

Youth and Electoral Violence in Nigeria's Fourth Republic: When will the youth be responsible?

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Abstract

Election is an important tool that helps to shape peaceful transition of political regimes in a democratic state. Electoral processes in Nigeria, over the years, are marred with malpractices and other massive irregularities, which often lead to premeditated killings and post-election violence, where the youth are mobilised to perpetrate the dastardly act that culminates in fear, insecurity and intimidation of opponents. Many lives and property worth millions of Naira have been destroyed with nobody getting arrested and prosecuted, thereby leaving the citizens in the state of abysmal hopelessness. The authors examine the youth and electoral violence in Nigeria's Fourth Republic. They adopt a survey research technique in which they interview respondents purposively in five geo-political zones. The study concludes that youths are responsible for the election-related violence that has characterised previous elections in the current republic since 1999 and perpetrated by hired thugs comprising largely the youths in various capacities and constituencies across political parties in Nigeria. The paper, therefore, recommends that the constitution and electoral laws should be reviewed to capture the punishment that will be meted out to the perpetrators, regardless their party affiliations, religion or ethnic groups.

Keywords: election, electoral violence, the youths, Nigerian politics.

1. Introduction

Elections in Nigeria over the years were marred by violence, which was occasioned by gross election malpractices often time carried out by the youths. The role of the youths in Nigeria politics is very heinous and requires leadership intervention. According to Eneji and Ike Orji (2018), elections in Nigeria experienced about 60% violence between 1999 and 2015. Nigerians have agreed that youths are the main mercenary used for electoral violence and the government should rise to the occasion to address the issue. The youths are supposed to be the engine room for the sustainability of democracy; but the reverse is the case, as they are found causing violence during elections, which always results to destruction of lives and property.

According to Moveh (2009), societal problems influence the youths to cause violence during the election. Mustapha, quoted in Ogbeide (2015), observes that youths are not carried along in the political business, except for election violence. Egobueze and Ojirika (2017) stress that Nigeria is a country

bedevilled with conflicts such as ethnic chauvinism, religious bigotry, imbalanced federal system of government, bad leadership, political and electoral problems. Scholars believe that youths get into violence due to uncertainty and status imbalances created by selfish leaders in Nigeria. Eneji and Ikeorji (2018) opine that young people find themselves perpetrating undemocratic behaviours because of hopelessness in the country's political landscape. However, the political elite manipulate and exploit every avenue to gain both political and economic powers that necessitate the emergence of a stronger force to subjugate and coerce the electorate to vote against their wishes. In order to achieve this, the elite to cause mayhem use youths. According to Ibietan (2013), the elite are not answerable to citizens because of the Nigerian laws and weak institutions of governance that favour them by providing a mechanism that make them not accountable to the citizens.

Elections in Nigeria are very frightening, as electorates find it difficult to exercise their franchise because of fears of the unknown. Some electorates believe that whether they cast their vote or not, the winner has already been determined sequel to the role played by the youths during the election. These roles include snatching of ballot boxes, indiscriminate shooting and coercion of electorate to vote for particular candidates that are against the wish of the electorate. For instance, it was reported that electoral malpractices marred the Kogi State election, which included snatching of ballot boxes, coercing of electorate to vote for a particular candidate, etc. According to BBC News (2019), European Union election observers reported that Kogi and Bayelsa State elections experienced tremendous violence, snatching of ballot boxes, missing and killing of people that included the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) staff. This heinous act does not only tarnish the image of Nigeria but also threatens the peaceful atmosphere of the country. It is against this background that this study seeks to examine the role played by the youths during the election in Nigeria.

2. Review of Literature

Eneji and Ikeorji (2018) conducted a study on the youths' political participation and electoral violence in the 21st century Nigeria and bridging the gap. The study revealed that youths put in all their energy during the election to ensure that their favourite candidate emerges but after the emergence of their candidate, the youths are left unattended to. The study, therefore, recommended that youths be given a sense of belonging on matters that affect them. The study failed to consider the role played by the youths who are only interested in fomenting trouble.

Ogbeide (2013) carried out a research on youths, violence and electoral process in Nigeria's fourth republic with a case study of Ota, Ogun State, Nigeria". The survey method of research was employed which included the administration of questionnaire. The study revealed that unemployment was responsible for youths' participation in electoral violence. The study

recommended that government should introduce empowerment programme that would help to reduce unemployment and idleness.

Yoroms (2015) carried out a study on electoral violence, arms proliferations and electoral security in Nigeria with focus on lessons from the 2015 elections. The study found out that despite the fact that there was heating of polity in the 2015 election, the election was peaceful. It recommended that lessons should be learned from the 2015 general elections to sustain democracy. The reason for peaceful elections could be attributed to the fact that youths and olds were tired of the People's Democratic Party (PDP) leadership.

Egobueze and Ojirika (2017) carried out a study on electoral violence in Nigeria's fourth republic and implications for political stability. The study employed a qualitative technique where documentary evidence and ex-post-facto research design were used. The study found out that selfish interest of the political class to capture State power and retain it at all costs were responsible for electoral violence in Nigeria. It recommended that for peace to reign during the election, the rule of law must be adhered to.

Inokoba and Maliki (2011) conducted a research on youths, electoral violence and democratic consolidation in Nigeria, Bayelsa State experience. The study relied on empirical data for its analysis. The statistical analysis technique of Pearson product moment correlation was used to arrive at its conclusion. The study revealed that electoral violence would not stop, as long as the political class failed to inculcate in the youth democratic value. The study failed to understand that even political class lacked democratic value which they could not instil in the youths.

Akingbade (2011) conducted a study on political parties and instability in Oyo State in the Nigerian fourth republic. The study revealed that political instabilities in Oyo State caused by godfathers and money bag politics affected the political architecture of the state in the fourth republic.

Omede & Ojibara (2017) carried out a research on the youth and political participation in Kwara State, Nigeria. The scope of the study was within the period of 2011 to 2015. The study adopted the qualitative method of research. It revealed that youths that fell within 24-29 showed zeal of voting in 2011 and planned to exercise their franchise in 2015. The study was well-structured but it would have been more meaningful if it employed focus group discussion method to underpin its findings.

Ibeogu and Nkwede (2016) conducted a study on political violence and the sustainability of Nigerian democracy. The study found out that struggles for political supremacy between godfathers and godsons were responsible for violence. The study recommended that ethnicity and religious affiliations should not be criteria for the selection of candidates during election.

Okafor and Okafor (2018) conducted a research on political violence and the prospect of democracy in Nigeria based on a survey of South-East geopolitical zone of Nigeria. The survey technique involved an administration of a questionnaire to respondents and generation of data analysed using

spearman rank correlation regression analysis. The study found out that political violence led to political apathy, which undermined democracy. The study could have been more robust if it had used interviews to underpin its findings.

Alfa, Ahmadu and Adah (2012) carried out a study on elections and democratic consolidation in Nigeria, doing a critique of 2011 election. The study revealed that elections in Nigeria had not consolidated democracy due to the violence during elections. The study then recommended that stakeholders should ensure that there were free and fair elections that would help to consolidate democracy.

Ashindorbe (2018) conducted a study on electoral violence and the challenge of democratic consolidation in Nigeria. The study revealed that the 2015 pre-election atmosphere, which was tense, coupled with the heinous activities of terrorism, brought about division amongst the elite. The study recommended that stakeholders, political gladiators and their supporters should tolerate others and abhor violence.

Aleyomi (2010) carried out a study on consolidating Nigeria's democracy through effective management and settlement of electoral violence. The study found out that all elections conducted in Nigeria since 1999 were below international standards, following the attendant consequences on terrorism and hooliganism. It recommended that for democracy to be consolidated, intra-party and inter-party democratic framework should be embraced by the players.

Kia (2013) conducted a research on electoral corruption and democratic sustainability in Nigeria. The study revealed that electoral corruption undermined participatory framework of democracy. It called for evaluation of electoral social framework.

Osakede and Ijimakinwa (2016) carried out a study on political godfatherism and democratic consolidation in Nigeria using empirical evidence from Oyo State and Kwara State. The study used chi-square technique to analyse its data. It observed that godfatherism was responsible for political violence and it was a threat to democracy. Then, it recommended that democratic institutions should be strengthened so as to discard the issue of godfatherism. The study failed to show how it arrived at its population and sample sizes. It should have employed Pearson correlation, since the study investigated a relationship between two variables. The study should do little or more of comparative studies than what it was then.

Familusi (2017) conducted a research on electoral violence in the context of religion and development in Nigeria. The study revealed that electoral violence was a key factor militating against democratic set up and development in Nigeria. It then recommended that political offices should be made less attractive and financially rewarding.

Yagboyaju (2010) carried out a study on the Nigeria's fourth republic and the challenge of a faltering democratisation. The methodology used in the study was descriptive and analytical. The study found out that the Nigeria's 12-

year old democracy had refused to grow into maturity stage; instead, the democracy was manifesting autocracy. The study recommended that for democracy to be sustained, the State and Institution should be strengthened. It was believed that if government entrenched good governance and listened to the citizens, it would help to return normalcy to the country. Youths were used as mercenaries to commit dastardly act during elections where ammunitions were supplied to them to fight against perceived enemies who failed to support the party of their godfathers. The spate of the violence perpetrated by the youths was unimaginable as the elite capitalised on youth vulnerability to unleash terror during the election. The elite promised them of better future if they could unleash terror on the opponents, perceived enemies or snatch ballot boxes away during the election. According to Ogbeide (2013), some youths who were poverty stricken engage in violence as a means of survival. Obi, quoted in Ogbeide (2013), noted that where survival was attached to conflicts than the struggle for survival, the future was attacked by more violence where young people were driven into a class-conscious society with ethnic and religious chauvinism.

3. Methodology

The study adopts a survey research technique with content analysis to analyse its result. Data were garnered from both primary and secondary sources such as internet, publication, magazines, interviews etc. A total of 40 people were interviewed in Kaduna, Lagos, Niger, Anambra and Delta. The interviewees were purposively selected from five geo-political zones in Nigeria, viz. North-west, North-central, South-west, South-east and South-south. The data were analysed and inferences made from them.

Table 1: No of Respondents Interviewed in Five Zonal Areas

Respondents	South west	South east	South South	North west	North Central
Politicians	2	2	2	2	2
Youths	2	2	2	2	2
Elders	2	2	2	2	2
Community Leaders	2	2	2	2	2
Total	8	8	8	8	8

Source: - Researcher Survey, 2021

4. Analysis, Results and Discussion

The respondents provided answers to some questions posed to them on the topic such as the reason(s) for election violence, reasons for youth participation in the violence and measures put in place to check election violence and youth participation in it. There was a consensus of opinions on the answers provided. On the reason for election violence, the respondents were of the opinion that intolerance due to pluralistic nature of the country and lack of true practice of democracy are responsible for election violence in Nigeria. On the reason for youth's participation in election violence, the interviewees made it known that youths are used as mercenaries because of poverty and lack of education. The youths that are supposed to be the engine room for development are incapacitated as a result of unemployment and poverty and are used to commit election violence with the promise by the elite that their future is secured.

As to measures put in place by the government to discourage election violence in Nigeria, the respondents revealed that government was indifferent to the menace of violence. The government was not doing anything to forestall election violence due to their selfish ambitions. There were punitive measures for electoral violence, but such measures were either not applied at all or were applied but not effective. The punishment did not yield positive results because of the involvement of the elite themselves in election violence.

In Nigeria, there has always been a clash of interests among the elite, which, in most cases, lead to destruction of lives and properties. For instance, a clash of interest broke out between the former governor of Ebonyi State, Chief Matins Nwanchor Elechi and some elite of the People Democratic Party (PDP). This clash of interest came because of declaration of Professor Onyebuchi Chukwu as the flagbearer of People's Democratic Party by the former governor without conducting congress, which did not go down well with some members. When the primary election was conducted between the governor's candidate and Engineer Dave Umahi, the then Deputy Governor, Engineer Dave Umahi emerged as the People's Democratic Party flagbearer. This caused a fight between the governor and his deputy's supporters who were mostly youths. This later led to destruction of properties and loss of lives in the State.

According to Ibeogu and Nkwede (2016) the build-up of electoral process in year 2015 caused a division in Peoples' Democratic Party in Ebonyi State, where the supporters of the governor that included the Commissioners, Special Advisers, Chairmen and Members of Boards and Commission ETC supported the flag bearer of the Labour Party (L.P.) Architect Edward Nkwegu. They voted for him so as to ensure that Engineer Dave Umahi of P.D.P did not emerge as the Governor of the State in May 29th, 2015 election. This act led to violence championed by the youths in which properties worth millions of naira were destroyed and also many lives were lost in this crises.

Political violence is endemic in Nigeria and seen as a normal phenomenon. Researchers and electorates believe that electoral violence is

caused by the youths due to denial of good life and a means to eke out a living. The youths are impoverished by the political class so that they can lose their self-esteem, and see the elite as the messiah. According to Ibieta and Ajayi (2015), the political class fails to imbibe democratic values and ethics by making themselves important and indispensable during electoral process, which makes them irresponsible to the people and electorates.

Huntington, quoted in Animashaun (2010), explains that in a situation where the state controls a wide range of opportunities and jobs in, most especially, academic, administrative and legal fields, political power struggles become more competitive due to its influence over government decisions. According to Animashaun (2010), violence has remained a major characteristic of electoral process in Nigeria, in which the elite see themselves as an end rather than a means to an end.

Ogbeide (2013) asserts that electoral violence was being assigned to the youths by political classes that have deliberately refused to adhere to the values and ethics of a democratic set-up. Election violence in Nigeria can be attributed to the days of indirect rule and the Fourth Republic, till date, and this has manifested in occurrences of violence where youths are mostly used as mercenaries to disrupt peaceful co-existence of Nigerians.

The election violence often times metamorphoses into religious and ethnicity clashes where lives and properties are destroyed. The election crises in Kaduna and Plateau States in year 2007 and 2011, respectively, where lives and properties were destroyed was perpetrated by youths sponsored by the elite and this later turned to ethno-religion crises. More so, Kogi State witnessed another bloodshed during the 2019 gubernatorial election in which youths and military personnel believed to have been sponsored by the APC unleashed mayhem on other political party members, which resulted to the death of Peoples' Democratic Party (PDP) stalwarts in the state. According to *Punch News* (2019), the emergence of electoral violence brought about burning of tyres on the road at Ayetoro Area of Kogi State, despite a heavy security presence. The news further reported that the election was annulled in some Stations in the Ogba area sequel to the kidnapping of an electoral official and burning of voting materials. *Premium Times* (2019) reported that a People's Democratic Party (PDP) woman was gruesomely murdered while sleeping in her house when political thugs believed to be sponsored by the All Progressive Congress (APC) set her house on fire.

5. Conclusion

In conclusion, electoral violence has been part of the electoral processes in Nigeria. The heinous act is believed to have been sponsored by the elite due to the vulnerabilities of the youth. From the time of independence till date, electoral violence has claimed many lives and properties. If not checked this might cause another military coup de 'tat and threaten the very future existence of Nigeria. The study, therefore, recommends that public enlightenment, strict

adherence to rule of law, creation of employment and empowerment for the youths and needs for government to revisit the causes and address the causes with immediate alacrity to forestall future occurrences. Finally, the constitution and electoral laws need to be reviewed, to include severe punitive measures that will discourage the youths from perpetrating electoral violence.

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Concealment Strategies in Media Representation of Covid-19 Discourse

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Abstract

The outbreak of Covid-19 in Nigeria in February 2020 has generated different opinions. The opinions have not gone without the attention of the media and it has led media and media participants to adopt different strategies in reporting the news. One of the adopted strategies is concealment. Previous studies have engaged the use of concealment strategies in medical interactions and media discourse. However, they have not engaged the use of concealment strategies by the media participants in disease outbreak. The present study engages concealment strategies used by participants in Covid-19 discourse in Nigerian media and examines the motivations and implications of the strategies for the society. The study adopts Fairclough's model of CDA to reveal the strategies. Qualitative analysis is adopted to analyse relevant data collected from four Nigerian newspapers, the *Punch*, *Vanguard*, *Premium Times* and *Sahara Reporters*. Purposive sample method of data collection is adopted to manually assess the data. News reports and opinion news constitute the corpus for this work. Six concealment strategies were identified in the discourse, qualifier, pronoun, lexical replacement, deflection, jargonisation, and stalling, which are used for prevention of drug abuses, face saving, emphases on reality of the disease and to cover the inadequacies of the government. The study encourages the use of concealment strategies, especially, during health emergencies.

Keywords: concealment, Covid-19, media discourse, medical interactions

Introduction

Since the outbreak of Covid-19 in December 2019, the media has been at the centre stage to inform and educate the society about the disease. According to the World Health Organisation (WHO) and China joint mission on coronavirus disease 2019, Covid-19 is a virus detected from three broncho-alveolar lavage samples that were collected from a patient with pneumonia of unknown etiology in Wuhan (China) Jinyintan Hospital. The disease was discovered in the Republic of China but has spread to almost all the countries of the world. According to the World Health Organisation (WHO), as at 24th of April, 2020, about 2.7 million people have contracted the disease worldwide. The disease has claimed thousands of lives worldwide and the statistics is still growing. The WHO has in January, 2020 declared the disease as a global epidemic considering its global ravaging tendencies. The virus follows the severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus (SARS-CoV) discovered in 2002 and Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus (MERS-CoV) discovered in 2012 as the third highly pathogenic and large-scale epidemic (Guo, Cao, Hong, Tan, Chen Jin, Tan, Wang, & Yan, 2020). Its clinical symptoms include fever,

cough, fatigue and a small population of patients appeared gastro-intestinal infection symptoms. People with underline sickness and the aged are more vulnerable to the disease. The virus is spreading without limit. Its presence is felt in all the continents of the world, including Africa.

Nigeria became the first African country to record the outbreak of the virus, with the first index case discovered on an Italian immigrant to Nigeria in Lagos on the 27th of February 2020. This makes people to condemn the federal government for not closing border to foreigners since its outbreak in China and subsequent spread to other countries of the world. The virus has continued to spread from Lagos State to 24 other states of the country, including the Federal Capital Territory, Abuja, since the discovery of the index case. As at 25th April 2020, Nigeria has recorded a total case of 1182 with 222 discharged and 35 deaths. With this figure, Nigeria is applauded to have contained the spread of the virus in comparison to its spread in other countries of the world.

The outbreak has, however, adversely affected economic activities and governance of the country. States and institutions and, even, religious centres are shut down, to prevent the spread of the virus. Preventive measures are also encouraged, such as social distancing, avoidance of contact, stay at home, regular hand washing, regular use of alcohol-based sanitiser, etc. To this end, the federal government of Nigeria on 29th March 2020 announced the total lockdown in Lagos and Ogun states and Abuja, while other state governors such as Osun, Ekiti, Kaduna, Sokoto and so on have emulated the federal government and even introduced ban on inter-state travelling. Notable Nigerians have been affected by the virus, including state governors of Oyo, Bauchi and Kaduna, the Chief of staff to the President (Abba Kyari, who later died of the infection of the disease) and so on. This makes some citizens to believe that, if the disease is in the country at all, it is an elite disease.

It took the government several measures such as campaign, media tact (such as concealment strategies) and enforcement of restriction on movement for people to believe its reality in the country. Majority thought the government was claiming the presence of Covid-19 in Nigeria to collect money from international organisations and donors. Some even believed it is ordinary malaria that can be cured with ordinary chloroquine at home. This has made people to underrate the danger of the disease and engage in self-medication.

To further the campaign against the virus in Nigeria, the government has established a task force committee (Covid-19 task force) to monitor movement of citizens, activities of government officials and engaged necessary actions to curb the disease. The Ministry of health, Nigeria Centre for Disease Control (NCDC) are also involved in the campaign against the disease. Daily press conference, except Saturday and Sunday, covered by major media houses and transmitted live is held to update the citizens on the virus. At the press conference, concerned ministers took turns to update the country on the efforts of their ministry. The Director General (DG) of the NCDC also updates the citizens on the efforts of the centre. They also emphasise the reality of the

disease in the country. At the update, the preventive measures and control strategies of the government are mentioned.

Media outlets are being engaged globally to report the virus. In fact, some regular programs are cancelled for the purpose. There are commercial jingles and adverts to educate the society on the novel virus. Nigerian media is also not left out in this assignment. Both the print, electronic and even the new media are involved and playing a pivotal role in preventing and controlling the disease. In the media coverage of the virus, participants adopt several strategies to withhold information for several reasons. Globally, the media adopts concealment as one of their news strategies. This is done to background individual or event in any discourse. The fact that this is a health discourse presupposes that there will be information to be concealed. Odebunmi (2011) has observed that communication in medical discourse is characterised by concealment strategies. This is done for several reasons, such as palliative, cultural compliance, preventive and confidential. Some Nigerians think the presence of the virus in Nigeria is fictitious, some think it can be treated at home, which has led to self-medication and abuse of drugs. Amidst all of these, some have been discovered to have contracted the disease. These motivate the participants in the Covid-19 discourse in Nigerian media to adopt different communicative strategies, including concealment, to achieve certain goals. The goals include emphasising the presence of the disease in Nigeria, preventing drug abuse and protecting the image of victims. This is helping the society, the health workers, the victims and the government to control the virus and sustain healthy living in Nigeria.

Concealment strategies are strategies used by speakers to deny the audience full information. Odebunmi (2011) sees concealment as a situation whereby doctors deny patients or their relations information or provide them unclear information. The media also uses this to withhold information from the society. Ayantayo (2019) states that concealment strategies may be used in ideological formation, especially in the media. They also use it to promote the beliefs of their proprietors (Taiwo, 2007). In medical discourse, the media use the strategy for the benefit of the society, mainly to protect the patients and prevent drug abuse.

This study aims to identify different concealment strategies used by the media participants, examine the motivation and reveal their implications for the society. Existing studies have investigated the use of concealment strategies in medical and media discourse. For example, Odebunmi (2011) investigates concealment in medical consultation and observed that the strategies are used to conceal information from patients, Ayantayo (2019) studies the use of concealment strategy in herdsmen discourse in the media to withhold tribal name. The duo have shown the relevance of the strategy in discourse to achieve preventive, face saving and palliative goals. Oyama and Okpara (2017), Wogu (2018), Vellek 2016, Hooker, Leask, and King (2012), and Trčková (2015) have also engaged medical discourse in the media to show how the media represent

health practitioners and patients. They observe that the media plays important roles in disseminating health information but that they need to intensify efforts. Odebunmi and Ayantayo's studies are relevant to the present study because they have revealed the relevance of concealment strategies in discourse for palliative and preventive measures. These connect to the present study that intends to examine the importance of the strategies in Covid-19 discourse, especially in the Nigeria context. Their studies are, however, not in the period of outbreak of disease. It is important to study the use of concealment strategy in time of outbreak to understand its significance in managing emergencies, doubt and prevent abuse of health facilities. That is the thrust of the present study. Others that study medical discourse in the media are also relevant because they present a guide on how the media have represented medical discourse in the past. This is good as it helps us to see different representations that show bias and prejudices. They, however, ignore the use of concealment strategy by the media and other participants to keep the society in good health. This is the focus of the present study. This study will not only show the peculiarity of discursive strategies such as concealment in medical discourse in the media but also reveal how participants in Covid-19 discourse are able to manage sensitive and chaotic situations in times of outbreak. This is relevant to the society because it will guide officials in time of outbreak and emergencies, subsequently.

Consequently, this study is premised on the following research questions: what are the concealment strategies adopted by Nigerian media in the reportage of Covid-19. What are the motivations for the use of these strategies? Lastly, what are the implications of the strategies for the society? To answer these questions, we collected data related to the subject of this study from four Nigerian newspapers, the *Punch*, *Vanguard*, *Premium Times*, and *Sahara reporters*. Fairclough's model of CDA is adopted as the anchor theory, not only because of its efficacy in identifying the relationship between text and context to negotiate meaning, but, also, because of the resourcefulness of the media coverage of Covid-19 in the use of linguistic features to reflect social practices.

Theoretical Framework

The study adopts Norman Fairclough's model of critical discourse analysis (CDA) as its theoretical anchor. The theory is considered suitable for the analysis because it helps to relate text to context and negotiate meaning. It also emphasises how linguistic features reveal social practices, such as effort to withhold information from the society.

Fairclough's model (Fairclough, 1995, 2001) of CDA engaged such terms as text, which refers to written or spoken form of language produced in any communicative event. The model harps on the multi-semiotic features of text, which include visual images and sounds which are present in texts. The 'use of language, associated with particular social activity', called genre, is the key term in the model. To Fairclough, different genres are areas of textual production. For textual analysis to be accurate, the model posits that analysts

take vocabulary, grammar, punctuation, direct and indirect of participants, different expressions and other linguistics and non-linguistics characteristics into consideration. Fairclough notes that the context to a text may be covert or overt. The covert context of a text provides useful insight to what may be referred to as 'common sense' or ideology.

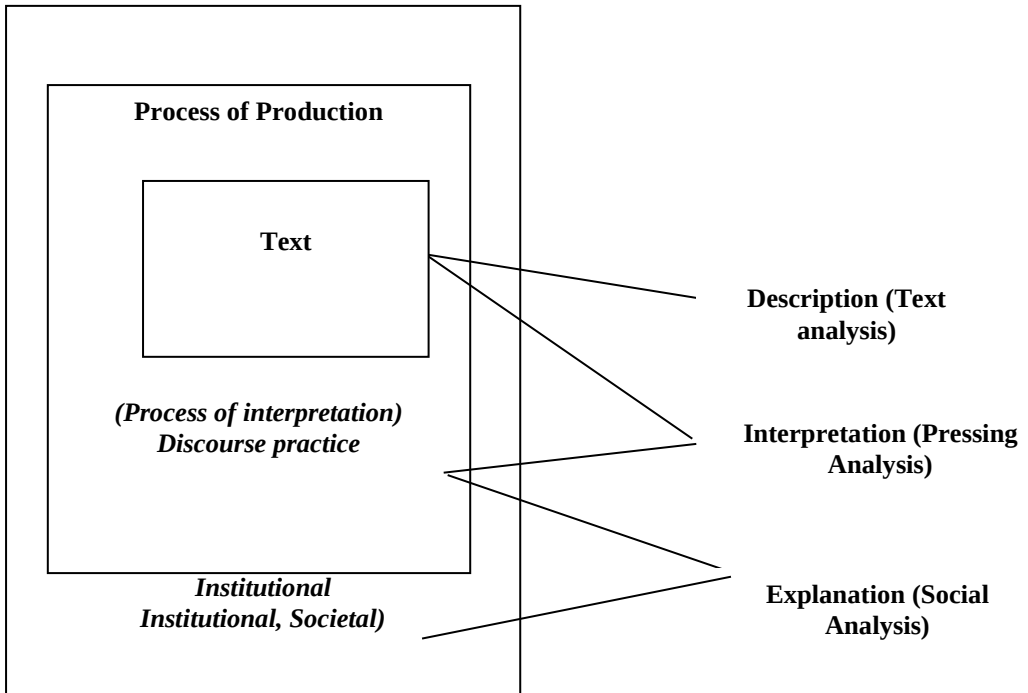
To Fairclough, text is a product of process rather than of interaction. Textual analysis includes productive and interpretative processes that are all significant parts of discourse analysis. There is an interaction between productive and interpretative processes because, according to Fairclough, the duo rely on knowledge of language, the world they live in, assumptions and beliefs, ideology and so on. Social conditions such as these are what inform resources participants bring to production and interpretation that invariably influences how people produce and interpret text.

According to Fairclough in CDA, there are two assumptions involved in language use. These are socially shaped and socially shaping language use. Fairclough's idea is based on the assumptions of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) of Halliday. Theoretically, he operationalises the assumption that texts and discourse are socially constituted. 'Language use is usually constituted of (i) social identities, (ii) social relations and (iii) system of knowledge and beliefs at the same time. System of knowledge is constituted in the ideational function of language; the interpersonal function creates social subject or identity and the relationship between them and the textual function creates discourse. Fairclough (1995) establishes a systematic method for exploring the relationship between texts and its social context. The dimension of the method is shown in the schema below. This paper adopts Fairclough's model of CDA also because of the robust use of linguistic instruments as concealment strategy in Covid-19 discourse by the Nigerian media. Since CDA investigates the connection between language and context, the paper relies on its use in describing how the motivations of participants in the discourse are represented via the use of concealment. The paper investigates how the use of concealment in Covid-19 reveals the negotiation of intentions, social action, social roles and discursive practices in the media.

Review of Literature

The use of concealment strategies in medical consultation is the focus of Odebunmi (2011). He observes that doctors still conceal information from their patients despite the rule of their profession not to withhold any information from their patients. He opined that this is a global phenomenon. The study was conducted in the southwestern Nigeria where the researcher used Mey's theory of pragmeme to investigate the phenomenon in the data collected through both structure and unstructured interviews. The study identified jargonisation, veiling, forecasting, mitigation, stalling, normalisation, dysphemisation,

Figure 1: Fairclough's Dimensions of Discourse and Critical Discourse Analysis



euphemisation and doublespeak as concealment strategies in doctor-patient interaction used for preventive, palliative, culture-compliant and confidential reasons. The study concludes that concealment in doctor-patient interaction takes into consideration the socio-psychological security needs of clients and attends positively to clients' cultural expectations.

Ayantayo (2019) investigates the use of concealment strategies in concealing a tribal name in the herdsmen conflict discourse in Nigerian media. The study observes that Fulani is an important participant in the discourse but, strategically, the name was dropped while reporting the conflict in the media using different concealment strategies such as lexical replacement, nominalisation, hedging, passivisation, pronouns and name-dropping. The study adopts van Dijk's model of CDA to investigate the phenomenon in the herdsmen discourse. The study concluded that the strategies identified are used for palliative, face saving and preventive reasons. The study finally identified social, political and economic implications of the strategies. Tsvetkov and Amudzhieva (2013) argued that words have been an instrument of meaning concealment rather than convey meaning. The study states further that doublespeak has become a norm for politicians and military personnel as an instrument and it is also extended to medical communication. The study concludes that doublespeak has been used to wilfully deceive the public into wrong interpretation of message.

The works cited above have illuminated and contextualised concealment strategies in medical discourse and have provided a lead for the present study. It helps us to further the study of concealment strategies. Through these works, we are able to understand how concealment strategies work in discourse. However, the studies are not extended to disease outbreak situation that has different peculiarities such as doubt, self-medication, stigmatisation and so on. For example, Odebunmi only comments on the interaction between doctor and patient without studying the involvement of the media and other participants and outbreak situation. Ayantayo focused only on concealment strategies used by the media in a conflict situation while Tsvetkov and Amudzhieva focus on the use of doublespeak as a concealment strategy by the military, politicians and medical practitioners. This dearth necessitates the present research, to identify concealment strategies as a relevant instrument to curb and prevent the spread of an outbreak.

Other studies that have investigated media reports of disease outbreak and other health discourse. Maurizio (2015) examines medical discourse in the society using a diachronic and synchronic view. The study investigates the way medical findings and other related information are shared to people. It submits that the study of languages will continue to expand in medical discourse because of its interdisciplinary nature, methodologically adaptable characteristics and applicability to all forms of text. Wilce (2009) investigates the significant roles of discourse in medicine. He discusses the anthropological significance of medical discourse. The study explains that the study of discourse simultaneously with medicine will expose people to the cultural reality in the society and the significant role of medical discourse in cultural production and reproduction. Odebunmi (2006) investigates the importance of locutions in the interactions between doctors and patient. The study revealed two locutions that were used in the hospital. They are, locutions that intended to be understood by medical practitioners and those that are not intended to be understood by non-practitioners. Finally, the study states that the locutions are the tact used by medical personnel to deal with their patients. The study recommends a mastery of the locution and their adaptations by medical practitioners to manage patients appropriately.

Oyama and Okpara (2017) examine health communication in the media. Harping on the important roles of the media in reporting medical activities, the study comments on the roles of the media through surveillance, correlation, mobilisation, and entertainment in advancing medicines. The authors submit that the Nigerian media have not done much to perform the functions above prior to outbreak of crises in order to prevent disease emergencies. The significant roles of the media in the campaign to prevent the spread of Lassa fever is the focus of Wogu (2018). The study commends the role of the media in disseminating medical information but worried that it has little impact in the rural areas. The study observed that the campaign has not shown any appreciable result in term of creating awareness to the people. The study

recommends modification of media contents to incorporate the required preventive/curative health behaviours and mandatory mass media awareness campaign and jingles in every news across the nook and crannies of the country. Hooker, Leask and King (2012) agree with Oyama and Okpara (2017) and Wogu (2018) that media effort in disseminating health information has not produced good result. Hooker, Leask and King (2012) focus on the ethics of media in reporting disease outbreaks. The study opines that despite the efforts of the media to spread health information, there is insignificant outcome of their effort in the rural communities.

The present study opposes the opinion above and argues that the media have played and are still playing significant and appreciable roles in educating and informing people about the pandemic. The media have been active in sensitising people on what to do or not to do. It has been informing people on the reality of the disease in the country and the danger involved in disobeying government preventive measures. These efforts have helped in minimising the spread of the virus. The media have helped to prevent and save people's public images through the use of concealment strategies. However, the reviewed works are relevant to this study, as they have helped to contextualise medical discourse in the media. They have identified the role of the media in health discourse. They are commendable efforts. They have, however, left a gap by not identifying the significant role of concealment strategies in preventing the spread of outbreak and protecting more lives.

The reviewed works have advanced the study of health discourse and disease outbreak because they have used different approaches to identify the roles of the media in health discourse and made relevant recommendations. However, apart from lack of linguistic import in some of these studies, they have not also investigated concealment strategies by media participants in health discourse. This work, therefore, aims to identify different concealment strategies in the Covid-19 discourse in Nigerian media and the motivation for their usage. It will achieve this by relating the text to the contexts and using different linguistic properties in the discourse to identify the social practices. This will not only advance the study of health discourse but serve as resource materials on health discourse for discourse analysts and other disciplines. It will also serve as resource materials to media and media participants in case of outbreak of any disease in the future. This is because the strategies help to prevent drug abuse and stigmatisation against victims and also help to emphasise the reality of the virus in the country. These are very helpful and good for sustaining a healthy society and preventing the spread of Covid-19.

Methodology

This study adopts qualitative analysis to reveal concealment strategies in the Covid-19 discourse in Nigerian media. Qualitative analysis is relevant because the study is content based on the content of the news reports and opinions. Fairclough's model of CDA is adopted because of its efficacy in

revealing hidden meanings in the text.

Data for the research are collected from four major Nigerian dailies; the *Vanguard* and the *Punch*, *Sahara Reporters* and the *Premium News* newspapers. These papers are selected because of their regional and national coverage. Since this is a digital age, electronic versions of the papers are used. The electronic version is preferred because it has a wider coverage than the print version and can be accessed globally with the Internet. We followed the uniform resource locator (URL) of the newspapers to collect data that are relevant to this study. The data were retrieved through the navigational search link of the newspapers using captions like: *Covid-19 outbreak in Nigeria, new coronavirus discovered in Lagos, coronavirus spread to Osun State*, and so on. We sampled 20 news reports and opinions relevant to the subject of this study and extracted 10 relevant statements that reveal concealment strategies. The data covers a period from February 27, 2020 to April 15, 2020. This is because the period marked the arrival of the virus in the country and attract media reports with different assumptions and beliefs that necessitate concealment strategies.

News report and opinion news constitute the corpus for the study. The study adopts the purposive sampling in collecting the reports and opinions in the media. The sampling allows manual assessment of the media representation of the Covid-19, which reveals different manipulative strategies in reporting the virus. These are generally used to detect news and reports where information is concealed by the media in reporting the issue under investigation. The work examines the different lexical items and grammatical expressions used, in order to reveal different strategies used to conceal the necessary information. The words are interpreted in both the linguistic context and the contexts that reveal the social practices.

Analysis and Findings

Concealment Strategies in Covid-19 Discourse in the Nigerian Media

The study identified the following strategies for concealing information: qualifier, deflection, pronoun, lexical replacement, stalling and jargonisation.

Adjective/ Qualifier

Qualifiers are words or group of words used to provide additional information to the words they are attached. A qualifier is used to give explicit information. This will help the listener or reader to understand the subject. A qualifier may, however, be used to conceal information, especially names. In medical discourse, when the participant does not want other participants to know the name of the real disease, to minimise the fear or panic in the society, this is often used. However, in Covid-19 discourse, it is used to create fear because some people do not believe the presence of the disease in the country. The excerpts below are taken from two newspapers to show the use of qualifier to show the reality of the disease, express the danger involved in the disease while concealing the name of the disease.

Example 1: Recall that earlier on Monday, Senior Advocate of Nigeria, Femi Falana, had said that the lockdown order could not be enforced except it was backed by a law. He said, "No doubt, the President is empowered to adopt any measure deemed fit to combat the *dangerous disease* but such measure has to be spelt out in a Regulation made pursuant to section 305 of the constitution

<http://saharareporters.com/2020/03/30/president-buhari-succumbs-public-pressure-signs-covid-19-regulations-2020>

Example 2: This was a massive opportunity for us to take decisive action and prepare for what at the time appeared to be a *rapidly spreading public health emergency*.

<https://www.vanguardngr.com/2020/04/coronavirus-nigerias-situation-may-worsen-if-oreh-doctor-who-helped-to-stop-ebola/>

Excerpt 1 is taken from the response of the Senior Advocate of Nigeria, Chief Femi Falana while reacting to the action of the President of Nigeria's lockdown order. The legal guru was condemning the action of the president for such a decision without legal backing. The President had announced the lockdown of the Abuja FCT, Lagos and Ogun states on 30th March 2020, to contain the spread of Covid-19. This action, according to Falana, is expected to be backed by a legal framework as provided by the Constitution of Nigeria. The legal luminary chooses to use a qualifier to replace the disease's name. Although, he is not a medical practitioner, he understands the context of discourse. He knows that some people still doubt the existence of the disease in the country. He wants people to know that the disease is real and should be avoided by prevention, hence he replaced it with a common language *dangerous* to qualify a word that is known by everyone but do not want *disease*. This will create fear in people and make them take to the preventive measures itemised by experts.

Excerpt 2 also follows the same pattern of using a qualifier. The excerpt is taken from the *Vanguard* newspaper. It is a report on the address of the Minister of Health while addressing the press on the update of their effort. The minister was appealing to the public to abide by all precautionary measures and help contain the spread of the disease. He avoided the name of the disease but still made it real and scary to the people. The word *rapidly* was used to qualify the disease. This is to show how dangerous it is and it can get to anybody anywhere. The minister made this choice because he knew that some Nigerians did not believe that the disease was real in the country. He, therefore, made them see that it was spreading fast and should be avoided. Referring to the disease as 'health emergency' showed that everybody must be involved in curbing the disease because it was an unexpected situation that demanded urgent attention.

In the two excerpts above, a qualifier is used to withhold the name of the disease but still makes it scary. This pattern runs through the selected

newspapers. This is to show how the media is using this strategy to help in telling the people about the reality of the disease. The media understand that mentioning the name of the disease may not make much meaning to the people as they are still doubting its existence in the country. The media, therefore, chooses to use qualifiers that will scare them. The relationship between the text, *qualifier* and the context, *medical* enables the interpretation of the intention of the participants. The intention is also known because of the situational context that people do not believe the presence of the disease in the country. This, therefore, agrees with Fairclough's model of CDA that the interaction between text and context helps to interpret intentions of participants because the context determines the linguistic resources that the participants bring into the discourse.

Deflection

Deflection in discourse means a deliberate introduction of extraneous information to distract other participants from the subject of the discourse. This is used in media discourse, especially by the people in position of authority, to prevent them from being held responsible for their inadequacies. In the Covid-19 discourse, it is also used to prevent the society from blaming the government for allowing the disease into the country. One of the preventive measures that some countries of the world took since the outbreak of the disease in December 2019 was to close their border to foreigners. This is because the disease is seen as an immigrant. This was also expected of the Nigerian government but the government was lax until the index case was discovered in February 2020, who was an Italian immigrant. This got people furious and made them perceive the government as irresponsible. The excerpt below is a cull from the interaction between the Director General (DG) of the Nigeria Centre for Disease Control (NCDC) and the press.

Example 3: One of the things that have counted for us here in Nigeria given the global pandemic of COVID-19 is *the fact that we had a nearly two-month "grace period"*.

<https://www.vanguardngr.com/2020/04/coronavirus-nigerias-situation-may-worsen-if-oreh-doctor-who-helped-to-stop-ebola/>

In the excerpt, the DG of NCDC was asked about the number of the affected people and the intention of the government to stop the spread and the importation of the disease. Instead of the DG to respond to the question, he chose to reflect on what was counting for the country, which was that the disease did not come early into the country. Whereas, the disease could have been prevented, should the government adhere to the advice of citizens earlier to close border to immigrants. Foreseeing that the media would still take him up on this, the DG digresses from the original question and started a self-appraisal. He also digressed because he knew that they had not made adequate preparation for the control of the disease. The DG made it look like the country would have been worse than this if the disease had come early. This was to make people

happy about the effort of the government and forget to request further information about the effort to contain the spread and infection of the disease.

This is typical of politicians to avoid being held accountable, especially when they realise their mistakes. This is also used in Covid-19 discourse in Nigeria. The strategy helps to conceal the severity of the disease in the country at the moment and the failure of the government to prevent the disease from entering the country. The knowledge of the participants in the discourse that the government had failed to close border at the appropriate time helped the interpretation of the deflection. It would have been taken to mean success on the part of the government showing their preparation, but the context guided the interpretation. With this, other participants knew that the DG is deliberately concealing the information from the general public to avoid being blamed. This is in tandem with Fairclough, because we are able to interpret the concealment strategy by relating linguistic features to social practices. The deflection used by the DG represents the linguistic features, while the failure of government to close border and the actions of the politician or people in the position of authority to conceal information represents the social practice.

Pronoun

In discourse, pronoun is generally known to replace nominal category to avoid repetition. Cornish (1986) describes a pronoun as involving the avoidance of redundancy or repetition by the use of a semantically attenuated expression in place of a full lexical expression initially used. The function of pronouns is not limited to that, especially in media discourse. Pronouns are also used to conceal information in media discourse. Ayantayo (2019) observes that pronouns are used to deemphasise the involvement of a person in a discourse. In Covid-19 discourse in Nigerian media, pronouns are used to conceal the officials and the victim of the disease. This is significant as the government does not want the society to know the true identity of the victims. This is done to avoid stigmatisation in the society. It is also used to conceal the officials so as not to hold individuals responsible for government action. This is a face saving act. In the text below, pronoun is used frequently to conceal identity.

Example 4: The contacts are now 39 and we have quarantined *them*, the house and clinic as well as the vehicles. *We* don't take chances that is why *they* are put *there*. *They* will be *there* for 14 days. *We* will continue to observe *them*, *we* have *their* database, showing *their* biodata and other information. The doctor is *here* and what *he* is doing is to check *them* on a regular basis. So far, *everybody* is stable. *They* are not symptomatic, *we* are providing everything for *them* over *there*.

<https://punchng.com/why-we-invited-italian-who-brought-coronavirus-to-nigeria-lafarge/>

The Minister of Health was telling the press about the effort of the government to get all the contact persons with the index case. Covid-19 is a

disease that spread through contact with the carrier. This is the reason for the social distancing and stay at home order. To avoid further spread of the disease, all contact persons must be traced and quarantined and tested for the disease. The government is making this effort and it is being reported by the minister to the society through the media. In reporting this, the minister used the pronoun *we* to refer to himself/authorities. The pronoun, *we* is a personal plural pronoun. It cannot be used for an individual but for two or more people. The minister chose to use it here to share responsibility with other members of his team and the entire government of the federation. It is a known fact that this assignment cannot be carried out alone. It is also used to save his face in case of inadequacies. This informs the reason his name was not mentioned in the report. Pronoun was used to withhold his name and share responsibility.

To refer to the suspected carriers, the minister makes use of third person plural pronouns such as **they**, **them** and the indefinite pronoun **everybody**. The choice of the plural pronoun is to show that they are more than one. This shows that the number of the suspected people is increasing. He also makes use of the pronouns to withhold their names. This is to avoid stigmatisation in the society. If their names are mentioned, people will be stigmatised against them. It is also good to conceal their names because they are still suspects, their health status has not been confirmed. It will be unfair and even illegal to pronounce them as carrier when it has not been confirmed. This will also betray the doctor-patient confidentiality. The minister succeeded in concealing the suspected victims from the society with the use of pronouns.

With regards to Fairclough's model of CDA, the text is interpreted with the relationship between the pronouns and other words in the same environment. Quarantine, clinic, check, observe, etc. are words that helped the interpretation of the pronouns. In addition to that, the speaker and the situation at the moment contributed to the interpretation of the text. Social practice at the time, which was to trace and isolate contact persons and stigmatisation that might ensue aid other participants in the discourse to deduce the meaning and reasons for the pronouns to mean suspected victims of the Covid-19.

Lexical Replacement

Lexical replacement is another relevant strategy to conceal identity of patients in medical discourse, especially when the true nature of the person's health has not been confirmed. Richardson (2007, p. 47) states that 'words convey the imprint of society and value judgments'. This means that they carry connotative and denotative meanings according to the belief of the society. In Covid-19 discourse, certain words are used to withhold the identity of the victims to avoid stigmatisation against them in the society. In the following excerpts, this suffices.

Example: Four new *cases* of COVID-19 have been confirmed in Nigeria. *Three* are in Lagos State and *one* in FCT. *Two* of these *cases* are returning travelers. As at 11:00pm on the 23rd of

March, there are 40 confirmed *cases* of COVID-19 in Nigeria. Two have been discharged with *one* death recorded," the NCDC said.

<http://saharareporters.com/2020/03/23/breaking-coronavirus-cases-hit-40-nigeria>

Example 5: That was a very strategic step by the National Centre for Disease Control led by Dr. Chikwe Ihekweazu and the Federal Ministry of Health led by the Honourable Minister of Health Dr. Osagie Ehanire, because it meant that the first suspected *case* could be tested immediately after being reported to state authorities by the attending doctor and within 48 hours of his arrival in the country.

<https://www.vanguardngr.com/2020/04/coronavirus-nigerias-situation-may-worsen-if-oreh-doctor-who-helped-to-stop-ebola/>

Example 5 is a report an update on the situation of the Covid-19 in Nigeria. In the report, the DG was announcing the current figures of the suspected victims of Covid-19. These figures include the new people that were discovered on the day of the report. The DG announced the number of the new cases. In an attempt to withhold the name of the people involved, the DG replaced their name with words such as *case*, *three*, *one*, *two*. This is a case of lexical replacement. The names are replaced with a lexical item. This is similar to what we have in text 6. The names of the suspected victim is replaced by the lexical item 'case'.

This is in line with a medical norm to conceal the names of patients from the general public. The strategy is also used to protect the public self-image of the victims. The government and all officials including the medical personnel ensure that names are not mentioned. The lexical replacement runs through the newspaper sampled for this study. This supports the campaign of the government that people should not be discriminated against, as contracting Covid-19 is not a death sentence. This strategy shows that the government understands the societal behaviours, as the people will discriminate against the victims should their names be mentioned. The officials have chosen to withhold their names to save their face in the public. This is a face saving act.

In relating to the Fairclough's model of CDA, the lexis *case*, *one*, *two*, *three* are understood by the context of their usage. The linguistic context makes us to understand that the words replaced the name of the suspected victims. The situational context, which is the global health challenge, also helps to interpret the words. The social practice of the people, stigmatising against victim of outbreak, also helps to explain the need for withholding their names.

Jargonisation

Another relevant strategy used in the Covid-19 discourse to withhold information is 'jargonisation'. Jargon refers to lexical choices that are strictly technical and restricted to a profession. In this case, the jargon used is medical

jargon. It is used to conceal the name of the disease but present the virus to the society in such a way they will believe its presence in the country. The participants did this to make people believe the reality of the disease in Nigeria. This is because some Nigerians doubt the existence of the disease in the country. Therefore, media practitioners chose to use jargon to show that the disease is real without mentioning the real name of the disease.

Example 7: According to the Chairman of the Taskforce Committee on Coronavirus, Idris Mohammed, we have ordered the supply of the machines for testing suspected cases of the *virus* for the state-owned centre, and the machines are expected to be available in the next two weeks.”

<https://www.premiumtimesng.com/news/more-news/386487-coronavirus-what-northeast-states-are-doing-to-stem-spread-of-covid-19.html>

Example 8: The Advocacy for Alleged Witches (AFAW) commends all health workers in Nigeria for the great work that they have been doing following the *outbreak* of the *pandemic*. The Nigerian public owes health workers a huge debt of gratitude for the selfless service and sacrifice. AFAW appreciates the risks and dangers that health workers are facing daily especially at a time that the country is grappling with a deadly *virus*.

<http://saharareporters.com/2020/04/03/covid-19-tackling-misinformation-conspiracy-theories-and-occult-imputations-nigeria-leo>

Example 9: AS the world struggles to come to terms with the seemingly intractable nature of the current *pandemic*, the Nigerian authorities are only just waking up to the realities of the challenge posed by the *disease*. Three months after the first cases were reported in China, the Nigerian government, in a more or less tentative move, on Wednesday, rolled out a raft of measures aimed at containing its spread, even though eight cases of *infection* had already been confirmed in the country as of then. On Thursday, the number rose to 12.

<https://punchng.com/coronavirus-crisis-govts-complacency-unpardonable/>

Example 7 is an update given by the Minister of Health on the effort of the government to ensure that the country overcome the disease. Example 8 is a cull from the report of an association called advocacy for alleged witches (AFAW). The association is debunking the insinuation that the Covid-19 is the handiwork of the devil. They are telling the society that it is real and not a means of punishment to human beings, as insinuated by some religious practitioners in the country. Some Christians had earlier insinuated that the outbreak of the disease is a device of the devil to punish human being. Example 9 is an editorial opinion of the *Punch* newspaper. The editor is commenting on

the preparation and activities of the government over the outbreak of the disease. This editorial was saying that the government has not been doing enough to curb the disease.

In the examples, words such as *virus*, *pandemic*, *disease*, *infection* and *outbreak* are medical jargon. These jargon is used instead of the name of the disease. They have carefully refused to emphasise the name *Covid-19* or *coronavirus*, which is globally used as clinical name for the disease. This is done to intensify the need for the society to believe in its reality scare people so they may take preventive measures as announced by the government. There are insinuations in the country that the government officials are claiming the existence of the disease in the country to syphon money. Using the original name of the disease makes no impact on the people again and people are ignoring the preventive orders by the government such as social distancing and stay at home order. The participants in the discourse has therefore decided to ignore the name of the disease but result to the use of jargons to scare the people that the disease is real. This attempt supports Odebunmi (2011) that jargonisation is, sometimes, employed to prevent clients' doubts of doctors' competence. It is used here to prevent the doubt about the presence of the disease in Nigeria.

The social practice in the society where the people doubt the existence of the disease necessitated the use of jargon (jargonisation) in the discourse. This confirms the argument of Fairclough that linguistic features reveal social practice. Through jargonisation, participants are able to understand that citizens are in doubt of the existence of the disease which is their social practice at the time. The interaction between the jargon and the linguistic and situational context enables the interpretation of the reason jargon is used.

Stalling

Odebunmi (2011) explains that stalling indicates withholding information from a client either by silence or avoiding. It is used in the medical discourse to withhold information to prevent abuse. The participants in the discourse use stalling to conceal information in Covid-19 discourse. The excerpt below exemplifies this.

Example 10: Ehanire said, “*the drug or drugs* being used are matters of interest to doctors who are providing treatment. Doctors advise each other on which drugs they used and I believe as time goes on, they will compile a report on what worked and what didn't work. As I said earlier, the treatment centres in Lagos are using certain *drugs* for clinical trial and they will be able to add from their experience to the body of knowledge and what worked and what didn't work. You may have also read that some people suffered from chloroquine poisoning in Lagos because they thought this was the best way to treat themselves.

<https://punchng.com/covid-19-minister-refuses-to-disclose-drugs-used-in-treating-patients/>

Ehanire, the Minister of Health in Nigeria, was briefing the press on the effort of the government on the prevention and control of Covid-19. The minister was excited to inform the general public that some of the Covid-19 patients in Lagos state had been discharged after the treatment. It was a good news to share. During the interaction with press, different questions were asked including name of the drug being used to cure the disease. However, the minister did not want to reveal the name of the drug to the society. If this is done, it might lead to abuse in the general public. Prior to the update, the National Drug and Food Law Enforcement Agent (NAFDAC), which is in charge of controlling and certifying drug usage in the country, had announced that chloroquine could cure the disease. After the announcement, citizens rush to medicine shops to buy the drug in large quantity without prescription from medical experts. This later led to what the minister referred to as chloroquine poisoning. Based on this background, the Ministry of Health in the country warned that nobody should reveal the name of any drug used in treating the drug. To avoid this, the minister decided to stall the information to conceal the name of the drug from the society. Instead of mentioning the name of the drug, the minister merely used the nominal phrase, *the drug* in the briefing. The minister intentionally used this as if it had been mentioned before by adding the definite article 'the' to the word *drug*. This is stalling, deliberately ignoring the information which is used to prevent abuse of drug.

The social practice in the discourse is the abuse of drug. The linguistic features in the discourse helps the participants to understand the interpretation of the text. In the discourse, the minister said '*You may have also read that some people suffered from chloroquine poisoning in Lagos because they thought that was the best way to treat themselves*'. This social practice informs the reason for stalling of the name of the drug used by doctors to cure the disease. It is obvious that patients are being discharged but nobody knows the drug they are using to cure the disease. This is a preventive goal of using concealment strategy. The text is interpreted based on the interaction between the text and the linguistic and situational context in the discourse. The text is the word *drug* while the situational context is medical emergency and the linguistic context included *abuse*, *doctor* etc. The interaction between these enables the interpretation of the strategy used.

Implications of concealment strategies in covid-19 discourse

The use of concealment strategies in Covid-19 discourse reveals how participants in the discourse succeeded in withholding information from the society. Participants in the discourse adopt concealment strategies in the discourse to achieve strategic goals which will help to sustain good health and social relation in the country. Their ultimate goals in the discourse are to keep Nigerians abreast of the happenings, to allay fear and cast out doubts in citizens. They also aim to protect individuals that are involved, especially the suspected carriers of the disease, and keep the entire country free of the virus. To achieve

this goal, they are required to adopt communicative strategies. This they did, using concealment strategies to withhold information that may jeopardise their goals.

In the discourse, concealment strategies, such as qualifier, deflection, pronoun, lexical replacement, jargonisation and stalling are used to achieve their communicative goals. These strategies helped participants to conceal sensitive information that are not necessarily meant for public consumption. The implication of these strategies is that the society will believe that the disease is real. For example, the use of jargonisation strengthens the belief that the disease is present in the country. In addition to that, stalling was used to prevent people from abusing the drug. Since the drug is not known, nobody can abuse it. This has implications for the health system. The implication is that drug administration will only be through prescription. This is working as the government is able to take more people to the health facilities provided by the government as against self-medication. The name of the drug is successfully concealed from the public. Deflection helps the government officials to cover their late response to the outbreak. This would have distracted them when citizens begin to criticise and they may not trust government's judgement and instruction again. The use of qualifier also has health implications. It helps to internalise the message of the disease in people. This is done by qualifying and replacing the disease's name with a qualifier which make citizens believe the reality of the disease in the country. Finally, there are health and social implications in the use of pronoun and lexical replacement. These strategies help the medical workers to do their duty without hitch, as nobody would disturb them about the identity of the patients and the patients are also psychologically balanced, as they are sure there would not be any stigmatisation after their discharge. The social implication is involved as the patients would not be stigmatised when they return home. It will also help more people to surrender themselves for medical check and volunteer information when they know their identity will not be revealed. This will also help the country to control the spread of the virus and finally cure it.

Conclusion

This study examines strategies used by participants in the Covid-19 discourse in the media. The outbreak is a global challenge that needs to be handled with professionalism, not only in terms of treatment, but, also, as relates to the communicative events during the period of the outbreak. Communicative strategies are useful for medical emergencies of this nature. The strategies are used to withhold information from the society to achieve certain goals. The study revealed six different strategies namely, qualifier, deflection, pronoun, lexical replacement, jargonisation and stalling. These strategies are used to cover the inadequacies of the government to avoid distraction. They are also used to conceal the identity of the suspected patients, to avoid stigmatisation. In addition, the strategies are also used to make people believe

the reality and presence of the disease in the country. Finally, the study revealed that the strategies also help to prevent abuse of drug in the society by concealing the name of the drug. The linguistic and situational context helps to interpret the meaning and motive of the text by the participants. Linguistic features such as jargon, qualifiers, pronouns and lexical items help to understand the social practice such as stigmatisation, drug abuse and doubt. This, therefore, confirms the efficacy of the Fairclough's model of CDA in revealing hidden information in the text. The study is relevant to the study of medical discourse in the media. It is useful for students and researchers in the field of discourse analysis. The study situates Covid-19 discourse within the CDA. We suggest that the Covid-19 discourse in the media be engaged from other disciplines such as sociology and psychology to be able to identify the social relations in the discourse. Finally, the study encourages the use of concealment strategies in health discourse, especially in emergency situations.

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Effectiveness of Computer and Video-Mediated Instructional Strategies in Teaching Practical Chemistry in Nigeria Secondary Schools

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Abstract

This study examined the effectiveness of Computer Mediated Instructional strategy (CMI) and Video Mediated Instructional strategy (VMI) on the performance of students in practical chemistry and determined the effect of these modes of instructional strategies on the retention ability of the students. A pre-test, post-test control group design was used for the study. The population for the study comprised of Senior Secondary School (SSS) II chemistry students in Akure South Local Government Area of Ondo State. 134 students in three intact classes from three randomly selected secondary schools in the LGA were used for the study. The three intact classes were assigned to the treatment groups and control group. The groups were taught with Computer Mediated Instructional strategy (CMI), Video Mediated Instructional strategy (VMI) and Classroom Demonstration Technique (CDT) respectively. Pre-, post- and retention tests were administered to the students. The data obtained were analysed using one-way Analysis of Variance and, where significant differences occurred, the Scheffe's post- hoc was used to determine the direction of the significant. The results showed that there was a significant difference in the performance of students taught with CMI, VMI and CDT ($F = 33.54$, $p = 0.00$). In addition, there was a significant difference in the effectiveness of CMI, VMI and CDT in enhancing retention ability of students in practical chemistry ($F = 26.62$, $p = 0.00$). However, VMI was more effective in teaching practical chemistry (Volumetric Analysis).

Key words: practical chemistry, Computer Mediated Instruction, Video Mediated Instruction, Classroom Demonstration Technique, Senior Secondary School students, instructional package.

Introduction

Chemistry education is a bedrock for the transformation of our national economy and, hence, must be accorded adequate attention. Despite the prime position chemistry occupies in the sciences and efforts made by researchers to enhance students' performance in the subject, students' performances are still

unsatisfactory, as attested to by West African Examination Council (WAEC). Table I summarises the enrolment and performance of students in the West African School Certificate Examination (WASCE) May/June 2008-2013.

Table 1: Trends of Performance in Chemistry in the WASCE May/June 2008-2013

YEAR	TOTAL ENTRY	TOTAL EXAMINED	TOTAL ABSENT	No & PERCENTAGE WITH GRADES		
				CREDIT 1-6	PASS 7 & 8	FAIL 9
2008	468291	456993 (97.58%)	11298 (2.41%)	198621 (43.46%)	121139 (26.50%)	116892 (25.57%)
2009	478235	468546 (97.97%)	9689 (2.03%)	204725 (43.69%)	114697 (23.41%)	110260 (25.39%)
2010	568291	565643 (97.50%)	11930 (2.50%)	236059 (50.70%)	109944 (23.61%)	98165 (26.08%)
2011	575757	565692 (98.25%)	10065 (1.75%)	280250 (49.54%)	151627 (26.80%)	129102 (22.82%)
2012	641622	627302 (97.77%)	14320 (2.23%)	270570 (43.13%)	192773 (30.73%)	148344 (23.65%)
2013	649524	639131 (98.40%)	10393 (1.60%)	460470 (72.05%)	95030 (14.87%)	61340 (9.60%)

Source: West African Examination Council, Nigeria

From these results, it can be seen that only in 2010 and 2013 that candidates' performances were about 50% at credit level. In the other years, performances were below 50%.

Various attempts have been made towards improving the low achievement and retention level of secondary school students in chemistry without any remarkable success. Some of the reasons identified by researchers for the remote cause of poor performance of students in recent times are non-availability of necessary facilities for practical (Oloyede & Bamidele, 2003; Adeyegbe, 2005; Adesoji & Olatunbosun, 2008) shortage of qualified Chemistry teachers (Adesoji & Olatunbosun, 2008), absence of equipment/materials for science teaching (Pwol, 1993; Oloyede & Bamidele, 2003, Adetunji, Oloyede, Bamidele & Bada 2012) and shortage of qualified laboratory assistants (Eze, 2006). Other reasons include time constraint for conduction of practical's and poor method of teaching (Ogunleye, 2002; Oloyede & Bamidele, 2003; Oloyede, 2004; Adetunji, Oloyede, Bamidele & Bada 2012; Irinoye, Bamidele, Adetunji & Awodele, 2015).

Ikeobi (1999) opines that chemistry is an experimental science that relies primarily on the relationship between theory and experiment. It should be taught practically with full students' participation. Students, by nature, are curious. They need to be actively involved in the learning process in which they continuously engage in equipping, testing, speculating and building their own personal construct and knowledge.

Folaranmi (2002), Aderounmu (2006), Oludare, Abiodun & Ajayi (2006) and Akpan (2008) observed that teachers were not engaging students as expected due to lack of facilities like well-equipped chemistry laboratory. Nworgu (1995) notes that contrary to the spirit of science, science teachers still teach without the necessary activities needed for proper understanding of the concepts, while the curriculum says that theory should be matched with practical experience. In most of the states, candidates who entered for science subjects visit the laboratory only when their schools get instructions for practical examination from examination bodies like WAEC and NECO (Akpan, 1999; Nworgu, 1999; Aderounmu, 2006). Over the years, evaluation by WAEC has revealed very poor performances of students in chemistry and one major reason for this poor performance was laid on lack of adequate practical activities (Akpan, 1995, 1996, 2008).

In view of the above, it is very clear that efforts have been made in the past and recent times by people of concerned minds to salvage the unpleasant state of students' performance in chemistry at the secondary school level and in spite of these learning, outcome in Chemistry is still on the low trend. One can infer from the foregoing that practical activities are very essential, especially, for effective and clear understanding of chemistry concepts. However, science teachers are faced with challenges of poorly equipped science laboratories. Oloyede & Bamidele (2003) and Mayer & Moreno (2003) suggested that an individualised approach of laboratory teaching, in which students can understand and learn chemistry concepts better with the required exposure to the practical training, in the absence of real and well equipped laboratory, be introduced to schools by using the latest interest-captivating device instructional resources capable of arousing students interest, motivation, enhancing performance and retention of learnt concept. To them one of such approaches involves the use of computer assisted instruction to teach chemistry concept such as multimedia presentation of explanation; word can be printed (e.g. on-screen text) or spoken (e.g. narration). The picture can be static (e.g., illustrations, graphs, charts, photos, or maps) or dynamic (e.g., animation, video, or interactive illustrations). The instructional resources of interest to the researcher in this study include, Computer Mediated Instruction (CMI), Video Mediated Instruction (VMI) and Classroom Demonstration Technique (CDT).

Computer and video are two instructional strategies that have been used in developed countries to tackle most of the teaching and learning challenges since 1990's because they have the potential for influencing students' attitudes and interest towards Chemistry which may positively affect their achievement

and retention. According to Oloyede & Bamidele (2003), Adetunji, Oloyede, Bamidele & Bada (2012), computer and video mediated instructional strategies can be used to provide opportunity for students to practise, thereby helping to stimulate learning and enrich the class with materials that may be lacking in a real laboratory setting such as repetitive viewing until the concept being taught is well understood. The media make learning more permanent and offer experiences that promote self-activity on the part of the students. Also, nothing absolutely new is ever learnt effectively with one exposure. Repetition helps to reinforce and extend learning and to make the learned information more enduring (Thorndike, 1932).

It is, therefore, necessary to examine the two proposed instructional strategies to determine which of them mostly improves chemistry learning outcome in the secondary schools in Ondo State.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to find out the effectiveness of computer and video mediated instructional strategies in teaching practical chemistry. The specific objectives of this study are to

- a. determine the relative effectiveness of computer mediated instructional strategy, video mediated instructional strategy and classroom demonstration technique in improving performance of students in practical chemistry; and
- b. investigate the relative effectiveness of the three instructional strategies in enhancing the retention ability of students in practical Chemistry.

Research Hypotheses

The following research hypotheses were raised and tested based on the objectives of the study:

1. There is no significant difference in the performance of students taught practical Chemistry using computer mediated instructional strategy, video mediated instructional strategy and classroom demonstration technique.
2. There is no significant difference in the effectiveness of computer mediated instructional strategy, video mediated instructional strategy and classroom demonstration technique in enhancing retention ability of students in practical Chemistry.

Methodology

The study adopts the non-equivalent pre-test post-test experimental control group design. Three levels of independent variables (two treatments groups and a control group). The blueprint of the design is represented as:

O ₁	X ₁	O ₂	O ₇
O ₃	X ₂	O ₄	O ₈
O ₅	X ₃	O ₆	O ₉

Where

O₁, O₃ and O₅ represent pre-test

O₂, O₄ and O₆ represent post-test

O₇, O₈ and O₉ represent retention test

X₁ – treatment 1 (exposed to Computer Mediated Instruction (CMI))

X₂ – treatment 2 (exposed to Video Mediated Instruction (VMI))

X₃ – treatment 3 (exposed to Conventional Teaching Method (CDT))

Sample

The population for the study comprised of Senior Secondary School Two (SSSII) Chemistry students in Akure South Local Government Area (LGA). A sample of 134 students in three intact classes from three randomly selected secondary schools in the LGA was used for the study. The three classes were randomly assigned to the treatment and the control group. Table 2 shows each school and the treatment assigned.

Table 2: Schools and Treatment Assigned

S/N	Name of Schools	Number of Students	Treatment Assigned
1	Aquinas College, Akure	46	CMI
2	St. Francis High School, Akure	46	VMI
3	St Micheal's Catholic High School, Akure	42	CDT
Total		134	

Instrument

One instrument was used for the study. The Chemistry Achievement Test (CAT). The CAT consisted of twenty items multiple choice tests with four options A, B, C and D which was used for the pre-test, post-test and retention test. This comprised of questions on relevant apparatus, indicators, experimental procedures and calculations. The difficult index of the items selected ranges from 0.25 to 0.75. The reliability coefficient of the test was 0.78 which was obtained using Kuder Richardson formula 21(KR-21), indicating that the instrument is reliable.

Data collection and analysis

The research was carried out in three different stages and data were collected at each stage. The stages were the pre-treatment stage, the treatment stage and the post-treatment stage. At the pre-treatment stage, the researcher

visited the selected schools for permission and solicited for the school's and students' cooperation. The first week was used to administer pre-test to the participating students in each school. The actual teaching started in the second week to the fifth week of the study. Experimental Group I students were taught volumetric analysis using computer mediated instructional package connected to a visual device (projector) to deliver the practical lesson. The Experimental Group II was using an instructional package containing multisensory motion picture (VMI) connected to a visual device (projector) to present Chemistry practical lesson. The students in the control group were taught using conventional teaching method (Classroom Demonstration Technique – CDT)). In each of the groups, there were four sessions (i.e. one session per week). Each session lasted 1 hr. 20 minutes.

At the post-treatment stage, which was the last week of the experiment, the CAT was administered to both the experimental and control group students. This was followed by the retention test, which took place after two weeks of administering the post-test. The data collected were analysed using mean, One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), Scheffe Post-Hoc pair-wise comparison Analysis.

Results

Pre-test was administered prior to the treatment to ascertain the background knowledge of all the students in practical Chemistry and the data obtained was subjected to One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and the results of the findings are presented in Table 3 below:

Table 3: Analysis of variance of the three groups on their Pre-test

Source of variation	Sum of square	Df	Mean square	F	Sig
Between Groups	3.143	2	1.572	1.822	.166
Within Group	113.006	131	.863		
Total	116.149	133			

The result showed that $F=1.82$, $P=0.17$, meaning that there was no significant different in the performance of the students in all the groups, since $P < 0.05$. This shows that the students have similar background knowledge in volumetric analysis.

Testing of the Hypotheses

Hypothesis One

Hypothesis one states that there is no significant difference in the performance of students taught practical chemistry using computer mediated instructional strategy video mediated instructional strategy and classroom

demonstration technique. This hypothesis was raised to find out the effect of the strategies on students' performance. In testing this hypothesis, the scores of the post-test of students in the three groups were compared and subjected to descriptive and inferential statistics using one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) at 0.05 level of significance. The results are presented in Table 4, Table 5 and Table 6.

Table 4: Descriptive Statistic of Students' Post Treatment Chemistry Performance Score

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
CMI	46	10.9130	2.07446	.30586	10.2970	11.5291	6.00	17.00
VMI	46	12.5652	1.74677	.25755	12.0465	13.0839	9.00	16.00
CDT	42	8.6190	2.87930	.44429	7.7218	9.5163	4.00	16.00
Total	134	10.7612	2.76166	.23857	10.2893	11.2331	4.00	17.00

Table 4 shows the mean post-treatment chemistry performance, means score are 10.91, 12.57 and 8.62 of the students in each of CMI, VMI and CDT respectively. This is an indication that students exposed to VMI performed best, followed by CMI while students' in CDT (control) performed least.

Table 5: One -Way ANOVA of Post-Test Score of Chemistry Students exposed to CMI, VMI and CDT

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	343.497	2	171.748	33.538	.000
Within Groups	670.861	131	5.121		
Total	1014.358	133			

The results in Table 5 showed that there was a statistically significant difference between post scores in each group and among students' performance

in the three strategies ($F_{(2,131)}=33.54$, $P=0.00$). These results suggest an existence of significant effect of each strategy on students' performance in chemistry as well as difference in the effect across the strategies. In order to understand the direction of the difference, Scheffe's Post Hoc analysis was carried out and the results are presented in Table 6.

Table 6: Scheffe's Pair wise Multiple Comparison Post Treatment Chemistry Performance Scores

	(I) method	(J) method	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Scheffe	CMI	VMI	-1.65217*	.47186	.003	-2.8205	-.4838
		CDT	2.29400*	.48297	.000	1.0982	3.4898
	VMI	CMI	1.65217*	.47186	.003	.4838	2.8205
		CDT	3.94617*	.48297	.000	2.7503	5.1420
	CDT	CMI	-2.29400*	.48297	.000	-3.4898	-1.0982
		VMI	-3.94617*	.48297	.000	-5.1420	-2.7503

*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The results in Table 6 show the different direction of post test scores in all the strategies. The results clearly revealed that VMI method can be said to be better than CMI method as there was a significant mean differences of 1.65 ($p = 0.00$) between them in favour of the VMI method. Also, learners in CMI perform better than those in CDT with a mean differences of 2.29 ($p = 0.00$) and learners in VMI perform better than those in CDT with a mean differences of 3.95 ($p = 0.00$) at 0.05 level of significant. The null hypothesis is hereby rejected.

Hypothesis Two

Hypothesis two states that there is no significant difference in the effectiveness of computer mediated instructional strategy, video mediated instructional strategy and classroom demonstration technique in enhancing retention ability of students in practical Chemistry. In testing this hypothesis, the retention test scores of the students in the three groups were compared and subjected to descriptive and inferential statistics using One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) at 0.05 level of significance. The results are presented in Tables 7 to 9.

Table 7: Descriptive Statistic of Students' Retention Test Chemistry Performance Score

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
CMI	46	11.8913	2.56669	.37844	11.1291	12.6535	5.00	16.00
VMI	46	13.3696	2.67797	.39484	12.5743	14.1648	7.00	18.00
CDT	42	9.5952	1.96381	.30302	8.9833	10.2072	6.00	13.00
Total	134	11.6791	2.86698	.24767	11.1892	12.1690	5.00	18.00

Table 7 shows the mean retention test Chemistry performance, means score are 11.89, 13.37 and 9.60 of the students in each of CMI, VMI and CDT respectively. This is an indication that students exposed to VMI retained learnt concept best, followed by CMI while students' in CDT (control) retained least.

Table 8: Summary of One –Way ANOVA of Retention Test Score of Students exposed to CMI, VMI and CDT

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	315.909	2	157.954	26.621	.000
Within Groups	777.293	131	5.934		
Total	1093.201	133			

The results in Table 8 showed that there was a statistically significant difference in the retention scores of each group and among students' performance in the three strategies ($F_{(2,131)}=26.62$, $P=0.00$). This result suggests an existence of significant effect of each strategy on student performance in Chemistry, as well as difference in the effect across the strategies. In order to understand the direction of the difference, Scheffe's Post Hoc analysis was carried out and the results are as presented in Table 9.

The results in Table 9 showed the different direction of retention test scores in all the strategies. They revealed that students in VMI group retained learnt concepts better than those students in CMI group, as there was a significant mean difference of 1.48 ($p = 0.02$). Also, learners in CMI demonstrated better performance in retention test than those in CDT with a mean difference of 3.00 ($p = 0.00$) and learners in VMI perform better than

those in CDT in the retention test with a mean difference of 3.77 ($p = 0.00$) at 0.05 level of significant. The null hypothesis is hereby rejected.

Table 9: Post Hoc (Scheffe's) Multiple Comparison of Retention Test of CMI, VMI and CDT Groups

						95% Confidence Interval	
	(I) method	(J) method	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Scheffe	CMI	VMI	-1.47826*	.50792	.017	-2.7359	-.2207
		CDT	2.29607*	.51987	.000	1.0089	3.5833
	VMI	CMI	1.47826*	.50792	.017	.2207	2.7359
		CDT	3.77433*	.51987	.000	2.4871	5.0615
	CDT	CMI	-2.29607*	.51987	.000	-3.5833	-1.0089
		VMI	-3.77433*	.51987	.000	-5.0615	-2.4871

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Discussion

The findings of this study revealed among others that there was no significant difference in the performance of participating students before the treatment. This shows that the students have similar background knowledge in volumetric analysis. The result of analysis of Hypothesis 1 showed that there was a significant difference in the academic performance of students exposed to practical chemistry using computer and video-mediated instructional strategies. This result did not agree with the findings of Jegede, Okebukola and Ajewole (1991) in Biology, Thomas and Tinu (2008) in Chemistry, Omiola, Enuwa, Awoyemi and Bada (2012) in Physics, who asserted that computer and video instructional package had no significant effect on students' performance but rather supported the findings of Oloyede and Bamidele (2003) in Chemistry, Adutunji, Oloyede, Bamidele and Bada (2012) in Chemistry, Okoro and Ekunkudo (2001) in Chemistry, Egunjobi (2002) in Geography, Yusuf and Afolabi (2010) in Biology and Udousoro (2000) in Mathematics. They discovered that the use of instructional media in teaching science subjects enhanced students' academic achievement. They affirmed that they are effective owing to their ability to captivate and hold attention well, thereby providing attention of the students with what is learnt. To them, the use of instructional media is effective and results to more learning in less time and better retention of what is learnt, especially, when the material being learned was repeated to the learners. They provide the experiences not easily obtained through conventional method.

The results of the analysis of Hypothesis 2 showed that there was a significant difference in the effectiveness of computer and video media instructional strategies in enhancing retention ability of students in practical chemistry. The result agreed with the findings of previous researchers, who

asserted that instructional media do not only enhance communication between learners and teachers but also aid retention. (Oloyede & Bamidele, 2002; Afolabi, 2006) but disagreed with the finding of Thomas & Tinu (2008) and Omiola, Enuwa, Awoyemi & Bada (2012), who asserted that video instructional package has no significant effect on students' performance.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The study concluded that computer and video mediated instructional strategies can enhance students understanding of chemistry concepts, acquisition of skills, retention ability and improve their performance in the subject. It could also be used in the teaching/learning of practical, to guide both teachers and students. In order to tackle the challenges experienced in the teaching and learning of chemistry at the secondary school level, necessary attention should be accorded to computer literacy and operation in the secondary schools and relevant computer assisted instructional packages should be developed for use within the Nigerian school system. In addition, seminars, workshops and in-service training should be organised for teachers to enable them acquire necessary skills and also update their knowledge about the development and proper use of instructional materials for classroom instruction. Also chemistry authors or textbook writers should be advised to develop computer and video instructional packages to complement the textbooks used in the schools.

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A Semio-Stylistics Analysis of Foregrounded Graphological Elements In Afejuku's *A Spring of Sweet* and Yesufu's *Visions and Recollections*

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Abstract

The author focuses on the grapho-semiotic features of Afejuku's *A Spring of Sweet* and Yesufu's *Visions and Recollections*. Using Peirce's triads of signhood, as further explained by Short and Auxier and Halliday's concept of foregrounding, the paper identifies the significant icons, indexes and symbols, explains the stylistically significant versification features in the two collections and establishes how they dovetail with the collections' thematic concerns. The analysis is stylistic and semiotic in orientation, adopting the qualitative method of textual analyses. Accordingly, the two collections are studied and relevant features identified, analysed and related to the subject matters and themes of the collections. The analysis reveals that Afejuku's *A Spring of Sweet*, more than Yesufu's *Visions and Recollections*, deploys iconic and symbolic emblems and pictograms to illustrate some sections and themes, while both collections copiously use varied patterns of lineation, punctuation and emphatic markers to foreground the themes of love, death, nostalgia and patriotism.

Key words: *A Spring of Sweet*, *Visions and Recollections*, foregrounding, semiotic signs, graphology, icons and symbols.

1. Introduction

Anthony Esijolomi Afejuku, well known as Tony Afejuku, and Abdul Rasheed Yesufu are contemporary Nigerian poets of the 20th and 21st centuries who were influenced by shared socio-political environment and critical ideology. Tony Afejuju's (2014) *A Spring of Sweet*, henceforth *A Spring*, and Abdul Rasheed (2016) Yesufu's *Visions and Recollections*, henceforth *VaR*, have some features in common. In addition to *A Spring*, Afejuku has published *A Garden of Moods* (1996) and *Orchard of Wishes* (1999). Abdul Rasheed Yesufu was a Professor of English at the National Open University of Nigeria, Lagos, Nigeria. Earlier, he was a lecturer in the Department of English and Literature, University of Benin, where he taught poetry and other literature courses and shared social and intellectual affinities with Afejuku, a Professor of English and Literature in University of Benin and a well-known literary critic and columnist for several Nigerian newspapers. The environment and socio-cultural experiences that they share as colleagues and ideologues reflect in the two collections. Yesufu, in fact, wrote the foreword to Afejuku's *A Spring*. His main research and teaching areas included American and British Literature, Africa

and Black Diasporic Literature and Writing. Yesufu passed on to eternity in 2016, shortly after publishing *VaR*. Some of his other works are *Repostes* (2016), *Selected Essays* Vol. I (2016) and *Selected Essays* Vol. II (2016).

The three interconnected key terms in this paper are Stylistics, Semiotics for Semiotics and graphological foregrounding. Crystal (2009, p. 11) says that

the aim of stylistics is to analyse language habits with the main purpose of identifying from the general mass of linguistic features common to English, as used on every conceivable occasion, those features which are restricted to certain kinds of social context, to explain, where possible, why such features have been used, as opposed to other alternatives and to classify these features into categories based upon a view of their function in social context.

Therefore, stylistics analysis identifies the significant language features of a text, shows how and why they have been combined in a pattern identifiable in the text. Accordingly, this paper identifies the stylistically significant graphological and semiotic features in the two collections using Peirce's Theory of Signhood and Halliday's Foregrounding as Prominence.

Danesi (2016) states that the term *semeiotics* from which we have semiotics was coined by Hippocrates, the founder of Western medical science, as the science of symptoms. Chandler, quoting Umberto Eco (1986), says that "semiotics is concerned with everything that can be taken as a sign;" anything which stands for something else (p. 2); the use of images and gestures, etc. to represent or mean something else. The concept of semiotics dovetails nicely with that of graphology in stylistic analysis, which focuses on the entire writing system, paying close attention to the visual images and diagrams in a text which assist in encoding, extending or modifying its significance. The sense of graphology includes orthography, which Trask (1990) defines as a standard system of writing a particular language, spelling, punctuation, special symbols, abbreviations, distinctive typefaces like italics, underlining, boldface, among others (p. 219), which writers used to draw and sustain the attention of writers and readers. This paper focuses on only the stylistically significant use of pictures and emblems, lineation and stanzas, use of emphatic markers such as italics, bold and capital letters; and the stylistic use of punctuation marks in the two collections.

Although some critics (Awhefeada, 2013; Eke, 2013; Odia, 2016; Adebayo, 2017) have analysed Afejuku's poetry, particularly, *A Garden of Moods* (1996) and *Orchard of Wishes* (1999) and some preliminary book review comments have been made on Yesufu's *VaR* (Osinloye, 2016), no methodical semiotics and stylistics analysis of the graphological features of the two collections has been undertaken. In addition to this gap, Yesufu's relatively new poetry collection entitled *VaR*, which contains rich and interesting literary and

stylistic features, has not been accorded adequate critical attention. Hence, this paper uses a semio-stylistic approach to account for the stylistically significant graphological features in the collections to achieve the following objectives:

- a. identify and explain the various stylistically significant graphological elements foregrounded in the works using Peirce's semiotic theory and Halliday's foregrounding as prominence;
- b. show their functional significance in the texts; and
- c. relate the identified graphological features and semiotic signs with the thematic preoccupations of the texts.

In what follows, the paper delineates the theoretical framework, literature review, methodology, analysis, findings and conclusion.

2. Theoretical Background and Literature Review

This section explains the theory of foregrounding adopted for analysis and also briefly reviews some empirical studies on Afejuku's and Yesufu's works.

2.1 Theoretical Framework: Peirce's Theory of Signhood

The paper is based on Peirce's (1868) triads of signs, as further explained in Short (2007) and Auxier (2019), and Halliday's (1973a & b, 2002) Foregrounding as Prominence. Peirce presents the necessary parts of a sign to include the 'representamen', 'an interpretant' and 'an object.' Accordingly, for anything to qualify as a sign, these three elements must be present. Peirce's theory of sign is semiotic and pragmatic, containing three triads of signs, each triad further subdivided into three sub classes. The first triad of signs has "qualisigns", "sinsigns" and "legisigns". A "qualisign" is a quality that is similar to the sign; "legisign" is a conventional sign that has a shared interpretation in a given context; and "sinsign" is an existing event, spatio-temporal images, pictures, etc. "Every sign is either (qualisign) a quality or possibility, or (sinsign) an actual individual thing, fact, event, state, etc., or (legisign) a norm, habit, rule, law." Peirce's (1868) in Short (2007) and Auxier (2019) second triad of signs are "icons, indexes and symbols." He says that every sign refers as an icon through its similarity to its object, or as an index through real link to its object, or as symbol through interpretive, conventional habit or norm of reference to its object (Peirce, 1903: 287-98; Farias, 2003).). An icon is a sign that looks like what it represents; for example, a picture, sketch, or cartoon. An index is a sign that has a link with what caused the sign or the result, e.g. cloud and rain, fire and smoke, etc. are indexical. A symbol is a sign which people invest with meanings that are shared and understood in communication instantiated by culture and environment; for example, the traffic light colour, language letters and writing signs are symbolic.

Peirce further explains that "the way in which something functions as sign is semiosis. 'Semiosis has the three related components of (i) "the sign

vehicle,” which is “that which acts as sign”, (ii) “the designatum” which means “that which the sign refers to”, and (iii) the interpretant meaning, which is “that effect on some interpreter in virtue of which the thing in question is a sign to the interpreter” (Morris 1972: 3-5). Peirce’s triads overlap and interact. Thus, an icon can be a symbol, and index and symbol can be dissign or an icon, depending on the context. These terms of icon, index and symbol of the second triads are applied in the analysis of the primary texts of this study. It is augmented with Halliday’s Foregrounding as Prominence.

2.2 Foregrounding as Prominence

Foregrounding started basically as a theory of literature in the Greek philosophy though it was not specifically called “foregrounding theory”. Later on, Russian formalists and Czech structuralists emphasised the importance of foregrounding in literature. Martindale (2007) says that foregrounding at that stage was so much related to novelty. For instance, the Russian formalist Shklovsky (1965), pointed out that the purpose of art is to present the familiar objects in a sophisticated unfamiliar way so that the perception of such objects will be renewed and refreshed in the eyes of the reader. Mukarovsky, quoted in Traugett and Patt (1980), relates style to foregrounding and says that the violation of the norm of the standard is what makes possible the poetic utilisation of language. Similarly, Leech (2013) defines “foregrounding as deviation from linguistics or other socially accepted norms. It invokes the analogy of a figure seen against a background” (pp. 12, 31). According to Leech (2013), what makes a piece of art interesting and stylistic is that “it deviates from mass-product regularities of pattern” (p. 86). There are two main types of norm: general and local or internal. The general norm refers to the conventional ways in which a particular language is used or the literary style in question, while the local norm refers to a norm set up in a particular text by an author.

Traugett and Patt (1980) say that Jan Mukarovsky further uses de-automatisation of familiar linguistic and literary patterns in lieu of defamiliarisation. From this point of view, foregrounding is the opposite of automatisisation. Linguistic devices are the main pillars of foregrounding, the tools which writers creatively manipulate to produce a great piece of literary art. The most prominent definition of foregrounding, which is adopted here, is the one given by Halliday (2002) who explains prominence as “regularities in the sounds or words or structures that stand out in some way, or maybe brought out by careful reading” (p. 112). Halliday sums it up as follows:

Foregrounding as I understand it is prominence that is motivated. It is not difficult to find patterns of prominence in a poem or prose text, regularities in the sounds or words or structure that stand out in some way or may be brought out by careful reading; and one may often be led this way towards new insight, through finding that such prominence contributes to the writer’s total

meaning ...a feature that is brought into prominence will be foregrounded only if it relates to the meaning of the text as a whole. (Halliday 2002, p. 339)

Foregrounding could be either quantitative or qualitative. In qualitative foregrounding, there is deviation from the language itself. In quantitative foregrounding, there is deviation from some expected frequency (Halliday 2002); as in repetition for stylistic purpose. In this paper, the analysis of foregrounded graphological and semiotic features is guided by the conceptual framework work presented below:

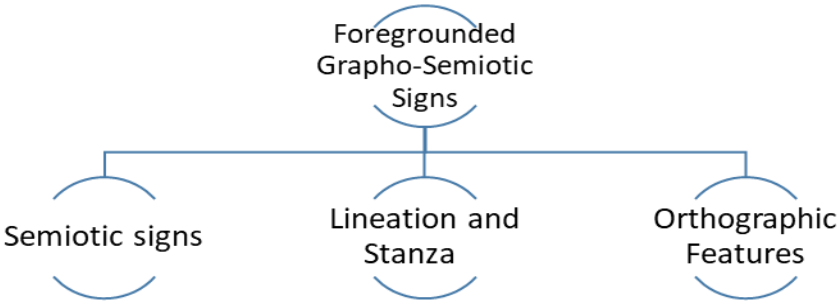


Fig. 1: Conceptual Framework for Analysis

2.3 Brief Review of Related Studies

Afejuku’s works have attracted a good number of criticisms over the years. Eke (2013) pays close attention to Afejuku’s elegiac poems in *An Orchard of Wishes*, revealing the poet’s preoccupation with the subject of death as an extension of the death and dysfunction of the Nigeria system, also noting that Afejuku occupies “a distinctive position as one of the very few Nigerian poets who have experimented with elegiac poetry” (89). Awhefeada (2013) and Ajeluoro (2015) eulogise *A Spring* as a collection that reflects Afejuku’s experiences as a patriot, academic, lover, friend and family man. However, their critical efforts did not focus on the grapho-semiotic features of *A Spring*, as undertaken in this paper. Olatunbosin (2015) asserts that a critical study of Afejuku’s three collections reveals that Niger Delta concerns far outweigh other issues while Odia (2016) says that Afejuku’s “thematic concern ranges from environmental degradation, land feud or ethnic tension to the imperative of justice, love and peace as panaceas to the ethnic crises” (p. 76).

Using Sternberg’s Triangular Theory of Love, Mukoro (2017) examines Afejuku’s *Orchard of Wishes* and *A Garden of Moods* and reveals that his poetry is replete with the theme of love in all its facets such as consummate love and relationship, infatuated love and obsession, empty and failed love,

companionate and compassionate love. Ekundayo and Ekhaton (2020) applied the theory of foregrounding to identify and analyse the stylistically significant phonological features in Afejuku's *A Spring* and Yesufu's *VaR*. Although the methodology and universe of study (the two collections) are the same, Ekundayo and Ekhaton (2020) concentrated on the phonological features while this paper expands the frontiers to encompass graphological and semiotic analysis of the two collections. The bulk of the review so far has been on Afejuku's poetry because critical comments on *VaR* are scarce. Osinloye (2016) says that *VaR* is a potpourri of various thematic concerns, as in Afejuku's *A Spring*. He observes that Yesufu concentrates primarily on aestheticism, intertextuality and eclectic romantic ethos. In all, Afejuku and Yesufu deploy graphic semiotic signs and foregrounded linguistic symbols in *A Spring of Sweets*, and *Visions and Recollections* to explore the various themes of love, death and life, nationhood, nature and environment.

3. Methodology

The work adopted the qualitative research method that focuses on interpreting and describing, analytically, data extracted from the texts under study. The paper is stylistic and semiotic in orientation. The works analysed here are *A Spring* and *VaR* to identify stylistically significant foregrounded graphological features. The primary sources of data are *A Spring* and *VaR*. The primary data were extracted from the two texts and analysed to account for graphological foregrounding using insights from Peirce's Theory of Signhood and Halliday's Foregrounding as Prominence. The researcher also interviewed Tony Afejuku on 3rd September 2019 to clarify and validate the analyses and interpretations of some of the semiotic signs that introduce the different 'Options' in *A Spring*. The insights from the interview assisted the researcher immensely in analysing the significance of the pictograms in *A Spring of Sweet*.

4. Foregrounded Semiotic Signs and Versification Features

The analysis is divided into three major sections which are (i) the semiotic analysis of pictograms, (ii) lineation and versification and (iii) analysis of foregrounded orthographic symbols in line with the Conceptual Framework.

4.1 Semiotic Analysis of Emblems/Pictograms

The first graphic images that catch one's attention in the two collections are the design of the frontispieces. Yesufu's *VAR* has a simple icon of the shining sun against the background of a blue sky. Worldwide, the sun symbolises light, warmth and vision. This icon of the shining sun, which is also a qualisign that reminds us of the real sun in nature, tallies with the title of the collection, which is *Vision and Recollection*. In effect, the frontispiece underscores the point that the sun sees far and illuminates the world; so do the poems in the collection.

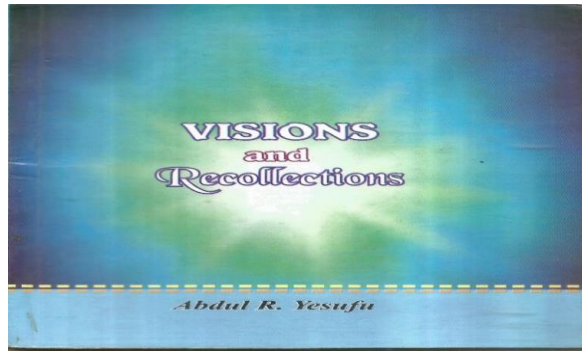


Fig. 1: The Frontispiece of Vision and Recollection

Afejuku's *A Spring's* back cover has the silhouette of a modern young Black lady in a sleeveless short gown sitting in a stylish posture and the title of the work is printed in capital letters **A SPRING OF SWEETS** above the female icon and the poet's name **TONY E. AFEJUKU** is put under the female silhouette all against a yellowish- greenish background. These are linguistic symbols and legisigns which indexically refer to the title of the book and the name of the poet.

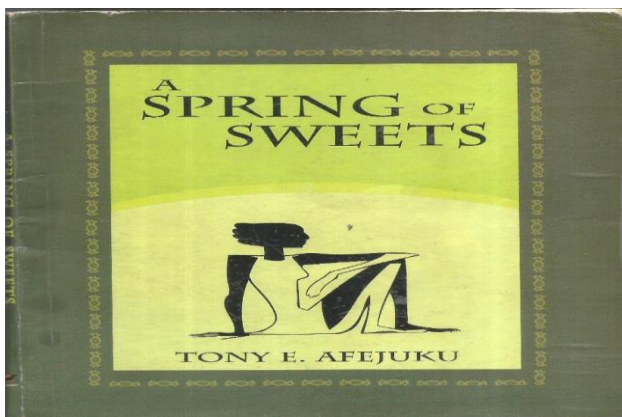


Fig. 2: Icon and Linguistic Symbols on the Back Cover of *A Spring*

The title is a semiotic stretch of linguistic symbols that identifies the book and conveys the significance of the collection's title. **SPRING** here is a designatum, a cluster of linguistic symbols whose immediate interpretant (meaning) is nature's season of beauty, blossom and green vegetation and the background green is the sign vehicle whose interpretant is the greenness of spring while **SWEET** is a symbolic designatum for the tactile sense of pleasant taste. **A SPRING OF SWEETS**, therefore, is the linguistic sign vehicle which is a symbolic indexical designatum interpretable as nature and the subject of the collection; that is to say that the poems therein contain the beauty, blossom and fragrance that characterise spring. The female silhouette is an iconic sign

vehicle and a qualisign whose designatum is a dark shapely beauty model in real life. Beyond this, it functions as an interpretant foreshadowing the nature, content, tone and mood of the collection, essentially a collection addressing the themes of beauty, sex, romance and love: heterosexual love, filial and connubial affection, love for nature and environment and patriotic love. The female icon is therefore symbolic, embodying these ramifications of love. The name **TONY E. AFEJUKU** is a stretch of linguistic symbols that indexically refers to the writer and his name.

The collection itself is structurally organised into six (6) sections labelled 'Options', each option, at the beginning, having a pictogram invested with semiotic significance. Option one (1) has the pictogram of a growing plant tendril, a flower against the background of nature: land, water and the atmosphere. The plant bends down to the ground, with a seed of the flower breaking into the earth. Some of the leaves on its tendril close to its base look fresh and some withering around its tips, as it bends towards the earth. A maggot is hooked to the tendril, feeding on it and defecating into the river.

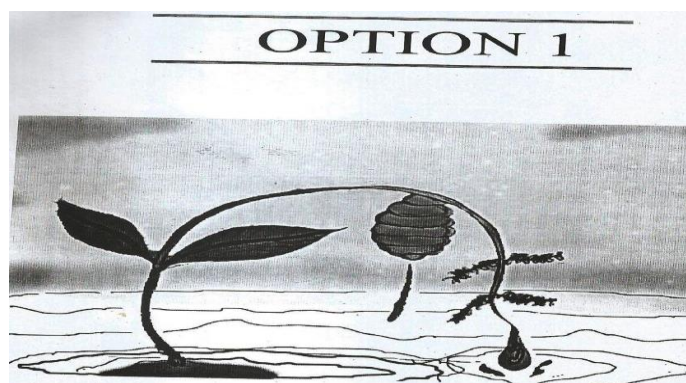


Fig. 3: A Curve Flower with a Maggot

The pictogram is an iconic designatum that is interpretable as nature containing other sub icons of real plant in nature and its tendril from the earth. It curves sharply toward the same earth with withering leaves, unlike the fresh leaves of its base. The plant icon signifies the journey of life from birth to death, a very graphic way of demonstrating the dictum “dust to dust” or the Biblical “from dust are you made and unto dust you shall return” (Genesis 3:19.). Another interpretant of the iconic emblem is the continuity and interdependence in nature and the ecosystem. This is one way of interpreting the icon; and the first set of poems about mortality on pages 20 and 21 lend credence to this interpretant. A third interpretant of the icon is the totality of the ecosystem that it captures. The tendril grows from a river bank facing the sky but it suddenly curves back to the earth at the point of the maggot, which is passing its dungs into the water or the bank, a polluting phenomenon? The icon depicts the paradox and symbiosis in the ecosystem.

On page 39 is ‘Option 2’ heralded with the icon of a male or female head/face with a mask or gag.

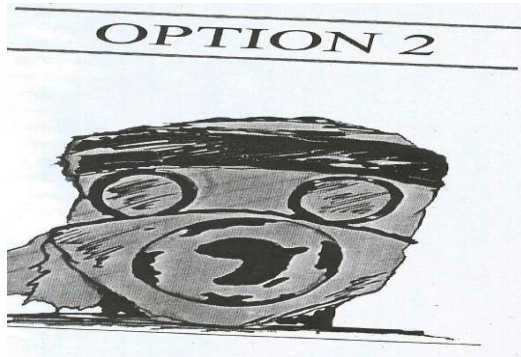


Fig. 4: A Masked Mouth

The icon and qualisign represents a real human head. In true life, certain events and circumstances make human beings wear face mask or appear gagged. The gag or blindfold signifies the axiom ‘love is blind’ and perhaps also dumb; but there is an opening in the mouth region, the shape of a comma. This icon foregrounds the mystery of love, which gags lover and at the same time makes an avenue for expression, as shown in the comma-shaped slit or opening in the gag. Poems in this section, accordingly, have the motif of love, romance and sex.

Option 3 has the icons of a female (as the earring shows) with a clean-shaven head, the silhouette of an elephant and its shadow, a tusk or flute and the background cloth material. This designatum and iconic signs foreground the theme of love in the poems in this section. The icon of a woman represents womanhood, sex and love. The elephant icon symbolises the strength, swagger and memory for which the elephant is known. Love swaggers in strength, never forgetting. Anything we do in love lingers in lovers’ memories, as in the brains of the elephant. The patterned fabric icon symbolises fashion associated with love and women. On the whole, this designatum has the interpretant of womanhood, love, memory and fashion.

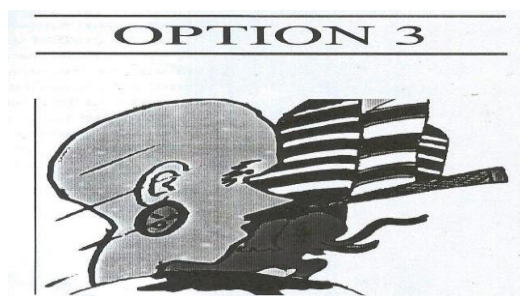


Fig. 5: A woman, Elephant and Fabric Icons

In Option 5, we have two clenched fists, one with an index finger to which an icon that looks like the Nigerian flag is tied and the second fist holding on to a key.

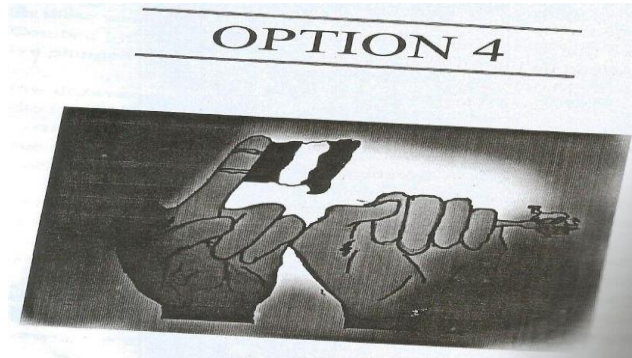


Fig. 6: Two Hands Holding a Flag and a Key

This pictorial designatum is an icon that symbolises nationhood, love for one's country and the key opening the door symbolises the hope of a new opening despite all odds, as thematically foregrounded in the poems in this section. Option 6 has the icon of a flower in a flower vase which is an icon symbolising the gift of love. Option 7, which is the last option, has a picture of the Nigerian map and the Coat of Arm, the identity symbol of Nigeria, all in disarray, yanked apart.

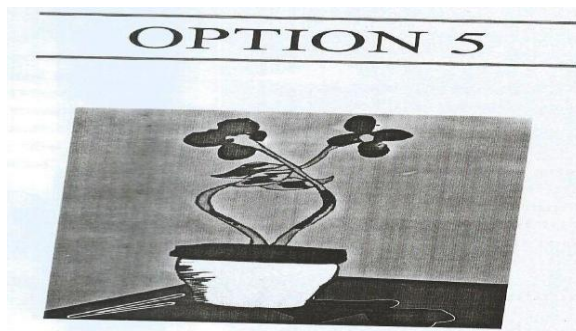


Fig. 7: A Flower Vase Icon

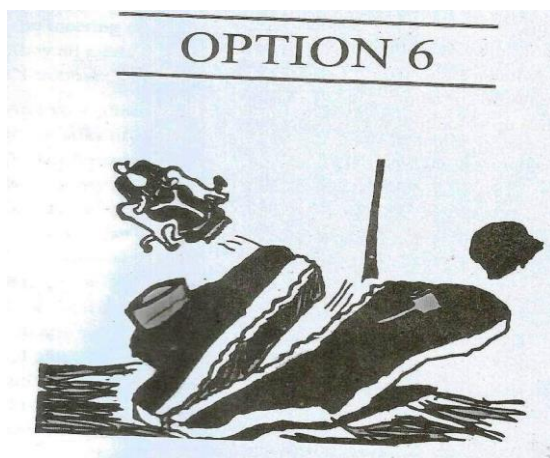


Fig. 8: Icons of the Nigerian Map and Coat of Arms

This symbolic emblem contains the following semiotic designatums:
An icon of the Nigerian Coat of Arm, the identity symbol of the Nigerian State; which is separated from the map and unstable, pointing to political instability in Nigeria:

- i. the Nigerian map torn apart from top to bottom, which symbolises disunity and turbulence;
- ii. a cap on the western border edge of the map, which is an icon whose interpretant is a socio-historical allusion to Chief Obafemi Awolowo's fashion insignia (Chief Obafemi Awolowo is the most prominent political personality from western Nigerian who used that shape of cap);
- iii. another cap icon that invokes the head gear of Sir Ahmadu Bello, the Sadauna of Sokoto, who was Obafemi Awolowo's contemporary in politics;
- iv. a stick icon pointing to the rift across the map, whose interpretant is the *sharo* stick associated with the Fulani and their political hegemony; and
- v. an iconic spade or shovel on the north-eastern part of the map signifying an instrument of digging, excavating and gathering or dispersing sand.

The entire emblem stands as a symbolic designatum that foregrounds the disunity and upheavals that bedevil Nigeria and also foreshadows the themes of disunity, national disorder and forebodes the possibility of the Nigerian nation tearing apart.

4.2 Lineation and Stanza

The lineation and versification follow no fix metric and rhythmic order. The poems are, in the main, composed in free verse, run-on-line and irregular rhythmic patterns. At times the lineation and versification reflect the themes of

the poems and the thought patterns of the personas and poet-personas. An example is Afejuku's "A love letter from Connecticut":

Hooray
Hooray
Hooray
For ...Alerosa, conjurer of sweets
Sweeter than Selene's ...
Hooray
Hooray
Hooray
For Alerosa!
For Alerosa whose embrace embraces me soon!
(*A Spring*, p. 36)

Here, in achieving the theme of love and nostalgia for a loved one, the poet presents the poem in a peculiar layout, taking the form of a cross, to foreground the intense effect of the love on the poet persona. It shows how elated the persona is, having true love in the person of Alerosa, the love-cross that the poet-persona has to carry. The vertical arrangement of and the repetitive use of 'Hooray' foreground the euphoria and joy he feels about his lover and captures the fixed reiterative pattern in which 'hip, hip, hip...hooray!' is expressed in Nigerian English usage. In a "A Lover's Song (for Folu), a similar poem about love, separation and nostalgia for a loved one, Yesufu uses some five-line stanzas and an unrhymed couplet with long lines rather than fragmented lines and ellipses as in Afejuku's:

As erratically as smoke from a chimney
Spread like unspun cotton wool across the sky
And frolics among the four points
So too my mind wavers and drifts
Except from thoughts of you

In the Hallowed dome of the ascended soul
The bells toll the hour of heart mortification
Sp-ri-sp-ri, sp-ri, sp-ri
The birdsong, a measured dripping syrup,
Contentends with the insistent clangour of the bell

But I'm immune to these assaults on the sensate ear
For none but you can touch my heart. (p. 15)

Line three of stanza three of the poem has truncated words 'Sp-ri-sp-ri, sp-ri, sp-ri', which is onomatopoeia for the sound that the poet persona describes.

Also in Afejuku's "Love Itch", love is likened to Warri River and its estuaries and so the lineation and layout captures the zigzag flow and estuaries of a river, in this case the river of love:

I Itch
 to forget you forever
Dix –Lizzi
 My melodious insanity
 My irreplaceable nightmare
Slowly floating, gently
 in my mind
Again and again
 Like Warri River
 and its estuaries
 in melodious moors of tears
 again and again
as your glittering vapour freezes
me in a non-moon-lit eve of eve. (*A Spring*, p. 80)

The general layout of the poem foregrounds the theme of indecisiveness and the dilemma that the persona finds himself. This is obvious in line 13 "as your glittering vapour freezes." This line depicts the hypnotising power and effect of his lover's beauty on him so much that he is physically and mentally transfixed. The poet indents every two, three or four lines of the poem arbitrarily to foreground this state of mind. Also, Afejuku uses irregular indentation of lines in "O sweet!" to foreground lyrical affects. This is seen in the extract below:

 Arise...
 All you beings
 of the ethereal
 Paradise ... Arise
 For moon love
 our ancestors send
 from the Mansions
 of bitter patience
 of sweet fruits

 Arise ...
 Olokun
 Sango
 Ogun
 Ifa (*A Spring*, pp. 41 - 42)

The poem is an invocation that intermingles erotic love with ancestral offerings and returns, which the persona ends with “And healing are her tones and tunes, / soft, sonorous, sublime.../’ The lineation captures the poem’s evocative and emotional nature, subject matter, setting, tone and mood. The same pattern of lineation and versification is used in “In Fumwen (*A Spring*, pp. 44 - 45), “Love Passes Like a Wish and Dream” (pp. 46-47) and “To the One of Fictive Romance” (pp. 56-57).

Yesufu’s “You Are...” and Afejuku’s “Lenan’s Mongoos”, which deal with the theme of love, are versified in the same pattern. Both poems are short and arranged in unrhymed couplets dripping with imagery:

Lenan Lenan Lenan

a name and female
lurking in my unyielding heart;

a rat gnawing my cane,
a snake poisoning my juice;

crushing damsel crushing me;
monger of musty mustard,

at last I am your mongoose. (*A Spring*, p. 81)

The poem has five stanzas of three couplets and one-line stanza starting and ending it, which the poet deliberately deploys to describe the different aspects and singleness of his feelings for Lenan. Yesufu uses similar lineation to foreground the different seductive contours of a lover’s beauty, which enthrall the poet persona in “You Are...”

Your beauty weaves a spell
That makes me dream of sleeping and dreaming

Your eyes are morning mimosa
On the fields of my initiation

The gems sheltered behind your nectars are cassava
pulp
The Kilimanjaro peak is Cimmerian beside them

And the smile that dances on your cheeks
Depletes the mystic smile of Mona Lisa. (*VaR*, p. 47)

This pattern is also used in Afejuku's "Ten Lines for Amaks" (p. 29), "Grand Boys and Grand Girls" couplets (p. 30). In many of the poems, both poets use one-stanza poems to portray the themes of erotic, patriotic love and concern for environment, as in Afejuku's "The Oneness of Love" (p. 25), "The Forgotten One" (p. 26), "Not the Forgotten One" (p. 27), "I Sin to Love" (p. 28), "Gladys" (p. 34), "I can Smell My Mortality" (p. 37), "For You Again" (p. 51), "Mermaid of Fair Sensation" (p. 52), "A Deep Plunge" (p. 59), "A Night Reverie" (66), "For a Christmas Beauty" (p. 68), "Bathers" (p. 70), "The Brewer" (71), "A Mango Heart" (p. 72), "Let Us Roll in the Hallowed Temple" (73), "Love Itch" (80), "Gone is the Scent" (p. 84), "Farewell..." (p. 85), "Meenu" (p. 94); Yesufu's "Hope" (7), "Of Idle Wishes and Desires" (p.10), "USAIR Over Downtown Cleveland" (p.19), "Of Despair and Hope" (p.26), "An Afternoon Rainstorm" (p. 33), "On the Precipice of Slumber" (p. 34), "August Break" (p. 35), NUL Ditty" (p. 40), and "River Nile at Jinja" (p. 76). All these are short poems of few lines, half a page or a full page written in one stanza only. Besides similarity of lineation, the two poets, also deploy the autographic features of punctuations and emphasis which are discoursed in the next section.

4.3 Foregrounded Orthographic Features

Readers' eyes cannot miss the obvious use of punctuation marks and emphatic markers to draw attention to certain structures and the meanings they are invested with. The most striking ones are ellipses, exclamation and question marks, the hyphen, capital letters and italics.

4.3.1 Emphatic Markers: Italics and Bold Letters

Afejuku and Yesufu use emphatic markers such as italics, capitals and bold letters in their poems to foreground the theme of love in different facets. In "Benin City – A Bird's View", Yesufu's uses italics to draw attention to some historical allusion:

Benin City
Ubinu, Igodomigodo
Edo n' evbo Oba
 Line 5: *Ochre-red city of blood...*

Line 14: *intricate Ananse pattern contrived*
To tunnel and pummel the antique shape...
 (VaR, p. 43)

Here, the poet employs the use of italics in lines 2, 3 and 14 of the poem to foreground and depict the special use of local words and historical allusion. The words in italics in the poem are not English words. Lines 2 and 3 above are words got from the Edo language. 'Ubinu' is a historical allusion to the origin of the name Benin which is a clip from Ubinu, the original utterance or from which Benin emerged. 'Igodomigodo' is the earlier name for the Kingdom before it

became Benin and Edo. ‘Edo n’vbo oba’ is Benin expression for ‘the Edo land of the Oba’. *Ananse*’ also in italics, in the poem, emphasises the theme of reverence in the poem. In Edo language, it means ‘the one or place to be revered’ (Ero & Owie, 2016).

Yesufu uses italics in “Bantu Education” to emphasise some local words use by the Bantu people:

Give in *amaBantu* sufficient knowledge
Make them to love our elegant tongue and hate their *isiSatani*
Teach them to adore our urbane culture
Make them ashamed of their *amandlozi*, *sangomas*, *muti*,
mkomboti
The emptiness of *Ubuntu* and African renaissance
The futile imagining of their racial quandary. (VaR 91)

Bantu are the speakers of Ntu languages, comprising several hundred indigenous ethnic groups in Sub-Saharan Africa. The poet uses *amaBuntu* to mean one of the people of Bantu; *IsiSatani* means one of the tribes that speak Ntu. *Amandlozi*, *Sangomas*, *Muti* and *mkomboti* are the different cultural practices by the Bantu people. *Ubuntu* means “I am, because you are”. In fact, the word ‘ubuntu’ is just part of the Zulu phrase “*Umuntu ngumuntu ngabantu*”, which literally means that a person is a person through other people.

Yesufu and Afejuku foreground capital letters for emphasis in addition to the use of line initial capital letter that is the norm in poetry. While all the poems in *VaR* have line initial capital letters, fifteen (15) of the sixty-one poems in *A Spring* do not have them. In the poem “Jashomati”, Afejuku capitalises **JASHOMATI** to draw readers’ attention to its eminence in the poem even in the last line of the poem (*A Spring*, p. 93) and uses JOS and ILT in ‘Muscular Words;: ‘you and **JOS** and **ILT** blazing fathers” (p.105), where JOS stands for Johnson Oritsegbubemi Sunday, the Johnson Ayomike, a prominent Itsekiri leader, and ILT “blazing fathers”, where ILT stands for “Itsekiri Leaders of Thoughts” (Interview with Afejuku on 8th September, 2020).

In “Of Man, Pain and Love”, Yesufu foregrounds capital letters to draw attention to some fundamental concepts and names in **SALAAM! SHALOM!/SYMPATHISE!!!/...FORGIVENESS and JUSTICE**” (p. 18); also used in several lines of “Name Written in Muck” such as “The **YEA** he-goats and **Pied Piper**” (p.73), “A **NADECO** wretch for breakfast/A **NALICON** and **CLO** quisling for the rest” (p. 74). These words in capital letters are socio-political allusions to some of the events that characterised the regime of General Sanni Abacha (1993-1998) who ruled Nigeria tyrannically and then polarised Nigerians into two factions of his supporters and opposers, especially as he schemed to transform himself to a civilian president. **NADECO** (National Democratic Coalition) was the organisation that some patriotic Nigerians formed to change General Abacha’s excesses and to fight for the actualisation of

“June 12” the date of the presidential election that Moshood Olawale Abiola won. YEAA (Youths Earnestly Asked for Abacha), in contrast, was formed by one Daniel Kanu (now the late) to fight for the continuation of the Abacha’s tyrannical junta.

4.3.2 The Use of Hyphen and Questions Marks

Another punctuation mark foregrounded in both collections is the hyphen (-) and question mark (?). Some instances are in Afejuku’s “Love Passes Like a Wish and a Dream” (p. 46) and “An Itsekiri Militant Song” (p.100), where the hyphen is used severally to show breaks and pauses in thoughts and sentential flow. “Tom’ Clister O”, an elegiac poem, uses question mark for repeated rhetorical and reflective effects and for questions that do not have instant answers: “How can you go unsung/You who sang for our orchard?” (p.63). Yesufu’s “Three Monologues of Dejection”, also elegiac, ends on the same rhetorical and reflective note: “Will the morning dew soothe my aching heart?/Will Aurora rays chase away my dejection?/And free me from the unflinching fist of lethargy?” (p.54) and in the “Machine of Isando”: “Old Moses...did he push a button as this/And how many rands was he set back by?” Afejuku’s “Epitaph on Two Nigerian Ex-President” (p.106), a poem of twenty lines has six hyphens used to break thoughts, show examples and list the features of the argument. With the phrase “The hill-top chiefs, *Owu’s* and *Minna’s*, the poem indirectly alludes to Generals Olusegun Obasanjo, Nigerian Military and Civilian Head of State (1976-79, and 1999-2007 respectively) and General Ibrahim Babangida (1985-1993). The italicised words clearly foreground this because Obasanjo lives in Owu, his native town and Babangida in Minna, his native city.

4.3.3 Foregrounded Exclamation Marks and Ellipses

Afejuku uses exclamation and ellipses frequently in many of the poems such as in “A Love Letter from Connecticut” (p.36), “O Sweet!” (p.41), “Fumwen” (44), “Love Paradise...” (p. 46), “From the One of Fictive Romance” (p.54), “Whale and Swallow Swim” (p.62), “Mystery Love” (p.69), “How Beauty Dies” (p.86), and “An October Ballad for Fatherland”. Yesufu also deploys the orthographic devices in “Of Man, Pain and Love” (p.15). The poets use exclamation marks to foreground their depth of love and feelings, as in this excerpt by Afejuku:

Oh my oh my! My turtle-dove
For Alerosa!
For Alerosa whose embrace embraces me soon!
(*A Spring*, p. 36)

In lines 10, 14 and 15 of “A Love Letter from Connecticut”, ellipses are used to foreground broken thoughts and things unsaid:

Brighter, warmer, saintlier than Selene...
For...Alerosa, conjurer of sweets
Sweeter than Selene's...

The ellipses are used three times in the text to foreground the infiniteness of the persona's love for his lover. They also foreground the inexhaustible encomiums showered on the lover. The second use of ellipsis in line 14 specifically depicts the high level of reverence that the persona has for his love. 'Fumwen' also has several instances of ellipses. In the poem, ellipses are used seventeen (17) times to foreground different emotions and unexpressed thoughts:

Fumwen and I, her war-master of Peace...
Peacefully...
Forever...
to merge water and earth ...
Fumwen and I ... lilies ...
Ethereal strokes...
And forever is the oneness in sweetness and sweetness
sweet strokes forever ... cannons ... (*A Spring*, pp. 44-45)

In the poem, the juxtaposition of the adverb 'forever' with ellipses indicates the infinity of love and togetherness. Other poems with copious ellipses are "The Song of the Sea-Bird" (p. 35), "O Sweet" (p.41), "Whale and Swallow Swim" (p.620), "To My 400 Level Class of 2007" (p.64), "Texts" (69), "Bathers" (p.70), "He Goes to Fish" (82), "How Beauty Dies" (86), "A Poem for Sabrina" (88), and "Muscular Words" ((104).

5. Conclusion

The paper undertook a grapho-semiotic analysis of Afejuku's *A Spring* and Yesufu's *VaR* to account for the semiotically and stylistically significant graphological features of the two collections using the theoretical tools of semiotics and stylistics. As Mukoro (2107) established, love in all its facets is a recurrent feature of Afejuku's poetry. Eke's (2013) study of Afejuku's earlier collections shows that the themes of pain, death and social dysfunction permeates Afeuku's poetry. Olatunbosin (2015) avers that Niger Delta concerns outweighs other themes in Afejuku's works. However, this paper establishes that in *A Spring*, Afejuku pays more attention to the themes of love, nationhood and national conflicts, social interaction and interdependence. Odia (2016) correctly observes that Afejuku's "thematic concern ranges from environmental degradation, land feud or ethnic tension to the imperative of justice, love and peace as a panacea to ethnic crises" (p. 76), themes that are further explored in *A Spring*, particularly the focus on nationhood and conflicts. Osinloye (2016) says that *VaR* is a potpourri of various thematic concerns, as in Afejuku's *A*

Spring. Yesufu explores the themes of immortality, love for humanity and nature, adventure and nostalgia in *VaR*.

Specifically, using Peirce's Theory of Signhood and Halliday's Foregrounding as Prominence, the paper accounted for the following symbolic icons and graphological features in the collections:

- i. Seven iconic images used in Afejuku's *A Spring* to foreground the themes of love, (im)mortality, aging, life and reverence, beauty, disunity and upheavals and environmental degradation. Yesufu's *VaR* has no emblems and icons.
- ii. Stylistically significant capitalisation, ellipses, italics, bold letters, exclamation and question marks and the hyphen are used in both collections to foreground the themes of love, transient nature of existence, sadness and for aesthetic beauty.
- iii. While Afejuku manipulates lineation to capture thought pattern and mood, Yesufu uses less of deliberately fragmented lines and thoughts. His love poems are mostly arranged in short stanzas and long unbroken lines while Afejuku's poems are sometimes fragmented with different punctuation marks, particularly ellipses and the hyphen.
- iv. Afejuku combines caesura (end-stop) and line initial capital with run-on-lines (enjambment), free verse and lower cases (letters) in line initial positions. Fifteen of his sixty-one poems are in this category. However, Yesufu uses caesura and line initial capital in all the fifty-one poems in *VaR*. In this case, Yesufu pays more attention to the internal rule of lineation in poetry while Afejuku stylistically mixes free verse with caesura.
- v. Afejuku uses more of ellipses and hyphen in many of the poems in *A Spring* while Yesufu hardly uses them. However, the two poets achieve emphasis and attract readers' attention through the use of bold letters, italics, capital letters and question marks for emphasis and rhetorical effects.

The two poets foreground these features to explore assorted themes of love, adventure, nostalgia, life and death, nation building and personal experiences.

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Anti-Corruption and the Informant Phenomenon: The Harrowing Experiences of Whistle blowers in Nigeria

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Abstract

The informant or whistle blowing concept has widely proven to be a practically useful mechanism in the fight against corruption in public and private sectors. Within the ambit of the whistle blowing framework, the disclosure of corrupt practices by employees of organisations is justifiable only on the grounds that the action is genuinely directed towards protecting the interest of the public. Impliedly, therefore, besides its valuable attributes as an important anticorruption weapon and mechanism for incentivising the citizens, whistle blowing practitioners often go through diverse “harrowing experiences” for the actions they take in defence of public interest. The author of this paper uses some cases from Nigeria as examples to concretise this position and concludes that the informant practice, indeed, has dual distinct sides, especially in the absence of a well-articulated legal framework for protection of whistle blowers. The author advocates that the Nigerian government should expedite actions to enact a comprehensive whistle blowers’ protection law to guarantee adequate protection of informants, who risk their lives to expose acts of corruption in the interest of society, from likely abuses. The study is a non-empirical and qualitative research that depends on the secondary method of data collection and the narrative analytical technique.

Key words: anticorruption, corruption, good governance, informant/ whistle blower, whistle blowing

Introduction

Corruption in public and private sectors is, no doubt, an albatross to social, economic, and political development across nations of the world. This is true, as the ubiquitous nature of the corruption makes it undesirably present in all societies. Indeed, corruption constitutes a major obstacle to transformative changes in all countries in the Southern and Northern hemispheres, though at varying degrees and forms. In its characteristic feature, corruption creates unequal distribution of socio-economic resources, undermines efforts at reducing poverty incidence, and denies the vulnerable groups in society access to public opportunities and privileges. The former Secretary General of the United Nations (UN), Ban Ki Moon unequivocally posits that corruption is a universal phenomenon that hampers progress and development; and it threatens the crucial attempts being made towards poverty reduction and the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). In buttressing his position, Moon further states that, due to corruption, many poor and vulnerable people

are deprived access to education and other basic services that they require to live a normal life (Government Investigation and White Collar Litigation Group [GIWCLG], 2011).

In appreciation of the devastating effects of corruption on societies, Moon thus expresses the need for concerted efforts at combating the menace, noting that synergy between public and private sectors as well as cooperation between civil society organisations (CSOs) globally are of utmost importance in guarding the world's economy from the threats of corruption. He goes on to propose that all efforts at nipping the menace in the bud should be placed at the centre of rule of law and that it has now become more urgent than before to fight to defeat corruption in order to advance human rights and ensure that all the MDGs are realised (GIWCLG, 2011). This advocacy by the former UN Secretary General, presumably, is expected to ignite a renewed interest and increased momentum in the war against corruption across the world, most importantly, in developing countries, where the menace has virtually destroyed the fabrics of the societies and eaten so deep into the marrow thereof. Corruption is the arch cog in the wheels of progress of developing nations. A report by Transparency International (TI) demonstrates that corruption is the major factor in explaining why developing countries are experiencing difficulties in reaching the MDGs. The MDGs are eight development targets set by the United Nations Millennium Declaration to be achieved by 2015, which was signed in September 2000, with the aim of facilitating improvements in the social and economic conditions in the poorest countries of the world (Lexology, 2010).

The TI's report, which is dubbed "The Anticorruption Catalyst: Realising the MDGs by 2015" clearly shows the statistical links between corruption and development statistics in strategic areas such as illiteracy, date rate, and availability of drinking water. The report reveals that in several developing nations, corruption has become a "regressive tax" with specific effects on poorer family units and demands governments to incorporate national anti-corruption strategies into their MDG policies, while emphasising that strengthening of the transparency, accountability and integrity elements would assist developing nations in achieving the MDGs. The report prescribes increased access level to public information relating to efforts undertaken towards achieving the MDGs in developing nations, as a means of attaining improved transparency; whereas, accountability can be achieved by ensuring more meaningful and greater involvement of members of the community, coupled with the support of civil society organisations (Lexology, 2010). Ban Ki Moon also rightly observes that "all people have the responsibility to speak against corruption because combating it starts with every individual, which makes it important to focus on anti-corruption education in order to tackle the issue head on" (GIWCLG, 2011, para. 7).

It, therefore, becomes clear that the international community duly recognises the essential role of members of the community in fighting

corruption and achieving the established MDGs in all societies. Whistle blowing provides one of the most useful mechanisms and opportunity for the citizenry to supplement governments' efforts in the campaigns against corruption in public and private settings in any country. By acting as informants who disclose "in public interest" and "in good faith" any acts of wrongdoing in their workplaces, community members serve as anti-corruption agents, strengthening governments' enthusiasm and determination to fight formidably against the menace of corruption. The involvement of community members in the war against corruption through the whistle blower mechanism is widely known to have produced worthwhile results in many climes, first, in protecting public interest, and, second, in terms of incentivising citizens who see it as a voluntary moral obligation to exposing unethical practices within their organisations. Despite its intrinsic goodness to the society and individual informants, however, the whistle blowing culture also attracts certain heavy costs, mainly in relations to anyone who blows the whistle or raises the "red flag" against dishonest acts in both public and private sector organisations.

It is upon this premise that this paper, based on some practical experiences from Nigeria, attempts at demonstrating that the whistle blowing practice often produces varying degrees of harrowing experiences for the practitioners. The paper is structured into eight sections with the introduction as the first. The second section explains the meaning of the concept of whistle blowing. The third section is composed of a review of literature. The fourth section consists of the theoretical framework adopted by the study. The fifth section demonstrates the harrowing experiences of informants considering some experiences from Nigeria. The sixth section examines the implications of the undesirable development for the anti-corruption campaign in Nigeria. The seventh section recommends effective measures by which Nigeria can adequately address the prevailing situation, while the eighth section is the conclusion.

The Concept of Whistle blowing

Scholars, researchers and organisations in the field of anti-corruption have defined the term "whistle blowing" in various ways. For instance, the Nolan Committee on Standards in Public Life defines whistle blowing as "raising concerns about misconduct within an organisation or within an independent structure associated with it" (cited in Audit Scotland, National Audit Office, Northern Ireland Audit Office & Wales Audit Office, 2014, p. 7). Similarly, Near, Rehg, Van Scotter, and Miceli, (2004) refer to whistle blowing as the disclosure by an organisation's members of illegitimate and nefarious acts carried-out by the organisation and its personnel to individuals or organisations that can cause a change (cited in Ogungbamila, 2014). In another related sense, the International Labour Organisation (ILO) (2005) sees whistle blowing as revealing by staff members or erstwhile staff members of unlawful, erratic, precarious or unscrupulous practices conducted by their bosses or employers

(cited in Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2010). The definition offered by the *Chambers Dictionary* is also closely related to the foregoing definitions. According to the *Chambers Dictionary*, whistle blowing involves offering information, normally to the authorities, regarding criminal or disreputable acts (Audit Scotland, National Audit Office, Northern Ireland Audit Office & Wales Audit Office, 2014). In its own views the South African Public Service Commission (n. d., p. 2), posits that, “whistle blowing is not about informing in negative, anonymous sense but rather about “raising a concern about malpractice in an organisation”. By this standpoint, the reporting should not be an attempt at maliciously indicting an organisation or its members, but to bring to the knowledge of appropriate authorities certain dishonest operations conducted within an organisation, which have the potential to harm society in one form or the other.

Furthermore, Audit Scotland et al. (2014, p. 7) conceives whistle blowing in a slightly broader way, referring to it as “a worker raising a concern about wrongdoing, risk or malpractice with someone in authority either internally and/or externally”. These include regulators, media, security agents, among others. Eaton and Akers (2007, p. 67) also define whistle blowing in the same sense, averring that the practice entails the act of disclosing misconducts done inside an organisation to parties within or outside the organisation. According to them, internal whistle blowing involves the disclosure of information to a source within an organisation, while external whistle blowing implies divulging information outside an organisation, such as to the media or regulators (Eaton & Akers, 2007). Whatever may be considered their slight differences, these definitions are simple and clearly convey the same meaning regarding the concept. Thus, in the view of the present study, all the above definitions offered in an attempt to explain the meaning of whistle blowing can rightly be said to be quite tenable and apt in understanding the subject matter. As an upshot, the working definition employed by the study summarises afore definitions as the act of raising the “red-flag” or exposing corruption acts in public and private sector organisations in the interest of society. Therefore, whistle blowing invariably means, “playing the informant”. By inference, a whistle-blower, according to the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (5th Edition), is a person who reports to individuals in positions of authority or the public the unethical or malfeasant routines at their work places (Babajide, 2013). The present study conceives a whistle blower/informant as the person who reports wrongdoings or inappropriate activities to appropriate authorities.

Literature Review

Views and opinions of various anti-corruption scholars and researchers lend support to the main argument of this paper; that is, the point that the whistle blowing practice is usually accompanied by grievous consequences for the individuals who blow the whistle to report wrongdoings. It is observed that, across the world, informants are applauded and celebrated as heroes for

exposing malfeasance and graft in organisations and for stopping likely disastrous lapses from resulting in harms (Banisar, 2011). The exposure ranges from reporting the looting of millions of money in both public and private establishments as well as other treacherous deals that constitute threats to organisations and aid recovery of wealth (News Herald, 2015). For this reason, whistle blowers deserve to be properly appreciated and always given due attention whenever they come forward to raise an alarm for the good of the larger public (Northern Ireland Audit Office, 2020). Yet, as Banisar (2011) affirms, whistle blowers in majority of the instances do not gain anything for disclosing dishonest acts, save the ability to preserve the status quo. Scores of the people who unearth concerns do encounter serious reverberations for the actions they take, including loss of job or exclusion, while others are accused of crimes bothering on abuse of employment laws or concords. Beyond that, some are also confronted with physical insecurity of their lives (News Herald, 2015).

Consequent upon this, Sule (2009) opines that two salient things are irrefutably true with respect to whistle blowing. First, whistle blowing is a delicate enterprise (Vickers, 1997); and second, it is a supportive tradition (Sule, 2009). Whistle blowing is an unsafe pursuit, in that peril, threats and uncertainties await a worker who adventurously resolves to expose the misdeeds of his or her employer or co-worker (Sule, 2009). Supporting Sule's stance, Vickers (1997, p. 594) states that, whistle-blowers usually "face discipline or dismissal". The reason for this is that they are commonly wrongly perceived. Whistle-blowers, according to Bowers and Lewis (1996), are mostly regarded as a threat and bother to the establishment that employs them. They also attract to themselves "more negative labels such as informants, snitches, rats, squabbles, sneaks, or stoolies" (Gillan, 2003, p.38), which have the potentials to substantially affect them or members of their families negatively (Sule, 2009). These and many other reasons are why most employees choose to remain silent even in the face of obvious acts of corruption and unethical behaviours by their employers or co-employees. But, it is a widely known fact that, in environments where the culture of disclosing malfeasances lacks proper support and those that engage in the disclosure practice are not secure, the risk of corruption is normally very high (OECD, 2010).

Unveiling why whistleblowing is a helpful practice, Committee on Standard in Public Life (2005) asserts that the tradition greatly supports good governance ambitions and is an indication of higher-level organisational culture of transparency. For instance, in democratic states, in particular, the whistle blowing culture strengthens the vital values of transparency and accountability, which in-turn supports the workings of the machineries of state (Chalouat, Carrion-Crespo & Licata, 2019). Also, it is believed that the instrumentality of whistle blowing has the propensity to prevent casualties and tragedies, salvage the lives of honest people, block monumental waste of financial resources and dissuade other possible crime perpetrators (Sule, 2009). It is to be recalled, for example, that it was the steps taken by Dr Jiang Yanyong, a medical practitioner

who exposed the severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) virus, that saved millions of people from dying from the disease (Chalouat, Carrion-Crespo & Licata, 2019). These advantages and several others are the outcomes of one worker willingly suffering for others (Sule, 2009). Thompson Okpoko and Partners (2017) corroborate that whistleblowing is a helpful practice as it helps the government in fighting corruption and recovering looted public resources. However, it is a risky business due to the dangers involved in it; that is, the detrimental effects and threats that the whistle blower has to bear.

Auwal Ibrahim Musa states that whistle blowers are in antecedence adjudged disaffected staff and trouble-makers that are ready to disclose all sorts of corrupt activities conducted in the secret. Some workers have been unfairly treated or discriminated against by those who employed them and their co-employees for unveiling misdemeanours, so workers largely feel unprotected to divulge information pertaining to impropriety and fraudulent practices in their establishments (Newsdiaryonline, 2015). It is not, therefore, surprising that, “even in countries with strong rule of law, low unemployment, reasonable security of life and property, people are still not likely to blow the whistle to the detriment of their sources of livelihood” (Centre for Social Awareness, Advocacy and Ethics [CSAAE], 2013, para. 5). In the light of the foregoing assertion, the disclosure of wrongdoing in the absence of a protective law, such as in the case of a country like Nigeria, would be even much more risky. Of course, as Babalola (2017) holds, revealing dubious practices or misuses of authority in the absence of safeguard is unambiguously hazardous. Along the same line of thought, Babajide (2013) explains that the dangers associated with the whistleblowing vocation can hardly be overestimated. In consequence a whistle-blower protection legislation is crucially needed to ensure the safety of informants.

In its definition of whistleblowing, the popular global corruption monitoring institution, Transparency International, also vividly recognises the fact that the practice can have serious side effects on the whistle-blower, when in its unique conception, it describes whistle blowing as a four-stage process. First, a triggering event occurs, involving questionable, unethical, or illegal activities, and this leads an employee to consider “blowing the whistle”. Second, the employee engages in decision-making, assessing the activity and whether it involves wrongdoing, gathering additional information and discussing the situation with others. Third, the employee exercises voice by blowing the whistle; alternatively, the employee could exit the organisation, or remain silent out of loyalty or neglect. Fourth, organisation members react to, and possibly retaliate against the whistle blower (The Legal 500, 2010). Consolidating the point in the fourth stage of TI’s definition, CIA ADMIN (2015) observes that reports have emerged about employees who raised concerns against those who employed them and were subjected to suffering different types of deprivation, even up to the point of unjust expulsion,

intentional impeded progress, litigation as well as psychological and physical torments.

With reference to the repercussions attending the act of disclosure of malpractices, Agbakoba-Onyejiana (2013) makes a differentiation between internal and external whistle blowing, averring that it is the internal whistle-blowers that are exposed to higher risks. According to him, internal whistle-blowers are ordinarily employees of an establishment, who disclose criminality or prohibited activities done by the organisation or its principal staff. External whistle-blowers do not certainly need to be employees of the organisation neither do they have to be connected with it, but can reveal the activities of the organisation to regulatory bodies, such as law enforcement institutions. However, the internal whistle-blowers take the highest risks in disclosing wrongdoing due to the discernible dangers of losing their jobs or being victimised after exposing a dishonest act. This is the right explanation for why there are few whistle-blowers (Agbakoba-Onyejiana, 2013), as deserved everywhere. As concerning jeopardising their means of livelihood, whistle-blowers do not only run the risk of losing their present jobs, their employers oftentimes go to the length of blacklisting the informants, thereby making it hard for them to secure another job within the specialty. For the fear of being blacklisted, many workers are thus forced to refrain from exposing practices within their employing organisations (Layman Blog, n. d.).

Owing to this reality, Sule (2009) thinks that any prospective whistle-blowers would be compelled to weigh and consider between the effects and consequences of the information they are to disclose and the dangers that would pose to their lives and those of the members of their families and their means of sustenance, prestige and career. It is also noteworthy the fact that, irrespective of the societies they find themselves, informants are faced with indistinguishable risks (Agbakoba-Onyejiana, 2013). Thus, be it in the developed or developing nations, whistle-blowers suffer virtually similar fates. For instance, according to Irish Times of 29 May 2000, the findings of a study of whistle-blowers in the United States in 2000 showed that 100% of workers who engaged in disclosure of wrongdoing were dismissed and majority of these people could not get another jobs. Additionally, 17% lost their houses, 54% received embarrassment from co-employees at workplaces, 15% were divorced by their spouses, 80% were physically degraded, 90% suffered emotional stressed, depression and worry, while 10% tried to commit suicide (Sule, 2009).

Pointing at other forms of ill fates that usually befall informants, Agbakoba-Onyejiana (2013) uses previous high profile whistleblowing cases, for example, the Enron, Halliburton and Edward Snowden cases, to depict that whistle-blowers usually have to surmount an array of hurdles for their trustworthiness or integrity to be confirmed. For many of the instances, legal proceedings were not initiated against the organisations concern until after years. In actuality, it is mostly an insignificant fraction of whistleblowing cases that are treated with seriousness and a tiny fraction of that is publicised by the

media. In addition, within their employing organisations, principal management personnel can hardly take informants seriously (Agbakoba-Onyejianya, 2013). This is because employers and co-workers commonly regard whistle-blowers more as organisational deviants than as faithful employees and patriotic citizens, who understand that the society depends partly on their role as community members to make life better for fellow patriots. To the extent that individuals who in “good-faith” and in “public-spirit” seek to protect the society from imminent harms are in most cases branded “trouble makers” and made to bear unwarranted consequences for their actions, the subject matter of whistle blowing can, therefore, be appropriately described as an inherently controversial issue.

Theoretical Framework: The Role Theory

This study deploys the role theory as a basic analytical framework of explanation. It recognises that there are other theories that can as well be adopted in engaging the problematique of study. However, the study finds the role theory most suitable and appropriate in advancing its argument. The role theory is one of the most important and dominant theories in sociology for understanding social behaviours. It “is a perspective in sociology and social psychology that considers most of everyday activity to be the acting out of socially defined categories, e.g. mother, manager, teacher” (Sesen, 2015, p. 139). Therefore, the major assumption of the theory is that the behaviours of human beings are varied and foreseeable relative to their different social identifications and the condition (Biddle, 1986). The earliest proponents, whose theoretical works popularised the role theory within the discipline of sociology, were George Simmel, George Herbert Mead, Ralph Linton, Jacob Moreno and Talcott Parson (Sesen, 2015; Biddle, 1986). In particular, however, George Herbert Mead is mostly considered the earliest contributor to the development of the theory, through his two concepts of “the mind and the self” (Hindin, 2007). Biddle (1986, p. 68) observes that

As the term role suggests, the theory began life as a theatrical metaphor. If performances in the theater were differentiated and predictable because actors were constrained to perform “parts” for which “scripts” were written, then it seemed reasonable to believe that social behaviours in other context were also associated with parts and scripts understood by social actors. Thus, role theory may be said to concern itself with a triad of concepts: patterned and characteristic social behaviours, parts or identities that are assumed by social participants, and scripts or expectations for behavior that are understood by all and adhered to by performers.

While other conception of the role by the role theorists are plausible, the conception of the term by the functionalist approach within the role theory vividly captures the very substance of argument being advanced by the paper and the justification for the deployment of the theory in this study. The functionalists approach “sees a role as the set of expectations that society places on an individual” (Sesen, 2015, p. 139). In line with this position, it becomes tenable that the desire for a corruption-free society places important demand on employees not to hesitate to raise alarm or report in the interest of the public any acts of corruption or unethical behaviour in their organisations found to be against the well-being of the society. Given the overarching adverse threats of corruption to the society and public welfare, employees in public and private sectors have a voluntary civic responsibility to expose wrongdoing by their organisations or members of their organisations, provided the action is aimed at saving the public from certain detrimental effects. This responsibility is not without benefit; anyone who reports or exposes wrongdoing in good faith is entitled to financial reward as incentive. Informants are also entitled to legal protection from associated risks, such as reprisal, intimidation, victimisation suspension as well as outright dismissal from work. This is based on the understanding that whistle blowing is like a coin of two opposite sides. Regardless of its laudable benefits, informants often suffer various forms of maltreatments for disclosing wrongdoing in public spirit.

Methodology

This non-empirical analysis subscribes to a qualitative approach to probe the topical issue concerned. The study employs the secondary method of data collection. Impliedly, the study relies mainly on secondary data, which were sourced from books, journal articles, daily newspapers and the Internet. The data were analysed through the narrative analytical technique.

The Harrowing Experiences of Whistle-blowers in Nigeria

Whistleblowing practice has gained immense popularity and widespread relevance in the fight against corruption globally, due to its pivotal role in protecting public interest and incentivising citizens who “in good faith” uncover wrongdoing at their workplaces. Notwithstanding its virtues, however, in most countries, informants across the world encounter unprecedented adversities for exposing corruption acts and/or corrupt people in private and public sector organisations. Ultimately, experiences abound in all societies regarding the adverse consequence suffered by whistle-blowers, which manifest in diverse forms, including retaliation, victimisation, intimidation, recrimination by supervisors or co-workers, denial of work related benefits, suspension from work and outright dismissal sometimes. In this study, the focus is precisely on Nigeria. Scores of practical experiences in the Nigerian context validate the claim that whistleblowing, despite its usefulness as an anti-corruption

mechanism, normally puts its practitioners (informants) through terrifying ordeals.

One of Nigeria's key anti-corruption agency, the Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Commission (ICPC) has before it volumes of petitions filed by civil servants who claim to have been victimised and denied their due entitlements for reporting corrupt practices perpetrated in their offices. The travail of a particular undisclosed Nigerian civil servant lends credence to this affirmation. According to Shaibu (2015), the civil servant, an employee of the Federal Ministry of Defence (FMD) solicited the help of ICPC regarding presumed persecution for disclosing fraudulent undertakings carried-out by a staff member of the Federal Civil Service Commission (FCSC). The officer who, in addition, reported that his service file with FCSC got lost stated that his anguish started in 2013 when he submitted his file to the commission for regularisation and promotion. However, as he claimed, his file was not attended to and could no longer be found in the records office of the commission. The concerned employee alleged that he was labelled an "enemy of the civil service" and excluded from the 2015 promotion exercise, since the accused officer of the FCSC was being prosecuted by ICPC in a High Court in Abuja.

In another instance, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs unlawfully suspended a director from work for exposing a financial fraud of N70.6 million in the Directorate of Technical Cooperation in Africa (DTCA). Succinctly narrating the ordeal, the amount mentioned was withdrawn and mismanaged by some officials of the top echelon of the Directorate for Technical Cooperation in Africa. The money was drawn from the Nigerian Technical Cooperation Fund (NTCF) domiciled with the African Development Bank (AfDB) and jointly managed for the Nigerian Federal Government by the AfDB and DTCA. The officials withdrew the money under the guise of celebrating the tenth anniversary of the Nigerian Technical Cooperation Fund, which was allocated \$36,852.00, and supervision of various projects being executed from the Trust Fund across Africa. Another sum totalling N800, 000.00 was also allocated for the sensitisation seminar to be organised by SERVICOM in the Directorate and the disposal of boarded government vehicles. When the whistle blower, Mr. Ntia Thompson, an Assistant Director with the DTCA got clues about the diversion of the fund, he hurriedly reported the matter to the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) and the Inspector General of Police (IGP), and sought for necessary protection (Daniel, 2017).

In the end, it was realised that, while the EFCC was able to compel the relevant officers to return the total of N800,000, no other steps were taken to impel the officials to return the \$229,000 that they took. However, some days after the EFCC began investigation into the fraud, the informant was invited by the DTCA and questioned as regarding why he exposed official documents to the anti-corruption agency and the media, so causing the agency embarrassment. More worrisomely, the IGP from whom the whistle blower requested protection

to the DTCA that the man was not facing any serious threats and should not be provided any security. Based on the police report, on December 19, 2016, the DTCA officially suspended Mr. Thompson from work and requested him to submit every property of the agency in his custody immediately. The suspension letter which had the ref. No. DTCA/P.082 Vol. 1 was entitled, "Letter of suspension from duty" and signed by Sanda Isah, Head, Department of Administration/Secretary SSAPDC (Daniel, 2017).

In August, 2011, another case was witnessed, whereby a staff of the National Women Development Centre (NWDC), Abuja, who exposed the alleged embezzlement by some top members at the centre, of a whopping N300 million meant for poverty alleviation programme, was unlawfully dismissed from service. It was through the heart-felt intervention of some civil society organisations that he was reinstated to office. This was before the period when Mrs. Fatima Bamidele, the Permanent Secretary of Ministry of Niger Delta, came under serious unwarranted threats for exposing corruption and mismanagement of public funds at the disposal of the Ministry. The life of Mrs. Bamidele was vehemently threatened for uncovering the fraud involving the sum of N803,000,000:00 by staff of the ministry, which the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission since arraigned before a competent court of jurisdiction (Newsdiaryonline, 2015).

Perhaps, another prominent whistle blowing case that has become part of Nigeria's history is the one involving former governor of the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN). When the illegally and unsystematically suspended former governor of the Central Bank of Nigeria, Sanusi Lamido Snausi, popularly dubbed the "best CBN governor" blew the whistle over an alleged monumental scandal which resulted in the disappearance of the sum of \$20,000,000,000.00 from the public treasury, many Nigerians already forecasted that Sanusi would be sacked, fired, removed, or suspended. Nigerians were somewhat in agreement that some sort of unimaginable consequences must befall the former CBN governor, as he had stepped on toes by disclosing the scandal. As analysed, \$20b, in literal terms, is equivalent to N3,200,000,000,000.00 (Three trillion, two hundred billion Naira) if \$1 is N160. Then every Nigerian will get about N17, 778.00 (Seventeen thousand, seven hundred and seventy eight naira) if Nigeria has the total population of 180,000,000 people. If the money were to be shared among the states, every state including the Federal Capital Territory, Abuja could get as much as N86,486,486,486.50 (Eighty six billion, four hundred and eighty six million, four hundred and eighty six thousand, four hundred and eighty six naira, fifty kobo). With this landmark disclosure by the former CBN governor, the public came to know about such a colossal case of corruption, but Sanusi was eventually suspended unconstitutionally (Sule, 2014). The suspension is now a history, but nobody sought to protect Sanusi or to ensure his reinstatement in office.

Further, close monitors and followers of events within the Nigerian public sector would not easily forget the case involving an employee of Police Service

Commission, Mr. Aaron Akase, who raised a concern regarding potential fraud within the commission by its management. Despite holding serious allegations of fraudulent dealings against the management of the commission, Mr. Akase, the whistle-blower, was not just disgraced but was also suspended from work indefinitely without salaries. More than that, his life and those of his family members were daily threatened (Daily Post Nigeria, 2016). Similarly, “a foremost causality is the suspension of former House of Representatives Appropriations Committee Chairman who made shocking revelations on budget padding in the lower National legislative chambers” (Nigerian Tribune, 2017, para. 1). Furthermore, Nigeria witnessed the massive media uproar that followed the leaking of the scam related to the procurement of the two armoured security vehicles by the Nigerian Civil Aviation Authority (NCAA) on behalf of the Ministry of Aviation by an employee of the agency. However, apart from the fact that only insignificant attention was given to the informant who exposed the fraud and made it become known, it was also demoralising that the media spread his name instead of maintaining or safeguarding the whistle-blower’s anonymity (Agbakoba-Onyejiana, 2013).

It is objectionable that all these are happening in Nigeria when a country like the United States of America, in order to strengthen the fight against corruption, has launched and started implementing a whistle-blower award scheme aimed at incentivising whistle-blowers without publicising their names. Factually, on October 1, 2013, the US Security and Exchange Commission (SEC) rewarded an undisclosed informant with the colossal sum of \$1m for furnishing the authorities with information that snowballed into fruitful enforcement operations and recovering of huge investor monies. Through this incentivisation programme, the US is simply setting a new standard for the rest of the world regarding the need to maximise the usefulness of the whistle blowing mechanism by guaranteeing adequate protection for and encouraging more people to play “whistle-blowers” through financial rewards (Agbakoba-Onyejiana, 2013). These few cases accurately depict the ugly face of the whistle blowing culture, and the accurate picture of the whistle blowing environment in Nigeria. At a time like this, when the international community has recognised whistle blowing as an indispensable tool in the global effort to exterminate the scourge of corruption and to curb its overwhelming effects on the realisation of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), whistle-blowers in Nigerian private and public sectors have forcibly virtually gone silent. This is resultant from the shabby ways informants, who for the good of the society, reveal unethical practices, are being treated.

Implications of the Distasteful State of Affairs for Anticorruption Campaign in Nigeria

The consequences of the unwarranted abuses and maltreatment of whistle-blowers for the war against corruption in Nigeria are huge and not far-fetched. Apparently, with the continuity in the trend of tribulations borne by

most Nigerian employees for exposing corrupt and potentially harmful practices at their work places, the following have been quite noticeable about Nigeria:

Absence of Comprehensive Whistle-blowers' Protection Law

The demonstrable ugly fate suffered by whistle-blowers in Nigeria undeniably sends a strong signal within and outside the country about the share absence or lack of a comprehensive and effective legislation enacted by the National Assembly of the country for ensuring the protection of patriots who act in public spirit to expose unethical misconducts at workplaces. This can be taken to mean that the Africa's largest nation, Nigeria is merely paying lip service concerning her signatory and ratification of many of the international conventions and instruments in the field of anti-corruption. These include but are not limited to the United Nations Convention against Corruption (UNCAC), which the country ratified on 14 December 2004 and the African Union Convention on Prevention and Combating Corruption (AUCPCC). Article 33 of the UNCAC encourages countries signatory to it to incorporate provisions for protection of whistle-blowers and their families from any unwarranted treatment, in their domestic legislations. Similarly, in view of the Article 5(5) of the AUCPCC, State parties undertake to adopt legislative and other measures to protect informants and witnesses, as well as their identities in corruption and related offences. However, up to the present time, Nigeria is still struggling with the problem of promulgating a known whistle-blower protection law (Thomson Okpoko & Partners, 2017). By implication, Nigeria seems to be reluctant in embracing holistically, globally accepted international best practices and legal instruments for fighting corruption and illegal practices. Yet, the Federal Government of Nigeria hopes to win the war against corruption in the country.

Discouragement to Whistle-blowers

Given the absence of an effective and known whistle-blower protection legislation, coupled with the already "hostile" whistle blowing atmosphere in Nigeria, employees in both private and public sectors are undisputedly discouraged from coming forward to report genuine instances of corruption and unethical misconducts in their organisations. This situation, by extension, undermines the expected role of the citizens in the on-going anti-graft campaigns being conducted by successive administrations in the country.

Loss of Confidence in Governments' Ability to Protect

With the level of insecurity and threats to life, as well as the incessant loss of means of livelihood by sincere whistle-blowers, who regard it a voluntary civil obligation to expose corrupt acts in the interest of the public, it becomes clear that Nigerian Government currently lacks the capacity to protect citizens, who risk their lives for the good of the country. This unpleasant development has in-turn resulted in a gross loss of confidence and faith in

government among the citizens and this further strains the relationship between the government and the citizenry.

Lack of Political Will to Combat Corruption

Although, Nigeria, especially under the present Buhari administration, seems to be working assiduously to win the fight against corruption, not having a functional whistle-blower' protection law shows a lack of sincerity and genuine will to address the issue of corruption head-on. Whistle blowing, in recent times, has become an integral part of the anti-corruption frameworks in most countries. This is due to the realisation that the masses of the citizenry have an important role to play in combating the menace of corruption. Therefore, not considering the protection of whistle-blowers a critical factor in winning the anti-graft war in Nigeria shows a lack of seriousness on the part of the government and this could make the situation worse off.

Nigerian Government's Indifference to Good Governance Values

The campaign against corruption is directly located at the heart of the popular "good governance for development strategy" popularly advocated by the international community. Without a model law to regulate whistle blowing activities and associated issues, it can be rightly affirmed that Nigeria is yet to show any serious signs of preparedness to allow the culture of good governance to take root within the polity. In the end, the ordinary citizens alone are left to bear the brunt of bad and irresponsible governance.

Measures for Addressing the Situation

In a bid to address the prevailing circumstance and enhance the potentials of whistle blowing mechanism as a vital anti-corruption tool and to motivate Nigerian employees to perform their expected role in the society, in line with the argument of the functionalist tradition within the role theory, the paper recommends the following measures:

The Nigerian Federal Government, should, first and foremost, enact the proposed Whistle-blower Protection Bill that has been on the floor of the Senate for many years now so as to evolve a legal structure for ensuring adequate protection of informants from possible retaliation and victimisation at work places. This would serve as a good foundation upon which any functional whistle blowing framework in the country will stand. The pieces of provisions, as found variously in the Sections 28 and 64 of the ICPC Act, 2000; Section 39(1) of the EFCC Act, 2004; Section 27(2) of Freedom of Information (FOI) Act, 2011, among others, on whistle-blowers protection are not sufficient to guarantee informants the needed protection. There is, therefore, the need for a dedicated and comprehensive legislation to properly protect whistle-blowers. This would boost the confidence and courage of employees to raise alarm whenever the need genuinely arises to disclose unethical acts in public interest.

South Africa, Ghana, and Jamaica have laws similar to that of the United Kingdom; that is, the UK's interest Protection Act of 1998. Nigeria could develop her whistle-blower protection legislation along the UK model. With the right legal framework in place, whistle blowing would sooner become a valuable tool for promoting government's anticorruption drive and, by extension, stimulate good governance in Nigeria.

The enacted legislation should be robustly enriched with special and unambiguous provisions regarding the contexts, conditions, meanings, forms and acts that constitute retaliation against whistle-blowers, as well as the remedies and sanctions to be borne by culpable organisations and/or individuals. As a matter of deterrence, severe sanctions and penalties should be clearly spelled-out to be meted-out to any organisations or their officials, as the case may be, who involved in victimisation or retaliation against any employee for exposing a wrongdoing. This, in the long-run, would help to drastically curtail the level of victimisation suffered by genuine informants, who take risk to protect the country from possible dangers or loss of assets.

In a developing country such as Nigeria, where the culture of respect for the rule of law has not yet been firmly entrenched, depending solely on the law to provide security for whistle-blowers would unarguably not be adequate. As such, Nigerian Government should also cultivate the practice of deploying the security apparatuses to ensure the protection of informants from possible physical dangers, such as attacks on their lives and family members as well as property. Such a practice, if adopted, would help to build higher-level trust and confident in government's ability to protect whistle-blowers and that would further encourage patriotic individuals to be eager to raise alarm against fraudulent activities done in their organisations.

The risk undertaken by informants in Nigeria undoubtedly far exceeds the usual 5% financial reward accruable to them under the existing Federal Government whistle blowing programme. Without going too far, one of Nigeria's closest neighbouring countries, Ghana, offers as much as 10 percent to any whistle-blower who discloses any information that eventually leads to the recovery of looted assets. Nigeria should take a cue from Ghana in this regard as that would go a long way to motivate employees not to hesitate to report possible acts of corruption by their organisations, especially with the understanding that that might lead to positive changes in their economic status. Moreover, as noted in the main body of the study, the US, for example, has set the precedent in terms of instituting a whistle-blower award scheme, in a bid to ensure that employees are motivated to come forward and report corrupt practices in their organisations. Nigeria could equally copy the US practice as that would go a long way in motivating the citizens to complement government effort in the campaign against corruption.

The two major Nigerian anti-graft agencies, the EFCC and ICPC, jointly with the Federal Ministry of Finance (FMF), which currently houses the existing Nigerian Federal Government's whistle-blowing policy, have important

roles to play. There is the need for a stronger and closer synergy between the three institutions and relevant CSOs. There is apparently somewhat a lack of adequate awareness among Nigerians concerning whistle blowing and its related matters. Many Nigerians do not know the available government policies, legal structures, procedures and the appropriate channels to report corruption cases, as well as how to make the disclosure in safe manners, in such a way that their identities are not disclosed. As a matter of fact, many are not even aware of the financial reward accruable to them should they disclose any information that successfully leads to the recovery of any stolen government assets, which is supposed to be a source of motivation. Against this backdrop, the EFCC, ICPC, FMF need to work more closely with concerned CSOs to promote the whistleblowing culture among Nigerians, by sensitising and enlightening the masses on the subject matter, especially as regards the existing Federal Government whistle blowing policy, since Nigeria is yet to promulgate a comprehensive whistle-blower protection law. If undertaken, the awareness raising exercise would help to equip and reposition Nigerian workers psychologically and otherwise to speak-out in case of any observed corrupt practices in their organisations. With well-articulated advocacy and awareness programmes, whistle blowing can serve as an important instrument for mobilising citizens' support for the government's anti-graft efforts in Nigeria.

Notwithstanding the existence of the EFCC and the ICPC as Nigeria's major anti-corruption agencies, the establishment of a Federal Bureau of Whistleblowing is of utmost important. This is in view of the wave of monumental corruption sweeping across all spheres of Nigeria's national life under the subsisting Fourth Republic and the Buhari administration's acclaimed determination to rid the country of the twin evils of corruption and bad governance. The Bureau of Whistleblowing, if established, should be responsible for co-ordinating all Federal Government's whistleblowing programmes as well as the handling all cases related to whistleblowing and associated matters in Nigeria. If implemented, this measure would be a watershed development in the history of whistle blowing practice in Nigeria.

Conclusion

Whistleblowing has, no doubt, made tremendous impact on the efforts at combating corruption and unethical behaviours in most societies in the world. Hence, it has become widely known as an important part of any well-articulated, functional and result driven anti-corruption framework. This is to the extent that many extant international anticorruption conventions, treaties and legal instruments. For example, the UNCAC and AUCPCC consist of provisions on whistle blowing as evident in the main body of the study. Whistle blowing has thus come to be recognised by all modern societies as a very useful tool owing to its intrinsic role and values. Based on its configuration as an anti-corruption tool, the whistleblowing practice is useful for protecting the public interest and saving the society from dangers and losses. It also serves as a means of

incentivising citizens who perform their expected role in society, in accordance with the role theory adopted in this study. Despite these facts, evidences, however, show that while whistleblowing does a lot of good to society, the practice is not without a huge cost, mainly on the part of the informants.

Across all societies, workers who consider it important to discharge their supposed duty as faithful community members suffer great misfortune for disclosing corrupt acts in their organisations. These include but are not limited to victimisation, retaliation, recrimination by co-workers, witch-hunting, denials of work benefits, suspension from duty as well as absolute dismissal. The Nigerian experiences reviewed in this study clearly lend support to this fact. Essentially, the harrowing experiences that whistle blowers are subjected to leaving much negative impact on the war against corruption in all societies. In Nigeria, particularly, the unwanted trend holds some grievous consequences as identified in the study, including a manifestation of the absence of virile and comprehensive whistle-blowers' protection law, discouragement of act of disclosure of wrongdoing by workers, loss of confidence and faith in Nigerian governments' ability to protect its faithful citizens, a display of lack of political will on the part of government to combat corruption and a manifestation of government's indifference to good governance. Despite the present circumstance, however, this study is optimistic that the adoption and proper implementation of the measures recommended in this paper would remedy the situation and bring about significant improvement in the usefulness of the whistle blowing mechanism in Nigeria's anti-corruption effort.

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Strategic Planning: A Management Tool for Achieving Corporate Goals of Higher Education Institutions (HEIS) in Nigeria

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Abstract

The paper examines the need to establish an effective strategic planning model by higher education institutions in Nigeria so as to facilitate the accomplishment of their mission and vision statements, strategic objectives and ultimately, their corporate goals. It emphasises that strategic planning model is a core area in strategic management, as it provides the framework for decision-making and creates unity of purpose among faculty members. Some conceptual definitions of strategic planning, strategic management, corporate goals/objectives, corporate planning, strategic decisions, policy decisions and tactical decisions are provided in the paper, while the benefits of strategic planning in higher education institutions are highlighted. The processes and steps involved in strategic planning are discussed using some models. The paper further establishes the relationship between strategic planning and corporate goal of a university through a university corporate attainment goal model (UCGAM). The paper also examines the tasks of top management in strategic planning in educational institutions. It finally recommends the need for educational institutions to establish strategic planning unit to monitor their programmes and to periodically review and evaluate planned university programmes to facilitate the achievement of their corporate goals.

Key words: higher education, strategic planning, strategic management model, corporate goals, programme management, mission statement, top management structure.

Introduction

Modern organisations are becoming more and more complex and volatile. This includes, education industry, which is predominantly labour intensive. Of course, all social or human organisations must have a vision, which should be transformed into a definite mission, usually expressed in the mission statement of such organisations. For this and many other reasons, devising or establishing an effective strategic planning and strategic management model has become very imperative to be incorporated into the organisation's activities and programmes if such organisation is expected to stand the test of time and overcome its weaknesses and threats.

In the past, the producers or sellers of goods predominantly determined

the market force for public goods such as education, when buyers had little or no choice (Adepoju and Okunola, 2011). The recent radical technological revolution that envelopes the whole world has made it so imperative for organisations to see the need for establishing effective strategic planning so as not to cut behind the scene. Higher education institutions in Nigeria are not exempted from doing so to be able to compete favourably with others, all of the World.

The import here is that contemporary organisations such as educational institutions are guided by sets of coherent strategic framework as a means of executing, even, the smallest details of their missions in a coordinated form. Indeed, for strategic decisions to be made, all activities and programmes must have been thoroughly examined, defined and analysed. The process of doing all these is known as strategic planning, which is a backbone support to strategic management.

Definition of Basic Concepts

Strategy

Strategy, according to Mintzberg and Quinn (1996), has many definitions, but generally, it involves setting strategic goals, determining actions to achieve the goals and mobilising resources to execute the actions. A strategy describes how the ends (goals) will be achieved by the means (resources). The senior leadership of an organisation is generally tasked with determining strategy. Strategy can be planned (intended) or can be observed as a pattern of activity (emergent) as the organisation adapts to its environment or competes (Max, 2012). Strategy includes processes of formulation and implementation; strategic planning helps to coordinate both. However, strategic planning is analytical in nature (i.e. it involves "finding the dots"); strategy formation itself involves synthesis (i.e. "connecting the dots") via strategic thinking. As such, strategic planning occurs around the strategy formation activity (Max, 2012).

Strategic Planning

In the words of Thompson and Strickland (1990), strategic plan is a statement outlining an organisation's mission and future direction, small-term, middle-term and long-term performance targets and strategy in the light of organisation's external and internal situations. Kudla (1980), as cited by Ogbojafor (2000), defined strategic planning as the systematic process of determining the firm's goals and objectives for at least three years into the future and developing the strategies that will govern the acquisition and use of resources to achieve these objectives. Strategic planning can also be described as the backbone support to strategic management (Adepoju and Subair, 2015; Fadipe and Fadipe, 2010). Babalola (1999) defines strategic planning as a process of formulating a strategy for implementing a policy decision. The process of strategic planning is that through an examination of external and internal factors for an organisation, a set of mission, purpose, objectives,

policies, plans and programmes for implementation are achieved. Two types of plans evolved in strategic planning; these are operating and strategic plans. The different units in an organisation implement the former, while the latter are implemented through projects (Ogbojafor, 2000). By implications, strategic planning

- i. is a process;
- ii. is not an attempt to replace managerial intuition, judgment and function; and
- iii. is not an extrapolation of current budgets.

Strategic planning is an organisation's process of defining its strategy, or direction and making decisions on allocating its resources to pursue this strategy. It may also extend to control mechanisms for guiding the implementation of the strategy. Strategic planning became prominent in corporations during the 1960s and remains an important aspect of strategic management (Michael, 2018). It is executed by strategic planners or strategists, who involve many parties and research sources in their analysis of the organisation and its relationship to the environment in which it competes (Mintzberg & Quinn, 1996). As Ingram (2015) would put it, typical strategic planning efforts include the evaluation of the organisation's mission and strategic issues to strengthen current practices and determine the need for new programming.

Strategic Management

This concept, according to Hofer and Schendel (1986), is referred to as a process that deals with the entrepreneurial work of the organisation, with organisational renewal and growth and, more particularly, with developing and utilising the strategy, which is to guide the organisation's operations. Strategic management is a set of decisions and actions resulting in formation and implementation of strategies designed to achieve the objectives of an organisation. Strategic management can also be described as the process of managing the pursuit of the organisation's mission, while managing the relation of the organisation to its environment, especially, with respect to its major constituents in its internal and external environments affected by its actions. Organisations that are most effective in aligning their ongoing actions with their strategic plans are those that actively engage in strategic management. Strategic management establishes a set of ongoing practices to ensure that the organisation's processes and allotment of resources support the vision established in the strategic plan. In the simplest terms, strategic management is the implementation of the strategy; as such, strategic management is also sometimes referred to as strategy execution (Ingram, 2015).

From the above definitions, strategic management determines to a very large extent, the strategic plans of the organisation. In other words, strategic

planning is a backbone support to strategic management, since the latter provides guidance, direction and boundaries for operational management.

Corporate Goals/Objectives

Corporate Goals are targets set by an organisation as specific, quantifiable outcomes that it commits to attain in order to achieve its corporate mission and objectives. Essentially, when an organisation sets its specific goals, it is saying; "We need to achieve these specific targets in order to successfully achieve the mission and objectives of this organisation". In fact, goals are the translation of the mission and objectives of the organisation into specific quantifiable terms against which results can be measured (Spaniol & Rowland, 2018). Corporate goals are, otherwise, referred to as the organisational goals. These, according to Adepoju (2017), are said to be the mission and predetermined long-term goals of the organisation. They refer to future targets of the organisation. Every organisation must set its goal before it commences operation. In other words, goal setting is an essential aspect of the organisational life and existence, which gives its direction for a specific time (Adepoju, 2017).

According to Akinwale (1999), as cited by Adepoju (2017), the idea of organisational goal is a scheme which stipulates not only the purpose and mission of the organisation but also the general expectations required of workers by management. If the general expectations required and purpose, objectives or mission are to be accomplished, however, there must be the wherewithal such as the human, material and financial resources. Essentially, corporate goals are the goals of the organisation as a whole. The difference between goals and objectives is that goals are future and long-term expectations of the organisation in nature, while objectives are immediate expectations in nature.

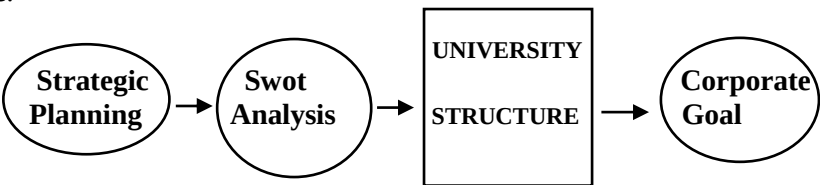


Fig. I: Corporate Goal Attainment Process Model (Source: Adepoju, T. L. (2021))

The model in Figure I shows that effective strategic planning process and application of SWOT analysis into the University structure is imperative if the desired corporate goal is to be achieved.

Factors that Influence Setting Goals for Institution/Organisation

The most important thing to remember when setting a goal for an organisation is to have a clear idea of where the owner of the organisation wants it to be in the next couple of years. Once the destination is in mind, then, a path has been created for the institution/organisation in form of

goals (Spaniol & Rowland, 2018).

Setting goals is just the first step to define an institution/organisation's performance. This is because, goals are useless without proper execution. By breaking these objectives down to measurable goals and learning to react flexibly to the inevitable shortcomings, the institution/organisation is sure to turn corporate goals into reality in no time. Let us examine how this is done using the case of the Obafemi Awolowo University's vision, mission and strategic objectives.

Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Mission, Vision and Strategic Objectives

Mission

To nurture a teaching and learning community; advance frontiers of knowledge; engender a sense of selfless public service; and add value to African culture.

Vision

A top-rated university in Africa.

Strategic Objectives

1. To produce graduate of international standard, with appropriate knowledge and skills in their field of study, who will be highly employable and able to employ themselves.
2. To provide high quality research and development activities that will promote the development of the nation and enhance the image of the university and the researchers.
3. To harness modern technology especially ICT and modern social, economic and financial strategies to run a cost of efficient and effective academic programme and institutional management.
4. To provide services that has relevance to and impact on the local community and the nation.
5. To provide conditions of study, work and living in the university Community that is of appropriate standard.
6. To expand access to tertiary education in the face of unmet demand.
7. To operate as an equal opportunity educational institution, sensitive to the principle of gender equity and non-discriminatory on the basis of race, ethnicity, religion or physical disability

The process of goal-setting must be of top priority for an institution/organisation to suitably obtain its corporate objectives (see the case of the Obafemi Awolowo University's strategic planning objectives cited). However, this can also be quite crucial to organisation's status and operations. If a goal fails to uphold the mission and vision of an institution,

then, the institution could risk wasting its time and resources on nothing. With that being said, here are some factors to consider when setting institution's corporate goals.

How to Set the Right Goals for an Institution/Organisation

It is one thing to have goals in mind to achieve, it is another thing to set the right goals. The following factors should be considered on how to set the right goals for an institution /organisation.

1. Study Competing Institutions/Organisation

For the institution to earn an edge over other competitors, the management need to learn about what they are doing in those institutions; first, whether these have generated successful or failed results. By doing so, it would be easier to pinpoint what you could be doing wrongly, along with the things you could do to make it right. Having studied the environment where the institution operates vis-à-vis other competitors then the right goals would be set.

2. Choose Measurable and Achievable Goals

Goals spur one to aim high. However, the management of an institution should be pragmatic with what the institution needs or wants to accomplish. It should be noted and be kept in mind that some goals are not measurable or almost impossible to achieve within a given time period, so the management needs to make careful considerations. It needs to be stressed again that the resources at the disposal of the institution should be considered before setting corporate goals because this may necessarily influence the outcomes. It is better to set goals that are commensurate with the available resources

3. Use Inputs of the Units

As the administrator or manager of the institution, it is important to set institution-level goals that are important to the efficiency and effectiveness of the different faculties and departments of the institution. In most cases, using a SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats) analysis would be the best option.

4. Breaking the Goals Down into Small Terms

One of the best ways to set achievable goals is to break down a long-term goal into multiple short-term goals for the institution to fulfil within a given time period. Setting an annual goal allows the management to analyse shortcomings accordingly, to make better decisions in the near future. In addition to that, this enables the institution to define its objectives and carry out tasks efficiently and effectively.

5. Make the Goals Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic and Time-bound (SMART)

This is what is referred to as SMART. The SMART goals are essential for the institution to prosper. Goals that follow these criteria are a lot easier to attain because of how it ensures clarity and productivity. This way, the institution can track the progress of the team in completing corporate goals/objectives.

6. Distribute Tasks to different Faculties/Departments

No doubt, each faculty/department plays a unique role in higher education institution. They are all assigned to carry out specific tasks that may affect the operations of another faculty and department. Thus, it is safe to say that each faculty/department must possess its own set of team goals as well. This is essential in strengthening the work relationship of faculty staff to perform their designated responsibilities efficiently.

Corporate Planning

Corporate planning is a term used to denote a formal, comprehensive, and systematic appraisal of environmental (external and internal) factors in order to evolve strategies to achieve organisational objectives. It should be formal as it requires formulation of plans, strategies and policies on the basis of documents and figures (Ogbojafor, 2000). Of importance to note is that corporate planning is a systematic approach to clarifying corporate objectives, making decision and checking progress towards the objectives.

Strategic Decision, Policy Decisions and Tactical Decisions

Strategy is a proposed action or sequence of actions intended to have a far-reaching effect on the organisation's ability to achieve its objectives. Strategies, according to Babalola (1999), are often confused with policy and with tactics. Policy decisions are wider than strategic decisions, which, in turn, are wider than tactical decisions. Policy decisions often remain valid for a decade or more. Strategic decisions may remain valid for a period of several months to several years. Tactical decisions are usually referred to in a period of less than one year. While policy decisions can include the setting of overall organisation's objectives and constraints, as well as the means, strategic decisions usually refer to the means (Babalola, 1999). The survey and review made in respects of the opinions of some experts in this section are very relevant to the study of strategic planning and its implications for the achievement of corporate goals of higher education institutions in Nigeria. Apart from this, the review also provides the basis for the submissions of the author in the paper.

Types of Plans

In the context of this paper, two types of plans would be considered. These include strategic plans and operational plans. In every organisation

including the school system, two basic types of plans are often employed. These are strategic plans and operational plans. Strategic plans are established by middle and top managers to reach the organisation's broad goals. Operational plans, in contrast, show the strategic plans implementation of the day-to-day activities. It is the function of middle and lower managers. Tactical plan is an operational plan. It presupposes a set of objectives handed down by top management that determines ways of goals attainment.

Evidence of Strategic Planning Potency in Improving Organisation's Performance

While much criticism surrounds strategic planning, George, Walker & Monster's (2019) study affirms that evidence suggests that it does work. In a recent meta-analysis including data from almost 9,000 public and private organisations, strategic planning is found to have a positive impact on organisational performance. Strategic planning is particularly potent in enhancing an organisation's capacity to achieve its goals (i.e. effectiveness). However, the study argues that just having a plan is not enough. For strategic planning to work, it needs to include some formality (i.e. including an analysis of the internal and external environment and the stipulation of strategies, goals and plans based on these analyses), comprehensiveness (i.e. producing many strategic options before selecting the course to follow) and careful stakeholder management (i.e. thinking carefully about whom to involve during the different steps of the strategic planning process, how, when and why) (George, Walker & Monster, 2019). According to George, Walker & Monster (2019), strategic planning is beneficiary to the successful operation of an organisation. The trio emphasised that the primary benefits derived from strategic planning are the following:

1. Helps formulate better strategies using a logical, systematic approach;
2. Enhanced communication between employers and employees; and
3. Empowers individuals working in the organisation

Benefits of Strategic Planning in Higher Education Institution

The importance or benefits of establishing formal strategic planning and strategic management in higher educational institution can be summarised thus:

- i. It increases the productivity of teachers.
- ii. It assists the school system to initiate ideas that could be of benefits to the environment.
- iii. It provides the framework for decision making.
- iv. It reduces the incidences of conflicts within the school system since objectivity is usually embraced rather than subjectivity.
- v. It provides the framework against which the process of control is based.
- vi. It provides an objective basis for resource allocation in the institution.

- vii. It creates unity of purpose among education members;
- viii. It helps the education system to be inward looking and appropriately utilise the environment opportunities in order to minimise possible threats.
- ix. It decreases risk in decision-making since it involves systematic process.
- x. It brings about synergy and cooperation among the education managers/ administrators and teachers most especially, when the approach is used for making decisions.
- xi. It always helps the education system to compete with others and, by so doing, stands the test of time.
- xii. It brings about order, discipline and control in the school.
- xiii. It assists organisations in coping with environmental dynamics.
- xiv. It helps the school system to be conscious of all possible environmental threats.
- xv. It helps to clarify the relationship between performance and reward in the school.
- xvi. It reduces the incidence of resistance to change in the school.
- xvii. It ensures the effectiveness and realisation of the purpose of setting up the school.
- xviii. It improves the quality of decisions and management control in the school.
- xix. It allows effective coordination of school activities.

Strategic Planning Model and Institutional Corporate Goals Attainment The Meeting Point

The relationship between strategic planning and institutional corporate goals could be established and expressed functionally, using the Equation 1:

$$Icg = f \quad (Spm) \quad \dots\dots\dots 1$$

Where:

- Icg = Institutional corporate goals
- Spm = Strategic planning model
- f = functional notation

From the equation, it can be argued that the attainment of the corporate goals of an educational institution is a function of effective strategic planning model by the institutions in question. Also, from the equation, while ‘Spm’ is independent variable, ‘Icg’ is a dependent variable. This expression can also be presented in a linear curve thus:

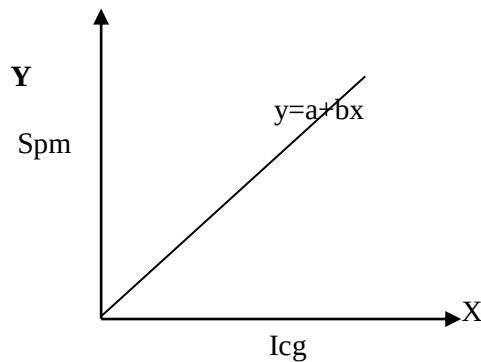


Figure II: Effective Strategic Planning Model and Institutional Corporate Goals – **Source:** Adapted from Adepoju, T. L. & Subair, T. (2015).

Figure II shows that a linear correlation exists between effective strategic planning model and institution's corporate goals. In other words, the simple linear equation ($y = a+bx$) and curvilinear regression have shown that the more an effective strategic planning model is put in place by an educational institution, the more the attainment of institutional corporate goals.

Figure III below shows the chain of attaining the corporate goal of a university. Starting from the functions and activities of a modern university. The model also outlines the activities that are involved in strategic planning as well as SWOT analysis. When the university is efficient, it would achieve its vision and mission which would later translate into corporate goal (World Class) attainment. The model has established it that strategic planning and SWOT analysis are imperative in the process of goal attainment.

Processes involved in putting up Strategic Planning Structure in Educational Institutions

In order to put up effective strategic planning structure by the management of an educational institution, some processes are to be considered as essential. These according to Hofer and Schendel (1986) include the following nine steps:

- (i) Goal formulation,
- (ii) Identification of current objectives and strategy,
- (iii) Environmental or situational analysis,
- (iv) Analysis or consideration of resources,
- (v) Strategic opportunities and threats identification,
- (vi) The extent of required strategic change determination,
- (vii) Strategic decision making,
- (viii) Plan implementation, and
- (ix) Measurement and control.

Each of these steps requires systematic review of strategies by experts.

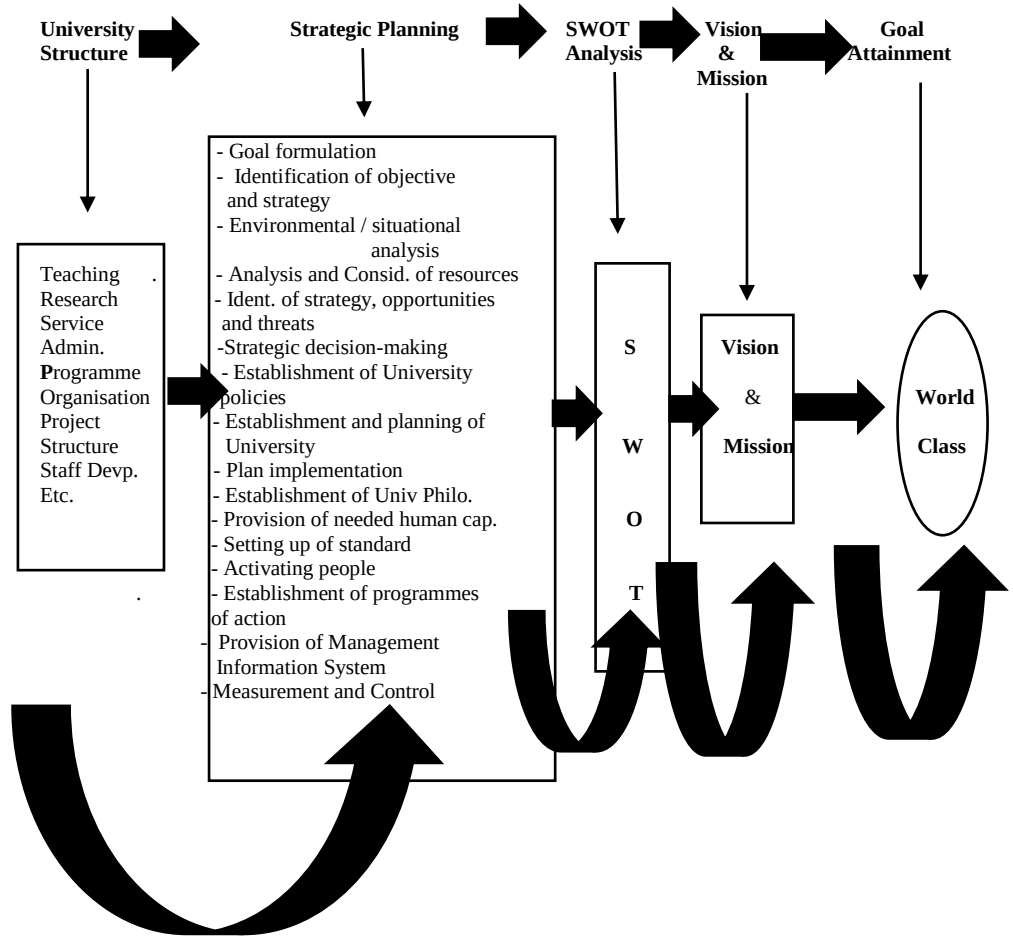


Figure III: University Corporate Goal Attainment Model (UCGAM)

These strategic planning steps can be summarised in a schematic diagram as shown in Figure IV.

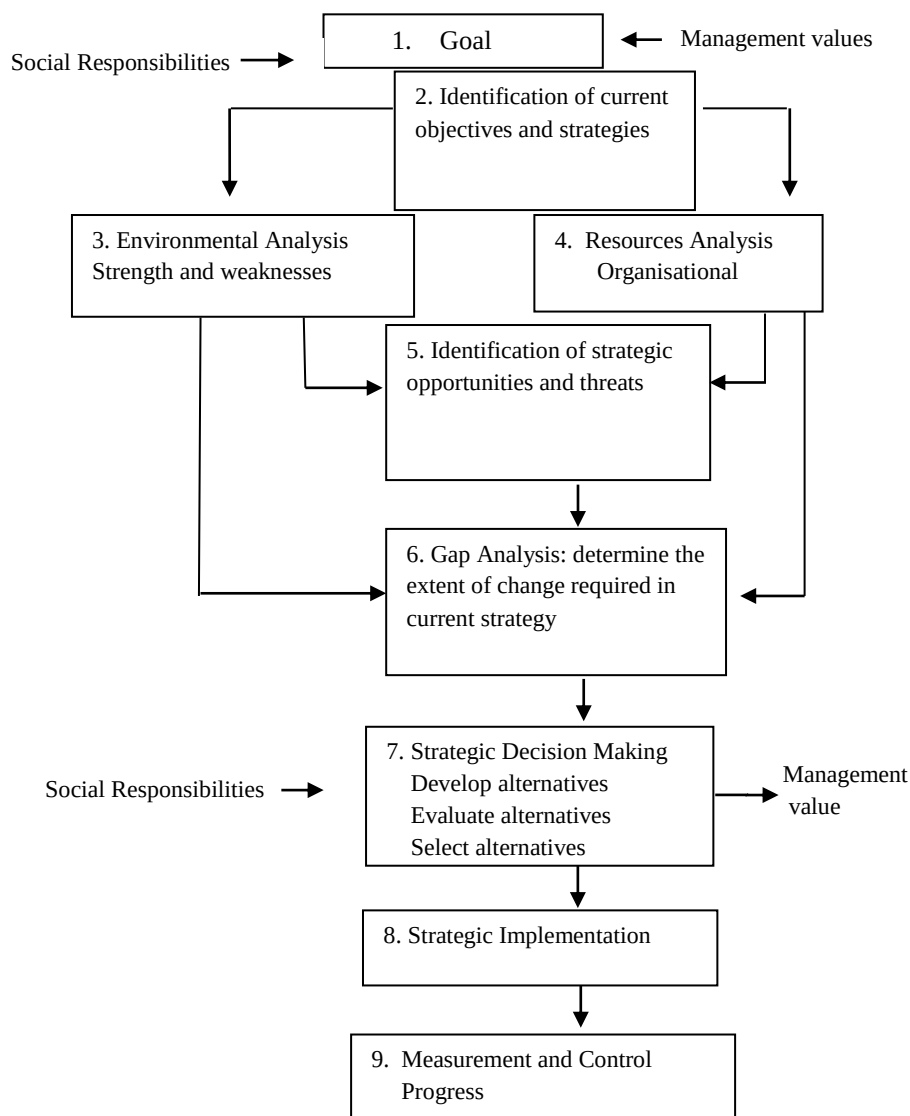


Figure IV: Strategic Planning Process

Source: James, A. F. Stoner and R. Edward Freeman (1992). *Management* adapted from *Strategy formulation* by Charles W. Hofer and Dan E. Schendel (1986).

For the purpose of this discourse, four strategic steps would be examined. These include i. Strategy formulation, ii. Strategy implementation, iii. Strategy evaluation and iv. Strategy feedback.

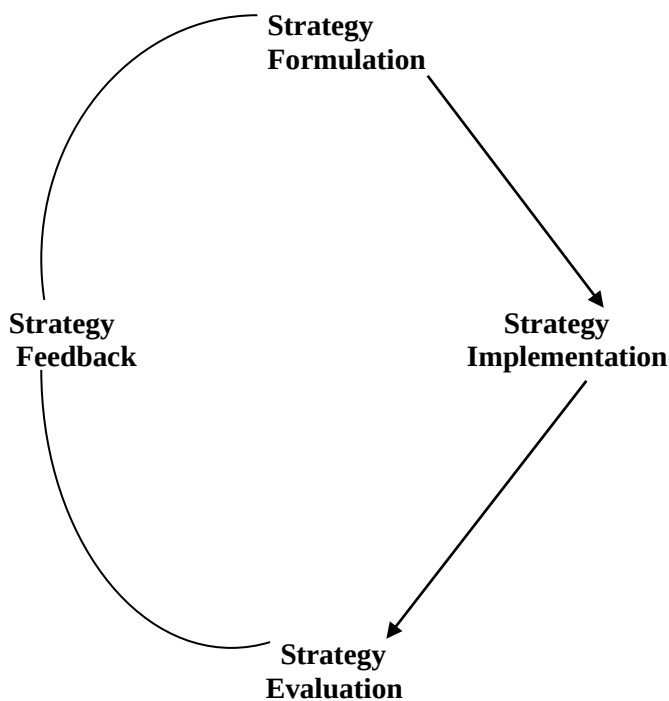


Fig. V: Strategic Management/Planning Processes

Strategic planning process may also take this form, according to Erica (2012):



Figure VI: Strategic Planning Process

Source: Erica, O. (2012) *Strategic planning kit for dummies*, 2nd Edition. John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Strategy Formulation

In the process of formulating a strategy, the institution will first assess its current situation by performing an internal external audit. The purpose of this

is to help identify the organisation's strengths and weaknesses, as well as opportunities and threats (SWOT Analysis). This is an important process in which the purposes and mission of the institution are established. Of course, the need to determine the internal strengths and weaknesses as well as the external opportunities and threats is highly embraced here. In other words, a situational analysis or SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats) analysis is expected to be carried out at this stage. Strategy formulation also calls for goal/objective setting and decision-making that could have far reaching effects on the future programmes of the entire educational institution, faculties or departments.

Let us examine the Composite Operational Matrix and SWOT analysis as presented in Tables 1 and 2 overleaf. The Composite Operational Matrix and SWOT analysis are prepared for five academic sessions (2020/2021 through 2024/2025).

Tables 1 and 2 present composite operation matrixes of strategic planning and SWOT analysis of university programmes and projects for 5 academic sessions/years. This becomes necessary in order to achieve the expected mandate of the university as well as its corporate goals. In the Tables, 7 specific programmes/projects are identified (Adepoju, 2021).

Strategy Implementation

Having established a framework for strategy formulation, carried out composite operational matrix, established the SWOT analysis and made decisions in respect of the goals/objectives or mission of the institution, there is the need to mobilise all the resources at the disposal of the institution (human, material, finance, and so on) to transform the plans, ideas and strategies earlier formulated into appropriate and useful action. Strategy implementation requires that resources available are appropriately allocated based on priorities. Effective strategy implementation involves developing a solid structure or framework for implementing the strategy, maximising the utilisation of relevant resources and redirecting marketing efforts in line with the strategy's goals and objectives; reviewing the internal and external factors affecting the implementation of the strategy; measuring performance; and taking corrective steps to make the strategy more effective. For example, after implementing a strategy to improve the institution's performance, the institution may discover that it needs to adopt a new strategy for teaching, such as team teaching, in order to attain the desired improvement in the core mandate of the institution.

Table 1: Composite Operational Matrix Strategic Planning for 5 Academic Sessions/Years (2020/2021- 2024/2025)

Year	Main Plan	Main Objectives	Activities/Strategies	Time-frame	Who to Monitor	Expected Outcome
2020/2021	1. Teaching and Research	To help in the realisation of the mandate of the University To contribute to the existing body of knowledge	> Regular attendance at classes by lecturers > Lectures, tutorials, practical experiences, industrial training and teaching practice > carrying out researches by lecturers in their areas of specialisation.	> Semester by Semester. Continuous exercise (Teaching) > Continuous Exercise (Research)	> Heads of various Departments (Teaching) > Committee set up to monitor research activities in the universities (Research)	> Ensuring discipline among staff and students > production of qualified graduates > Accomplishment of teaching assignment by lecturers > discovery of new things and ideas (research) > Contribution to knowledge.
	2. Seminars	> To encourage research activities among academic staff > To ensure that lecturers are very current and versatile in their areas of specialisation	Setting up a committee to handle the seminars	Fortnightly	The committee set up to monitor by the office of Deputy Vice-Chancellor (Academic)	> Increased teaching efficiency and effectiveness among lecturers > Creation of lecturers that are current and versatile
	3. Equipping offices of the academic staff	> To make working environment conducive > To ensure job satisfaction among academic staff > To ensure increase in job productivity	Seeking the assistance from the TETFund through the office of the VC	One academic season	Head of Department	> Provision of conducive working environment for academic staff > Increased job productivity among academic staff > Achievement of job satisfaction among academic staff
	4. Implementation of the NUC Minimum Standards	Production of higher calibre degree holders	Lectures, tutorials, practical experiences, industrial training and teaching	Semester by semester (continuous exercise)	> Taking class attendance at every lecture >	> Regular attendance of students at classes > Meeting

			practice		Supervision of students on teaching practice and Industrial training >Continuous assessment for every course > Final examination at every semester	the standards expected of graduates
	5. National Conference	To help academic staff gain more experience and present research reports on current issues in their areas of specialisation > encourage cross fertilisation of ideas by experts	Conference committee to be set up	3 months (September-November of the current academic session)	Conference committee to monitor	> Academic staff gained more experience > Professional growth and development of the academic staff would be accomplished > Cross fertilisation of ideas by experts
	6. Staff development scheme	To increase professional growth and development of academic and non-academic staff	> Seeking assistance from the University and Tetfund > Release funds to Staff to attend conferences and seminars > Allow staff for training programmes and to study and obtain certificate within and outside the country	Continuous process/ exercise Continuous process/ exercise Continuous process/ exercise	Deputy Vice-Chancellor (Academic)	> Academic and non-academic staff gained more experience > Professional growth and development of the academic and non-academic staff would be accomplished > Cross fertilisation of ideas by experts
	7. Equipping department with computers and Photocopy	> To ease the production of examinations results > To help in	Seeking the assistance from the Tetfund through the office of the VC	Within the academic session under consideration	Head of Department	> Meeting the demand of the University to produce

	machines	keeping records > To facilitate departmental work				results timely > Efficient and modern method of record keeping > Quick dispensing of departmental work
2021/2022	As applied in 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 above	As applied in 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 above	As applied in 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 above	As applied in 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 above	As applied in 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 above	As applied in 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 above
2022/2023	As above	As above	As above	As above	As above	As above
2023/2024	As above	As above	As above	As above	As above	As above
2024/2025	As above	As above	As above	As above	As above	As above

Source: Adepoju, T. L. (2021)

Table 2: Composite Operational Matrix of SWOT Analysis

	Main Plan	Strengths	Weaknesses	Opportunities	Threats
1	Teaching and Research	> Availability of competent and highly qualified academic staff (Teaching) > Readiness of academic staff to conduct cutting edged studies and discoveries (Research) > Readiness of the academic staff to contribute to the existing body of knowledge in their areas of specialisation (Research)	> Poor teaching materials teaching) > Lack of facilities to conduct researches (Research)	> Highly qualified academic staff > Well-focused academic staff	> Increase in students' Population (Teaching) > Increase in lecturers' Workload Teaching and Research)
2.	Organising Seminars	> A designated large and spacious rooms already available in the Faculty > Acceptance of the academic staff in the department to present research papers > Necessary materials available in the departments > Competent members of staff serving in the committees to handle the seminars	> Inadequate funding > Lack of facilities,	> Availability of lecturers who are current and versatile on the job > Effort is being made by the Deans Faculties to ensure that the seminar rooms are made functional and well equipped	> Period fixed for the seminar is a threat (4.00 pm in the evening) > Crowded university programmes
3.	Implementation	> Lecture rooms	> No	> Highly qualified	> Increase in

	of the NUC Minimum Standards	> Lecture Theatres > Competent and highly qualified academic staff > Staff offices > Computer systems > Typists > HOD's office	Departmental vehicle > Inadequate/zero monthly impress	academic staff > Opportunities for self-development	students' population > Clash in the lecture time-table > There is no equipment in the lecture theatre in the faculty > Crowded university programmes
4.	Equipping/ Furnishing offices of academic staff	Tetfund has shown interest in financing such project since some departments have enjoyed Tetfund supports	Inadequate funding	The University has shown interest to provide some facilities	No specific time has been indicated for the release of funds for the project by Tetfund administrator
5	Organising National Conference	There are experienced academic staff who can assist in this regard in the department	Inadequate funding	> Willingness of the academic staff to embark on the project > Tetfund can still assist in terms of funding	> Timing combines with teaching assignments > Teaching workload > Funding
6	Staff Development Scheme	University has been assisting in this regard	Inadequate funding	> University willingness and readiness to sponsor staff for postgraduate studies > Tetfund has been assisting academic staff in this regard	Members of staff to serve the university for a specific period after the completion of the programme.
7	Equipping departments with computers and Photocopy machines.	The typists in the departments are well trained to operate the computers and photocopy machines if made available	Inadequate funding	The University and Tetfund is hoping to come to the aid of the departments just as others have been provided	No fund

Source: Adepoju, T. L. (2021)

According to Adepoju (2017), strategy evaluation involves:

- i. juxtaposition of both plan and implementation;
- ii. observing whether there is any variation or not; and
- iii. taking corrective actions.

All these three steps in strategic planning occur within three hierarchical levels: upper management, middle management and operational levels. Thus, it is imperative to foster communication and interaction among faculty staff and institution's administrator at all levels, so as to help the institution to operate as a more functional and effective team.

Strategy Feedback

This is the process that involves providing information relating to the original plan, idea or strategy formulated and the corrective measures taken based on the deviations observed at the strategy evaluation stage. It is worthy to note also that if deviations have not been observed, that is, if what was actually formulated is exactly what was implemented, the feedback from the evaluation stage would still be needed for strategy formulation of new ideas and policies for the institution.

Strategic Planning Model

For effective strategic planning to be achieved, the following model consisting these areas should be considered.

- i. Planning strategies,
- ii. Establishment of goals,
- iii. Establishment of school philosophy,
- iv. Establishment of school policies,
- v. Establishment and planning school structure,
- vi. Allocation of resources,
- vii. Provision of needed human capital,
- viii. Setting up of standards,
- ix. Activating people,
- x. Establishment of programmes of action,
- xi. Provision of Management Information System,
- xii. Determination of opportunities and threats,
- xiii. Determination of strengths and weaknesses, and
- xiv. Measuring performance and take corrective actions.

Tasks of Top Management in Strategic Planning in the Institution

There are some tasks areas in strategic planning. These tasks are mostly performed by top management in any organisation, be it human or otherwise. According to Drucker (1974), the tasks of top management involved are majorly four, which include the following:

- i. Thinking through the mission of the business;
- ii. Setting objectives;
- iii. Developing strategies and plans; and
- iv. Making decisions today for tomorrow's results

In the words of Douglas, Donald and Thomas (1988), as cited by Ogbojafor (2000), the tasks of top management are essentially to write a strategic plan. According to the trio, the procedure involves putting on record the

- a. Mission statement,
- b. Goals and objectives,

- c. Strategies and action plans,
- d. Monitoring action plans,
- e. Board review, and
- f. Revisions and updating.

Summary, Conclusion and Implications

Strategic planning has been established in this discourse to be an essential core area and the backbone support to strategic management. It is also an essential ingredient towards achieving the corporate goals of higher education institutions in Nigeria. Several processes are involved in strategic planning in the educational organisation. These essentially include strategy formulation, strategy implementation, strategy evaluation and strategy feedback. In order to ensure that the purpose of setting up an educational institution is accomplished, there is the need to establish an effective strategic planning model or structure.

Just like any other human and social organisations, higher education institutions require effective strategic planning structure to be put in place so as to accomplish their predetermined goals as well as having their programmes well-structured and implemented accordingly. Apart from this, strategic planning provides the framework for decision-making and creates unity of purpose among faculty members in a university system. It helps the administrator of educational institution to plan ahead all the programmes of the institution. It also assists in achieving the goals and objectives of the institution. It prevents goal conflicts among the unit heads and faculty members.

Establishing a strategic planning structure in higher education institutions has many implications for higher education institutions managers/administrators. For instance, for the accomplishment of institutions' corporate goals, the institution's top management has many roles to play in ensuring that effective strategic planning structure evolves. Managers/administrators of higher education institutions should be dynamic and pragmatic in their approaches such that the desired goals of their institutions are realised. It behoves the institutions' administrators, therefore, to create strategic planning units in their various institutions to be managed by experts. The need to monitor all planned programmes of the institutions periodically by strategic planning unit is also desirable. This would allow for periodic review and evaluation and to find out if the objectives of such programmes have been achieved or not. The feedbacks of the reviews and evaluations should be communicated directly to the top management for necessary actions.

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Volatility in Capital inflows and Exchange Rate Uncertainty in Nigeria. A Threshold GARCH Approach

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Abstract

Volatility in capital inflows creates immense challenges for monetary authority in the management of monetary aggregates and equally induced uncertainty in the foreign exchange market. The authors examined the relationship between capital inflows volatility and exchange rate uncertainty in Nigeria for the period 2008M1 to 2021M12. They employed a multivariate threshold GARCH (TGARCH) approach. The mean equation result of the study showed that a unit change in capital inflows has no significant effect on exchange rate in Nigeria. The variance equation indicated that volatility of capital inflows does not induce uncertainty in exchange rate in Nigeria and external shocks from inflation rate negatively and significantly influence exchange rate uncertainty. The study concluded that the results obtain showed that the relationship between capital inflows volatility and exchange rate uncertainty yields good news and this positive shock dies quickly. Thus, the authors recommended that the government should focus on maintaining price stability through appropriate macroeconomic (fiscal and monetary) policies rather than engaging on shooting capital inflows for exchange rate uncertainties.

Keywords: macro-economics, capital inflows; exchange rate, volatility, Threshold GARCH,

1. Introduction

Volatilities in capital inflows and exchange rate have been a cause of great concern for policymakers in emerging and developing countries in the aftermath of the Asian crisis in the 1990s and US global financial crisis in the late 2000s. Volatility in capital movement adversely affects domestic financial markets of emerging and developing economies due to underdeveloped financial instruments against hedging activities. Volatility in capital inflows also creates immense challenge for monetary authority in the management of domestic interest rates and equally induced uncertainty in the foreign exchange market (Ghosh, 2010; De-Paula, Ferrari-Filho & Gomes, 2012).

Uncertainty in exchange rate affects international trade by increasing the risks of import and export; it also induces the risk of investing in foreign assets (Chipili, 2012; Gourinchas & Rey, 2005; Craig, 1984). Uncertainty in exchange rate creates uncertainty in the level of investment by bringing about

uncertainty in the cost of research and development (Lensink & Morrissey, 2001); lowering the expected profit of firms that make investment decisions in the current period, in an attempt to realise profits in future periods (Goldberg & Kolstad, 1994); and by inducing deferment of investment decisions to entering the foreign exchange market (Campa, 1993). Large uncertainties in exchange rate lead to significant instability in the real economy, with adverse effect on unemployment rate, poverty rate and deficit balance of payment position. This ultimately culminates in a decline in economic growth, as witnessed in some Latin America countries after the Asian crisis in the 1990s (Boar, 2010). Given the associated macro-economic problems of exchange rate uncertainty and the fact that the Nigerian economy is exposed to volatility in capital inflows (as was experienced during the US global financial crisis in 2007/2008), it is important to understand the relationship between volatility in capital inflows and exchange rate uncertainty in Nigeria.

Although literature abounds on the relationship between capital inflows and exchange rate volatility, the findings of these studies have largely been inconclusive. More so, previous studies have focused on the impact of exchange rate uncertainty on either aggregate or components of net capital inflows (Grossman & Orlov, 2022; Nwosa, Ugwu & Ehinomen, 2020; Eregha, 2019; Caporale et al., 2015; Omorokunwa & Ikponmwosa, 2014; Ullah, Haider & Azim, 2012). In addition, Zainab and Azooba (2017) focused on the role of financial development in the link between exchange rate volatility and capital inflows. But with respect to the impact of capital inflows volatility on exchange rate uncertainty, to the best of our knowledge, only the study by Due and Sen (2006) exists.

Thus, none of the previous studies has attempted to examine the relationship between capital inflows volatility and exchange rate uncertainty in Nigeria, despite the much talked about upshot of the relationship between these variables on the macro-economy. Thus, the focus of this study is to answer the following research questions: (i) Does volatility in capital inflows affect exchange rate in Nigeria? (ii) Does volatility in capital inflows and uncertainty in exchange rate result in good or bad news? The answers to these questions constitute the empirical gap this study intends to fill in the literature.

It is pertinent to examine the relationship between volatility in capital inflows and exchange rate (level and volatility) to enable policymakers take proactive measures against any adverse effect of exchange rate uncertainty on the macroeconomic variables in general as was experienced in some Latin American economies. Furthermore, this study is very important at this moment, given the increased drive by the government at attracting capital inflows to circumvent her investment challenges, to reverse the nosedive trend of economic growth rate¹ and achieve economic diversification. In addition to this

¹ The Nigerian economic growth nosedived from an impressive performance of 6.2 per cent in 2014 to -1.6 per cent in 2016 and currently stands at -1.9 per cent in 2020.

introductory section, this study has five sections. Section two discusses the literature review while the research method is discussed in section three. The findings are presented and discussed in section four, while section five presents the conclusion and policy recommendations arising from the findings of the study.

2. Literature Review

With respect to theoretical literature on capital inflows, there exists the perfect and imperfect market theories. The perfect market theories of capital inflows are based on free trade theories, employing general equilibrium analysis. These theories assume among other conditions that there are no obstacles to the entry of the market by producers or to capital inflows (Wilhelms & Witter, 1998; Moeti, 2005). The imperfect theories of capital inflows noted that the key rationale for multinational firms to engage in capital inflows is the presence of imperfection in the home and foreign markets such as exchange rate volatility. Muchlinski (1995) further noted that multinational firms operate mainly within an imperfect market environment (such as oligopoly and monopoly markets) and capital inflows take place within these imperfect markets.

Vast literature has examined issues on exchange rate volatility and capital inflows nexus while others focused on capital inflows volatility and exchange rate nexus. Some of the previous studies are summarised in the literature matrix below.

Table 2: Literature Matrix on Empirical Review

Authors	Objectives	Estimation Method	Main Findings
Grossman and Orlov (2022)	Examined the effect of three dimensions of exchange rate misalignment – distant absolute misalignment, direction / overvaluation or undervaluation, and degree / small or large misalignment – on the overall as well as short cycle exchange rate volatility.	Panel random effect regression technique.	The study observed that relative purchasing power parity based exchange rate misalignment increases exchange rate volatility for developed and developing countries.

Bank for International Settlement (2021)	Examined the relationship among capital inflows, exchange rate and monetary policy framework in Latin American and other economies.	Questionnaire and Interview	The study observed that tides of global liquidity, deeper financial integration and domestic factors – growth differentials and investment opportunities – have led to larger and more volatile capital inflows that may result in large effects on exchange rates.
Nwosa, Ugwu, & Ehinomen, (2020)	Investigated the relationship between volatility in capital inflows and economic growth in Nigeria for the period 1986 to 2018.	Auto-Regressive Distributed Lag (ARDL)	The study observed that volatility in capital inflows (measured in aggregate or component) negatively affected economic growth (albeit volatility in foreign direct investment was insignificant).
Neanidis (2019)	Investigated the relationship among banking supervision, the volatility of financial flows, and economic growth for the period 1973 – 2013.	Panel System Generalised Method of Moment technique	The study observed that banking supervision promotes economic growth by dampening the negative impact of volatile capital inflows.
Timothy (2019)	Examined the nexus between exchange rate volatility and foreign capital inflows in Nigeria for the period 1990 – 2016.	Ordinary least squares and pair-wise causality techniques	The results of the study showed that foreign direct investment had negative but significant impact on exchange rate in Nigeria, while external debt and remittances were insignificant in influencing exchange rate volatility in Nigeria.
Eregha (2019)	Assessed the effect of exchange rate, its volatility and uncertainty on foreign direct investment (FDI) inflow in West African monetary zone (WAMZ) for the period 1980 – 2014.	Fixed effect panel estimation technique	The study observed that exchange-rate movements in WAMZ countries were more of unanticipated than anticipated innovations affecting foreign direct investment inflow.
Zainab and Azooba (2017).	Examined the role of financial development in the link between exchange rate volatility and capital inflows over the period 1980 – 2013.	Dynamic GMM estimation technique.	The results of the study showed that exchange rate volatility dampens both physical (foreign direct investment) and financial (remittances) inflows towards developing countries.
Caporale, Ali, & Spagnolo, (2015)	Investigated the effect of exchange rate uncertainty on different	The study employed Bivariate VAR GARCH-BEKK-in-	The results showed that exchange rate uncertainty had a negative impact on net equity flows in the Euro area, the UK and Sweden,

	components of net portfolio flows - net equity and net bond flows, as well as their dynamic linkages. The study used monthly data for 1988:01 to 2011:12	mean technique	while the impact of exchange rate uncertainty on net equity flows is positive in the case of Australia.
Omorokunwa & Ikponmwosa (2014)	Examined the impact of exchange rate volatility on foreign private investment (foreign direct investment (FDI) and foreign portfolio investment (FPI)) in Nigeria from 1980 to 2011.	The study utilised Error Correction Model (ECM) technique	The results showed that exchange rate volatility had an insignificant effect on FDI in the long and short runs.
Ullah, Haider, & Azim (2012)	Examined the relationship among foreign direct investment (FDI) with exchange rate and exchange rate volatility in Pakistan for the period 1980 to 2010.	Co-integration and causality techniques.	The study observed that foreign direct investment is positively associated with exchange rate depreciation and exchange rate volatility impairs foreign direct investment.
Rashid & Husain (2010)	Examined the effect of capital inflows on domestic price level, monetary expansion and exchange rate volatility in Pakistan using monthly data over the period 1990: 01 to 2007:12.	Linear and nonlinear co-integration and granger causality techniques	the study observed that capital inflows significantly affect inflation in Pakistan
Kyereboah-Coleman and Agyire-Tetty (2008)	Examined the effect of real exchange rate volatility on foreign direct investment (FDI) in a small and developing country such as Ghana for the period 1970 to 2002.	ARCH, GARCH and Error Correction Modelling technique	The study observed that exchange rate had negative effect on FDI in Ghana.

Due & Sen (2006)	Examined the link between capital inflows volatility and exchange rate for the period 1993Q2 to 2004Q1		The study observed uni-directional causation from each of the variables to the real exchange rate, while the generalised variance decomposition estimate showed that capital inflows and their volatility (jointly) were the most important determinants of exchange rate, followed by government expenditure, then current account surplus and lastly money supply.
Barrell, Hall & Gottschalk (2003)	Examined the effect of exchange rate volatility in Europe and United Kingdom on foreign direct investment from United States for the period 1982 to 1998.	Generalised method of moments (GMM) technique	The study observed that exchange rate volatility in Europe and United Kingdom negatively influenced foreign direct investment from United State.

From the above review of literature, it is evident that there still exists ongoing controversy on the relationship between exchange rate volatility and capital inflows, on the one hand, while, on the other hand, empirical findings on the nexus between capital inflows volatility and exchange rate remained inconclusive. Also, despite the much talked about consequence of capital inflow volatility; there has been a gross neglect by previous studies on the empirical link between volatility in capital inflows and exchange rate volatility. In addition, indigenous studies have also failed to consider whether the relationship between capital inflows volatility and uncertainty in exchange rate in Nigeria yields good news or bad news.

3. Research Method

3.1 Model Specification

In order to determine whether the relationship between volatility in capital inflows and uncertainty in exchange rate yields good or bad news, this study adapts the threshold general autoregressive conditional heteroskedasticity (TGARCH) model as formulated by Zakoian (1994) and Glosten, Jaganathan, and Runkle (1993). The mean equation for the generalised specification is as follows:

$$exr_t = \alpha + \beta cf_t + \chi Z_t + \varepsilon_t$$

1

In equation (1), α is a constant term; exr_t is the dependent variable representing the exchange rate in time t ; cf is the independent variable representing the capital inflows; Z_t are control variables representing interest rates and inflation rate respectively. ε_t is the error term which has a student t -distribution and a zero mean.

However, the generalised specification for the conditional variance is specified as follows:

$$\sigma_{exr_t}^2 = \phi + \sum_{j=1}^q \delta_j \sigma_{exr_{t-j}}^2 + \sum_{i=1}^p \theta_i \varepsilon_{cf_{t-i}}^2 + \sum_{k=1}^r \lambda_k \varepsilon_{cf_{t-k}}^2 \mathcal{G}_{t-k}$$

2

Where $\mathcal{G}_t = 1$ if $\varepsilon_t < 0$ and 0 otherwise.

Thus, good news emerges when $\varepsilon_{t-i} > 0$, and bad news occurs when $\varepsilon_{t-i} < 0$, have differential effects on the conditional variance; good news has an impact of θ_i , while bad news has an impact of $\theta_i + \lambda_i$. If $\lambda_i > 0$, bad news increases volatility and there is a leverage effect for the i -th order; if $\lambda_i \neq 0$, the news impact is asymmetric. The TGARCH variant of the GARCH volatility models is particularly essential for the analysis in this study because it is capable of capturing the potential asymmetries in exchange rate uncertainties.

This study used monthly time series data from the Central Bank of Nigeria, Statistical Bulletin² from 2008M1 to 2021M12 on exchange rates (EXR), inflation rates (INF) and interest rates (INTR). The data on capital inflows (FCIs) (proxied as foreign direct investment (FDI)) is sourced from World Bank's World Development Indicators (WDI) and accessed via <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/BX.KLT.DINV.CD.WD?locations=NG>.

The Chow and Lin (1976) method of temporal disaggregation of data from low frequency to high frequency was used to disaggregate FDI from yearly frequency to monthly frequency, to conform with the data frequency of the other series which are monthly. The natural logs of EXR and FCIs are used in the analysis; INF is measured by the monthly inflation rate while EXR is measure as the official naira to dollar exchange rate.

3.2 Estimation Strategy

In order to examine the relationship between the volatility in capital inflows and uncertainty in real exchange in Nigeria, the study followed the listed steps below in the estimation procedure: Step 1: the study performed three standard unit root tests, namely the augmented Dickey–Fuller, the Phillips and Perron (PP), and the Ng-Perron (NP) on each series. Step 2: the study proceeded by performing OLS of the model and checked if the residual of the OLS estimate has ARCH effect. Step 3: the study utilized the threshold GARCH model elaborated by Zakoian (1994) and Glosten, Jaganathan, and Runkle (1993) to determine whether volatility in capital inflows and uncertainty in real exchange yields good news or bad news. Finally, we follow the procedure by Karahan (2012) in measuring exchange rate uncertainty and capital inflow volatility. The study specifies a GARCH (1, 1) such that:

² Data is extracted from <http://statistics.cbn.gov.ng/cbn-onlinestats/>

$$\sigma_{\varepsilon t}^2 = \tau_0 + \alpha_1 \varepsilon_{t-1}^2 + \alpha_2 \sigma_{\varepsilon t-1}^2$$

According to Karahan (2012), “the conditional error variance of exchange rate at time t ($\sigma_{\varepsilon t}^2$) depend on the squared error in time period $t-1$ (ε_{t-1}^2) and the conditional variance from timeperiod $t-1$ ($\sigma_{\varepsilon t-1}^2$). Thus GARCH model estimates a time-varying residual variance as a measure of exchange rate uncertainty” (Karahan 2012).

4. Data Analysis and Interpretations

4.1 Overview of Exchange Rate and Capital Inflows

The exchange rate in Nigeria has evolved over the years through two regimes – the regulated regime and the deregulated regime. Prior to 1986, the Nigerian exchange rate was largely regulated by the Nigerian government through the action of the Central Bank of Nigeria. During this period, the exchange rate of Naira (₦) to the United State dollars (\$) stood at ₦0.7143/US\$1 in 1970, and appreciated to ₦0.5464/US\$1 in 1980 before depreciating to ₦0.8938/US\$1 in 1985.

Due to rigidity in the exchange rate system and the need to deregulate the Nigerian economy, the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) was initiated in 1986. This brought about the change in exchange rate regime from the fixed exchange rate to the market determined exchange rate system. Within the scope of the market determined exchange rate, the Nigerian government adopted the managed floating exchange rate system, in which the exchange rate is allowed to fluctuate with certain bound (upper and lower) before any intervention is done. in which the exchange rate is determined by the market fundamentals. With the change in the exchange rate regime, the exchange rate depreciated immediately to ₦2.0206/US\$1 in 1986 and further to ₦8.0378/US\$1 in 1990. In 1993, the exchange rate depreciated to ₦22.0511/US\$1 in 1993; and due to the persistent depreciation and instability in the exchange rate market, the exchange rate was fixed at ₦21.8861/US\$1 from 1994 to 1998.

In 1999 the ceiling on the exchange rate was removed to reflect market forces. Hence, the domestic currency (₦) depreciated against the US Dollar to ₦92.6934/US\$1 and further to ₦102.1052/US\$1 in 2000. The exchange rate depreciated further to ₦133.5004/US\$1 and ₦150.2980/US\$1 in 2005 and 2010 respectively. The depreciation of the domestic currency continued in successive years, reaching ₦193.2792/US\$1 and ₦358.81/US\$1 in 2015 and 2020 respectively. An overview of the Nigerian exchange rate showed a relative unstable upward movement during the study period, indicating persistent depreciation of Naira (₦) against the United State Dollar (\$).

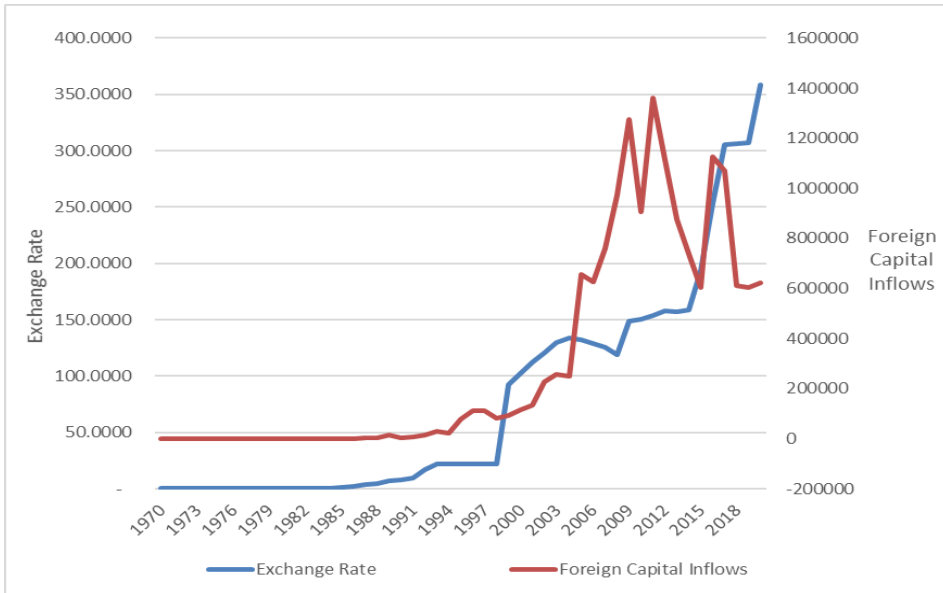


Figure 1. Exchange Rate and Capital Inflows 1970-2020

With respect to capital inflows (FCIs), it is noted that in 1970 FCIs stood at ₦128.6m and rose to ₦297.8m in 1972. In 1980, net FCIs declined to -₦404.1m, due to the adoption of first and second indigenization policy in 1972 and 1977 respectively. In 1981, FCIs stood at ₦334.7m and afterwards rose steadily to ₦13,877.4m in 1989 before declining to ₦4,686m in 1990. The increase in FCIs is accounted for by the increase in international crude oil price. The FCIs rose to ₦110,452.7m in 1997 and further to ₦115,952.2m in 2000.

Thereafter, FCIs rose increasingly to ₦1,273,815.79m in 2009 owing largely to policy measures initiated to attract foreign capital especially in the non-oil sector such as the NIPC Act of 1995 and the NEEDS policy of 2003. The FCIs declined to ₦905,730.77 in 2010 due to kidnapping of foreign expatriates which was a disincentive to foreign investors. More so, the declined in FCIs in 2010 is attributable to the 2007/2008 US global financial crisis. However, the declined trend in FCIs was reversed in 2011, as FCIs stood at ₦1,360,307.91m in 2011, but declined to ₦602,067.8m in 2015. The decline in FCIs from 2012 to 2015 can be attributed to the unstable political atmosphere occasioned by the incessant bombing/killings (by the Boko Haram sect), communal crisis and abduction of foreign expatriates. However, FCIs were ₦1,124,148.99m in 2016 but declined to ₦623,174.16m in 2020 due to the health pandemic occasioned by the emergence of the coronavirus disease.

4.2 Econometric Estimate and Result

4.2.1 Descriptive Statistics and Unit Root Test

The study begins the presentation of the empirical results with the descriptive statistics presented on Table 3. It is observed that exchange rate

(EXR), capital inflows (FCIs), inflation rate (INF) and interest rate (INTR) are ₦266.39/US\$1, ₦4.77E+09m, 12.32 per cent and 11.94 per cent. The maximum values of the exchange rate (EXR), capital inflows (FCIs), inflation rate (INF) and interest rate (INTR) are ₦412.99/US\$1, ₦9.36E+09m, 18.72 per cent and 64.58 per cent respectively, while the minimum values of exchange rate (EXR), capital inflows (FCIs), inflation rate (INF) and interest rate (INTR) are ₦117.72/US\$1, ₦5.47E+08m, 7.7 per cent and 0.77 per cent respectively. The skewness statistics indicated the variables were positively skewed. The kurtosis indicated that the distributions of exchange rate, foreign capital inflows and inflation rate are relatively flat, while the distribution of interest rate is high. More so, the Jarque-Bera statistics indicated that all the variables had normal distributions, given the significance of the probability values of the variables

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics

Statistics / Variables	EXR	FCIS	INF	INTR
Mean	226.3887	4.77E+09	12.31821	11.9372
Maximum	412.99	9.36E+09	18.72	64.58
Minimum	117.72	5.47E+08	7.7	0.77
Skewness	0.589	0.314166	0.299	2.411
Kurtosis	1.865	1.864828	2.164	13.408
Jarque-Bera	18.711	11.78391	7.401	920.995
Probability	0.000	0.002762	0.025	0.000
Observations	168	168	168	168

Source: Authors, 2022 using e-views 9

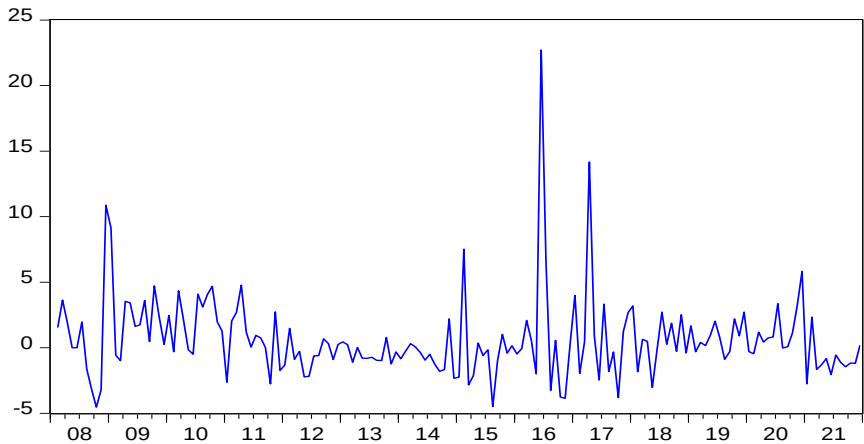
The stationarity properties of the respective variables are presented in Table 4. The ADF, PP and the NP procedures test the null hypothesis of a unit root and the results from the ADF, PP and NP unit root tests are shown in Table 1 and indicate that exchange rates, foreign capital flows, inflation rate and interest rates are stationary at first difference [I(1)] while none of the variables is stationary at level [I(0)] at 5% significance level.

Table 4: Unit Root Tests Results

Variables	ADF		PP		NP		Order of Integration
	Level	First Diff	Level	First Diff	Level	First Diff	
EXR	-0.0525	-5.9617	-0.1529	-6.9712	0.1816	-2.730	I(1)
FCIs	0.3168	-8.1639	-0.1904	-9.0716	0.4746	-3.5662	I(1)
INF	-0.7262	-6.9038	-1.9814	-8.1793	-2.7138	-5.3083	I(1)
INTR	-3.5187	-9.1772	-2.9201	-9.9184	-1.0626	-5.4630	I(1)

Source: Authors, 2022 using e-views 9

Figure 2: Graph of the Residual



The Figure 2 above indicates that the periods of low volatility are followed by periods of low volatility. The graph also presents periods of very high volatility, however, the graph shows that there were more periods of low volatility than high volatility. Thus, this shows that there is volatility clustering for the periods of study. The residual of the model also shows that the series have ARCH effects. This is evidence in the Table 5 below.

Table 5: ARCH Effects Result

F-statistic	31.9286	Prob. F(10,155)	0.0000
Obs*R-squared	111.7500	Prob. Chi-Square(10)	0.0000

Source: Authors, 2022

Table 6: Estimate for Mean Equation- Dependent Variable: *Exchange Rate*

Variable	Coefficients	Standard Error	z- Statistic
Exchange rate (-1)	0.9301	0.0234	39.7916*
Capital Inflows (FCIs)	0.0926	0.1195	0.7747
Interest Rate	0.1444	0.0301	4.8042*
Inflation Rate	-0.0390	0.4683	-0.0833
R-Squared: 0.9169		Durbin-Watson Stat: 1.6494	
Adj. R- Squared: 0.9148			

Note: *(**) implies 1% (5%) level of Significance

Source: Authors, 2022

Table 6 above showed that the lag of exchange rate has a positive significant effect on current exchange rate. Also, the relationship between exchange rate and foreign capital flows in Nigeria is positive. The table reveals

that a unit change in foreign capital flows has no significant effect on exchange rate in Nigeria. The implication of this result is that foreign capital flows in Nigeria does not significantly determine the rate at which one currency will be changed for another. Further, interest rate significantly determines exchange rate at 5% level of significance. The effect of inflation rate is not significant.

Table 7: Estimate for Variance Equation

Variable	Coefficients	Standard Error	z-Statistic
$\varepsilon_{cf_{t-1}}^2$	0.0348	0.0299	1.6993
$\varepsilon_{cf_{t-1}}^2 \varepsilon_{cf_{t-1}}$	-14.1139	10.3875	-1.3587
$\sigma_{exr_{t-1}}^2$	-27.7466	34.0894	-0.8139
INTR	-0.0705	0.0459	-1.5355
INF	-2.1270	1.1239	-1.8925

Note: * implies 1% level of Significance. Dependent Variable: $\sigma_{exr_t}^2$

Source: Authors, 2022

The table above shows that the previous year's information emanating from volatility in capital inflows in Nigeria cannot significantly influence the present uncertainty in exchange rate, as shown from the insignificant coefficient of ARCH ($\varepsilon_{cf_{t-1}}^2$) at 5% level of significance. This implies that fluctuation in foreign capital flow has no significant effect on exchange rate volatility in Nigeria. Also, the past year's information from exchange rate has no effect on the present exchange rate volatility. This reveals that previous volatility in exchange rate ($\sigma_{exr_{t-j}}^2$) has no significant influence on the present exchange rate fluctuations ($\sigma_{exr_t}^2$). The coefficient of $\varepsilon_{cf_{t-1}}^2 \varepsilon_{cf_{t-1}}$ is negative and not significant at 5% level of significance. This shows that good news emanates from the relationship between volatility of capital inflows and exchange rate volatility in Nigeria. The implication of this result is that volatility of capital inflows increases the exchange rate volatility. Since the good news has more impact on the exchange rate volatility than the bad news, there is leverage effect coming from the relationship between capital inflows volatilities and exchange rate volatilities. Thus, positive shocks from volatility in capital inflows have more effect on the exchange rate volatility than a negative shock. Further, the sum of (δ and θ) which is less than 1 (i.e. 0.60) indicates that the positive shock emanates from foreign capital volatility will die out fast. The results are in contrast to Nwosa et al. (2020) and Eregha (2019), but similar to the findings of Cushman (1988); Dhakal, Nag, Pradhan & Upadhyaya (2010) and that of Nagubadi & Zhang (2011) from the bilateral of United States and Canada.

More so, the coefficient of external shock originating from interest rate has negative influence on the exchange rate uncertainty but it is not statistically significance at 5% level. In addition, the coefficient of external shock derived from inflation rate has negative, but not significant influence on exchange rate volatility at 5% level of significance.

Finally, the study authenticates these findings by evaluating the results using three common diagnostic tests (Serial Correlation Test; Heteroskedasticity test and Normal Distribution Test- Jaque- Bera) and the results of these tests show that the findings are plausible. Specifically, the result of the serial autocorrelation test using correlogram for four lag periods shows that the spikes are within the lines and the Q-statistic value are not significant at 5% level of significance (see Appendix). Also, the values of F-statistic and the Chi-Square from Heteroskedasticity test are not statistically significance at 5% level and the value of the Jaque- Bera obtains from normality test is not statistically significance at 5% level confirming that the residual TGARCH model estimated is normally distributed with zero mean and constant variance [$\varepsilon \sim n(0, \sigma^2)$].

5. Conclusion and Policy Recommendations

This study used threshold general autoregressive conditional heteroskedasticity (TGARCH) method to determine the relationship between volatility in capital inflows and exchange rate volatilities in Nigeria using secondary monthly data obtained from Central Bank of Nigeria Statistical Bulletin and World Bank's World Development Indicators (WDI). A major contribution to the existing literature is that the study considered whether the influence of capital inflows volatility on exchange rate volatility yields good news or bad news using Zakoian (1994) and Glosten, Jaganathan & Runkle (1993) TGARCH framework.

The results showed the followings: first, the Unit – Root test indicated that all the variables were stationary at first, difference at 5% level of significance. Second, the graph of residual from the mean equation provided evidence of volatility clustering and ARCH effect. Third, the mean equation showed that a unit change in capital inflows had no significant effect on exchange rate in Nigeria. Fourth, the variance equation indicated that volatility in capital inflows did not influence the volatility of exchange rate in Nigeria and external shocks from inflation rate negatively and significantly influenced exchange rate volatility. In sum, the results obtained showed that the relationship between capital inflows volatility and exchange rate uncertainty yielded good news, this positive shock died quickly. The study, therefore, recommends that government should focus on maintaining price stability through appropriate macroeconomic (fiscal and monetary) policy rather than engaging on shooting capital inflows for exchange rate uncertainty.

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Appendix 1

Serial Correlation Test

Autocorrelation	Partial Correlation	AC	PAC	Q-Stat	Prob*	
. .	. .	1	-0.036	-0.037	0.0764	0.651
. .	. .	2	-0.025	-0.029	0.2872	0.725
.* .	.* .	3	-0.121	-0.143	0.4238	0.916
. *.	. *.	4	0.080	0.081	1.2101	0.901

*Probabilities may not be valid for this equation specification.

Heteroskedasticity Test: ARCH

F-statistic	0.057819	Prob. F(1,42)	0.7939
Obs*R-squared	0.923605	Prob. Chi-Square(1)	0.7290

Appendix 2: Data for the Study

Years	Months	Interest Rate	Exchange Rate	Capital Inflows	Inflation Rate
2008	Jan	11.22	117.98	7604397908	8.6
2008	Feb	10.04	118.21	7697696255	8
2008	Mar	9.37	117.92	7794848279	7.8
2008	Apr	10.51	117.87	7895987449	8.2
2008	May	9.47	117.83	8001252712	9.7
2008	Jun	11.23	117.81	8110788681	12
2008	Jul	8.61	117.77	8224745840	14
2008	Aug	14.45	117.74	8343280743	12.4
2008	Sep	15.42	117.73	8466556236	13
2008	Oct	14.09	117.72	8594741676	14.7
2008	Nov	15.77	117.74	8728013166	14.8
2008	Dec	12.17	126.48	8866553795	15.1
2009	Jan	7.91	145.78	9010553894	14
2009	Feb	17.3	147.14	9102258292	14.6
2009	Mar	20.6	147.72	9141792976	14.4
2009	Apr	12.51	147.23	9129212257	13.3
2009	May	13.17	147.84	9064498853	13.2
2009	Jun	18.6	148.20	8947563859	11.2

2009	Jul	18.1	148.59	8778246628	11.1
2009	Aug	7.04	151.86	8556314552	11
2009	Sep	9.7	152.30	8281462735	10.4
2009	Oct	7.05	149.36	7953313583	11.6
2009	Nov	5.62	150.85	7571416282	12.4
2009	Dec	4.68	149.69	7135246174	13.9
2010	Jan	2.61	149.78	6644204045	14.4
2010	Feb	2.27	150.22	6241395309	15.6
2010	Mar	1.5	149.83	5926266582	14.8
2010	Apr	1.27	149.89	5698384936	15
2010	May	4.94	150.31	5557437304	12.9
2010	Jun	2.73	150.19	5503230052	14.1
2010	Jul	3.59	150.10	5535688707	13
2010	Aug	1.26	150.27	5654857863	13.7
2010	Sep	2.71	151.03	5860901235	13.6
2010	Oct	8.5	151.25	6154101889	13.4
2010	Nov	8.79	150.22	6534862627	12.8
2010	Dec	8.03	150.48	7003706543	11.8
2011	Jan	6.13	151.55	7561277741	12.1
2011	Feb	8.38	151.94	8042685511	11.1
2011	Mar	9.33	152.51	8448591216	12.8
2011	Apr	10.8	153.97	8779552494	11.3
2011	May	9.75	154.80	9036024026	12.4
2011	Jun	11.15	154.50	9218358154	10.2
2011	Jul	8.85	151.86	9326805372	9.4
2011	Aug	8.59	152.72	9361514665	9.3
2011	Sep	9.37	155.26	9322533719	10.3
2011	Oct	13.07	153.26	9209808980	10.5
2011	Nov	15.58	155.77	9023185585	10.5
2011	Dec	15.5	158.21	8762407149	10.3
2012	Jan	14.19	158.39	8427115412	12.6
2012	Feb	14.35	157.87	8113204653	11.9
2012	Mar	14.13	157.59	7820243619	12.1
2012	Apr	14.23	157.33	7547829835	12.9
2012	May	13.8	157.28	7295589056	12.7
2012	Jun	14.92	157.44	7063174750	12.9

2012	Jul	15.19	157.43	6850267623	12.8
2012	Aug	17.81	157.38	6656575182	11.7
2012	Sep	13.5	157.34	6481831328	11.3
2012	Oct	11.42	157.32	6325795997	11.7
2012	Nov	11.86	157.31	6188254825	12.3
2012	Dec	11.88	157.32	6069018856	12
2013	Jan	11.67	157.30	5967924283	9
2013	Feb	11.98	157.30	5873448725	9.5
2013	Mar	10.39	157.31	5785462390	8.6
2013	Apr	10.71	157.31	5703844403	9.1
2013	May	12.23	157.30	5628482635	9
2013	Jun	11.59	157.31	5559273552	8.4
2013	Jul	10.63	157.32	5496122076	8.7
2013	Aug	15.24	157.31	5438941447	8.2
2013	Sep	16.88	157.32	5387653110	8
2013	Oct	11.08	157.42	5342186605	7.8
2013	Nov	11.22	157.27	5302479468	7.9
2013	Dec	10.75	157.27	5268477150	8
2014	Jan	10	157.29	5240132938	8
2014	Feb	10.5	157.31	5195661529	7.7
2014	Mar	10.5	157.30	5135001826	7.8
2014	Apr	10.5	157.29	5058070495	7.9
2014	May	10.63	157.29	4964761846	8
2014	Jun	10.5	157.29	4854947691	8.2
2014	Jul	10.5	157.29	4728477167	8.3
2014	Aug	11.91	157.29	4585176525	8.5
2014	Sep	10.73	157.30	4424848897	8.3
2014	Oct	10.98	157.31	4247274025	8.1
2014	Nov	8.98	160.00	4052207952	7.9
2014	Dec	24.3	169.68	3839382694	8
2015	Jan	10.21	169.68	3608505870	8.2
2015	Feb	23.5	179.74	3408567699	8.4
2015	Mar	12.59	197.07	3239293501	8.5
2015	Apr	24.24	197.00	3100450727	8.7
2015	May	10.43	197.00	2991848632	9
2015	Jun	10.85	196.92	2913338018	9.2

2015	Jul	7.79	196.97	2864811025	9.2
2015	Aug	33.26	197.00	2846200986	9.3
2015	Sep	8.12	197.00	2857482336	9.4
2015	Oct	3.22	196.99	2898670571	9.3
2015	Nov	0.84	196.99	2969822278	9.37
2015	Dec	0.77	196.99	3071035205	9.55
2016	Jan	2.04	197.00	3202448399	9.62
2016	Feb	2.67	197.00	3313798806	11.38
2016	Mar	4.32	197.00	3405239399	12.77
2016	Apr	3.75	197.00	3476895801	13.72
2016	May	7.67	197.00	3528866454	15.58
2016	Jun	35.26	231.76	3561222757	16.48
2016	Jul	31.51	294.57	3574009160	17.13
2016	Aug	24.25	309.73	3567243230	17.61
2016	Sep	14.5	305.23	3540915672	17.85
2016	Oct	36.42	305.21	3494990316	18.33
2016	Nov	15.21	305.18	3429404070	18.48
2016	Dec	10.39	305.22	3344066831	18.55
2017	Jan	8.15	305.20	3238861361	18.72
2017	Feb	27.46	305.31	3123740694	17.78
2017	Mar	13.11	306.40	2998546676	17.26
2017	Apr	64.58	306.05	2863107315	17.24
2017	May	21.29	305.54	2717236541	16.25
2017	Jun	13.46	305.72	2560733955	16.1
2017	Jul	12.28	305.86	2393384553	16.05
2017	Aug	22.63	305.67	2214958427	16.01
2017	Sep	20.44	305.89	2025210454	15.98
2017	Oct	43.78	305.62	1823879954	15.91
2017	Nov	18.78	305.90	1610690339	15.9
2018	Dec	9.49	306.31	1385348724	15.37
2018	Jan	15.58	305.78	1147545534	15.13
2018	Feb	26.19	305.90	949437148.8	14.33
2018	Mar	15.16	305.74	790751405.3	13.34
2018	Apr	3.1	305.61	671270298.8	12.48
2018	May	25.43	305.83	590829684.7	11.61
2018	Jun	5	305.87	549319052.6	11.23

2018	Jul	2.86	305.81	546681374.7	11.14
2018	Aug	2.45	306.06	582913027.3	11.23
2018	Sep	4.57	306.27	658063786	11.28
2018	Oct	14.18	306.51	772236893.7	11.26
2018	Nov	7.17	306.71	925589203	11.28
2018	Dec	22.68	306.92	1118331391	11.44
2019	Jan	15	306.85	1350728250	11.37
2019	Feb	16.45	306.77	1568873493	11.31
2019	Mar	11.5	306.92	1773066811	11.25
2019	Apr	13.98	306.96	1963588728	11.37
2019	May	5.14	306.95	2140700984	11.4
2019	Jun	8.38	306.95	2304646899	11.22
2019	Jul	6.52	306.94	2455651704	11.08
2019	Aug	8	306.93	2593922851	11.02
2019	Sep	11.61	306.92	2719650299	11.24
2019	Oct	6.37	306.96	2833006774	11.61
2019	Nov	0	306.95	2934148006	11.85
2019	Dec	3.82	306.95	3023212945	11.98
2020	Jan	5.74	306.96	2820788175	12.13
2020	Feb	8.91	306.96	2866161240	12.2
2020	Mar	10.29	326.63	2895463428	12.26
2020	Apr	7.33	361.00	2907954759	12.34
2020	May	4.35	361.00	2902716110	12.4
2020	Jun	5.75	361.00	2878616742	12.56
2020	Jul	6.25	377.19	2890182456	12.82
2020	Aug	7.38	381.00	2894986699	13.22
2020	Sep	2	381.00	2894891353	13.71
2020	Oct	0	381.00	2892278672	14.23
2020	Nov	0	381.00	2890191184	14.89
2020	Dec	1.25	381.00	2892506073	15.75
2021	Jan	4.4	379.50	2892970796	16.47
2021	Feb	11.43	379.50	2892567616	17.33
2021	Mar	10.1	379.50	2892102868	18.17
2021	Apr	30	379.50	2892067707	18.12
2021	May	15.23	409.50	2892443012	17.93
2021	Jun	16.57	409.66	2892430400	17.75

2021	Jul	12.38	409.60	2892322321	17.38
2021	Aug	13.45	409.82	2892273262	17.01
2021	Sep	13.21	410.30	2892307340	16.63
2021	Oct	13.33	410.59	2892355267	15.99
2021	Nov	11.53	410.66	2892337718	15.4
2021	Dec	11.53	412.99	2892319182	15.63

Reading the Patient's Mind in Patient-centred Clinics

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Abstract

The recent focus of mode of consultation in patient-centred clinics can be seen not simply as technical moves towards improving the quality of care; it also describes ideological moves that set out the frame in which negotiation between patients and hospital staff can be understood. This study examines the reading of the minds of patients in effective communication in patient-centred clinics by presenting a pragmatic framework of subjective, intersubjective and interactive processes that take place in the consultation. The authors identify, explain and integrate relevant theoretical concepts in the processes into a theory for consideration and application. They then apply the theory to interpretation of sample texts from clinical consultations. The study foregrounds pragmatics as a discipline that is relevant for reading patients' minds in consultations because of its capacity for interpreting cognitive, social, textual and contextual features in medical communication.

Key words: clinical communication, patient-centred consultation, mind theory, pragmatics

1. Introduction

This study examines the reading of the minds of patients in effective communication in patient-centred clinics by presenting a pragmatic framework of subjective, intersubjective and interactive processes that take place in the consultation. Relevant theoretical concepts in the processes are identified, explained and integrated into a theory for consideration and application. The theory is then applied to interpretation of sample texts from clinical consultations. The study foregrounds pragmatics as a discipline that is relevant for reading patients' minds in consultations because of its capacity for interpreting cognitive, social, textual and contextual features in medical communication.

1.1 Effective Communication in Patient-centred Clinics

The shift to patient-centredness is the current mode of consultation in clinical encounters between patients and clinical staff. May, Allison, Chapple, et al. (2004) remark that the shift away from doctor-centredness to patient-centredness (empowerment and satisfaction), in general practice, can be seen, not simply as technical moves towards improving the quality of care. It also describes ideological moves that set out the frame in which negotiation between doctor-patient in the consultation can be understood (cf. May and Mead 1999). Chang, Bowen, Frankel, Green, et al. (2013) define patient-centred care as effective collaboration between the patient and health care professionals. The

assumption is that when patients take part in the process of planning their care, they are not only more likely to cooperate in observing and maintaining the care plan, but also collaborative process in itself helps the formation of an emotional connection with the patient (Jonestone 2005). In the context of their study, Siriwardena and Gillam (2014) describe patient-centredness in terms of the respect for an individual patient's culture, social context and specific needs, and the patient being active in decisions about his or her care.

A basic requirement of patient care in the clinic is effective communication. Three models of communication are generally recognised, viz. linear, transactional and interactional models (Wood 2009). The transactional model is preferable here because it accommodates feedback from the receiver in verbal and non-verbal forms, unlike the linear that is a one-way model, and the feedback may not be simultaneous, as in the interactional. In addition, transactional means that: a. the communication is an ongoing and continuously changing process; b. each element in the process exists in relation to all other elements; i.e. there is interdependence where there can be no source without a receiver and no message without a source; and c. each person in the communication process reacts depending on factors such as their background, prior experiences, attitudes, cultural beliefs and self-esteem.

Amudavalli, (2016) presents eight components of transactional communication that are useful in clinical consultation as follows:

Source (Patient); Sender (Patient or Patient Relative); Channel (Face to Face); Receiver (Clinical Staff, Doctor, Nurse, etc.); Destination (Clinical Institution); Message (from Source or Sender); Feedback (Reply to Message); Context (Social, Cultural and Environmental Affordances)

1.2 Mind Theories, Thought and Language

1.2.1 Mind Theories

The concept of mind features prominently in the discussion of philosophers in the 17th and 18th Centuries. Descartes conceives of mind and matter as created substances, connected but serving different functions. While mind is the thinking substance, matter is the extended substance. Walsh (1968) writes that:

The mental order was different from the material, in so far as it existed in the form of separate 'thinking things' rather than as a single undifferentiated substance. But just as it was evident that there could be no physical transactions without a material substance, so there could be no mental transactions – no thoughts or experiences, feelings, perceptions or acts of will – unless there were minds in which or through which they could take place, and which would be their ultimate subject. (p, 63-64) (Emphasis ours)

All thoughts or experiences, feelings, perceptions and acts of will thus reside in the mind and have become key concepts of study in various disciplines such as psychology and linguistics, cognitive studies, artificial intelligence and neurology. The theory of mind is said to refer to the cognitive capacity to attribute mental states to others in verbal or non-verbal forms (Goldman, 2012). Virtually all language communities have words or phrases to describe mental states, including perceptions, bodily feelings, emotional states and propositional attitudes (beliefs, desire, hopes and intentions). In general, the vocabulary of the mind would include core words as behaviour, motivation, attitude, desire, consciousness, intention, attention, disposition and emotion.

In health care research of the connection of mind and body, the mind is investigated in terms of how it can influence the disease processes in viral infections, cancer, autoimmune disease, wound healing and vaccination (Littrell, 2008). The investigation of the influence encompasses studies examining work status, subjugation and oppression, stressful events as well as how personality factors and social support can buffer life events and circumstances. While an extensive literature exists exploring personality (coping mechanisms, stress activity, behavioural inhibition, optimism, hostility) and environmental factors (stressful life events or life circumstances) impact the body, this study investigates the reading of the mind in patient-centred clinical encounters.

1.2.2 Language, Thought and the Mind

The case has already been made in the discussion above that thoughts reside in the human mind as a representation of the human experience of the real world, including the inner world of his/her own consciousness (Halliday, 1970). By expressing thought, language enables us to access the human mind and behaviour. Not only does it serve as a means of expressing thought, but also language structures experience and helps to determine our way of looking at things. Halliday mentions three metafunctions – ideational (cognitive), interpersonal and textual – of language that enable us to describe the meanings encapsulated in the thoughts in our mind (Halliday 1985, 2004).

The ideational metafunction represents human experience as process – some doing or happening, saying or sensing, being or having – together with its various participants and circumstances. The interpersonal enacts our personal and social relationships with the other people around us. It is also a proposition, or a proposal, whereby we inform or question, give an order or make an offer, and express our appraisal of and attitude towards whomever we are addressing and what we are talking about. If the ideational metafunction of the grammar is ‘language as reflection’, the interpersonal is ‘language as action’. It is interpersonal because it is both interactive and personal (Halliday, 2004). The textual metafunction relates to the construction of text. It enables or facilitates the ideational and interpersonal meaning through building up sequences of

discourse, organising the discursive flow, and creating cohesion and continuity as it moves along.

1.3 A Pragmatics Perspective of Language Study

Pragmatics is an applied linguistic perspective of language study. Mey (2001) observes the 'component' and 'perspective' viewpoints as two dominant positions from which pragmatics has been described. The component position accounts for three conceptions in the literature. The first is the 'semanticism', 'pragmaticism' and 'complementarism' distinction, which describes (i) semantics as a wider term, (ii) pragmatics as a wider term; and (iii) pragmatics as a term in complementary relationship with semantics (Leech 1983, Thomas 1995, Kempson 1996, Adegbija 1999, Embugushiki 2010). In semanticism, pragmatics delimits interpretation to arrive at speaker's intended meaning and also remove ambiguity in utterances. In pragmaticism, pragmatics includes semantics and context or 'meaning in interaction'. Lastly, in complementarism, pragmatics occurs in complementary relationship with semantics. The second conception of pragmatics is as a general theory of sign systems, known as semiotics, in which pragmatics relates signs to users of a language (Morris, 1946). The third conception is that of pragmatics as speaker meaning expressed at two levels of reference and sense, on the one hand, and force, on the other hand (Thomas 1983, Yule 1996).

From the perspective viewpoint, Verschueren (1999) describes pragmatics as a general cognitive, social and cultural perspective on linguistic phenomena in relation to their usage as forms of behaviour. He claims that pragmatics is a perspective and not a component or just another interdisciplinary level of linguistic studies. For example, it is not a component like phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. It is also not an interdisciplinary level like stylistics, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, neurolinguistics, each of which has its own extra-linguistic correlational object(s). Pragmatics, as 'the linguistics of language use', has neither its own units of analysis nor its own correlational objects; it is all encompassing and accommodates relevant contributions from any field of knowledge or experience that can throw light on the interpretation of utterances at any unit(s) or level(s) of description. The questions to ask are (i) 'How do users mean what we say in utterances?' In other words, what principles, strategies and conditions enable speakers to mean more than what they say or interpret more than what they hear? (ii) 'How do users say what they mean?' What linguistic devices exist at their disposal to communicate in different contexts.

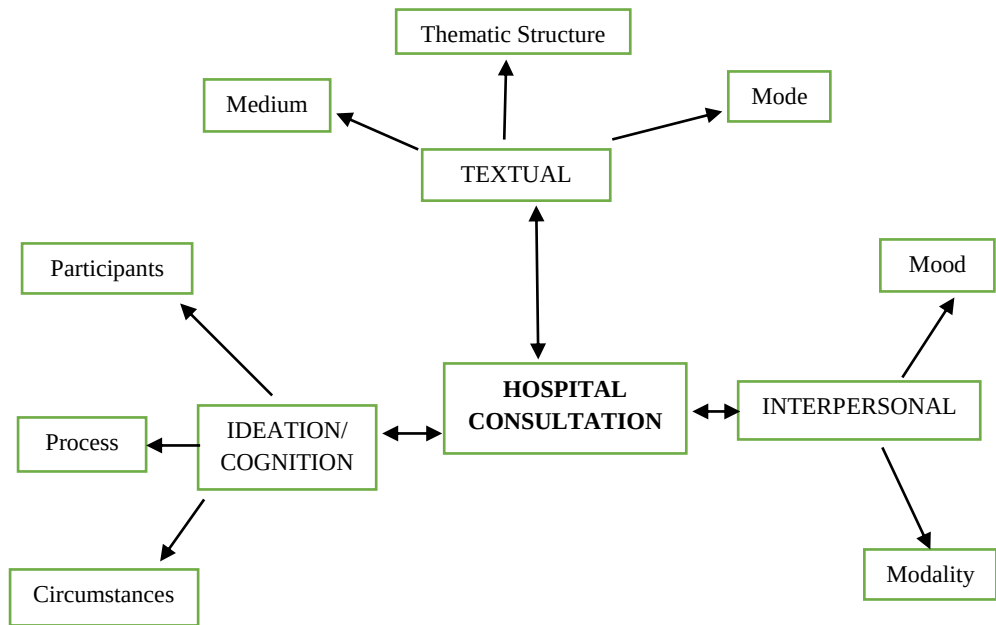
2. A Pragmatic Reading of the Mind: The Content

2.1 Subjective Knowledge (Subjectivism)

Certain terms originate from cognitive psychology, social psychology and artificial intelligence for describing the structure of knowledge in individuals such as schemata, frame, script, stance, point of view and positioning. Schemata (plural of schema) refer to how assumptions, beliefs and ideas of

individuals are stored in long-term memory and activated in response to communication demands (Cook 1989, Pilkington 2000). Eysenck and Keane (2010:401), cited by Ogoanah (2017) describe schemata as “well-integrated pockets of knowledge about the world, events, people and actions”. A schema denotes items of knowledge that are associated with an object, person, event, action, place, etc. It is said that items of knowledge that relate to an object are stored close to one another in the brain so that the choice of a topic activates several items of knowledge that are related to the topic, frame and script. For example, in lexical terms, the schema of a house will include ‘windows, roof, rooms, furniture’ and other related concepts such as ‘build, live and sleep’. Also, the knowledge of ‘car’ activates such items as ‘driver, drive and journey’. Storage of items is multifaceted, such that items may be related in terms of sounds, syntactic pattern, words or genres. Using Halliday’s (2004) metafunctions as categories of representations, we present a schema of hospital clinic consultation below. Participants may select items repectively to match the frames and scripts of the institutional encounter.

Fig. 1: A Schema of Consultation in a Hospital Clinic



Keys:

a. Ideation/Cognition

- i. Process: Material/Physical action – treat, cure, examine, check, diagnose, write, inject, vaccinate, operate, prevent, etc.
Mental (Cognitive, Affective, Perceptive) – know, experience

think, remember, feel, like, see, look, hear

Relational: be (sick, ill, indisposed, mild, acute), have (fever, headache, typhoid)

Verbalised: say, speak, cry, scream, tell, ask, answer, prescribe

Behavioural: cooperate, pretend, restless, angry, impatient, calm, fidget

- ii. Participants: Human: Patient, Patient relative, Doctor, Nurse, Physiotherapist
Non-human (Concrete): wards, offices, equipment, drugs, etc.
(Abstract): pain, disease, symptoms, injury, infection, sanitation

- iii. Circumstance: Place, Time, Manner, Reason, etc.

b. Interpersonal

- i. Mood: Declarative (Statements), Interrogative (Questions), Imperative (Commands)
- ii. Modality: Obligatory, Permission, Probability, Possibility, Necessity

c. Textual

- i. Medium: Spoken, Written, Electronic, Internet, Multimedia
- ii. Mode: Dialogue, monologue, prescription, medicalese, prayer, spontaneous, impromptu
- iii. Thematic Structure: Theme and focus of sentences, Foregrounding

Frame is a word used to describe a cognitive model that links together separate entities in our mind. Lakoff (2004) defines frames as mental structures that shape the way we see the world (cf. Bloor and Bloor 2007). They are used as cognitive short cuts to link stories to the bigger picture. Goffman (1974) claims that people interpret what is going on around their world through their primary framework, natural or social. The natural framework identifies events as physical occurrences taking natural quote literally and not attributing any social forces to the causation of events; and social framework views events as socially driven occurrences due to the whims, goals and manipulations on the part of other social players. They not only focus on issues or objects but also examine their relative salience (Weaver 2007).

Schank and Abelson (1977) use scripts in artificial intelligence work as a method of representing procedural knowledge ('knowledge of how' instead of 'knowledge of what'). In their work, scripts are very much like frames, except that the values that fill the slots must be ordered. A script is a structured representation describing a stereotyped sequence of actions that define a well-known situation and has associated with it. The assumptions are that understanding a situation means having been in that situation before (at least for conventional ones); understanding is knowledge-based; knowledge is highly structured; a large part of knowledge is script based; and that knowledge can be

specific (script-based) or general. Schank and Abelson (1977) argue that understanding language involves causally connected thoughts/sentences and because causality is often implied or incompletely described, it is usually harder to understand connected text than individual sentences.

The frames and scripts of doctor-patient and nurse-patient interactions have been presented as thematic categories or phases, in previous studies on clinical communication. Examples are given below on each of these interaction types:

Frame and Script of Doctor-Patient Interaction (May, et al. 2004)

- a. Evaluative judgments about the patient, including (i) the patient's motive for presenting; (ii) the legitimacy of symptoms presented; and (iii) the congruence between the doctor's and the patient's conceptual model of the illness;
- b. The organisational structure of general practice, including (i) the constraints of the consultation; and (ii) the possibilities for disposal of the patient; and (iii) the available resources to manage patients within relatively short consultations;
- c. The doctor's personal responses to the patient, including (i) co-operative rapport; (ii) empathy and sympathy; and (iii) frustration and hostility. (p. 141)

Frame of Psychiatrist-Patient Interaction (Ajayi, 2018)

- a. Clerking new patients (i) background checking; diagnosing disorder; treatment plans;
- b. Follow up on inpatients (i) admission details; (ii) psychotherapeutic advice; and (iii) conclusions on patient's therapeutic state;
- c. Follow up on outpatients (i) Patient's renegotiation of treatment plans; and (ii) Psychiatrist's acceptance, rejection or renegotiation of treatment plans;
- d. Discharging inpatients (i) Update on patient's psychological state; and (ii) Relation's acceptance or rejection of patient's state.

Frame and Script of Nurse-Patient Interaction (Nurse Best Practise Guidelines, 2002.)

- a. Orientation phase: (i) The nurse sets the nature of the relationship by greeting the patient in a proper manner. The tone and enthusiasm used during this exchange promotes connection between the registered nurse and patient. (ii) Patients are first addressed by their formal names then are asked which names they would prefer to be used. Establishing a rapport may begin with talking

about clinical relevant topics or social disclosure like the weather, environment.(iii) The nurse establishes their trust by being consistent in their words and actions. This consistency conveys dependability and competence. (iv) The nurse analyses the principle and nature of the relationship, giving information about appointments, interviews, describing the nurse's role, helping the patient provide important information, and describing the goals of the relationship. (v) Collection of data for the nursing evaluation requires active patient participation to verify his or her health status and functioning.

b. Identification phase: Working together to identify problems and set problem oriented goals (i) Health problems are diagnosed during the data collection and appropriate interventions are developed in the nursing care plan. (ii) Mutual goal setting allows the patient to be able to engage in their care. (iii) Nurses can also help the patient to explore feelings about their situation including fear, anxiety and helplessness. (iv) Identification of personal strengths and resources may help the patient to be able to cope with the health problems and participate actively in their care.

c. Exploitation phase: The nurse supports the patient's use of the health services effectively. (i) Interventions appropriate to the mutually planned goals are carried out with ongoing re-assessment and re- evaluation. (ii) Sometimes even the well planned interventions need to be reviewed and new or more realistic goals need to be set. (iii) The patient uses identified strengths and resources to regain control of the situation and develop solutions.

d. Resolution phase: Ending a therapeutic relationship requires a period of resolution. (i) Often, a lot of sharing occurs in the nurse and patient relationship during the challenging times in the patients' health. (ii) Each relationship, whether short-term or long-term partnership, requires both the nurse and patient to prepare for the end or resolution.

e. Termination phase: The nurse and patient examine the accomplishment of their goals and review their time together. (ii) The nurse uses the summarisation skills to evaluate the progress of the intended goals. (iii) This brings a sense of achievement and closure for both parties and it ends when the patient leaves for home. (iv) Termination of a relationship can awaken feelings of loss from previous relationships. (v) The unmet goals are identified by the nurse and if the patient requires referral and follow up care. (vi) The therapeutic relationship should end with satisfaction from both parties.

Stance is a linguistic construct that marks attitudes in communication. Dubois (2007) identifies three kinds of stance as evaluative, positioning (combining affective and epistemic positioning) and alignment (an inter-subjective stance); positioning here refers to the act of situating a social actor with respect to responsibility for stance and for invoking sociocultural value.

Osunbade (2016) identifies four types of stance, which he relates to politeness maxims in acknowledgements. The epistemic stance indicates the commitment of the speaker to the amount of certainty or possibility resident in a proposition. Evidential stance indicates the source of the knowledge expressed and the speaker-based evidence for the claim or assertion made. Evaluative stance describes the judgement of specific socio-culturally determined attributes expressed by the speaker. Lastly, affective stance describes the emotion expressed by the speaker. The linguistic resources that express stance include deixis, references, modals, adverbials, pre-modifying adverbs, complement clauses, verbs, adjectives, nouns and noun phrases, yes or no questions, tag questions, reported speech, passivisation, code switching, tone of voice, loudness and duration. Stance modality features, for example, reveal two kinds of speaker orientation to discourse, the epistemic and deontic modalities, whereby the former utilises linguistic features to express possibility and necessity with regard to knowledge and the latter expresses permission and obligation (Krause 2006). Let us identify the stance kinds in the conversation below:

Example 1. (An interaction involving four participants: Doctor 1, Doctor 2, Patient and Patient Relative (on behalf of the patient))

D1: Thank you sir. Ehn. Since when have you been sleeping poorly like this?
Sleeping around 9.30 and waking up around 4.30? Since when?

P: From baby days...

D1: When you were very young? Baby days?

PR: Not baby. When she grew up. 5

D1: It cannot be from baby days.

PR: Maybe, I can come in here. She took that from me. I go to bed by 8 and wake up by 2. D1: Ehn... But sir, if you sleep for 7 hours, we won't complain but at her age, she doesn't have anything occupying her.

PR: Yes, that is how she sleeps. 10

D1: There is nothing occupying her.

PR: Nothing.

D1: So, why waking up at that period?

PR: That's she sleeps from her..., maybe it could be corrected, I wouldn't know. In fact, I tried to correct my own... In fact, the university 15 worsens it then and when I was in the Ministry.

D1: That is six years ago.

PR: Yes.

D1: When she was young, you cannot ascertain that that is how she sleeps.

D2: (To D1) You were saying something about bizarre delusion. What is 20
bizarre delusion?

D1: Fear of em...

D2: Stress. That is not bizarre delusion.

D1: It is delusion. You know somebody that wanted to study Medicine before

suddenly concluding that eh... going to school is stressful. For that reason, she decided not to go. It doesn't have... you cannot really categorise it with any of these definite categories of delusion. 25

D2: It can be anxiety disorder. Sometimes, somebody can have anxiety disorder. (Source: Ajayi, 2018)

The examples below illustrate the types of stance and modality in the interaction above. Their meanings and significance can be interpreted in context.

Evaluative: sleeping poorly (l. 1); worsens (l.15)

Epistemic: When she grew up (l.5); It cannot be from baby days (l.6); She took that from me ... (l.7) Nothing (l.12); I wouldn't know (l. 14); Maybe it could be corrected (l.14); That is not bizarre delusion (l.27); It is delusion (l.24); It can be anxiety disorder (l.28), etc.

Affective: Thank you sir. (l.1)

Evidential: In fact (ll. 14-15); If you sleep for 7 hours (l.8)

Alignment: Not baby (l.5); Yes (ll. 10, 13) But sir (l.8)

Epistemic Modality: It cannot be from baby days (l.6); I wouldn't know (l.14); Maybe it could be corrected (l.14); You cannot really categorise it... (l.26)

Deontic Modality: Maybe I can come in here (l.7)

2. 2 Intersubjective Knowledge (Inter-subjectivism)

Dubois (2007) describes inter-subjectivity as the relation between one actor's subjectivity and another's. We thus move forward here from the content of the subjective minds of individuals to the content of the relations of inter-subjective communication. The primary concern of pragmatic interpretation in the cognitive philosophical school or Anglo-American pragmatics is the interpretation of speakers' intentions by listeners in communication. Austin (1962) argues that words perform acts/intentions in communication and do not just encode meanings. In analysing speakers' intentions, therefore, a number of concepts are essential and must be understood and applied. The concepts are Intention, Presupposition, Speech Acts, Inference (Implicature and Explicature), Grice's Conversational maxims and Gricean and Post-Gricean perspectives, Relevance theory and Rapport Management.

Austin (1962) makes a distinction between 'constative' and 'performative' verbs, 'direct and indirect acts and the focus on the classification of 'illocutionary acts of speech'. Searle (1969, 1975) later develops speech act theory by describing constitutive rules that guide the felicitous performance of illocutionary acts and proposes a taxonomy of speech acts in terms of types (locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary) and functions (directives, commissives, expressives, representatives and declaratives. Presuppositions are assumptions that the speaker and hearer have about each other's knowledge of the proposition. For example, the question, 'When did you eat the apple?'

presupposes that you ate some apples. Types of presupposition include the existential, factive, non-factive, structural and counteractive. The existential presupposition is constituted by noun phrases, names and possessive constructions. The factive consists of assumptions that are true, based on some particular verbs such as *know*, *realise* and *regret* before the presupposed information. The non-factive refers to assumptions that are not true, based on the use of certain verbs such as *dream*, *imagine*, and *pretend*; lexical expressions that are taken to presuppose another concept that is unstated. The structural involves the structure of a sentence or some tangible part of it. Lastly, the counteractive refers to assumptions that are not only untrue but are contrary to the fact.

Inference is a process through which a hearer works out the meaning of an utterance from what is stated and unstated using the hearer's general knowledge and context. There are three stages as follows: (i) understand the observation or stated information; (ii) form a hypothesis that attempts to describe the above information in relation to the person's general knowledge and draw a conclusion; and (iii) evaluate the validity of the conclusion that has been reached. For example, if a patient complains of sickness, it can be inferred s/he needs treatment. Inference can be explained in terms of two different concepts of 'implicature' and 'explicature' and two theories of 'Conversational Maxims' and 'Relevance'.

Explicature is "an enrichment of an original utterance... to a fully elaborated propositional form (Archer, Aijmer & Wichmann, 2012, p. 137). It is the explicit content of an utterance that is guided by the communicative principle of relevance. An explicature must be recovered in order to understand a proposition in a most relevant way. Explicatures are achieved through decoding, disambiguation, resolution of vagueness and reference assignment. Implicature is a concept in pragmatics that deals with implied meaning. It focuses on how a hearer understands what is meant from what is said. Grundy (2008, p. 92) defines it as 'a meaning that is conveyed but not explicitly stated.' For example, the utterance 'My son has fever' in a clinic may imply that the addressee should provide treatment for him.

Implicatures depend on inferences. Sometimes, a hearer's inference may not be the same as the speaker's generated implicature. For example, when the speaker says that the son has fever, his/her intention or generated implicature is that the hearer should treat him/hers but the hearer may infer that s/he does not need to diagnose the child.

Conversational maxims derive from what Grice (1975) calls the Cooperative Principle. Grice claims that in an interaction, interlocutors tend to cooperate with each other based on four maxims of Quantity, Quality, Relevance and Manner. To a great extent, conversation is sustained by the normal observation of the above maxims. One expects, for example, that the people one is talking to are telling the truth; conversation would not follow the pattern they do if every statement made is assumed to be false. But it is a well-

known fact that these conventions are flouted, which provides the basis for the flexibility in communication. Many occasions, when conventions are broken, participants still cooperate, believing that their partners are telling the truth.

In Relevance Theory, Sperber and Wilson (1986) believe that the maxims of conversation can essentially be reduced to one that accounts for the communication process, 'relevance'. According to them, pragmatic relevance is a property of utterances as a particular case of inputs to cognitive processes. Relevance theory is based on two principles, the cognitive principle and the communicative principle. The cognitive principle states that human cognition is geared towards the maximisation of relevance (that is, to the achievement of as many contextual (cognitive) effects as possible for as little processing effort as possible). This is the general cognitive principle that serves as background for communication in general and linguistic communication in particular. This, applied to linguistic communication, involves the following: For a communicative act to be successful, the speaker needs the addressee's attention; since everyone is geared towards the maximisation of relevance, the speaker should try to make her utterance relevant enough to be worth the addressee's attention. This leads us to the next principle.

The communicative principle states that every act of ostensive communication (e.g. an utterance) communicates a presumption of its own optimal relevance. By 'ostensive', relevance theorists make reference to the 'overt' or 'public' nature of the speaker's communicative intentions in acts of communication. Communication will be successful (i.e. understanding will occur) when the addressee recognises those intentions. This process is most inferential and it has costs. So the addressee would not start the inferential process without a presumption that it will report him/her some benefits; that is, without a presumption that the input is not only relevant, but as relevant as it can, *ceteris paribus*. Then when someone utters something with a communicative purpose, she does it, according to relevance theory, with the presumption of optimal relevance, which states that (a) The utterance is relevant enough to be worth processing; (b) It is the most relevant one compatible with the communicator's abilities and preferences.

Rapport management refers to the (mis)management of relations or harmony and disharmony among people (Spencer-Oatey, 2005; Lopez, 2008). It is a post-Gricean attempt to describe politeness in communication. Face sensitivities cover the concept of face which is the positive social value that a person claims for him/herself and expects that such a claim is respected by others. Such values may be personality traits, physical features, beliefs, language affiliations and these vary from person to person and context to context. Some major aspects of Rapport Management can be identified. First is sociality rights and obligations, which pertain to social expectancies and reflect peoples' concerns over fairness, consideration and behavioural appropriateness. Next, interactional goals focus on the "specific tasks and/or relational goals that people may have when they interact with each other." There are also some

threats to rapport management (Spencer-Oatey, 2008). A face-threatening behaviour is an act that makes the addressee lose 'face' or credibility such as criticisms or oppositions. A rights-threatening behaviour is an act that infringes on a person's sense of social entitlements, which could lead to annoyance or anger. An example could be the case of a student who feels offended and angry that the supervisor has not read their project work. A goal-threatening behaviour is an act performed by another person that impedes the actions that another participant wants to achieve, such as a situation in which a security man may stop a protester from entering a particular building. Lastly, contextual variables such as the participants, setting, time, pragmatic principles such as conversational principles and conventions may determine people's use of rapport management strategies.

2.3 Interactive Knowledge (Interactivism)

Interactive knowledge goes beyond inter-subjective or socio-cognitive knowledge in the perception that meaning or intention is negotiated between speaker and listener in communication rather than a speaker expressing an intention and a listener attempting to interpret it. In this respect, negotiation takes place in a defined context of communication. Odebunmi (2018) writes that European-Continental pragmatics takes an equivocal position on intention that it is not necessarily present in communication. Quoting Verschueren (1999: 48), "... it will be unwise to claim that every type of communicated meaning is dependent on a definable intention on the part of the utterer", He (2018: Slide 13) remarks that the European-Continental school largely conceives of intention "as a post facto participant resource that emerges through interaction". Kecskes (2017:7) emphasises that there is a dialectical relationship between a priori intention (based on individual prior experience – declarative) and emergent intention (based on actual situational context - procedural).

The centrality of 'context' in pragmatics is apparent right from the conception of 'pragmatics' as 'meaning in context'; that is, the conditions "under which utterances may be said to be felicitous" (Archer and Grundy 2011:2). This definition also captures the spirit of van Dijk's (1977) definition as whatever "we need to know about to properly understand the event, action or discourse" and Odebunmi's (2016:13) definition as "the condition that constraints the determination of the propositions of an utterance or the understanding of an event or discourse". Context is an abstract category used by language scholars to provide links between linguistic items and the social and situational contexts of communication.

In general, the verbal, cultural and situational types of context have been recognised in language study. The verbal context or 'co-text' falls within the purview of linguistics. It refers to the company that a linguistic item keeps in an utterance. In other words, interpreting expressions in a verbal context contrasts with the procedure of considering verbal items in isolation, while it emphasises interpretation of such items in terms of their linkage and

relationship with one another. A consideration of verbal context interpretation inevitably reduces the instances of syntactic or lexical ambiguity that may be found if items are considered separately. A good example of a co-textual study is the study of cohesion in texts (Halliday and Hasan 1976); that is, a study of how the items in a text (words, sentences, paragraphs, chapters, etc.) are connected to one another.

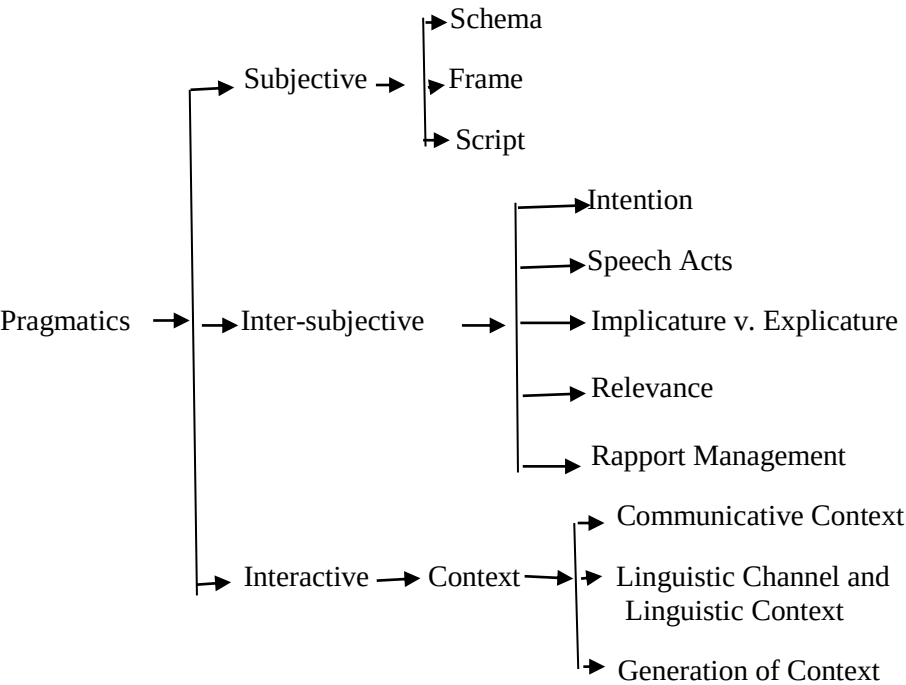
The cultural context or 'context of culture', according to Firth (1962) specifies the conventional or socio-cultural rules of behaviour which participants must share before they can communicate successfully with each other. Some of these conventional rules may be universal in application, while some are culture-specific. Sometimes, different societies may also have different orientations towards certain universally-formulated conventional rules. Conventional rules guide the use of linguistic utterances, paralinguistic devices (e.g. gestures and nodding) and non-lexical vocal devices (e.g. laughter, clicks and hisses) in different societies. Some societies have more elaborate greeting systems than others. Also a nod may mean 'yes' in a society, while it means 'no' in another. Knowledge of conventional rules brings up the idea of 'common-sense knowledge' (Garfinkel 1967), 'communicative competence' (Hymes 1972), 'shared knowledge' and 'mutual contextual beliefs' (Bach and Harnish 1979, Adegbiya 1999).

The 'situational' context has been described by many scholars from various perspectives: anthropological, philosophical, linguistic, ethnographic, discourse analytic and pragmatic. But while some of them mention components of situation (Malinowsky 1923, Firth 1962, Ellis 1966, Berry 1977, Kaplan 1989), some integrate both situational and social/conventional categories as components (e.g. Hymes 1962). Other models of context from the discourse and pragmatic perspectives are those by Bloor and Bloor (2007): the setting (or place/s), time or times and aspect, mode and medium, participants and their roles, topic/s, themes, purpose of the discourse and purposes of the participants, attitude of the participants, the dynamics of the situation and the genre; Verschueren (1999): communicative Context, linguistic channel and linguistic context and the generation of context; and Mey (2001): activity and textual components of pragmemes.

3. A Pragmatic Model of Reading the Mind in Patient-centred Clinics

This section presents a summary of categories explained in this study in the process of formulating a pragmatic theory of the mind of patients and hospital staff in clinical consultations. The theory is presented in a diagram in Fig. 2 below:

Fig. 2: A Pragmatic Model of the Mind in Patient-centred Clinics



4. Textual Interpretation

We present a brief interpretation of two texts below on consultations between patients and hospital staff. The interpretation could be endless, but the basic interpretations done below within the space constraints can guide readers towards more comprehensive observations from the texts.

Text 1 Analysis: Consultation, Dispute over Family Planning (Doctor – D and Patient – P)

D: Oyún ẹlẹ̀kelòó lẹ̀yí? (Which pregnancy is this?)
P: Ẹ̀yí seven. (This one seven)
D: Ó jẹ seven. (That makes it seven)
P: Moò fẹ́ bímọ́ lẹ̀yìn elẹ̀yí. Ó yí'wọ́ ni. (I didn't want to have a child after this one. It didn't turn out as expected.)
D: Ẹ̀ní láti f'ètò sí. Ẹ́ lọ́ f'ètò sí. (You have to go for family planning. Go for family planning.)
P: Mo tí ẹ́é. (I have done it.)
D: Báwo lẹ́ ẹ́ wá tí ẹ́? (How did you do it?)
P: Daddy wa ... ó ní kí n má fètò sí. (Our daddy (husband)...he said I should not go for family planning.)

D: Ènẹn Daddy. (Ehn daddy)

P: But eléyí, Hà! (But this one, Ha!)

D: Ẹ lọ fètò si bó bá ẹ/You go for family planning afterwards.

P: Ok.

D: Ó da. Kí ló dé tí ò fẹ jẹ kí ẹ fètò si (Okay why does he not want you to go for family planning)

P: Ẹ mò, t'èlòmî bá ẹé, inú á máa runún tàbí ó ma wú. Torí ẹ ni mo ẹ fẹ ẹé. (You know, when someone else does it, she starts having stomach pain or she swells up. That is why I don't want to do it.)

D: Ẹẹ, tó bá di oyún ẹlẹkẹwáá, ẹ ẹ ẹé. (Well, when it gets to the tenth pregnancy, you will do it.)

P: Eléyí ni òpin ẹ. (This is the ends of it.)

Interpretation

In order to read the mind of the patient, D needs to understand the beliefs, assumptions and attitudes of the patient. To do this, he manages the stylistic and illocutionary domains of the rapport management where he interacts with the patient in Yoruba. Based on a series of questions (speech act of questioning), he is able to understand the following in the context of communication that

P does not want to have this baby.

P's husband does not want her to have the baby.

Based on socio-cultural context and P's utterances, D is able to infer that P respects her husband. His opinions frame the way she sees the world and responds to issues.

TEXT 2: Consultation on Pregnancy and of Attendance of Clinic (PR – Patient Relation)

D: Njẹ o ti gba abẹrẹ ẹ àkòkọ on the 5. Kò wá? (Have you taken your first injection on the 5th? She didn't come?)

P: Bẹẹ ni. (Yes)

D: Kí ló dé tóò wá? Ó yẹ kí o ti wá ní on 5/10. T'èní, Ẹ dẹ wá ní 11. Àbí o ò rí date ní? Ọwọ taa ni card wà? (Why did you not come? You ought to have come on 5/10. Today, you now come on 11. Or you didn't see the date? With whom is the card?)

PR: Ọwọ ẹ nàà ni. (It is with her.)

D: Ngbó, o mò? (So, you knew?)

P: Ẹnẹn, torí pé Mummy wa ò sí nílẹ. (Yes, because Mummy was not at home.)

D: O ní látí wá. Tẹẹ bá fẹ bímọ níní. Tóò bá múu wá, àà ní gbàà kóo bímọ níní. Torí aláḱòóóbí ni o. So, a ní látí monitor ẹ dada. Ẹ mò pé kò bí ìkan rí. (She has to come. If you want to give birth here. If you don't bring it, we won't

allow you to give birth here. Because this is your first experience of giving birth is the reason.

PR: Òun nàà larò tẹ̀lẹ̀. (That was what we thought.)

D: Ọmọ kékeré dẹ̀ ní. So, ó ní láti wá on the date t'abá fúnun. So that t'abá rí anything to correct, aá tètè correct è, kó tó di pé ó maa bimọ. From now until January, o ní láti wá ní date t'abá fún un. (She is rather young. So, you have to come on the date we appoint to you. So that if we have anything to correct, we quickly correct it before the delivery. From now until January, you have to come on the date appointed.)

P: Bẹ̀ẹ̀ ní. (Okay.)

Interpretation

Patient (P) is a minor who was brought to the hospital by an older female relative. Doctor is able to infer based on the words of P and the relative that P lives with her parents, which is an undesirable situation, considering the typical Yoruba socio-cultural context. The implicature is that P may be undergoing some painful experiences due to the pregnancy. P's initial silence foregrounds the fact that she may not be happy. Patient (P) is a minor who was brought to the hospital by an older female relative. Doctor is able to infer based on the words of P and the relative that P lives with her parents, which is an undesirable situation, considering the typical Yoruba socio-cultural context. The implicature is that P may be undergoing some painful experiences due to the pregnancy. P's initial silence foregrounds the fact that she may not be happy.

5. Conclusion

The study foregrounds pragmatics as a discipline that is relevant for reading patients' minds in consultations because of its capacity for interpreting cognitive, social, textual and contextual features in medical communication. Exploring relevant concepts from the field, the authors builds a pragmatic theory that can provide a guide to patient-centred communication in hospitals. The concepts are well illustrated and the data from the hospital interaction context interpreted at appropriate junctures.

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Dr. Jumoke Ajuwon: Tribute and a New Definition of Mourning

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Jacques Derrida posits; “There is no culture without a culture of death” (p. 361). Here, Derrida is sensitive to the ubiquitous manifestations of death. Death is a poignant phenomenon that is widely debated in literatures. In Ghana’s Efua Sutherland’s *Edufa*, Edufa never dies but his wife, Ampoma, becomes a victim of death. The centrality of death is evident too in the American Arthur Miller’s *Death of a Salesman* in which Willy Loman creates a definition of tragedy that creates an anti-thesis of the Aristotelian doctrine of the same subject. Agamemnon never escapes death in the Greek Aeschylus’s *Agamemnon*. With Medieval consolation about life hereafter, its drama celebrates death, which provides a transitional opportunity to the world of the heavenly, as famously evident in the anonymous *Everyman*, adapted by the Yoruba Popular Travelling Theatre Troupe of Duro Ladipo as *Eda*. The British and Renaissance William Shakespeare treats death in *Julius Caesar* and the Yoruba Wole Soyinka famously treats the same theme in *Death and the King’s Horseman*. Indeed, death is a universal subject, as Derrida says. The universality of death calls attention to the thought of Immanuel Kant who suggests that what is beautiful must be universally appealing (p. 53). Whether appealing or not, death remains an indisputable universal phenomenon, as extrapolated from Derrida (p. 361). While he acknowledges smiles and laughter as general and expected comportment of charity, Derrida discusses the subject of weeping as a culture of hospitality among the Tupinamba women of Mexico (p. 359). How can one show hospitality by weeping? What a culture! Derrida talks about “smile [that] is interior and discreet and, even, if it is mixed with tears which cry of joy” (359). This is a strange experience of smile or laughter mixed with tears, “cry of joy,” or, rather, to create my own phrase as follows: ‘a smile and laughter of grief and mourning’.

‘A smile and laughter of grief and mourning’ was the strange and inundating experience I had, on receiving the sad news of the passing of my colleague who has proved to be a sister and friend. She mesmerised me with her contagious smiles so much that when I received the sad news of her passing, I cast my mind back to my moments of professional interactions with her and I found myself smiling and laughing. How could I mourn my colleague by smiling and laughing aloud? This was the strange and disturbing impact Dr. Jumoke Ajuwon had on me. My encounters with her were replete with smiles and laughter. What a unique personality I had as a colleague and elderly friend! I received the sad news in the early hours of December 26, 2020. The disturbing news rendered me, immediately, sad. After an hour of thinking and reminiscence of my moments of work and interactions with her, I found myself smiling and laughing. I always smiled or laughed whenever I was with her. What a strange personality! She had an aura of an angel and the quiet of a saint.

Like a strange person, who never knew pains in her entire life, Dr. Ajuwon would always put a smile on her face, despite her health challenges, her marital disappointments and the burdens of her professional work. She was a Ph.D holder and Lecturer I in the busy Department of Linguistics and African Languages at Obafemi Awolowo University, adjacent to the Department of Dramatic Arts where I was teaching. She and I used to talk about different journals and she used to discuss issues of publications with me. She taught me a lot about female monarchs in Yoruba tradition. She taught me some Yoruba proverbs, Yoruba idioms and some other aspects of Yoruba culture. She was such an amazing person, not without her limitations and imperfections. In written tributes, I have mourned such colleagues as Prof. Foluke Ogunleye, Prof. Tejumola Olaniyan and Dr Victoria Adeniyi. None of them did I mourn with smiles on my face but Dr. Ajuwon gave me a new definition of mourning.

Fondly celebrated as Auntie Jummy, Dr. Ajuwon lived between July 15, 1967 and December 24, 2020. One would not know she was fifty-three years old. Fair and slim, she had the tenderness of an eighteen year old girl, looking as young as a young woman in her late thirties or early forties. She was exceptionally fond of her late father, Prof. Bade Ajuwon, who passed away just about twenty months before she, too, did. Her mother passed away just about the time her father did. She called me, on phone, and told me the news of the passing of her parents whom she adored and celebrated a lot. Jiboye was her younger brother she would often talk about, apart from her dear father. When I left Nigeria and moved to the United States, she and I would call each other and talk for a long time. She would provide me details of the papers and projects she was currently working on. She would tell me about her health condition. In fact, she would tell me as many stories as necessary. What a friend! Dr Ajuwon, often innocuous in her utterances, Dr. Ajuwon was easy-going and quite respectful. She was accommodating and cheerful to many people and me. What a strange human being she was, in charity and amiability! I am curious about this angel of a personality. While talking to me about her complex health challenges, she would find herself smiling, so much smiling that the complex situation would appear as simple, as anything imaginable. Regarding her health complications, she told me about a possible surgery that would, potentially, threaten her existence but she said it with so much smiles on her face that we both smiled, as if it was nothing to bother about. She was such a fascinating person who never took the cautions and advice of her medical doctors for granted. She attended to her medical appointments as regularly as possible. She took her medications as prescribed. She took care of herself. She used to put on the best of clothes and she would look as resplendent as presentable. She was, indubitably, a fashionable young woman. She rode the best of cars, expensive and sophisticated ones. She lived her life to the fullest. She demonstrated courage and perseverance in the face of multiple privations and turbulence of life. What a fantastic colleague and sister I had in her! I cannot describe her enough. My words and imagination are not powerful enough to make a full

representation of this unique person of an angel. How could I mourn my sister by smiling and laughing? Maybe I would rather cry, rather than smile or laugh, if I had seen this humble and courteous achiever at the last moment of her breath or if I had seen her cold and lifeless body. Maybe my smiles and laughter, actually, fulfilled and justified the Yoruba proverb I was taught by Prof. Olusegun Adekoya: “If the grief of a tragedy is too huge to compel tears, we rather laugh off the grief.” I did not intend to “rather laugh off the grief,” however. I laughed because of the contagious and poignant smiling and laughing impact of Dr. Ajuwon on me. What a strange way to mourn! What a unique person to mourn! Please, do not be distracted by my smiles and laughter of mourning a friend, however. It was not a smile of happiness but of sadness and grief – what I describe as ‘a smile and laughter of grief and mourning’ which reminds one of what Derrida describes as a “smile” mixed with “tears.” My reminiscence of her made me smile and laugh, as I reflected on many interactions with her. However, I soon found myself in a sober reflection, replete with sadness and grief, as it dawned on me that I have lost a dear sister and colleague. I was sad and melancholic. In truth, I was moved to tears. How could one be in tears and still have a smile on one’s face? What a strange way to smile and a curious manner to weep! What a mesmeric impact of Dr. Ajuwon on me! My smile and laughter were also, perhaps, an admonition to this enigmatic and ubiquitous phenomenon that, as John Donne cautions, “Death, Be Not Proud.”

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