existed under different names and in different periods. The Greek-city-state used the world ‘polis’ (from where politics is derived) while in Roman period the world ‘republica’ was used. During the Medieval period, it was known as Christian Common Wealth.

However, these were not covered by the concept ‘state’ in that, they did not in themselves clearly and definitely contain the idea of stateliness, that is the sovereign political position of a person or body. In essence, the emphasis was more on the duties of the people rather than the authority of the rulers. The concept of the state came into frequent use as a political lexicon during sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. It
appeared first in the writings of Machiavelli who considered it as “the power which has authority over man” (Vermani, 2006:61).

The early liberal perspective of the state, that is, the classical liberalism was based on individualism. It sees the state as a necessary evil because only it could provide law, order, security of life and property, but it is an evil because it is an enemy of human liberty. It believes that the individual is the basis of all socio-economic and political systems and all social progress depended upon the unhampered initiative of the individual. It did not see any contraction in the self-interest of the individual and the authority of the state as antithetical and declared that the freedom of individual could be secured by limiting the sphere of state action.

The goal of liberalism was to free the individual from arbitrary and capricious authority, particularly, the authority of the state. It advocated that man is endowed with certain inalienable and natural rights such as right to life, liberty and property, the rights which are not dependent upon the mercy of state or society but are inherent in the personality of man.

In a related development, the non-interference as advocated by the classical liberalists not only increased the gap between the rich and the poor but also created a number of socio-economic contradictions. Slowly as argues by Mukherjee and Ramaswamy (2007:70), it began to be realized that this perspective of state was inadequate to fulfill the social, economic and political goals it was set up for. This threw up the emergence of the Neo-liberal scholars who deviated from the classical liberal tradition of non-interference.

Unlike the classical liberalist who regarded the state as a necessary evil, modern liberalists regard the state as a necessary institution, but not an evil. The state is viewed as an instrument of social service and common welfare and not the enemy of liberty and rights of man (Mahajan, 2000:72; Mato, 1999: 102; Tenuche, 2001: 62).

From the foregoing argument, one can deduce the role of the state in rural development because the state is supposed to be an instrument of social service and common welfare. J. S. Mills who is one of the leading exponents of modern liberalism for instance disagreed with the classical liberalists and contends that, the duty of the state is not only to remove obstacles in the way of individual progress but also to take positive steps for the socio-economic well-being of the people. The measures he suggested include amongst others; compulsory education, limiting the right of inheritance, factory legislation, control and monopolies by the state, lessening of the working hours and attaching of less sanctity to landed property (Mills, 1956:238).

Rural Development is part of general development that embraces a large segment of those in great need in the rural sector. Hunter (1964) was among the earliest to use the expression Rural Development which he considered as the starting point of development characterized by subsistence.

Development as a concept resists a universally accepted definition. Nette (1969:52), states that, the problems which usually surround the concept of development revolves around its meaning or what it entails. This according to him is what defined the different theoretical conceptions as to how it can be achieved. He further, sees development from the view point of increased economic efficiency, expansion of productive capacity of a nation’s economy, technological advancement, economic and industrial diversification as well as adaptability in the face of external forces.

Streeten (1994:67), argues that development is simply an attack on the chief evils of the world today; Malnutrition, diseases, illiteracy unemployment and inequality. Measure indicators in terms of aggregate growth rates, has been a great success. But measured in terms of jobs, justice, infrastructure, basic needs and the elimination of poverty, it has been a failure or only a partial success.

It is the search for development that creates the impetus for the introduction of rural development programmes and in this case Third National Fadama Development Project (Fadama III). It is against this backdrop that Ottong (2002:14) sees development as:

A process of creating favourable conditions for growth or advancement of peoples’ self-esteem through the establishment of social, political and economic systems and institutions which
When development is qualified by the adjective 'rural', it becomes the change for better at the grassroots. In fact, rural development like development does not submit itself to a universally accepted definition. This is perhaps as a result of the scenario in the disciplines of social sciences. There is no generally acceptable definitions of concepts. Scholars within the purview of social sciences perceive the concept of rural development from distinct analytical perception and ideological milieu. In spite of this intellectual bias, some scholar conceived rural development as process of not only increasing the level of per capita income in the rural areas, but also the standard of living of the rural population, measured by food and nutrition level, health, education, housing, recreation and security (Diejomaoh, 1973).

World Bank (2001:4), sees it as a strategy designed to improve the economic and social welfare of a particular group of people-rural poor. This involves extending the benefits of development to the poorest in the society. The group includes small scale farmers, tenants and the landless in rural areas. The above definition revolves around the idea of providing for the basic needs such as portable water, feeder roads, education etc. It is however, unfortunate to note that the absence of these basics of life defined most rural societies in Nigeria.

Rural development can also be defined as a comprehensive mode of social transformation, a social-economic change seeking to bring about more equitable distribution of resources within the society and veritable acceptance of the principle of growth from below. This implies that rural development is meant to improve the living standard of the rural populace that gives recognition to equal distribution in the production process such that exploitation is reduced to the minimal level (Olatunbosun, 1975:16; Adewumi, 1987:9).

Mobogunje (1980:94), considers rural development to do with the improvement of the living standard of the low income population living in rural areas on self sustaining basis through transforming the social spatial structures of their productive activities. Rural development therefore, corresponds with the nature of politics, state and production relations therein.

As a critical concept, Ollawa (1971) perceives rural development as “the restructuring of the economy in order to satisfy the material needs and aspirations of the rural masses and to promote individual and collective incentives to enable them participate in the process of development. Thus, this strategy involves a host of multi-sectoral activities including the improvement of agriculture, the promotion of rural industries, the creation of the requisite infrastructure and social overheads, as well as the establishment of appropriate decentralized structure in order to allow mass production (Wilkin, 2010). He further asserted that, rural development is “a multi-dimensional process aimed at uplifting the life of the rural dwellers in the society. This involves the creation of employment, access roads, health facilities, better housing, good water supply and equitable distribution of income among the rural people. In spite of numerous and diverse definitions the subject by scholars, one thing is imperative about the scope and boundaries of rural development as a field of inquiry. This analytical importance borders on the fact that rural development is directed principally and completely towards the total transformation of rural communities. The essence is to transform these communities to modern cities. The ultimate goal is to eradicate poverty and further reduce the persistent migration of people from rural to urban areas in search of better means of livelihood in the contemporary world.

Rural development has scope that is broad and elastic, and it depends on the interaction of many forces such as the objectives of the programme, the availability of resources for planning and implementation, etc. In developing countries, such as Nigeria, rural development projects will include agricultural set-up projects, rural water supply projects, rural electrification projects, rural feeder-road and maintenance projects, rural health and disease control projects, rural education and Adult education campaign, rural telecommunication system, and rural industrialization. Based on the scope of rural development (as the improvement of the total welfare of the rural low-income people), the following objectives of rural development evolved.

The above definitions stressed rural development as essentially a mass and continuous transformation with the aim of meeting the social, economic and psychic needs of the rural populace. It can be established from
the foregoing that rural development is more of a conscious integrated system and process designed to uplift and improve the general living standard of the rural dwellers through the provision of the basic needs so as to develop the human potential which is the base for any development. This should not be confused with agricultural development as this is just an aspect of rural development, which is broader and multi-sectional.

We can therefore consider that the notion of rural development has been linked with political intervention. If we understand the term rural development literally, it only has a neutral meaning of development in a geographically specific rural area. In fact, this term is sometimes used without particular implication. Nevertheless, in the context of development studies, the notion of rural development has been linked, especially in the 1970s, with a specific policy framework.

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World Bank and Rural Development.
It was the World Bank that played the major role in spreading the notion of rural development in the 1970s. The World Bank experience is the reasons why the rural development policy, targeted on peasants, appeared in the 1970s, Mizuno (1999) mentions four factors. First is that, as the peasant revolution succeeded in several countries in Asia and Latin America in the 1960s, Western countries were eager to ameliorate the living standard of the peasants. Secondly, excessive urbanization has become a serious problem in many developing countries. This has led to international concern about rural poverty as the origin of migration. Third is that technical innovation such as high-yield varieties and fertilizers, progressed rapidly, thus making agricultural investment profitable. Finally, Chinese experience of rural development was highly appreciated internationally. These factors brought international concern to the peasant problem.

The World Bank governor's epoch-making speech in September 1973 declared the adoption of a new policy: rural development. In this "Nairobi Speech," the governor shed light on the significance of poverty alleviation and promised enlarged lending for rural development. The World Bank document in 1975 gave a short and clear definition of rural development. Rural development is a strategy designed to improve the economic and social life of a specific group of people the rural poor. It involves extending the benefits of development to the poorest among those who seek a livelihood in the rural areas. The group includes small-scale farmers, tenants and the landless (IBRD, 1975b). Rural development was in this sense understood as the most effective strategy for alleviating poverty.

In Muroi’s research on Nigeria (1987, 1989), Nigeria actively promoted several agricultural and rural development programmes from the mid-1970s. Muroi analyzed two of the programmes; the large-scale irrigation programme financed mainly by the government, and "integrated rural development programme" financed mainly by the World Bank. Self-sufficiency in food was the main goal of both of these projects. The latter programme was intended especially for small-scale farmers, as the Bank financed it. Although abundant oil money was allocated for these programmes, Nigerian food production did not sufficiently increase. Though some strategically important food crops were selected (wheat and rice in large-scale irrigation programmes, and maize in the "integrated rural development programme), the result was not satisfactory in either case. Neither the production of wheat nor of rice increased. The production of maize augmented, but the increase was mainly due to the provision of very cheap fertilizer. The government expended great amount to subsidize it. Moreover, in the former programmes, many peasants were enforced to move from their homeland because of the construction work. In the latter case, the project caused structural corruption such as the illegal marketing of subsidized fertilizer. While pointing out such problems with the projects, Muroi posed an important question: how did the "rural development policy affected the "relations of production" in rural areas. Although both the two programmes could not ameliorate Nigerian self-sufficiency in food, they did affect considerably on rural society, causing new situations: land appropriation, creation of opportunity for wage labour, distribution of fertilizer, introduction of new varieties, etc.

The National Fadama Development Project was introduced as a strategy to tackle rural development problems. There are quite a number of studies on rural development in general and fadama project in particular. These studies have been carried out in different parts of Nigeria and on different aspect of the impact analysis of the National Fadama Development Project. For example, Bajoga et al (2006) examined the impact of the project specifically on the living standard of dry season farmers who benefited from the fadama loans in Gombe state. The study revealed that the project did not make any impact on the beneficiaries of the fadama loan by increasing their income, improving the living standard of an access to more personal belongings.

Similarly, Adegbite et al (2008) carried out an assessment on the impact of fadama II on small-scale farmer’s income in Ogun state with emphasis on the implication for agricultural financing in Nigeria. Using a multi-stage stratified random sampling in their study, their villages were selected each for both beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries in fadama endowed communities of Obafemi-Owode local government area of Ogun State. Evidence from their study also revealed no significant increased in the income of the fadama beneficiaries compared to non-beneficiaries of the fadama project in the study area.

In another study Kudi et al (2008) examined the impact of the fadama II on poverty alleviation among farmers in Giwa local government area of Kaduna State, especially how the project has affected the socioeconomic status of the farmers and production efficiency. They found that there was a little improvement in the income of farmers. The implication is that better income give better purchasing power and hence the improvement of living standard.

Adeoye et al (2011) also undertook a study to examine rural infrastructure and profitability of farmers under fadama II project in Oyo state, using infrastructural index and gross margin. They compared the infrastructural development between fadama II local government areas and non- fadama II areas. Their findings revealed that, more than half of the villages in fadama II local government areas have more infrastructures than non fadama II villages. This implies that Fadama II project had contributed significantly to the development of infrastructures in Oyo state.

The cross sectional studies as revealed above have shown that societies are subject to a process of development, which is itself not arbitrary, but regular; and that no social fact can be really understood apart from its history. Political economy has traditionally given priority to understanding social change and historical transformation.

The collaborative role of the state and any development partner in an economy and the resultant impact it has on the general populace can better be understood when one look at both the economic system as well as the social formations of the society. According to Ake (1981:11), the economic system is the material foundation of social life, the legal system, the political system, the belief system and the morality drive from
the economic system. Once the economic system is understood, the general character of the other aspects of social system can be conjectured.

We argue that, the collaborative role of the Nigerian State and World Bank in the implementation of Third National Fadama Development Programme has exposes the impact of the state and capital on both the peasantry and provision of services within the galaxy of development. The Nigeria State and its class character as far as rural development is concern has to do with a phenomena that is anchored on who stands to gain from policies that emerge from the Nigerian state or its agencies. The need to understand those who stand to gain or who have been gaining from the policies of the state toward rural development is very important.

Therefore, we argue that the Third National Development Project like any other rural development programmes in the past whether initiated and sponsored by the Nigerian State or in collaboration with any development partner serves the interest of the ruling class and not aimed at enhancing rural development or socio-economic well-being of the entire people. Lenin (1945:220) argues along this perspective when he observes that;

> When it is not immediately apparent which proposal, measure etc. one should always ask, “Who stand to gain?” In politics, it is not so important who directly advocate particular views. What is important is who stands to gain from the views, proposal, measures put in place, it is better to see who stand to gain.

**Conclusion**

The state cannot be fair in its role of rural development because, those who make policies by the state represent the state and its class contradiction as well as the World Bank and as a development partner or donor agency represents the international capitalist structure that is responsible for the establishment of the bank in the first place. The roles of the World Bank, IMF and MNCs as well as canvassing, for neoliberal ideology are rather venal where they endlessly pursue their selfish interest to the detriment of the people they claim to be empowering. The whole world is a class entity and World Bank derives it ideology, finance etc from western governments and work incessantly to ensure the further integration of Third World economies into global capitalism even though they hide under the popular guise of promoting community development especially at the grass roots. The World Bank intervention is only aimed at ensuring the continuity of this process. Most of the international development agents are rather accountable to their donors and used to achieve the foreign policies of western countries. Despite their appearance as agents of socio-economic transformation, they are often co-opted by and reproduce neoliberal states as most of their developmental projects are often designed based on guidelines and policies of the imperialist centre and institutions. All these plethora of contradictions inherent in these agents of development activities have generated much heated debate and at the same time raising questions about their legitimacy and sustainability. In the long run such contradictions lead to social exclusion of the masses from the process of development.

However, because of class interest and the nature of politics in Nigeria rural development will not be developed to meet the aspirations of the rural dwellers. In addition, the project from all intent and purpose is development friendly in view of the fact that the project requires the rural poor to pay some amount of money as counterpart funds.

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THE NIGERIAN STATE AND CENTENARY CELEBRATION: JUXTAPOSITION OF ISSUES AND TRENDS OF DEBATE.

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Abstract.
This study tries to provide a theoretical basis for reassessment of the Nigerian State through the Weberian classical conception of the State. This is to provide a theoretical placement for the ongoing debates on justification or repudiation of the centenary celebration of the Nigerian State as proposed by the Nigerian leadership. It is noteworthy to acknowledge the development of science of logics among Nigerians as demonstrated in their attempt to speak for or against the proposed celebration. This study, based on Weberian Conception of the State places more emphasis on the concepts of government restrictedly conceptualized as people in charge of the state’s power (leadership), and population in terms of citizenship (followership) to reveal the position of the two in their efforts to transform and transcend the Lugard’s geographical cast into a nation-state where primordial conception vanishes. Based on this, it is revealed that inhibition to transformation of the Nigerian State is neither as a result of lack of good economic model nor as a result of absence of policy direction but as result of will on the part of its leadership and apathy of its citizenship.

Keywords: State, Leadership, and Citizenship.

Introduction.
The recent trends of debates on the centenary celebration of the Nigerian State often attest to the deep rooted nature of science of logical justification and repudiation in a political discourse amongst Nigerian citizenry. The earliest lines of debates were staged by the National Assembly, especially at the Lower House of Representatives. Since that time, a series of arguments for or against have dominated Nigerian dailies to the extent that it becomes so difficult for mature minds to classify the contents and contexts of each explanation as subjective or objective as espoused by its exponent. We, therefore, find it profitable to extrapolate the dominant argument so far for the purpose of establishing a containing frame work for either justification or repudiation of the proposed celebration of a hundred of amalgamation of Lagos Colony, Southern and Northern Protectorates. The reigning trends of argument cut across economic explanation, unity, existence and survival, reparation, policy impact, nation-building etc. The direction of the debate on the centenary celebration produces an avenue to reveal the feelings upheld by the Nigerian people on how far they have gone in terms of nation building, and transforming from the mere geographical cast of the colonialists to a nation state through which a transnational identity is forged and developed.
Issues and Trends of Debate.

Debate on centenary celebration was earlier staged in the National Assembly, especially at the Lower House when the speaker took his time to read a letter written and sent to the National Assembly. In his concern, Honourable Fagbamila, a minority leader of the House of Representatives argues that centenary celebration may be nothing less than an economic drain simply because the country is battling with the problem of budget finance, and celebration of such may gulp billions of naira which will have been used to better lot of Nigerian masses. This is supported with another view that the Nigerian Government spent 10 billion in 2010 to celebrate 50th anniversary of independence, centenary celebration may therefore provide an opportunity for the government to spend a huge sum of money. The government however explains to repudiate anticipated fear of resources mismanagement that the proposed centenary celebration is to be funded by private sectors. In another opinion, Ann Kio Briggs, a Niger Deltan activist repudiates the centenary celebration on the basis that the Nigerian State is still a toddler at hundred, and that celebration of such should be denounced and that corruption and failure of governance should be addressed which are the the main vestiges of the amalgamation between the Southern and Northern protectorates. British Government put together one nation called Nigeria without considering obvious difference in cultures, religions, and languages. Opoola (2013) shows his remorse towards centenary celebration based on his explanation that it is the celebration of slave trade, pillaging, exploitation and degradation of indigenous people, government should have instead staged a struggle towards reparation. Some members of the Lower House also argue that celebration of centenary is worthy simply because Nigeria upon challenges and problems still remains one, it is to them a celebration of unity. Sokunbi (2013) queries the unity as a justification for celebration, asking the purpose of the unity and at what cost? Especially when Nigeria is battling with the poor leadership, low in all development indices. PRONACO in its opinion sees the centenary celebration as a celebration of fake unity and the government should have thought of how to fashion out national concensus and collective ownership of the Nigerian State.


A realistic conception of the state as developed by Max Weber could be a good ground for reassessment of the status of the Nigerian State. O’Sullivan (2000:49) documents the characteristic features of the modern state as conceptualised by Weber when he writes that the characteristic feature of the state it is that it is made up of sovereign territorial state, each of which claims definite boundaries. Amplifying the classic definition of Max Weber, we may outline the key features of the modern states as follows; i. It possesses a definite territory with clear boundaries, and defines who may and may not reside in it; ii It relates with other institutions in that territory hierarchically, is the superior political agency, and determines the rules and power of all subsidiary government. It rules, state laws take primacy; iii. It has exclusive control of the territory it claims that is, sovereignty, no other agency can substantiate a competing claim to rule whether in part or in whole; iv. It has monopoly of the use of the means of violence within its territory; the state determines who may possess armed forces and sanction its use; v. It has exclusive control over the use of the external violence; only the state or its agents can make a war on other states; vi. States mutually recognize each others, and each other territories; and vii. There is a system of uniform and continuous administration throughout the territory of the state.

From this above assertions, it can be revealed that there are certain basic features of the state which include territory, sovereignty, population, and government. A good assessment of the status of any state could be carried out from these features, and then it will be profitable to register our awareness of how globalization has challenged each feature of the modern state. This however may not affect these conceptions as mean of judging, reassessing, and appraising the Nigerian state, only that the emphasis may be laid more on government and the population. Territorial preservation as earlier pointed to has been mobilised by those who argued for the centenary celebration as a great achievement of the Nigerian state, that is, despite the civil war, internal crises, Niger Deltan militancy, Boko Haram insurgency, the Nigerian State still remain a single entity but how will Nigerian State will be judged in case of territorial portion of Bakasi lost to Cameroon, and humiliation and harassment suffered by the Nigerians residing in Bakasi, or what about the great investment made by the Nigerian state in Bakasi? Whatever might have been diplomatic outcome of such territorial loss cannot be recompensated. Even people like Prof. Anya Oko Anya have attributed the loss of Bakassi to Cameroon as a result of leadership problems, alleging that former head of the state, General Yakubu Gowon donated Bakassi to Cameroon and President Olusegun Obasanjo completed the exercise without consulting the indigenes or National Assembly (Falana, 2013). The Concept of sovereignty remains
the most controversial issue in both international and domestic politics, but it is the capacity of the state to exert its power and control over its territory and its people. Falana, (2013), upon this questions the sovereignty of the Nigerian State while assessing its overdependence on foreign influence because it is still evident that Nigeria is still serving as surrogates and agents of the West simply because all its policies and programmes are designed by the Western Power to better the lot of their economy to the detriment of the Nigeria. This has often been used as a premise to reexamine and justify the resurface of neocolonialism. As earlier mentioned, the essay will lay more emphasis on the concept of government and population as a framework for either justification or repudiation of the centenary celebration.

Government: A Conceptual Basis for Analysis.
Government marks the beginning of reference point in manifesting the existence of a state. Shively (2001:49) writes that government is a group of the people within the state who have ultimate authority to act on behalf of the state. Government is therefore regarded by the people of the state as the appropriate group of people to make decisions for the state and act on its behalf. The government is the unique group of the state since it has right to make decision that everyone in the state has duty to accept and obey. State therefore means territory and its people as well as government that act on behalf of the people.

The focus here is not the type or form of government but the choice and power that is the effectiveness of government’s policies in terms of carrying out the basic functions of the state. It is known that when the functions of the state are to be discussed, the need to delve into theoretical issues may arise, but then we can still reach concensus without going too theoretical. This is to restrict ourselves to the basic requirement of the government which is to act on behalf of the state. The question we ask now is does government acts to preserve or destroy the state? Of course the answer is to preserve the state and its components. How good or bad has Nigerian government done that remains the criteria to judge its status of statehood. Akhaive (2011:650) assesses Nigerian government that its lack of general will has inhibited its ability to transform from primordial interest of the British Government to the extent that each section to the Nigerian Union has always made it a point of duty to always struggle to lord over other, thereby upsetting the polity. It then appears that through the inability of the government, everybody is tired of the marriage and is yet to find a perfect solution to aging marital squabble. This provides a variable of nation building as an ingredient through which effectiveness and acting capacity of the Nigerian government could be reassessed, that is Nigerian government has not done much enough to transform from its colonial status to a full fledged State. Akhaive (2011:648) writes that the bane of the Nigerian State has been its harvest of bad leadership this is because there is nothing wrong with the Nigerian land or climate, or water or air or anything else. The Nigerian problem is the unwillingness or inability of its leadership to rise to the responsibility, to the challenge of personal example which is the hallmark of true leadership.

Falana (2013:45) observes that even in the fourth Republic and fifty two years of the existence, Nigerian State is still battling with the problem of leadership whose manifestation is poor governance and difficult to achieve nation building, this is discernible in the existence of different levels of divisions in a situation in which ethnicity has not only flourished within the context of these periodic native settler question but also of issues of religion, contest for resources and election malpractice among others have contributed to complicate ethnic tension. Tayo (2011), says that there is no impacting leadership in Nigeria and that Nigerian leaders see leadership as means of amassing wealth and looting treasury; leadership is all about service, sacrifice, and positive impact on the people. Falana (2013) documents that the shared portion of bad leadership has been such clamour for Biafra Republic, Oduduwa Republic, Niger Deltan Republic, and outbreak of Boko Haram insurgency, and the Nigerian State is full of unemployment, insecurity, and poverty instead of addressing the increasing rate of unemployment, insecurity, and poverty, the government decided to aggravate poverty in the land. Ikitia (2008), notes that inept leadership, bad social policies and reliant on traditional methods of productions are impediment to prosperity in which government institutions which are corruptive, unproductive together with the failure to take risk and make a tough choice all retard the ability of the Nigerian State to forge ahead. Bashiru (2011) laments that the post colonial elites only seek to use the awesome of power of the state for the purpose of the primitive accumulation; they did not only centralize the state but ally with the international bourgeoisie to further the impoverishment of the people. It then becomes irritating to always base the developmental comparison of the Nigerian State with the ancient Tigers on the certain assessment of the economic models because the success of the Asian Tigers were beyond but hinged on civic ethics on the parts of leaders this is so because the Confucian ethics contributed in no small
measures in firing the civic responsibilities of the national elites in re asserting their stateness. This often brings the issues of the mindsets of the Nigerian leadership (Shittu and Zasha, 2013).

**Population by Citizenship.**

Qualitative assessment of the Nigerian population is always done by way of assessing development which is all about meeting basic needs of citizens rather than exclusive concern with rate of economic growth, measured in terms of GDP, poverty, inequalities, poverty, and issues of economic emancipation which remains elusive, low income per head, low level productivity (Adebanwi, 2005). This is concerned with the economic status of an average Nigerian citizen but beyond that population is conceptualized as a group of individuals of the same species that live together in the same place and that possess an average set of properties, such as birth rates and death rates. This definition has some kind of spatial reference. The simple and restrictive is that a population is a group of individuals of the same species that live together in a particular area.

Here, the study is more concerned about population by citizenship, in which emphasis is on the notion of community and what constitute common concerns through which collective energies can be congealed into shared bonds. Citizenship in this context places emphasis on faith in the idea of critical associationalism but then this is threatened by the growing strand of social and political conservatism. Bhargava and Acharya (2012:114) reveal the centrality of active citizenship in nation-building based on its ability to make itself manifest in civil society where individuals are trained in civility and self-restraint. It is assumed that good citizenship, through which a nation-building is attained, can be achieved by laying emphasis on politics of common good and national togetherness which encompasses tolerance of the political and plural diversity. Adebanwi (2005) conceptualizes citizenship as a struggle for belongingness, participation, and it is reciprocity, it is on this, the assessment of the Nigerian citizenship is carried out. The nature of the Nigerian state could be assessed through the quality of its citizenship even when some scholars have just traced the weak citizenship of the Nigerian State to the constant use of brute force in the era of military regimes. This again is a way of measuring the level of transformation from a mere colonial enclave to the standard state. Akhaive (2011) opines that citizenship, its conception, and manifestation remain a great impediment to the Nigeria’s transformation this is because the citizenship question is closely related to the absence of the general will or can be located within it since it has successfully inhibited ability to create transnational identity. Ogundiya (2009) concludes that there is an absence of the genuine citizenship in Nigeria, and this is responsible for the struggle for political representation by various ethnic groups as a means to secure an access to the common wealth. It is concluded that the virus of ethnicity has largely affected the psyches of the Nigerian masses. This is nothing but true, for example, we have witnessed situations where some few group of Nigerians were arrested and charged to courts for corrupt practice and looting of the state treasures were accompanied to the court premise by the mass of the Nigerian in solidarity to the corrupt leaders, or even held rallies in welcoming the corrupt leaders from the prison, and even organized special thanksgiving in their places of worship.

Nigerian citizens who often hold the government responsible for their problems cannot make a good electoral decision except they were bribed by politicians. Many Nigerian citizens have sold their political consciousness for money to the extent that their political participation is not based on certain principle or standard issues (Zasha, 2013). Adetula, (2008), records that money politics is quickly shrinking the political space, becoming a key variable in determining who participate in electoral politics and how. Women and youths remain the most vulnerable to this habit of selling votes. The level of the political consciousness among the Nigerian citizens is very poor to the extent that it cannot generate the required development. For example, if a politician knows that there is no basic principle guiding the electoral choice of the citizens apart from sharing money, he or she will be encouraged to always loot the public treasury to buy the people’s mandates. Nigerians only remember the ethnic origin of their leader when a federal political appointment is released if somebody from their villages, or local government area is able make the list, and this has always made difficult for ordinary Nigerians to stand up against any poor governance and bad leadership. A situation like this often explains the connection between the Nigerian citizens, because citizens cannot take valid electoral decisions except they are induced with monetary benefits, and politicians by this, will always want to steal and loot more public resource so that can continue to retain their elective offices.

Ikita (2008) links the failure of the citizenship to the government failure that there were poor people in Africa before the evolution of the modern state or government, and the people’s conditions were nowhere near the
hell poverty today which unfolded in Nigeria after we were grafted into the modern political and economic system with the formation of pseudo state, and the modern state having failed in providing some modicum of good education and basic needs of its citizens, it therefore subjects the consequence of its failure into an exploitative advantage through which the consciousness of the citizens is manipulated. Bhargava and Acharya (2012:143) are pessimistic about the democratic institutions of such a community where citizenship exhibits disillusionment through its display of political apathy and passivity, this is because of democratic equivalence which requires political anticipation and articulation from active citizenship. The theoretical derivation of this assertion is that for a political community to transcend and transform beyond the parochial conception of citizenship. Nigerians has greatly impeded democratic development because many Nigerian citizens find happiness in decorating, conferring, honouring resource looters, and most of the times their political alliance with political elites is not always on genuine ground but on sycophancy and tribal sympathy. 

In a recent development, ‘Occupy Nigerian Space’ has been used to glorify the consciousness of the Nigerian citizens this is because the Nigerian government was shocked by the way the ordinary Nigerians took over the major cities of Lagos, Kano, and Abuja to demonstrate their anger with the recklessness of the government. It was reported that Nigerians have never been so united in years based on the ability of the citizens of different backgrounds, religions, and tribes to recognize the fact that the only enemy they have in common was the Nigerian leadership as shown in the way and manner through which people of different religions protected one another during the occupy the space in the heat of the Boko Haram insurgency in Kano (Jacob, 2012:1). Some analysts assume there is wind of consciousness in many young Nigerians as they demonstrated their awareness of events in Tunisia, Egypt, and Libya and demanding that the terms of the social contract in Nigeria must be written in order to increase accountability in political leadership. This however, has been criticized as a basis to assess the quality of the Nigerian citizenship based on the view that the occupy Nigerian space was organized and sponsored by the opposition parties in the country and this provides a justification of the Leninist conception of human consciousness through a revolution could be ignited. Nigerian citizenry has been subjected to social, political, and economic humiliations, and all it requires is social and political mobilisers through which its provocation could be communicated to its leadership.

Summary and Conclusion
A careful assessment of the Nigerian State was carried out based on Weberian conception of the modern state, each component of the state which includes territory, sovereignty, government, and population are used to assess the status Nigerian state to justify or repudiate the centenary celebration of the Nigerian State by laying more emphasis on the concepts of government and population. This provides a basis to reexamine the governance and leadership vis-à-vis citizenship and consciousness as to reveal the pace of nation building as far a Nigerian State is concerned. There, is nothing wrong with the Nigerian State apart from the lack of the general will in the part of both government as represented in the political leadership and population in terms of citizenship. It appears in the course of the study that little or nothing has been done by the leadership and the citizenry to transform the Nigerian State from its colonial conception to the standard status of nation state. Based on the governmental policies and actions, it will be agreed that the problem of the Nigerian State is neither lack of economic or political models nor structural potentialities but the will in the parts of the leadership and followership to go beyond the primordial conception of the Nigerian state. The inability to do this renders the claim of the Nigerian State useless in terms of territorial intact because each section of the state sleeps and wakes up with the possibility of breakup as it is the so called celebration of the unity of ethnic groups living with distrust and suspicion amongst them remains questionable. If at all there is need to celebrate the preservation of the territorial entity of the Nigerian State, The celebration should be done by a way of reflecting on the failure of the political leadership in the country and designing a framework for sustainable development through which sense of statehood could be attained.

References.


SOCIAL EXCLUSION AND HOUSEHOLD POVERTY AMONG THE OLDER PERSONS IN NIGERIA

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Abstract

Background—It is unknown how social exclusion impact household poverty among the older persons in Nigeria. This has become essential in order to improve the preparation for old age among Nigerians. Reliable information is also required to formulate comprehensive social security system for the elderly.

Methods-----Data were gathered using questionnaire and multi-stage sampling technique was used to select 242 respondents. Simple percentages, cross tabulations and chi-square hypothesis were used to analyze the data. Findings ---- More than half of the respondents admitted to have been discriminated based on their age while about one-third of the respondents said they have not been discriminated based on their age. This indicates that the concept of ageism which is prejudice based on age still persists. The study found out the majority of the respondents agreed that household poverty is an important predictor of whether or not an elderly would be socially excluded. The era of extended households have been evaded by nuclear a household which is a modern development. These changes have left the aged persons at the mercy of themselves. The exclusion of the elderly is evident in the rate at which they have been uprooted from the social networking in the society. Conclusion----- Changing social institutions have severe implications for the aged as the nature and structure of the family is changing, more young people are leaving agricultural areas which are the basic residence of the aged persons, growing wage economy outside agriculture, over-reliance on formal support by the elderly and declining family income.

Key words: social exclusion, household poverty, older person, Nigeria

INTRODUCTION

The Concept of Ageing in human society is unavoidable as every individual tends towards been old. The difference between an aged person and a young person becomes greater with age (Neugarten, 1964). There are unprivileged aged people in developing countries and they run many risks of dependency because they are vulnerable to sickness, this sometimes is not due to old age but health problems that is found in poor dieting, income and housing arrangement in the early part of their lives compared to their counterparts in developed countries who had better provisions in their youth, that is why the ageing population of the developing countries are dying.

Due to physical disabilities, the elderly are not strong enough to fend for themselves, they are feeble and require adequate supervision. Old age in poor developing countries is thus often expected to be accompanied
by an often preventable significantly diminished physical capacity. Such an eroded capacity will likely reduce an older person’s ability to engage in sufficiently productive work to sustain a standard of living above the poverty line.

In Nigeria, there exists a widespread prevalence of a diminished physical capacity among older people; significantly eroded physical strength and visual impairment. A study among 681 urban and rural older people in Nigeria (Bakare, Ojofetimi, and Akinyemi, 2004) found 39% to report an eroded ability to engage in physical activities, and 54% to report a visual impairment, including blindness. This suggests that the health of older people is deteriorating due to poverty which continues to exist except adequate supervision and provision is given to the elderly in Nigeria.

The care of the elderly has always been a highly contentious issue as it is uncertain whether government or household members should be responsible for the welfare and upkeep of the elderly. It is unsure whether the old or elderly are economic assets of the country or liabilities of the household but the increasing rate of poverty amongst the elderly is alarming which yearns for public concern. Certain factors are responsible for the relegation of the elderly to the background, social exclusion been a part of it has made the elderly ones irrelevant in the society. The elderly are been unable to assess the things in life that the young people in society take for granted.

Social exclusion means been unable to access the things in life that most of society takes for granted, social exclusion entails disenfranchisement of certain people within a society. Social exclusion applies to some degree to people with a disability, to minority men and women of all races, to the elderly and to the youth. Anyone who deviates in any perceived way from the norm of a population may become subject to coarse or subtle forms of social exclusion. Ageing is a form of deviation as the older persons are set apart not only chronologically but physically, psychologically and emotionally.

In 2006, the Social Exclusion Unit published an academic estimate of the number of excluded old people in England, this work concluded that:
- 1.2million people over 50 in England (i.e. 7%) face severe, multiple exclusion
- Around half of the people over 50 suffer disadvantage with respect to one aspect of their life:
  - 1.3million people over 65 have clinical depression
  - 2.2million households with a member over 60 live in unfit housing
  - 2.5million people over 50 have little social or family contact
  - 3.4million people over 50 live in relative poverty

The Household is the basic unit of analysis in many social, microeconomic and government models. The term refers to all individuals who live in the same dwelling. Household income or consumption by percentage share in Nigeria is rated lowest 10%:2% and highest 10%:32.4%, 2004 (CIA World Factbook, February 19, 2010)

In modern societies Household poverty like most features of modernity is steering a lot of concern in almost all African countries. Despite this growing international concern, mainstream development policies in west and other African nations fail to consider poverty among older people reflecting persisting assumptions about a lesser magnitude and relevance of poverty risk among older compared to younger adults and identify potential individual, familial, normative and structural determinant of this heightened risk. Implications for policies are further lacking focus on older people in mainstream poverty policy (Ogwumike and Aboderin, 2005). The notions that investments in the young serves as social security for the old is now disputed as adult children find it difficult securing employment and receiving an income sufficient to meet their immediate needs.

One of the critical issues which influence social exclusion of elderly persons is their economic status. Old age is generally accompanied by a decline in economic status; financial problem is always a challenge to old people due to difficulty in raising material resources for day-day existence. Absence of regular income in a household affects elders living in both urban and rural setting. Most times the elders in rural areas continue their agricultural routine so it is safe to say that they fend for themselves than the elders in the urban areas (Sarason and Sarason, 2002). Rural-to-urban migration, increase adaptation to western lifestyles like monogamy and non-communal dwelling are exacerbating loneliness and therefore put the elderly population
in difficult situation. In addition, household poverty and social exclusion contribute the greatest treats to their well being.

Elders are uprooted from social networking and are alienated in the society; it is not certain whether the evolving world that is bedeviled with industrialization and capitalism is the reason for this. The changes in the social structure have certain influence on the elders as society is becoming ‘hip’ and tends to favour the young.

The problem social exclusion and household poverty is not as old as history. Pre modern societies were bonded and social exclusion was not fully evident, elders were socializing agents that instill culture and discipline into the younger age groups, their input into the society then was relevant. The sociological considerations important for older people are those characteristics of the society of which they are a part. Contemporary society displays a considerable prejudice against the elderly. Attitudes towards older people and the ageing process are generally negative, this often referred to as ageism. There are a few meaningful or important places for older people in our society. Also, older persons who come from poor households cannot afford to transport themselves to the limited recreational centers available.

There is an increasing need in the wake of the apparent decline in the adequacy of material support that has occurred in recent times and the rising deprivation and poverty to which growing numbers of older people are exposed (Aboderin, 2006). The elderly should be put into consideration when social service polices are been enacted. The aged have lost faith in their government as a result of unfulfilled promises (Wahab, 2005). This research is substantial in volume and in the richness and analysis of its content.

Social Exclusion and Household Poverty among the elderly is traceable to the dynamism of modern society. As society becomes more sophisticated less demand is placed on the Elderly, they are relegated to the background and have been denied rightful societal privileges. These “senior citizens” are bound by various shackles of socially created exclusions. Opportunities are closed to them and certain stereotypic notions are applied to them. Elderly face problems of income and economic dependence, ill health and inadequate access to health care, role loss and difficulties of social adjustment and feeling of alienation (Coombes, 1995).

With a view to ascertaining the problem posed by this social malaise, it is imperative to know that there is no specific, general yardstick for excluding the elderly in a country but certain factors like Social class, Education, Age are responsible. Social exclusion is also not unconnected to living standards of the household and access to various opportunities. Elderly people in urban areas who cannot cope with social exclusion migrate to rural areas as a result of poverty and other related factors. It is unarguable that the aged persons are weak and are classified as dependants but this does not mean they should be excluded from certain societal budget. The lack of social pensions has serious consequences on the well being of the older persons. The majority of older people who cannot earn an income and are not covered by contributory pension scheme are left at the mercy of the vagaries of life.

In developing countries like Nigeria life expectancy is low and the ageing population is fast diminishing. Views about the aged have varied overtime and there is a laxity in the ways the aged are perceived. Many older people are lonely and isolated; they have difficulty in meeting all of their needs. They are susceptible to chronic illnesses that may impair their capacity to function. Insufficient income and even poverty are problems for this population; they ought to be recipients of income maintenance services. When household income is not sufficient to cater for the needs of the elderly, they begin to depreciate mentally, physically and socially. Therefore, What are the determinants of social exclusion? Can the aged be regarded as economic assets of the government? Can household income limit an older person’s participation in the society? How can the aged be reintegrated into the society? Is modernity also responsible for social exclusion of the elderly?

Methods and Materials
The sampling technique that was first applied was cluster sampling method. Iyana ipaja area was divided into three cluster areas: Alimosho- this is the largest local government area in Iyana ipaja and also has most of indigenes in that area, it covers all of the left side of the Iyana ipaja facing the Abeokuta express way. Agbado oke-odo- this is a local government development area located in the right side of Iyana ipaja road facing the Abeokuta express way. Muson okun-ola- this is the newest addition to the two earlier mentioned.
It is a new local government development area which has few streets and also shares the right side of the express with Agbado oke-odo.

This clustering is based on geographical proximity. The ratio of streets in these cluster areas approximately are: 52:30:18 - Alimosho, Agbado oke-odo and Muson okun-ola respectively. To ensure that every cluster area had an equal possibility of being selected and represented, 25 streets were randomly selected using lottery system. At this point, 10 questionnaires were distributed to each street and all streets had not less than 15 residential houses with different occupants. The sample size of two hundred and fifty (250) was used for convenience purposes. The research instrument is a simple self administered questionnaire. The method of data analysis and presentation for this study was chi square technique.

RESULTS

Table 1: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RESPONDENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Information</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of respondents according to Sex</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>43.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>56.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of respondents according to Religion</td>
<td>Islam</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>50.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Christianity</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>41.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>African traditional religion</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of respondents according to Age</td>
<td>60-64</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>61.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>65-69</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>70-74</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>20.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>75 and above</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of respondents according to Marital status</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>51.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>24.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Separated</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>20.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of respondents according to Ethnic group</td>
<td>Yoruba</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>57.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Igbo</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>25.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hausa</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Others</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of respondents according to their Educational qualification</td>
<td>primary</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>16.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>secondary</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>38.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>tertiary</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>43.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>others</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2011

INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS

It was deduced that more than half of the respondents were female. The elderly female are more than the elderly male which justifies the assertion that women live longer than men. Based on the level of income, majority of the respondents practiced Islam, more than one-third of the respondents were Christians and less than one-tenth of the respondents practiced African traditional religion. Islam is the predominant religion is Iyana ipaja area. It was indicated that, less than three-quarter of respondents are aged between sixty and sixty
four years, less than one-fifth of them were between sixty five and sixty nine years, less than one-fifth of the respondents were between the ages of seventy and seventy four years and a minority of just four respondents were aged seventy five and above. This shows that majority of the aged persons in Iyana ipaja are still in their ‘prime’ which is within age sixty and sixty four. From the marital status analyzed in the table and bar chart, more than half of the respondents are married, less than one-quarter are divorced, less than one-tenth of the respondents are separated while less than one-fifth respondents are widowed.

It was indicated that, majority of the respondents are Yoruba’s, the respondents from Igbo ethnic group represent less than one quarter, and the respondents from Hausa ethnic group represent less than one-tenth while more than one-tenth of the respondents represented other ethnic affiliation. In addition, less than one-fifth of the respondents have primary school education, less than half having secondary school education. Majority of the respondents had tertiary education, while less than one-fifth of the respondents had other qualifications. This shows that majority of the respondents could read and write.

Table 2: ECONOMIC BACKGROUND, LIVING CONDITIONS AND HOUSEHOLD COMPOSITION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Information</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of respondents based on if they received monthly income</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>45.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>54.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of amount received monthly by respondents</td>
<td>Below 20,000</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20,000-50,000</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>50,000-100,000</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>100,000 and above</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No response</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>54.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of respondents based on if they receive pension</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>32.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>67.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of how often respondents receive pension</td>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>32.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No response</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>67.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of respondents based on if they have assets</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>34.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>65.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of daily expense by respondents</td>
<td>below 150</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>49.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>150-500</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>31.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>500-1000</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1000 and above</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of the kind of apartment respondents live</td>
<td>One room</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>43.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self contain</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Room and parlor</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Flat</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>20.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of respondents based on if they reside with children</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>45.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>54.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Distribution of the number of people that constitute respondents household

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1-4</th>
<th>55</th>
<th>22.5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5-9</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10-14</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No response</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>55.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Distribution of how often children visit respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>21</th>
<th>8.6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>34.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>12.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No response</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>45.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2011

**INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS**

From the responses on the above table, it is evident that only less than half of the respondents still receive monthly income and this implies that there are more unemployed aged people than employed aged people; the respondents who do not receive monthly income were more than half. Based on the result, more than one-third of the respondents earned below twenty thousand naira monthly, more than one-tenth of the respondents earned between twenty thousand naira and fifty thousand naira, less than one-tenth of the respondents earned between fifty thousand naira and hundred thousand naira while a hundred thousand naira and above was also earned by less than one-tenth of the respondents. The respondents who do not have monthly income in correlation with the previous question did not answer this question which amounts to a no response of more than half of the respondents. These findings showcases how financially fiddle the elderly are.

It was observed that, more than one-third of the respondents receive pension while the remaining two-thirds do not receive pension. In addition, one-third of the respondents rarely receive there pension whilst those who do not receive pension in correlation with the previous question did not respond having two-third respondents. This implies the pension scheme in Nigeria is not all fulfilling its intended objectives as these senior citizens wait for months to receive the meager sum they receive as pension.

To observed that, more than one-third of the respondents have assets that generate income while more than half of the respondents do not have assets that generate income. The assets they said they had included houses, renting materials, cabs for motorists who give them returns and shares.

Deducing from the results, less than half of the respondents spend below a hundred and fifty naira, one-third of the respondents spend between a hundred and fifty naira and five-hundred naira daily, and less than one-tenth of the respondents spend between five hundred naira and one thousand naira. Just less than one-third of the respondents spend more than one thousand naira and above. It has been stipulated that a person is defined as poor if he spends less than one dollar per day, the conversion of the dollar to naira is approximately a hundred and fifty naira. From the above table it would be factual to state that the elderly are presently living below the poverty line.

In addition, less than half of the respondents said they lived in one bedroom apartments, one-quarter of the respondents live in self contain, more than one-tenth live in a room and parlor while less than one-quarter admitted that they live in flats. The wellbeing of an individual is shaped on how conducive and hygienic the environment of the individual is living in. majority of the respondents reside in one room apartment solely because they can not afford high cost and luxurious houses. This shows the reality of the poor living conditions of the elderly.

It was indicated that, less than half of the respondents reside with their children while more than half of the respondents do not reside with their children. This indicates the predominance of nuclear family as a higher percentage of them reside alone without the presence of their children; the exclusion of the elderly by their family members is evident here.

From the result, one-quarter of the respondents have about one to four household members, more than one-tenth of the respondents representing have five to nine household members, and less than one-tenth of the
respondents have ten to fourteen of the household members, while more than half of the respondents did not respond because they do not live with their children in correlation to the previous question.

It was observed that, less than one tenth of the respondents often receive visits from their children, more than one-third of the respondents rarely receive visits from their children, more than one-tenth of the respondents do not receive visits from their children, while less than two-quarter of the respondents did not respond because they reside with their children.

### Table 3: DECLINING HEALTH STATUS AND IMPOVERISHMENT OF THE ELDERLY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Information</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of respondents based on if they have health problems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>66.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>34.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of how often respondents receive medical attention</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very often</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>34.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>61.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of respondents based on if they are financially incapable to pay medical bills</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>84.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of respondents based on if they receive financial benefit from household members</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very often</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>52.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>32.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2011

**INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS**

From the responses, more than half of the respondents have health problems while more than one-third of the respondents do not have health problems. This table shows that the health status of majority of the aged persons is declining. The respondents who admitted not to have health problems might also be ignorant of some of the vulnerable diseases they can have but due to lack of medical supervision, they assume they do not have health problems.

Also, less than one-tenth of the respondents receive medical attention very often, more than one-third of the respondents often receive medical attention, and more than half of the respondents rarely receive medical attention. This shows that the rate at which the elders receive medical attention is minimal. From the table above, about three-quarter of the respondents find it difficult to pay medical bills while less than one-quarter of the respondents. This indicates that majority of the elders need financial assistance to pay their medical bills.

In addition, nearly one-tenth of the respondents receive financial benefits from household members very often, less than one-tenth respondents often receive financial benefits from household members, more than half of the respondents rarely receive financial benefits from household members, and a little above one-third of the respondents do not receive financial benefits from household members. This table show that majority of the elderly rarely receive financial benefit from their household members.
Table 4: MODERNIZATION AND SOCIAL EXCLUSION OF THE ELDERLY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Information</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of respondents based on if they perceive that there are changes in the society</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of respondents view on the functionality of societal changes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very functional</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functional</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Needs adjustment</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>78.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not functional</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of respondents based on if they are involved in making decisions in their households</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>48.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>51.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of respondents based on if they feel uprooted from the social networking in the society</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>93.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of respondents based on the reason why they feel uprooted from the society</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poverty</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restricted movement</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited communication with children</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not always consulted when decisions are made</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because of poor health</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>22.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of elderly union</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of respondents based on their awareness on programs for the aged</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>41.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>59.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of respondents based on whether they have being discriminated based on their age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>67.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of respondents based on their experiences on discrimination</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disregard by children</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupational harassment</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusation</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denial of right</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of respondents based on whether they perceive that inclusion of the elderly would disrupt the society</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Distribution of respondents who perceive that the inclusion of the elderly would disrupt the overall functioning of the society

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No response</th>
<th></th>
<th>100.0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Distribution of respondents who perceive that the inclusion of the elderly would not disrupt the overall functioning of the society

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perception</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elders can contribute to National development</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elders are the foundation of the society</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>25.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elders are important in the society</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>20.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equilibrium will exist in the society</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our experience and wisdom Can be useful in the society</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2011

### INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS

Based on the results, all of the respondents perceive that there are changes in the society. The changes they perceived are changes in the social, economical, religious, political sphere of the country. Also, less than one-tenth of the respondents perceive that the societal changes are very functional, nearly one-tenth of the respondents also perceive that the societal changes are functional, about three quarter of the respondents perceive that the societal changes needs adjustment and few of the respondents perceive that the societal changes are not functional. Less than one-tenth of the respondents did not respond because they did not perceive any changes in the society in correlation with the previous question. This table shows that majority of the aged persons feel that the society needs to be adjusted so that they can also fit in the society.

The table shows that nearly half of the respondents make decisions in their households while slightly above half of the respondents do not. This indicates that a slight majority of the elders do not contribute to the decision making process of their household which indicates role loss. This could be said to be a result of modernity as in the old traditional society, the elders were always consulted when decisions were made because it was assumed that they possess wisdom having lived long on earth.

The results showed that, majority of the respondents feel uprooted from the social networking of the society while slightly below one-tenth of the respondents do not feel uprooted from the social networking of the society. This indicates that majority of the elders are alienated from this highly computerized information technology era of networking.

In addition, more than one-tenth of the respondents state that they feel uprooted because they are poor, one-tenth of the respondents state that they feel uprooted because they have restricted mobility. Less than one-quarter of the respondents state that they feel uprooted because they have limited communication with their children, more than one-tenth of the respondents state that they feel uprooted because they are not always consulted when decisions are made, one-quarter of the respondents state that they feel uprooted because of poor health, while few of the respondents state that they feel uprooted because there is no available union for the elderly. Less than one-tenth of the respondents did not respond because they feel uprooted from the social networking of the society in correlation with the previous question. The table deduced that, less than half respondents are aware of programs for the aged while more than half of the respondents are not aware of any program for the aged.

Furthermore, more than half of the respondents admitted to have been discriminated based on their age while about one-third of the respondents said they have not been discriminated based on their age. This indicates that the concept of ageism which is prejudice based on age still persists. The table deduced that, less than one-quarter of the respondents stated that they have been disregarded by their children, more than one-quarter of the respondents stated that they have been harassed at their place of work, less than one-tenth of
the respondents stated that they have been accused, more than one-tenth of the respondents stated that they have been denied of certain rights, a few respondents did not respond because they have not been discriminated before in correlation with the previous question. All respondents stated that they do not believe that the inclusion of the elderly would disrupt the functioning of the society. This indicates that they acknowledge their worth and how they impact the society positively.

The table also stated that, no respondent responded to the question as they do not believe that the inclusion of the elderly would disrupt the overall functioning of the society in correlation with the previous question. It was observed that, more than one-tenth of the respondents of the respondents stated that elders can contribute to the national development of the society if they are included, more tan one-quarter of the respondents of the respondents stated that elders are they foundation of any society so their input is relevant. One-quarter of the respondents of the respondents stated that they are very important in the society, more than one-tenth of the respondents of the respondents stated that equilibrium would exist in the society if they are included as inequality would be reduced. Also, few respondents stated that their experience and wisdom can be useful in the society.

Table 5: SOCIAL WELFARE AND SECURITY OF THE ELDERLY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Information</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of respondents based on who they think should be responsible for their welfare</td>
<td>Government</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Household members</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>33.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Government/household</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>55.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Elderly themselves</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of respondents based on if they perceive that social security can enrich their households</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>94.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of respondents based on what they think can be done to improve their lives</td>
<td>Housing allowance and health insurance</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>13.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Financial benefit and welfare packages</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Including the in yearly budget</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>15.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Payment of pnsion</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Empower the young to ensure elderly care</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Form social and political association for the elderly</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Create less stressful but payable jobs for the active elderly</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2011

**INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS**

It was observed that, one-tenth of the respondent state that the government should be responsible for their welfare and more than one-third of the respondent state that the household members should solely be responsible for their welfare. More than half of the respondents state that the Government and household members should cater for them and just a respondent stated that the elderly should take care of themselves. The results showed that, majority of the respondents state that the social security can enrich their households while a few respondents declined. This indicates the principle of reciprocity is evident as the aged persons believe that if the government provides certain benefits for them, it will help in improving the life of their household members.
The outcome depict that, more than one-tenth of the respondents state that the status of the elderly can be improved if they are given housing allowances and health insurance, more than one-third of the respondents state that the status of the elderly can be improved if they are provided with financial benefit and welfare packages. Less than one-quarter of the respondents state that the status of the elderly can be improved if they are included in the yearly budget, nearly one-tenth of the respondents state that the status of the elderly can be improved if they are paid their pension, about one-tenth of the respondents state that the status of the elderly can be improved if the young generation is empowered by being employed this will ensure elderly care and security. Less than one-tenth of the respondents state that the status of the elderly can be improved if political and social associations are formed for the aged, while one-tenth of the respondents state that the status of the elderly can be improved if they are employed in less stressful jobs.

**TEST OF HYPOTHESES**

**HYPOTHESES ONE**
There is no relationship between household poverty and declining health status of the aged

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson chi-square</td>
<td>51.881*</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood ratio</td>
<td>53.166</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-association</td>
<td>.044</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No of valid cases</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.834</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. 2 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.72
Table value for $X^2$ is 7.815 at 0.05 significance level, while electronic calculated value stands at 51.881*

**INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS**

Decision rule- if chi-square calculated ($X^2_c$) is greater than chi-square tabulated, reject the null hypotheses and accept the alternative hypothesis

From table 4.3.2, it can be observed that the electronic chi-square ($X^2_c$) calculated value of 51.881* is greater than the chi-square ($X^2_t$) tabulated value of 7.815 at (3) degree of freedom at (0.05) significance level. Therefore we shall reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypotheses which state that there is a relationship between household poverty and the declining health status of the aged.

Thus, the elderly who are economically dependent on the household members rely on their financial assistance to pay medical bills. The health status of the aged therefore depends on the benefit derived from the household members; if the benefit is not forthcoming they become vulnerable to having a poor health status.

The greater the longevity of the elderly demands care and support for a longer period and also entails high cost of medical and health care. The rising cost of living and shrinking income often makes it difficult for the household members to provide adequate care and support. Rising individualism and liberalism in the family have often boosted up selfish and egoistic interest of the individual members of the household (Blau, 1984).

**HYPOTHESES TWO**

There is no relationship between social change (modernity) and social exclusion of the elderly

Table 5
a. 3 cells (37.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.21
Table value for $X^2$ is 7.815 at 0.05 significance level, while electronic calculated value stands at 91.915

**INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS**

Decision rule- if chi-square calculated ($X^2_c$) is greater than chi-square tabulated, reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypotheses

From table 4.3.4, it can be observed that the electronic chi-square ($X^2_c$) calculated value of 91.915 is greater than the chi-square ($X^2_t$) tabulated value of 7.815 at (3) degree of freedom at (0.05) significance level. Therefore we shall reject the null hypotheses and accept the alternative hypotheses which state that there is a relationship between social change (modernity) and social exclusion of the elderly.

Thus, the segregation of the elderly is dependent on how the society adapt to certain societal changes. The era of extended households have been evaded by nuclear a household which is a modern development. These changes have left the aged persons at the mercy of themselves. The exclusion of the elderly is evident in the rate at which they have been uprooted from the social networking in the society. In the changing context of Nigerian society, the problem of strain and adjustment of the elderly needs pivotal importance (Sijuwade, 1991)

**DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS**

Through quantitative research method, the study found out that household poverty is an important predictor of whether or not an elderly would be socially excluded. This study developed a conceptual framework to understand the factors surrounding household poverty and social exclusion of the elderly. The framework further offers a useful insight lens through which the lives of the elderly can be examined. Various forms of discrimination were identified such as accusation, denial of right, occupational, harassment and disregard by children. Majority of the respondents were discriminated via occupational harassment which implies that there is so much pressure for them to resign in the workforce.

The study observed the health status of the elderly which is no doubt declining due to the inefficiency to pay for medical bills. Some elders are also ignorant about their health status as they do not go for medical check-up.

All respondents stated their relevance in the society by disputing that their inclusion in the society would disrupt the functioning of the society. Majority of the respondents stated that the government and household members should be responsible for their welfare and also, economic packages provided to them via the government can help enrich their household.

**CONCLUSION**

This study established the fact that there is no human society where the aged are not present. While the world is ageing, there seems to be a general apathy and inadequate attention paid to issues concerning the elderly population. There is also a general absence of an articulated policing on the elderly at all levels of government. The situation of the elderly in Nigeria is not quite different from what is attainable in Sub-Saharan countries. Changing social institutions have severe implications for the aged as the nature and structure of the family is changing, more young people are leaving agricultural areas which are the basic residence of the aged persons, growing wage economy outside agriculture, over-reliance on formal support by the elderly and declining family income. Majority of Nigerian aged persons reside in rural areas and as agricultural workers and subsistence farmers, they do not receive pension benefits in the society.
One of the well known findings established in this study concerning the elderly is that whilst they are cherished and revered in old traditional, they are relatively degenerated in complex societies. Poverty destroys aspirations, hope and happiness. In Nigeria, as in other poverty stricken nations, this is the poverty one can feel. Poverty among the aged affects tolerance of others, support of civil liberties and openness toward foreigners; it affects positive relationships with subordinates, self-esteem and sense of personal competence: it also affects ones disposition to participate in community affairs, interpersonal trust and self-satisfaction.

The needs of the older people include not only a place to live or income maintenance but also intangible services. In recent years, with the emphasis on maintaining older people in the community, it has been found that a variety of support services are needed. Some of these services can be provided by private social agencies.

The reintegration of the elderly into the value system of the modern society is paramount as the moral standing of a culturally based country like Nigeria is beginning to loose its heritage and only the aged custodians can revive long lost traditions. The state of inequality would be reduced and equilibrium would prevail.

REFERENCES
Neugarten, (1964), “Age or need_Public Policies for Older People”. Sage Publications
Wahab, E and Uche, (2009), “Epistemological Advances in studying the demography of Ageing”, Department of Sociology: Lagos State University
ABSTRACT
The 1999 Nigerian Constitution recognizes the local governments as the third tier of government with assigned responsibilities. In order to be able to discharge these responsibilities, the same 1999 Constitution also grants allocations from the federation account to the local governments on monthly basis, but these allocations are paid into an account created by law called the State Joint Local Government account. The paper is aimed at finding out how the management of this Joint account affected the service delivery functions of the selected local governments in Kaduna state during the first and second terms of Chief Olusegun Obasanjo administration from 1999 to 2007. Data for the study were generated from both primary and secondary sources and their contents analyzed qualitatively. The finding of the study is that the Joint account posed a very serious challenged to the selected local governments during the first eight years of the fourth republic as the state government mismanaged the federal allocations to the these local governments. In view of the finding, it is recommended that the 1999 constitutioinal review currently going on in the National Assembly should abolish or review the provisions of the State Joint Local Government Account system to enable local government access their federal allocations directly.

Key Words: Service Delivery, Joint Account, Mismanagement, 1999 Constitution

Preamble
Local government is the third tier of government according to the 1999 Nigerian Constitution and its roles are critical in terms of identifying local or rural needs and mobilizing resources to meeting those needs. In fact, the crucial role which local governments could play in bringing development to the grassroots was what informed the 1976 Local Government Reforms according to Chief Olusegun Obasanjo who was then the military Head of State. The objectives of the reforms according to him were:
(a) To increase the responsibilities of the local authorities by a process of decentralization that ensures appropriate divisions of functions between State and Local Governments and those local authorities thereby play a significant role in the development process. (b) To ensure that participation and involvement begin at the grassroots level. Since local authorities are very close to the people, they are most favourably placed to understand and appreciate the people’s demands. Local authorities should hence, serve both input and output functions within the system. They should articulate the demands of the masses and when these are satisfied within the limits of available resources, they should provide authorities with feedback. (c) To ensure that both in the short-run and long-run, both the staffing and financial requirement of local authorities are satisfied to enable them perform their statutorily assigned functions (1976 Local Government Reform Guidelines).
The importance of this development objective was incorporated into the 1999 constitution and the local government council was specifically said to have a duty to participate in economic planning and development of the nation. According to the 1979 and 1999 constitutions, local governments are a third tier of government in Nigeria with their own identity, powers and sources of revenue established under state legislation and with functions for which they are responsible to the state. A cursory look at the functions assigned to the local governments as contained in the Fourth Schedule of the 1999 Constitution brings to the fore the that those functions are meant to improve the general living standard of the local people by the provision of essential services such as good drinking water, building boreholes in the rural and urban communities to complement the efforts of the water boards, electricity supply, an efficient waste disposal system, recreational facilities, construction, reconstruction and maintenance of local and other access roads, bridges and culverts, quality and affordable primary healthcare and educational services, etc. The aforementioned services will address the felt needs of the rural dwellers and their qualitative and effective delivery is what is referred to as local or rural development. The performances of these local governments during the eight years of Obasanjo’s administration in the provision of the above-mentioned services were very low. And one of the reasons usually advanced for the dismal performance of the selected local governments and local governments in Nigeria is the issue of State Joint Local Government Account and how its management constituted a serious obstacle to the fiscal operations or service delivery functions of the local government during the period under study.

Local Government and Service Delivery – A Vital Nexus

The 1999 Constitution specifically assigns some functions to the local government like construction and maintenance of roads, streets, street lightings, drains and other public highways, provision and maintenance of public conveniences, sewage and refusal disposal, the provision and maintenance of primary, adult and vocational education, health services, etc. The selected local governments scored very low during the period under review in the provision of the above services according to Ibrahim (2007), Tersur (2008) and Ukwueze (2009). After many years of military rule with its attendant problems, a democratically elected government was put in place in 1999 in this political entity called Nigeria headed by Chief Olusegun Obasanjo. Even though there were serious problems with the elections which ushered in the new civilian government, the way and manner Nigerians came out en masse for the elections showed their yearnings and aspirations for a government which would improve their standard of living and impact their lives positively. People were filled with excitement and anticipation that their saviour had come with the transfer of power from military to civilian. Their expectations could not be said to be misplaced because government whether at the federal, state or local level exists to provide some beneficial goods and services to the population in their jurisdiction. The quantity and quality of these goods and services are what constitute development whether at the national, regional or local level. For an effective and efficient provision of these goods and services, most federal countries of the world including Nigeria practice fiscal federalism. Fiscal federalism is a system whereby the functions and finances of the public sector of a country are shared between the central and regional governments; in the case of Nigeria, between the federal, states and local governments. The rationale behind this division of public functions and finances according to Tamuno (1998) is to enable each unit of government to deliver services to the citizens in the areas they are competent. But studies by Ibrahim (2007), Tersur (2008) and Ukwueze (2009) show that the selected local governments’ performances in the provisions of the above-mentioned services were very poor during the first and second terms of Chief Olusegun Obasanjo administration which lasted for eight years. The reason for this state of affairs during the period under review is attributable to the management of State Joint Local Government Account and the way it was used to starve the local governments of the needed funds to discharge their statutory fiscal functions. This paper therefore seeks to find out whether or not the argument that the Joint Account system was accountable for the poor performance of the selected local governments during the period under study is tenable.

The core objective of this paper is to assess how the management of the State/Local Government Joint account affected the service delivery of the selected local governments in Kaduna state from 1999 to 2007. However, this core objective is further divided to include:

a. To find out the statutory abuses of the Joint Account system by the state government which constituted a hindrance to the fiscal operations of the selected local governments during the period under review.

b. To recommend the ways in which the operation of this account will facilitate rather constitute a hindrance to the effective service delivery or fiscal functions of local governments in Nigeria.
In pursuance to the issues raised above, this paper will attempt to find answers to the following research questions:

a. What role did the State Joint Local Government account play in the fiscal functions of the selected local governments during the first eight years of the Fourth Republic?

b. Should the 1999 constitutional provision of the State Joint Local Government Account be reviewed or be abolished to allow for some level of fiscal autonomy for the local government?

As this paper was being put together, the Senate Committee on the Review of the 1999 Constitution was meeting on 20th July 2012 in Asaba, Delta State to consider some areas of the 1999 Constitution that need to be reviewed to meet the current challenges of governance in Nigeria. One of the submissions by eminent scholars was that of Professor Elaigwu who made presentation to the gathering on the challenges being faced by the third tier of government especially through the Joint Account system. This study is confined to assessing the impact of the State Joint Local Government account on the fiscal operations of the following local governments of Kaduna state: Zaria, Kaduna North, Jema’a, Zangon-Kataf, Kajuru and Makarfi local governments. Zaria, Kaduna North and Jema’a represent urban local governments while Zangon-Kataf, Kajuru and Makarfi represent rural local governments. 1976 Local Government Reform Guidelines define rural local government as one having a population below 150,000 and especially lacking in some infrastructural facilities which big or urban local governments have. Aside from population parameter, Zangon-Kataf, Kajuru and Makarfi local governments do not have the types of infrastructural facilities which big local governments like Kaduna North, Zaria, and Jema’a have and so they are referred to in this study as rural local governments. The time frame used for analysis for this study is the first and second terms of Chief Olusegun Obasanjo administration. This time frame represents a period when after a long military rule with its attendant problems, Nigerians had a civilian government which they expected to impact their living conditions positively.

Methodology

The data for this paper was generated from the primary source through interview and observation and secondary source through documents drawn from government and non-governmental publications, journals and papers, and other published materials and materials from the internet. These data were explored to draw inferences and conclusion on the outcome of the study. The study adopts a qualitative approach to data analysis to examine the challenges being posed by the way and manner the Joint Account system was used to constitute a hindrance to the effective service delivery function of the selected local governments.

Local Government Service Delivery – A Review of the Politics of State Joint Local Government Account

Local government in Nigeria is a product of decentralization and is established by law. As a federate state, Nigeria has three tiers of government (federal, state and local government) whose intergovernmental relations (which include political, financial, judicial and administrative) are mainly established by the constitution. Each tier is required to operate within its area of jurisdiction, and any action to the contrary is null and void to the extent of its inconsistency with the law. This is meant to guarantee the autonomy of each tier as it discharges its statutory duties to the people its territory. Intergovernmental relations may be defined as ‘a complex pattern of interactions, co-operations and inter-dependence between two or more levels of government’ (Ogunna 1996). According to Adamolekun (2002), intergovernmental relation is the term commonly used to describe the interactions between the different levels of government within the state. It can also be seen as important interactions occurring between governmental institutions of all types and in all spheres (Okafor, 2010). It exists in all types of states but is more pronounced, complex, controversial and contentious in federal states. The level of development or the quantity and quality of service delivery in a given state tends to be determined by the structure and quality of its intergovernmental relations.

In the intergovernmental relations in Nigeria, 1999 Constitution stipulates the fiscal relations between the tiers of government. Section 162 sub-sections 1 to 8 especially state thus:

1. The Federation shall maintain a special account to be called ‘the Federation Account’ into which shall be paid all revenues collected by the Government of the Federation…
2. The President, upon the receipt of advice from the Revenue Mobilization Allocation and Fiscal Commission, shall table before the National Assembly proposals from the Federation Account and
in determining the formula, the National Assembly shall take into account, the allocation principles especially those of population, equality of states, internal revenue generation, landmass terrain as well as population density. Provided that the principle of derivation shall be constantly reflected in the any approved formula as being not less than thirteen percent of the revenue accruing to the Federation Account directly from any natural resources.

3. Any amount standing to the credit of the Federation Account shall be distributed among the Federal and State governments and the local government councils in each state on such terms and in such manner as may be prescribed by the National Assembly.

4. Any amount standing to the credit of the states in the Federation Account shall be distributed among the states on such terms and in such manner as may be prescribed by the National Assembly.

5. The amount standing to credit of the local government councils in the Federation Account shall also be allocated to the States for the benefit of their local governments on such terms and in such manner as may be prescribed by the National Assembly.

6. Each State shall maintain a special account to be called ‘State Joint Local Government Account’ into which shall be paid all allocations to the local government councils of the state from the Federation Account and from the Government of the state.

7. Each state shall pay to local government councils in its area of jurisdiction such proportion of its total revenue on such terms and in such manner as may be prescribed by the National Assembly.

8. The amount standing to the credit of local government councils of a state shall be distributed among the local government councils of that state on such terms and in such manner as may be prescribed by the House of Assembly of the state.

A close examination of the above provisions of the Nigerian 1999 Constitution especially as it concerns fiscal relations among the tiers of government brings to the fore the following facts. First, federally collected revenues are paid in an account called the Federation Account to be distributed among the three tiers of government. Before the advent of Obasanjo administration in 1999 the formula for sharing the revenue from this Account was: Federal Government – 54.68%; State Government – 25.32% and Local Government – 20%. This sharing arrangement was further adjusted by the Obasanjo administration in 2002 and 2004 to reflect: Federal Government – 52.68%; State Government 26.72 and Local Government – 20.60%. This revenue formula is still in force till today. Thus it can be seen that besides, several deductions from the federally collected revenues before the monies are paid into the Federal Account, the federal government still has the lion’s share to the disadvantage of other tiers in the intergovernmental relations.

Second, the monies standing to the credit of the federal and state governments are paid directly to them while the monies meant for the fiscal operations of the local governments are to be paid into a designated account called ‘State Joint Local Government Account’ for onward distribution to all local councils of the state. In Kaduna state, the monies are distributed on the principles of population, equality, landmass and terrain, internal revenue effort and social development factor according to an unpublished official document from the Kaduna State Ministry of Finance.

Third, the 1999 also stipulated that each state should pay a certain percent of its total revenue to the local government councils and presently the percentage is put at 10 percent of the internally generated revenue of the state.

Many authors and researchers have attributed the poor and ineffective performance and service delivery problems of Nigerian local governments to the highlighted facts emanating from the provisions of the 1999 Constitution as identified above. For instance, Okafor (2010) posited that a research carried out by the Department of Local Government Studies, Ahmadu Bello University as far as back 1982 pointed out the problems which this Joint Account was causing the service delivery function of the Nigerian Local governments especially in the northern states. Okafor said the research stated that:

Very few of the states in our catchments (northern states) have prescribed legal formula for disbursing funds from the Joint Account. As a result… the effect has been some degree of mismanagement. For example, statutory allocations to local government which should go into this Account sometimes are diverted into objectives other than local government (Okafor, 2010).

The obstacles which the State Joint Local Government Account were posing to the effective operation and administration of local government highlighted by the research conducted by the Department of Local Government Studies of Ahmadu Bello University in 1982 are still prevalent and have worsened
since when that research was carried out. Kurfi (2008) submitted that principal among fiscal factors which have hamstrung the discharge of local government service delivery are states’ refusal to contribute their share into the Joint Account, interference, abuse and mismanagement. He went further to say that local governments have become thoroughly under-funded while effective planning and budgeting have become impossible. That in some cases, local governments were made to shoulder responsibilities that are not constitutionally theirs and in some cases they are denied access to the fund released to them from the Federation Account. This implies that the idea of Joint Account has paved the way for mismanagement, corruption and constitutional abuses by the state and has therefore placed a marked limitation on the extent to which local governments can positively impact the lives of the citizens in their constituencies.

In a paper presented at the 2nd EFCC – ALGON National Workshop on Accountability and Transparency in Local Government Administration, 2008, Korfi gave descriptive illustration of the precarious situation local governments find themselves through the Joint Account system. According to him, the statutory allocation to the 23 local governments in Kaduna state in April 2004 was ₦999,084,103.30 but the deductions from this amount were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contribution to Primary Education</td>
<td>316,076,641.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15% Pension Fund</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Fund</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet Connectivity</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Severance Allowance</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fertilizer Deduction</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bank and Administrative Charges</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous Deductions</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Deductions</strong></td>
<td><strong>680,175,438.43</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the above, it becomes clear that the net statutory allocation to the 23 local governments in the said month after all the above listed deductions amounted to ₦214,908,669.88. This shows that the statutory allocation that eventually got to the local government councils in that month and year was about 24 percent of the total federal allocation. In fact, for ‘Miscellaneous deductions’ to have gulped ₦88 million is very curious indeed. It should be noted that the statutory deductions allowed are the first three items; the other deductions are extraneous to the Account according to Kurfi (2008). Such deductions and interferences have been common in many states. News are rife about how some state governments virtually annexed the Joint Account to their party electioneering funds and just barely paid salaries of local government staff during this period.

In the Technical Committee Report from the Department of Local Government Studies, Ahmadu Bello University cited in Kurfi (2008) above, the tampering with the Joint Account by the state government led to a gap between the figures released by the Ministry of Local Government as the allocation and what actually got down to the local government. The question is why should be there be such a disparity and what happened to the difference. This is the problem of the Joint Account and the deductions cited above are a confirmation of the abuses of the Account. From the figures submitted to the Technical Committee from every state of the federation, the figures at the local government level and that of the Ministry for Local government hardly agreed.

The funding of the Primary School education by the local government as stipulated in the 1979 and 1999 Constitutions is also a major challenge to local governments’ inability to engage in developmental activities as could be seen from the example of deductions above. One third of the allocation for a month went to Primary Education Fund in addition to several other deductions. One could imagine the percentage of monthly allocation available for capital projects like provision of scholarship and bursaries, public libraries and reading rooms, home for the destitute, the insane and orphans, support for arts and culture, lighting and drainage and other local social, economic and administrative services.

The following tables show the summary of income and expenditure of the selected local governments during the period under study.

Table 1: SUMMARY OF INCOME BETWEEN 1999 – 2007

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Local Govt</th>
<th>Internally Generated Revenue</th>
<th>Statutory Allocation</th>
<th>10% of IGR from State</th>
<th>VAT</th>
<th>Excess crude Oil</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Zaria</td>
<td>530,777,395</td>
<td>8,412,452,047</td>
<td>140,278,932</td>
<td>1,126,596,207</td>
<td>10,210,077,581</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>KD/North</td>
<td>1,663,367,749</td>
<td>10,336,576,310</td>
<td>186,032,811</td>
<td>1,495,240,602</td>
<td>14,334,345,198</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Jema’a</td>
<td>291,041,488</td>
<td>7,716,479,719</td>
<td>132,659,227</td>
<td>1,137,498,010</td>
<td>9,956,965,465</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2: SUMMARY OF EXPENDITURE BETWEEN 1999 - 2007

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>L/Govt</th>
<th>Statutory Deductions</th>
<th>Personnel Cost</th>
<th>Overhead Cost</th>
<th>Capital</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Zaria</td>
<td>2,400,093,567</td>
<td>2,170,905,856</td>
<td>3,104,488,163</td>
<td>4,688,958,850</td>
<td>12,364,446,436</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>KD/North</td>
<td>4,561,395,979</td>
<td>2,629,138,982</td>
<td>7,005,135,883</td>
<td>4,546,672,147</td>
<td>18,742,342,991</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Jema’a</td>
<td>3,127,538,014</td>
<td>1,878,186,801</td>
<td>2,796,633,007</td>
<td>2,932,036,115</td>
<td>10,734,393,937</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Zangon-Kataf</td>
<td>2,512,718,059</td>
<td>1,347,002,949</td>
<td>2,031,881,702</td>
<td>3,215,261,114</td>
<td>9,088,863,824</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Kajuru</td>
<td>1,884,015,297</td>
<td>1,566,220,472</td>
<td>2,469,251,532</td>
<td>3,579,952,798</td>
<td>9,499,440,099</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Makarfi</td>
<td>1,510,764,067</td>
<td>1,617,793,179</td>
<td>2,534,195,643</td>
<td>3,480,440,663</td>
<td>9,143,193,552</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Researcher’s Survey (2012)

As could be seen from the Table 1 above, the sources of funds available to the selected Local Governments in Kaduna state and indeed Nigerian Local Governments are statutory allocations from the Federation Account, 10% of Internally Generated Revenue from the state government, VAT, Shares from Excess Crude Oil, and locally generated revenue. Table 1 also brings to the fore the fact that 90% of their total revenue is from the Federal allocations. This means being able to access this money is critical to local governments’ financial ability to discharge their constitutional responsibilities.

Table 2 also indicates that a sizeable percentage of the federal allocation to these local governments is retained by the state government as deductions. Their expenditure pattern also shows that personnel and overhead costs gulped large chunk of the money eventually released to the local governments as obvious from the figures in table 2. This leaves little or nothing for developmental and capital projects and programmes which could directly touch the living conditions of the rural or local dwellers. Personal interviews with senior staff of some of the local governments and the Ministry of the Local Government also revealed that part of the figures appearing under capital expenditure above are sometimes projects which the state government executed on behalf of the respective local governments. It was also learnt that some projects are imposed on the local governments not minding whether such projects are needed at that time or not.

Dlakwa (2004) has further outlined the problems being posed to local governments’ service delivery using Borno state as a case study. He states that under the Borno State Joint Local Government Account and Fiscal Committee Law 2002, a committee was set up to administer the Account. It comprised:

a. The Commissioner of the Ministry of Local Government and Chieftaincy Affairs who serves as Chairman of the Committee.
b. Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Local Government and Chieftaincy Affairs.
c. Accountant-General of the State
d. All Local Government Councils’ Chairmen in the State
e. A Representative of the Board of Internal Revenue, and
f. The Director of the Ministry of Local Government and Chieftaincy Affairs who serves as the Secretary.

It should be observed that the key officers of the committee are state government officials and, in the view of Dlakwa, the committee was structured from the outset to the disadvantage of the Local government Councils. Moreover, according to Dlakwa, the Borno State Joint Local Government Account (SJLGA) Law 2002 empowers the committee to effect the following deductions, among other, before distributing funds from the Account to Local Government Councils:

a. 3% of the fund to each council to the emirate councils
b. 15% of the total personnel emolument to those retired in each council
c. 1% as a training fund
d. 5% of the total allocation of each council as a stabilization account
e. 2% of the total allocation of each council as an administrative charge
f. 1.5% of the allocation of each council to the department of local government
g. 0.5% of the allocation to the local government audit department.
Thus the Borno state government effectively deducted and diverted funds meant for development of local areas, contributing significantly to the abysmal performance of local governments in providing good governance for the community. According to Dlakwa (2004), between March 2002 and March 2003 a total of ₦13.3 billion was available for councils in Borno State. Out of this amount the state government deducted 48 percent of the total amount. Aggrieved by this incessant interference in local government’s financial autonomy, 26 Local Government Council Chairmen (with the exception of Maiduguri Metropolitan Council) sued the Borno state government for passage of the SJLGA Law 2002, challenging the right of the government to deduct local government funds at source. The High Court ruled that the state government has power to pass the law under section 162(8) of the 1999 Constitution, but declared unconstitutional the specific provisions that empower the committee to deduct funds at source. This judgment was delivered in June 2002, however, the deductions continue till today (Dlakwa, 2004). The Borno example is a reflection of the situation affecting other local government councils across Nigeria.

Intergovernmental relations are supposed to play a bridge building to bring a degree of coordination and cooperation to the federating units. Following this, the operation of the State Joint Local Government Account as provided for in the 1999 Constitution should contribute to cooperative administration, accountability and transparency in the local governance within the principle of separation of powers and the rule of law. However, the reality in Nigerian local government indicates the opposite. As evident from the Kaduna and Borno examples, state governments interfere with the financial autonomy of local governments through the instrument of the State Joint Local Government Account. This has greatly hampered the developmental efforts and service delivery of local government councils. Currently, there is a bill before the National Assembly as regards state governments’ interference with local governments’ funds. This study sees the review of Section 162(6) and (8) as a remedy to this most unsatisfactory situation.

Theoretical Framework
Theory deals with a body of knowledge which has been developed to explain a given phenomena. The theory which will serve as a base for this study is Efficiency Service Theory postulated by Mills and Bricks (1974). The central thesis of Efficiency Service Theory is that the main justification and functional responsibility of local governments is to efficiently carry out local duties allocated to it at the highest efficiency rate. The theory further posited that the quantity and quality of the provision of these services represent local or rural development. Mackenzie (1979), Ola (1984) and Odoh (1990) supported this argument when they asserted that local governments exist essentially to bring government closer to the grassroots by way of provision of basic amenities and infrastructure of local nature and that it is when local governments are seen to be doing just this that they can be said to be justifying the purpose of their existence. The 1979 Local Government Reform Guidelines, the 1979 and 1999 Constitutions agree with the above theory in that they concurred with the fact that local governments in Nigeria exist to efficiently provide goods and services of local nature to those at the local level.

The relevance of this theory to the study is that since local governments are established basically to meet the yearnings and aspirations of rural dwellers by way of providing goods and services to local people which only they can competently provide because of their knowledge and proximity to the people, the Joint Account system which constitutes an obstacle to the purpose of local government should be reviewed.

Major Findings
The following findings are discernible from the study:

a. That the State/Local Government Joint account was used by the state government to place a serious limitation on the extent to which the selected local governments could go in making their presence felt by way of providing social amenities and services which could meet the felt needs of the local and rural dwellers during the period under review as could be seen from the large deductions from their statutory allocations.

b. That the operation of this Joint Account also gave room for corruption and mismanagement of funds meant for local and rural development. Rather than being a means of fostering and facilitating the service delivery functions of the selected local governments, the Joint Account system was used to the contrary.

Conclusion
This paper on the management of State Joint Local Government Account and how it affected the service delivery functions of the selected local government was undertaken to find out whether the argument that the selected local governments could not perform statutory functions well during the eight years of
Obasanjo administration is tenable. The study revealed that the way and manner the Joint Account was managed affected the local governments in the discharge of their responsibilities. This is not to say that corruption by local governments was not also responsible for low performance.

**Recommendations**

Seeing the important and critical role which the local governments could play in making the local people to feel the presence of government by providing goods and services which will meet the yearnings and aspirations of the population of that level of government, this paper makes the following recommendations arising from the findings of the study:

a. That the time is ripe for either outright abolition of State Joint Local Government Account law or a major review of some of its provisions especially Sections 162(6) and (8) to allow the selected governments and indeed the Nigerian local governments access their federal allocations directly.

b. That there should be an establishment of an independent audit agency comprising federal, state, local government and private representatives. The members of this agency must have a proven track record of financial management to supervise, inspect and audit the use of statutory allocations by local government councils. This would provide ‘checks and balances’ on local government officials’ administration of finance matters to ensure accountability and transparency in the use of local government funds.

It is the belief of this study that if the above recommendations are adhered to, then a new dawn definable in terms of quantitative and qualitative service delivery by local governments would have come to Nigeria.

**References**


MACROECONOMIC POLICY AND DEVELOPMENT OF NIGERIA RURAL ECONOMY

By

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Abstract
Rural areas in Nigeria are faced with problems of development elements. Successive governments have made several efforts in terms of policies and programs to accentuate development in the area. It remained a fact that developing agriculture and its accompanying infrastructures result to developing the rural area, given that agriculture remains the mainstay of the economic activities among the rural dwellers. Macroeconomic policies are veritable tools necessary for accelerating development in all sectors including the rural areas. Therefore, the need for macroeconomic fiscal policies in the area of increased public expenditures (funding) on agriculture has been identified as necessary strategies for developing the rural areas. To what extent has this been achieved and what are the associated challenges faced in developing the rural areas in Nigeria; are the main thrust of this paper. The paper used secondary data from the CBN statistical bulletin and Annual Report and content analysis of works done on this area was adopted as analysis methodology. The paper finds that there exist; (1) problems of finding (2) proliferation of development programs (3) poor level of implementation of policies and programs and (4) high rate of corruption. The study recommends among other things that: (1) adequate budgetary provisions and timely release of funds should be emphasized (2) training and capacity building for staff of the institutions responsible for implementation of policies and programs should be upheld (3) corrupt practices and its tendencies should be discouraged (4) continuity in the execution and implementation of development programs should have legislative backings

Keywords: macroeconomics, rural development, expenditures, agriculture, budget

INTRODUCTION
One of the main issues of development debates is how to bring development to the rural area. The constraints to developing the rural area as well as the problem of this critical sector have come to loom very large. For over four decades in Nigeria, all attempts to put the rural area on course of development have failed. Conditions have continued to worsen and poverty has become a major issue in the rural areas in spite of their potentials. This has however, remained a major concern to governments to identify appropriate strategies for developing the rural economy in Nigeria.

The rural areas however present problems that are a contradicting paradox of its natural endowment. As noted by Chinsman (1998), rural communities are seriously marginalized in terms of most basic elements of development. In addition, the inhabitants tend to live at the margin of existence and opportunities. Most rural communities lack portable water, electricity, health care, educational, recreational facilities and motorable roads. They experience high population growth rate, high infant and maternal mortality, low life expectancy and a peasant population that lack modern equipment that can guarantee sustainable exploitation of natural resources on which they live.

As a result of this mass exodus, the rural areas have become qualitatively depopulated and are progressively less attractive for social and economic investment as opined by Ivor (2010). However, successive governments in Nigeria have undertaking various policies aimed at accentuating development in the rural area in order to improve the level of development. Some of these economic policies are macro in nature. The macroeconomic policies are holistic input approach to influence the pattern the
government wants the entire economy to tread. Despite the countless number of rural development policies introduced at different times by successive governments coupled with the huge financial and material resources committed, little or nothing is felt at the rural level as each policy has often died with the government that initiated it before it start to yield dividends for the rural dwellers and the entire country at large.

In view of the above, this paper seeks to assess the macroeconomic policies which were used by the government, its challenges, and contributions in the development of the rural areas.

In order to achieve these objectives, the paper focused on the fiscal macroeconomic policies and programs that have direct bearing on Nigeria rural economy. The content analysis and existing empirical findings of various studies have been adopted for analysis.

MACROECONOMIC POLICY AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Macroeconomic referred to as the big picture of a country’s overall economic performances. It is the policy that government uses to influence the pattern she wants the entire economy to chart. Macroeconomic policies are veritable tool necessary for accelerating development in all sectors of the economy including the rural areas. The policies usually stressed in macroeconomics involve the monetary and fiscal policy. Monetary policy refers to the policy of the monetary authority of a country with regards to monetary affairs. Jhingan (1997) put it that monetary policy may involve:

(a) the controls of financial institution
(b) active purchases and sales of papers assets by the monetary authority as a deliberate attempt to effect changes in monetary conditions;
(c) tenancy of a particular interest rates, structure, the stability of securing prices, or meeting other obligations and committees.

Fiscal policy on the other hand, according to him means the use of taxation, public borrowing and public expenditure by government for purposes of stabilization or development.

Fiscal policy plays a dynamic role in developing economies. An extensive use of fiscal policy is indispensable for economic development especially in a developing economy such as Nigeria; fiscal policy can be used to accelerate the rate of capital formation. In the words of Nurkse in Jhingan (1997), “Fiscal policy assumes a new significance in the face of the problem of capital formation in underdeveloped countries. He opined that the per capital incomes and savings are extremely low in such countries, making the few rich people indulge in conspicuous consumption. Thus, fiscal policy diverts all these into productive channels. The need for macroeconomic fiscal policies as it affects public expenditure in rural development can never be overemphasis, especially in a situation whereby the private enterprise is reluctant to invest in risky channels and where returns or capital are not quick. This however brings about low investment in the real sector especially agriculture. This goes a long way to hinder significant development at the rural area as agriculture remains the main stay of the rural economy. Under this circumstance, rapid economic development at the rural area and the nation at large is very possible through public expenditure. It therefore, devolves on the government to assume the responsibility of creating the infrastructures needed for the progress. The government has larger financial resources and is in a better position to start economic and social overhead requiring long gestation period. The role of public expenditure in the development of the rural economy lies in increasing the growth rate of the economy, providing more employment opportunities, raising incomes and standard of living, reducing inequalities of income and wealth, encouraging private initiative and enterprises, increasing agricultural produce to meet the growing demand for goods and raw materials and increasing the supply of consumer goods by encouraging the establishment and expansion of the small industry sectors.

Also, with the intervening of the government in the rural area through public spending on roads construction, electrification projects, provision of portable water and education, makes the rural areas more attractive and promising to live in, thereby reducing the tendencies of, migration and decongestion of the urban centres. Public expenditure is a veritable strategy for the development of the rural economy through encouraging the agricultural and industrial sector of the economy by means of grants, subsidies, tax exemption etc. It remain a known fact that agriculture and rural development are synonymous even though some writers argued that rural development also include infrastructural development to facilitate the achievement of agricultural objectives.
HIGHLIGHT OF GOVERNMENTS AGRICULTURAL POLICIES AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Several policies have been embarked upon by the government to strengthen the development of the rural economy especially through agriculture. These policies include the establishment of schemes, programs and institutions to address and deliver government’s intervention and ambitions. Writers have argued most often that the main strategies for the development of the rural economy are to develop the agriculture sector, since it is the dominant occupation therein. Though some of other writers have also indicated that an integrated development approach should be adopted which combined the development of the agriculture sector and other infrastructure development facilities such as construction of roads, schools, water electricity etc.

a. SCHEMES

The schemes offer financial credit to the farmers through the banks despite the relatively high investment risk and uncertainty. The primary objective of this is to promote farmers’ access to credit facilities to develop agricultural produce. Some of the facilities under this scheme are as follows:-

i. Agricultural Credit Guarantee Scheme Funds (ACGSF) 1978 till date;
ii. Small and Medium Enterprise Equity Investment Scheme (SMEEIS), 2001 to date
iii. Refinancing and Rediscounting Facilities (RFF) 2000
iv. Agricultural Credit Support Scheme (Scheme) 2006 till date
v. Large Scale Agricultural Credit Scheme (LASACS), 2009
vi. Supervised Agricultural Loan Board (SALB)

b. PROGRAMS

i. National Accelerated Food Production Program (NAFPP), 1972
ii. Agricultural Development program 1975
iii. Operation Feed the Nation (OFN) 1976
iv. Green Revolution Program – 1980
vii. Root and Tuber Expansion Program, 2000
viii. National FADAMA Development Program
ix. Family Economic Advancement Program (FEAP) 1997 – 2001
x. National Poverty Eradication Program (NAPEP) 1999 to date
xi. Microfinance, 2005 to date

To achieve these schemes, programs and institutions, the government over the years made budgetary allocation to agriculture which when compared with the total budget, fall short of meeting the policy intentions realistically. The study of Eze, Lemchi et al, 2010, showed that, during the first to third development plan (1962 to 1980), the federal government budgeted ₦3.57 billion but only ₦2.41 billion was actually released for the sector (FDA, NDP, 1992). The second record also showed that in the first plan 11.6% of the budget was allocated to agriculture but only 9.8% was released, in the second plan 9.9% was budgeted but 7.7% was actually spent and in the third plan 7.2 % allocation was budgeted and 7.1% of this amount was released for the period.

GOVERNMENT BUDGETARY ALLOCATION TO AGRICULTURE

The picture of the budgetary allocation and actual expenditure of the government compared to the laudable and elaborate policies on agriculture are matchless. That is, the financial commitment of the government to
the achievement of meaningful growth and development of the agricultural sector is inadequate. It is therefore not surprising why the policies of the government on agriculture have not achieved food self sufficiency, self reliance, reduction in poverty and rural development goals. The below table made this clear.

Table 1: Budgetary Allocation to Agriculture (₦ Billions)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total budget</th>
<th>Allocation to agric.</th>
<th>% of Agric. Total budget</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>39.76</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>4.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>38.66</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>1.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>52.03</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>1.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>112.10</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>2.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>110.20</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>3.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>153.49</td>
<td>6.92</td>
<td>4.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>337.21</td>
<td>5.71</td>
<td>1.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>428.21</td>
<td>8.66</td>
<td>2.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>487.11</td>
<td>9.04</td>
<td>1.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>947.69</td>
<td>12.15</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>701.05</td>
<td>13.60</td>
<td>1.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>1,018.02</td>
<td>64.94</td>
<td>6.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>1,018.15</td>
<td>44.80</td>
<td>4.40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


From the table above it can be seen that the level of public expenditure on the agricultural sector is not very impressing. For instance, the total percentage expenditure allocated to the agriculture sector between 1990 to 2005 ranges from 1.69% - 6.34%. Within this years the average allocation to this sector was about 2.95%. Also, apart from year 2001 with about 6% allocation no year between the period in question was allocated up to 5% of the total budgetary allocation to the country.

The Nigeria Agriculture Public Expenditure Review (NAGPER), a collaborative study carried out by a research team from the International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) and the World Bank, assessed the quantity and quality of public spending on agriculture the study showed that less than 2% of total federal expenditure was allotted to agriculture during 2001 to 2005, far lower than spending in other key sectors such as education, health and water. This spending contrasts dramatically with the sector’s importance in the Nigeria economy, which ranged from 20% to 30% of total GDP since 2000; and falls below the 10% goal set by African leaders in the 2003 Maputo agreement. Nigeria also falls behind in agricultural expenditure by International Standard even when accounting for its level of income (see figure 1).

Figure 1: Nigeria’s Agricultural Expenditure in International comparison

Assessing the quantum of funds allocated to the agriculture sector, it is noticed that nearly 60% of total capital spending goes to government purchase of fertilizer and buyer of last resort grain purchase. This situation according to Eze and Lemchi et al (2010) showed the difference between implementation and policy formulation such that very low funds are available for activities considered vital for promoting agricultural productivity gains leading to pro-poor growth.

The disturbing situation is that, despite the inherent potentials which the agricultural sector would contribute to the development of the nation’s economy the attitude of the government spending remains unsatisfying. The table below shows the contribution of Agriculture to the Nation’s GDP between 2001 – 2007

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Total GDP (N Billion)</th>
<th>Agric Share of GDP</th>
<th>% Share of Agric. In total GDP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>431.78</td>
<td>182.66</td>
<td>42.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>451.71</td>
<td>190.37</td>
<td>42.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>495.01</td>
<td>203.01</td>
<td>41.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>527.58</td>
<td>216.21</td>
<td>40.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>561.82</td>
<td>231.46</td>
<td>41.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>595.82</td>
<td>248.60</td>
<td>41.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>632.86</td>
<td>267.06</td>
<td>42.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: CBN (2005, 2007) GDP is at 1990 Constant Price

However, the truth of the matter is that no doubt that the performance of the agricultural sector is based on the aggregation of small holder farmers scattered across the nation.

CHALLENGES OF AGRICULTURAL POLICIES AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

As mentioned earlier, some agricultural policies are necessarily aimed at developing the rural economy, especially when we looked at some of the integrated development policies of the government – RBDA, DFRRI, ADPs, etc. This stems from the realization that food production cannot be isolated from improvement in the living condition within the rural producing areas. It is a clear fact that domestic food supply would have been precarious if roads leading to and away from food producing centre were to be left unattended to. The development of the rural economy have witnessed extensive effort through policies by successive government in Nigeria, generally aimed at accelerating development through developing agricultural produce and rural development. These policies however have been faced with several challenges which led to the failure of the previous policies and they continue to threaten existing ones.

(a) Funding Problems

It remained a known fact that money is the life wire of the success of any program, project. Public spending on agricultural sector has remained a serious challenge to the progress of the sector. In the report of the Nigeria Agricultural Public Expenditure Review (NAGPER), it has noted that:

i. Public spending on agriculture in Nigeria is very low as less than 2% of the total federal expenditure was allotted to agriculture during 2001 to 2005, far lower than spending in other key sector such as education, health and water. Finding is very low for the execution of number of activities considered vital for promoting agricultural productivity gains leading to poor growth;

ii. The pattern of public spending in agriculture raises doubts about the quality of spending. The NAGPER analysis noted that many of the presidential initiatives – which differ greatly in targeting crops technology, research, seed multiplication and distribution – have identical budgetary provisions. This pattern suggests that the needs assessment and costing for this initiative may have been on political consideration rather than economic rationalization.

Poor finding of public financing institution is another problem. The NACRDB for instance has a capital base of N50 Billion to be contributed by the FGN and the CBN in the ratio 60:40. However, only N23Billion has been paid up yet (Umebali 2006). DFRRI and other non-banking institutions were or have been similarly starved of funds. These institutions can not deliver effectively without proper funding.

(b) Proliferation of Development Programs

Some of the development program policies are so superficially implemented that the average targeted population (rural dwellers) doubt the sincerity of the initiator. Such proliferation can easily be noticed from the many numbers of such that died with successive government that initiated them.

(c) Level of Implementation

The level of implementing the aforementioned policies compared with the policy package is very low. This can be justified when Obot (1989) in Ivor (2010) writes that the development policies geared towards the
improvement of the rural economy remained almost a household word without corresponding success especially at the implementation stage. Some of the polices are haphazardly implemented as a result of poor assessment and supervision. Perhaps, this is why water taps abound in so many rural communities but without water since their installation. Also, most of the low cost housing estates built by some state government during the 2nd republic are yet to be completed and handed over to the intended beneficiaries 25 years after. This may also be the reason why farmers can only acquire less than half a bag of fertilizer from government subsidized fertilizers even though billions have been expended in their importation/purchase.

(d) Corruption
Corruption poses a very big threat to national development including rural development. There is lack of integrity, accountability and transparency on the part of the executors/implementers of development schemes, programs and projects. Reports abounds where institutions meant for agricultural and rural development are now conduit pipes for embezzling public funds for private use by officials and managers of the programs.

(e) Lack of Continuity
This is another major problem to the development of the rural areas. Policies formulated never saw the light of the day as they often do not reach the full implementation stage before another government/authority comes in, i.e. policies most times goes with the government who initiated them.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS
Over the years Nigerian governments have been embarking on policies to develop the rural economy especially through development of agricultural produce and infrastructural facilities. This is done with the spirit of accelerating development from the grassroots. But the returns on these policy efforts of the governments still leaves much to be desired as the intended result have not been realized.

Given this situation, this paper argued that for the rural economy to be developed, a holistic approach to rural development must be adopted which integrate efforts in increased and improved agricultural produce with provision and development of infrastructural facilities at the rural areas. And this must be adequately backed up by effective fiscal public expenditure by the government which must be pursued vigorously and with utmost sincerity. In addition, the following recommendations would also be useful:

i. Adequate budgetary provision and timely release of fund should be emphasized to fund policy initiatives.

ii. The government should have a rethink on the method and system of fertilizer distribution. There should be a strategic way for the allocation and distribution of fertilizer so that targeted beneficiaries are not left out. This can be done through subsidizing the fertilizer prices, depoliticizing the allocation of fertilizers real people engaged in the farming occupation should be giving utmost considerations (they could be sort through organized associations recognized by the government).

iii. Training and capacity building for staff of the institutions involves with implementation policies of the rural development must be taking seriously in order to discharge their functions effectively.

iv. Corrupt practices must be discouraged with all seriousness. Punitive measures must be meant on persons mismanaging public funds for his/her private benefits. Therefore, people with outstanding record of honesty high sense of responsibility and professionalism should be made to manage public institutions.

v. The principle of continuity in the implementation and execution of existing policies must have a legislative backing. This is because of the incessant distortion and alteration in formulated policies resulting from frequent changes in administration. As a regime changes in the country, policy distortion and alteration occurs which most often than not attracts new technology resources, personnel, funding, etc.
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