

Effect of Integrated Study Reading on Polytechnic Students' Success Mindset, Time Management and Academic Achievement*

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Abstract

This study was conducted to make a case for the integration of study reading to students' daily academic and lifestyle schedules through regulated monitoring. Three null hypotheses were tested. 400 students from four departments in three faculties of a polytechnic were selected and randomly assigned to experimental and control groups of 200 each. Subjects were lectured on study reading skills and the importance of academic success mindset and time management but the experimental group was monitored and effectively guided to put the skills to use. Two instruments used were Effect of Integrated Study Reading Questionnaire (EISRQ) filled by experimental group before and after treatment and Test of Students' Achievement (TOSA I-IV) written by both groups after treatment. Results showed that experimental group achieved higher grades ($M=3.82$; $SD\ 1.10$) than control group ($M=2.74$; $SD\ 0.82$). The mean difference was statistically significant $t(398) = 11.11$, $p < 0.05$. There was a remarkable difference in students' time management practices after treatment. Post treatment mean score was higher ($M=2.59$; $SD=0.49$) than pre-treatment mean score ($M=1.80$; $SD=0.66$). The mean difference was statistically significant ($t(199) = 22.30$, $p < 0.05$). There was also a positive relationship between students' success mindset and time management ($r_{198} = 0.896$, $p < 0.05$). It was concluded that every student had the potential to be success-minded, less wasteful with time, and make high grades in examinations if closely monitored and supervised to practise study reading.

Key words: Integrated Study Reading, study reading, academic achievement, success mindset, time management.

Introduction

Every student has got the potential to attain high grades in their subjects if they faithfully practise study reading. Reading varies in type and purpose but the most important purpose of reading for a student is to learn. Learning is largely connected to comprehension. Reading, therefore, is at the heart of comprehension. Complete understanding of a text is achieved by careful reading. Study reading requires the student to pay close attention to the text. Much like intensive reading, study reading is done with undistracted attention to details and analysis especially when one is aware that the material will later have to be recalled, discussed, evaluated and applied. Faniran and Olajide (2012) argue that a student who has obtained an overall understanding of the text is expected to not only be able recall it in the original order, but also be able to apply, analyse, synthesise, and evaluate the information.

The teaching of study reading is embedded in the polytechnic General Studies curriculum prepared by the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE). One of the general objectives of the Use of English taught in the first semester of the first year of National Diploma programme is development of 'appropriate study skills' which invariably include note-taking, use of dictionary, library, scanning, skimming, and study reading (NBTE,1999). The students are expected to use the different methods of reading as they undertake their studies but, more often than not, this expectation is defeated as most students put up a laissez-faire attitude to reading, delaying serious reading till the examinations are imminent. A visit to the library shows that while the library is jam-packed during examinations, students are usually very scanty in the libraries before examinations.

In his submission on reasons why most students do not upgrade to straight 'A', Ajayi (2013) points out that the school is fun-filled with extracurricular clubs and leisure activities. He further observes that 'students are in the habit of wasting their time instead of being productive ... and they end up with C's and B's instead of the A's they honestly desired and deserved'. This much is confirmed by Olajide and Olatipe (2016) when they lament that it is a fact that the higher institutions are full of distractions where students are surrounded by distractive co-curricular and extra-curricular activities. They surmised that 'students often get themselves involved in these activities so that they will not just pass through the institution, but also for the institution to pass through them'. It is not uncommon, therefore, to see many students engage in games and sporting activities, socio-cultural activities, religious activities, and business enterprises, to name just a few, to the detriment of their academic pursuits. In their study on students' reading interests and habits, Issa, Aliyu, Akangbe and Adedeji (2012) found that most students studied particularly during examination periods, noting that one of the factors militating against their developing reading interests and habits include unserious attitude which makes them to relegate their academic assignments to the background.

Reading is a great factor for academic success; not just reading, but effective reading achieved through proper study reading habits. Students must be able to overcome the innumerable distractions encountered in study reading to be able to obtain an overall understanding of the text required to 'not only be able recall it in the original order, but also be able apply, analyse, synthesise, and evaluate the information' as posited by Faniran and Olajide (2012). Bodekaer (2015) warns against the dangers of distractions for aspiring successful students. According to him, research has shown that distractions can be incredibly costly, taking people up to 23 minutes to get back to the task at hand after being distracted. You can see how fast this can add up - and how much time can be lost - when the average person is interrupted every 10 minutes by instant messages, tweets, and Facebook updates. According to the online dictionary, 'successful students know how to focus on their studies when it matters while also taking breaks when they need them. They can manage their

time wisely, stick to meaningful study schedules, and make the most of their time in the classroom.' The first task is to stay focused and the key is to avoid distractions in the classroom. Students are advised to avoid sitting next to chatty students, and to put away food, magazines, phone, or anything else that keeps them from studies. Try not to think about one class when sitting in another.

Lake and von Bayer (2005) provide what can be regarded as the portrait of an outstanding student as follows:

- i. Attendance: "A" students have virtually perfect attendance. Their commitment to the class is a high priority and exceeds other temptations.
- ii. Preparation: "A" students are prepared for class. They always read the assignment. Their attention to detail is such that they occasionally can elaborate on class examples.
- iii. Curiosity: "A" students demonstrate interest in the class and the subject. They look up or dig out what they don't understand. They often ask interesting questions or make thoughtful comments.
- iv. Retention: "A" students have retentive minds and practice making retentive connections. They are able to connect past learning with the present. They bring a background of knowledge with them to their classes. They focus on learning concepts rather than memorising details.
- v. Attitude: "A" students have a winning attitude. They have both the determination and the self-discipline necessary for success. They show initiative. They do things they have not been told to do.
- vi. Talent: "A" students demonstrate a special talent. It may be exceptional intelligence and insight. It may be unusual creativity, organisational skills, commitment - or a combination.
- vii. Effort: "A" students match their effort to the demands of an assignment.
- viii. Communications: "A" students place a high priority on writing and speaking in a manner that conveys clarity and thoughtful organisation. Attention is paid to conciseness and completeness.
- ix. Results: "A" students make high grades on tests - usually the highest in the class. Their work is a pleasure to grade.

The obvious result of the eight-point portrait is 'high grades', as recorded in item (ix), and that should be the dream of every student. Exhibiting

all these traits requires steadfastness and unalloyed commitment which an average or lowly motivated student cannot achieve without being supervised or guided.

Time management is also of vital importance to successful studentship. Students in the higher institutions enjoy a good measure of personal freedom and unrestrained latitude to spend their time. The nature of the campuses also does not help matters. Very many activities are going on that could prove distracting or eat into students' study time. Ajayi (2013) asserts that 'with so much to do, it can be easy to become overwhelmed, stressed and eventually burn out'. He opines that 'students can help themselves stay sane and still get everything done by developing good time management skills.

Time management is about effectiveness and efficiency. Efficiency is about getting more done while effectiveness is about getting the right stuff done. Students should be trained and assisted to spend their time doing things right and doing right things. Covey (2003) identifies four quadrants of tasks in the time management matrix as follows:

- Quadrant 1: Important and urgent (e.g. last-minute assignments and projects)
- Quadrant 2: Important but not urgent (e.g. spending time with your family or exercising)
- Quadrant 3: Not important but urgent (e.g. some phone calls and text messages)
- Quadrant 4: Not important and not urgent (e.g. watching YouTube videos)

He advises an aspiring effective student to 'spend at least 80% of his/her time on Quadrant 2 tasks; ideally 100%.' This is in the spirit of the maxim that says, 'all work and no play makes Jack a dull boy'. A good student should not wait until studying becomes urgent before s/he starts to read. A student who manages his/her time well ought to be more relaxed during examination.

Another factor of successful studentship is success mindset. It is a motivating force to transform even an average student to a high academic achiever. Telling his story on 'my struggle from E's to A's, Ajayi (2013) writes:

I got promoted to JSS3 through cheer (sic) force and a bit of luck ... I was given lots of looks that implied something like 'you are not good enough to be in school, drop out fast'. I like a girl in the class... She was the most brilliant student... Anytime a teacher wanted to disgrace the class, it was I (sic) they (sic) would call... One day I resolved within me that ... the only wise thing to do is to go and study harder and know all I needed to know till I become the best in class. ... That was my turning point ... I became obsessed with the subjects of accelerated learning and how to maximise the power of our brain. I began to read and learn something more! I bought every

book on accelerated learning, personal excellence, motivation, memory improvement, photographic memory, exam techniques, speed reading, and note taking I could get (sic) my hands on... From that day I metamorphosed from 'E' grade to becoming the best overall. Finally, I aced all the science subjects I took with distinctions! (4-6)

Success mindset is a key quality every student should possess as it serves as the foundation upon which other factors are built. Chegg (2017) calls it a 'bonus habit' when he advises aspiring successful students to always 'visualise success' for it is helpful to imagine the end product: that is, to really picture what it will be like, and to experience the good feelings that will come with it. This provides motivation and energy, especially when you're in a rut, and makes it all seem worthwhile'. Students with high success mindset will require less prodding to engage in study reading. According to Learning Petals (2017), people with success mindset plan while others are playing; study while others are sleeping; decide while others are delaying; prepare while others are daydreaming; begin while others are procrastinating; work while others are wishing; save while others are wasting; listen while others are talking; smile while others are frowning; commend while others are criticising; and persist while others are quitting.

Goodin (2012) calls on students to develop the ability to rely on own strengths and know the weaknesses. He frowns at a situation where students wait to be told all the time what to do, when to do it, and how to do it. While agreeing that 'extrinsic motivation' is necessary for success, he charges students to engage in 'search for success' to avoid what he calls 'the imposter syndrome', which makes students believe that all that has been got is based on luck. To him, what students often describe as 'luck' is actually 'the audacity of being at the right time, with work and precise skills.' The popular adage is proven to be true that 'if you aim at nothing, you will hit it.' Bovee (2017) is quoted to have said, 'failure establishes only this, that our determination to succeed was not strong enough'. It is in this vein that everything should be done to assist the students to develop success mentality in view of its intrinsic value to integrated study reading, effective time management and high academic achievement outcome.

In conclusion, as stake-holders in the development of the nation, the students who are regarded as leaders of tomorrow must be well guided to live a focused life through success mindset and the can-do spirit. An institution that does not discourage loafing among the students and arrest unrestrained lifestyle is preparing itself for anarchy. Where students are not properly guided and mentored to cultivate a can-do spirit, display effective time management skills, and work themselves to success, outstanding achievements and world class breakthroughs will be far-fetched. All hands must be on deck to transform the

majority of students in the tertiary institutions from the average rating to first-class achievers in their academic pursuits. The way to achieve this is to regulate and monitor the students' practice of study reading. Everything necessary should be put in place to ensure that they jettison their laissez-faire attitude and give their studies a top priority in their daily schedule. This is the focus of this study. It is being conducted to see how institutionalised, integrated and monitored practice of study reading by the students will affect their academic achievement and time management in relation to their success mindset.

Statement of the Problem

The Faculty of Humanities at the University of Manchester (UM) released on its Study Skills website a plan of action for their students interested in study reading. It is instructive to note that the plan covers not only the weekdays, but also weekends (UM, 2001). The implication is that in whatever he or she does every day of the week a student is expected to engage in one study activity or the other. The thinking is that the students will be sufficiently self-motivated to engage in the provided plan of study reading. For him to succeed in his studies, therefore, a serious-minded student must incorporate academic pursuits and reading plans into his daily activities. However, the fact of life is that not all students can be equally serious-minded or self-motivated. Some are bound to be unserious, slack and unwilling, needing a pushing influence before they can invest optimum time and efforts in their study. This study was, therefore, conducted to see if there would be significant differences in students' success mindset, time management and academic achievement traceable to the practice of integrated study reading designed to provide the necessary driving force that will inspire, enthuse, and spur the students to engage in regular study reading.

Research Hypotheses

The following three null hypotheses were tested:

- H₀1: There would be no significant main effect of treatment on students' academic achievement.
- H₀2: There would be no significant main effect of treatment on students' time management.
- H₀3: There would be no significant relationship between students' success mindset and time management.

Objectives of the Study

The purpose of this study is to promote the rate of students' success, to stem the rate of students' failure, to stem the rate of examination mal-practices, to stem the rate of suspension and expulsion of students for examination mal-practices, to ensure that more students graduate in higher grades, to stem the tide of anti-social behaviours among students and to maximise the use of the physical and e-library facilities. The study was expected to meet the following

objectives, among others: to institutionalise the practice of study reading; to assist the students to achieve their academic goals; to promote qualitative and positive studentship; to promote scholarship among students; to inculcate effective time management in students; to promote in the students high sense of responsibility and commitment; to encourage students to develop positive academic success mindset; and to raise the standard of education in the tertiary institutions evidenced by students' high academic achievement.

Research Design

The study adopted the post-test control group quasi-experimental design. Students in all polytechnics and colleges of technology in the nation constituted the research population. One college of technology was purposively selected for the study based on proximity to researchers. Two of the four faculties in the institution were also purposively selected based on the researchers' involvement. The study samples were students from three purposively selected departments being taught by the co-researchers. The first co-researcher taught same course at HND level of a department and at ND level of another department. The second co-researcher taught the same course at HND and ND levels of the same department. From each class, one hundred (100) students were randomly selected for the study and randomly assigned to experimental and control groups of 50 students each. In the four departments, a total of 200 students respectively made up the experimental and control groups. The sample size was four hundred (400).

Variables

The study had one independent variable: Integrated Study Reading and three dependent variables (i) Time Management, (ii) Success Mindset and (iii) Academic Achievement.

Instruments

Two instruments were used for the study. First was the Effect of Integrated Study Reading Questionnaire (EISRQ). The questionnaire designed by the researchers contained 30 items crafted to capture the students' time management and success mindset indices and practices before and during treatment. Students were required to respond to each item by picking one of the four options: *Very often*, *Often*, *Not often*, and *Never*. It had a split-half reliability index of .85.

The second instrument labelled *Test of Students' Achievement* (ToSA) was in four variants for the four departments involved in the study. ToSA I-IV were examination questions constructed by course lecturers and submitted along with marking guides for moderation and final approval at the Departmental level. The usual practice was for the departmental heads to send the questions to external moderators for their expert input.

Treatment Procedure

All the research subjects were first lectured on the importance of study reading, success mindset and time management. The students were thereafter randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. Experimental group respondents were given EISRQ to fill and submit immediately and the two groups were taught together in their various classes, given similar tests and home assignments. While the control group did not have any further interaction with lecturer on the matter pertaining to study reading, the experimental group was closely monitored in their study reading and time management efforts.

Researchers ensured that the experimental went over the day's topic before they returned home after the day's work. Since the course lectures were held once a week, the lecturer gave them assignments to submit, either physically to their office every day of the week, including weekends. The researchers also provided them with suggested reading lists and topics which they read and showed proof of reading. Researchers made arrangement to record students' attendance to ensure that they visited the library daily during the day.

Similarly, to ensure that students read and did their take home assignments after school had closed, the researcher made provisions for well illuminated reading rooms that opened from 7.00 -10.00 every night and 5.00 to 7.00 every morning throughout the research period. Arrangements were also made to record attendance. At the end of 10 weeks, the two groups wrote the same test. The experimental group was made to fill the EISRQ once again to get their post-treatment responses.

Data Presentation, Analysis, and Discussion

H₀₁: There would be no significant main effect of treatment on students' academic achievement.

To determine the effects of treatment on students' academic achievement, the examination results of the experimental and controlled groups were compared to determine the difference. The results were grouped into 7 as follows: 90-100 - **7**; 80-89 - **6**; 70-79 - **5**; 60-69 - **4**; 50-59 -**3**; 40-49 - **2**; 0-39 – **1**. The frequency of students that obtained the scores in each group were obtained and compared. The test of significance was conducted for the difference at $p < .05$.

Analysis

Table 1a shows not one student in the experimental group scored 40 marks or below while 6% of the control group falls in that category in the control group. While not one student in the control group scored above 70 marks, 27% of the students in the experimental group scored higher than 70% some of them (9%) scoring above 80 per cent.

Table 1a: Achievement Scores of Experimental and Control Groups

Marks Range	Value	Control Group N=200		Experimental Group N=200	
		Frequency	Score	Frequency	Score
0-39	1	12	12	0	0
40-49	2	64	128	16	32
50-59	3	88	264	76	228
60-69	4	36	144	54	216
70-79	5	0	0	36	180
80-89	6	0	0	18	108
90-100	7	0	0	0	0
		200	548	200	764

Table 1b: Independent Samples t-test

Group	Number	Mean	SD	DF	t-value	Sig.
Experimental	200	3.82	1.10	398	11.11	0.001
Control	200	2.74	0.82			

Table 1b shows the result of the independent samples t-test conducted to determine if there was a significant difference in the mean score of the students in the experimental and control groups. Students in the experimental group performed better (M = 3.82; SD 1.10) than their colleagues in the control group (M = 2.74; SD = 0.82). The mean difference 1.08 was statistically significant $t(398) = 11.11, p < 0.05$. The null hypothesis was therefore rejected.

H₀₂: There would be no significant main effect of treatment on students' time management

To determine the effect of treatment on time management, the pre-treatment and post-treatment data from the questionnaire administered on the experimental group were collated and compared. Numerical values were given to students' response to each item as follows: *Very often 3; Often 2; Not often 1; Never 0*. The t-test of significance was conducted on the difference in the pre-treatment and post-treatment scores at $p < .05$.

Table 2a: Students' Pre- and Post-Treatment Time Management

Response	Value	Pre-Treatment		Post-Treatment	
		Frequency	Score	Frequency	Score
Very often	3	27	81	109	327
Often	2	105	210	82	164
Not often	1	68	68	9	9
Never	0	0	0	0	0
		N=200	359	200	500

Table 2b: Paired Samples t-test

Group	Number	Mean	SD	DF	t-value	Sig.
Post-treatment	200	2.59	0.49	199	22.30	0.001
Pre-treatment	200	1.80	0.66			

Analysis

Table 2a shows that there is a remarkable difference in students’ time management practices after treatment. From 13.5%, the population of those who now applied time management practices moved to 54.5%. Only 4.5% indicated that their time management practices were still ‘*not often*’ but it was a great improvement on 34% that fell into that category at the pre-treatment level.

Table 2b shows the results of the correlated (paired) samples t- test conducted to determine the effect of treatment on the experimental groups’ time management. Mean score after the treatment (post treatment) was higher (M=2.59; SD=0.49) than mean score before the treatment (pre-treatment) (M=1.80; SD=0.66). The mean difference 0.79 was statistically significant, $t(199) = 22.30, p < 0.05$. The null hypothesis was therefore rejected.

H₀₃: There would be no significant relationship between students’ success mindset and time management

To determine the effect of treatment on success mindset, the pre-treatment and post-treatment data from the questionnaire administered on the experimental group were collated and compared. Numerical values were given to students’ response to each item as follows: *Very often 3; Often 2; Not often 1; Never 0*. The t-test of significance was conducted on the difference in the pre-treatment and post-treatment scores at $p < .05$. The test of significance was conducted on the relationship between the students’ success mindset and time management.

Table 3a: Relationship Index between Students’ Success Mindset and Time Management

Response	Value	Success Mindset		Time Management	
		Frequency	Score	Frequency	Score
Very often	3	105	294	109	327
Often	2	90	194	82	164
Not often	1	5	5	9	9
Never	0	0	0	0	0
		N=200	359	N=200	500

Table 3b: Bivariate Relationship between Students’ Success Mindset and Time Management

	Success Mindset	Time Management
Success Mindset	1.000	
Time Management	0.896*	1.000
Mean	2.46	2.50
Standard Deviation	0.54	0.58

Analysis

From Table 3a it is seen that about 53% and 55% of the students respectively fell within the ‘*very often*’ category under success mindset and time management. Under the ‘*often*’ response, success mindset recorded 45% while time management recorded 41%. None of the students fell under ‘*never*’ category while those that fell under ‘*not often*’ are quite negligible - less than 5% in both cases.

Table 3b presents the results of the bivariate relationship test. The table shows that there was a strong and significant relationship between students’ success mindset and time management $r(198) = 0.896, p < 0.05$. The implication of the findings was that the higher the success mindset the higher time management. As one variable increases, the other variable also increases. The third hypothesis was therefore rejected.

Discussion

The results from this study have confirmed Lake and von Bayer’s (2005) postulation that when students record perfect attendance at lectures; always prepare for class by reading the assignment; demonstrate interest in the class and the subject by asking interesting questions or making thoughtful comments; have retentive minds by connecting past learning with the present; exhibit both the determination and the self-discipline necessary for success; match efforts to the demands of an assignment; and place a high priority on writing and speaking in a manner that conveys clarity and thoughtful organisation, the obvious result is that they make high grades on tests - usually the highest in the class. Their work is a pleasure to grade. The intervention provided in this study based on the researchers’ conviction that exhibiting all these traits requires steadfastness and unalloyed commitment which an average or lowly motivated student cannot achieve without being supervised or guided has actually been justified to a large extent.

As explained earlier, study reading requires the student to pay close attention to the text. It is done with undistracted attention to details and analysis, especially when one is aware that the material will later have to be recalled, discussed, evaluated and applied. This study is in tune with the submission of Faniran and Olajide (2012) when a student has obtained an overall understanding of the text he is able to not only recall it in the original order, but also apply, analyse, synthesise, and evaluate the information. Much of what goes on in an examination tests students’ ability in these aspects so it is

quite understandable that more of the experimental group students were able to perform better in the test than their control group counterparts.

This study has confirmed that the practice of integrated study reading has significant effect on students' time management. The implication is that integrated study reading actually assisted in training the students to cultivate a lifestyle of effectiveness and efficiency whereby students now learn to spend their time doing things right and doing right things. In consonance with Covey's (2003) recommendation in his time management matrix the students have learnt to place study reading in quadrant 2 meant for important but not urgent tasks the implication being that they did not wait until studying became urgent before they started to read – a weakness observed by Issa *et.al* (2012).

Some of the things they now did '*more often*' included regular and punctual lecture attendance; visiting the library to borrow books and journals to read; timely submission of assignments; reading beyond course book; joining and participating in organised group discussion; approaching course lecturers for clarification on difficult concepts; reading ahead to prepare for possible impromptu tests; and enjoying close rapport with course lecturers on academic matters. Of particular note was that most of the students still 'give time for 'gisting' and 'outing' even though on a 'not often' scale. As Ajayi (2013) has pointed out, by developing good time management skills, the students were able to help themselves stay sane and focused on their academic assignments even in the face of other extra-curricular campus activities calling for their time and attention.

This study has also established a high positive correlation between students' success mind-set and time management. Student with high level of academic success mind-set also invariably gave themselves to high time management practices. Success mind-set has been variously described as a 'bonus habit' that makes student to always visualise success and imagine the end product (Chegg, 2017) and an intrinsic motivation that promotes search for success (Goodin, 2012). This study has confirmed success mind-set as truly key quality that serves as the foundation upon which other factors are built. As posited by Learning Petals (2017) the students in the experimental group either very often or often planned while others are playing; studied while others were sleeping; decided while others were delaying; prepared while others were daydreaming, began while others were procrastinating; worked while others were wishing, and persisted while others were quitting. With high success mind-set, students were able to key into the prodding provided in integrated study reading scheme. They believed it is very true that a student should not just read but study, that examination time ought not to be the most stressful time for a student; that lack of electricity supply should not pose a problem to students' reading exercise; the student's contact with lecturers on academic matters should not be restricted to the lecture room; that nothing should hinder a student from going through his or her notes regularly; and that a student should have study time schedule such that assignment should be delayed or kept

till the following day. This mind-set greatly influenced them to engage in high time management practices and dedicated study reading all of which led to higher academic achievement when compared with students in the control group.

Conclusion

This study has confirmed that regulated and monitored practice of study reading enhances students' higher academic achievement as it trains them to jettison their laissez-faire attitude and gives their studies a top priority in their daily schedule. It has also been confirmed that every student has the potential to make excellent grades in the examination and come out successful in his study if he/she is closely monitored and supervised to constructively engage in study related activities like: more regular lecture attendance; more visits to the libraries; timely submission of assignments; more study reading time; cut in unnecessary distractive engagements; more organised work schedules; and regulated leisure activities. Another salient conclusion is that it really pays off for a student to engage in one study activity or the other every day of the week no matter other schedules he may have. Also, this study confirms the relationship between students' academic success mind-set and time management efforts and the importance of both to study reading practices which invariably leads to better academic attainment.

Recommendations

The first major recommendation following from this study is that students' study reading must be facilitated and closely monitored. It is time to jettison the thinking that once they are taught the principles, the students will go ahead on their own to practice study reading when the reality is that a good number of the students take the prevailing liberty in tertiary institutions for licence and do not practice study reading because there is no regulated monitoring. The common tide should be stemmed where majority of the students delay their serious reading till few days to examinations when they now 'burn the mid-night candle'.

Institutional arrangements should be made for the students to be closely monitored in their study reading and time management efforts by ensuring that they go over the day's work before they return home after the day's work; giving them assignments to submit every day of the week including weekends; providing them with reading lists and topics which they must read and show proof of reading by submitting their jottings; and ensuring that the students visit the library daily during the day and reading rooms after school. Institutional arrangements could be made for library personnel to monitor students' use of the library and the e-library. In non-residential institutions, to assist students in their efforts to read and do their take home assignments after school had closed, provisions should be made for well illuminated and secured reading rooms.

Institutional arrangements should also be made to provide regular internet connectivity for students' use at highly subsidised rate if not totally free

Students must also be taken through series of talks and seminars on the values of success mind-set and time management practices during the orientation programmes organised by the institution's directorate of students' affairs and at the faculty/departmental levels. If students start up with very high success mind-set, they will be more focused on their study reading activities, will not mind to be driven hard by the lecturers, and will thus benefit maximally from the practice of integrated study reading. All these require the active participation of the lecturers and they should be sufficiently motivated to participate actively in the task.

Note

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Women in the Power Structure of Selected African Indigenous Pentecostal Churches: Practices, Implications and a Brief Theological Appraisal

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Abstract

This study examined the presence of women in the power structure of some indigenous Pentecostal churches. Data for the work were collected from primary and secondary sources. The primary source comprised interviews while the secondary data came from articles, magazines, books, and the Internet. After a brief survey, the research dealt critically and extensively with the practice of women in church power leadership among indigenous Pentecostal churches in selected West African communities. The data gathered were subjected to socio-theological analysis. The analysis revealed four patterns. There were churches founded by men, the leadership of which their wives took-over after the husbands' death and there were churches founded and controlled by women who founded them. There were churches that limited the power of women in their leadership structure but compensated the women's husbands for their wives' contributions by promoting the husbands and, finally, there were churches jointly founded by couples but in which the wives were more prominent because of the women's charismata. Where women were "General Overseers", such women wielded great power. It was concluded that, whenever a person with the required ability is put in a position and others cooperate with him or her, the church would progress and that while the church may make available to both genders equal opportunity in its power structure, appropriating that opportunity is more complex. For African Indigenous Pentecostal Churches AIPC, spiritual gifts of Christian women are ultimately the game changer in the women's upward placement in the power structure of their churches.

Key words: Pentecostal churches, gender bias, power structure, family succession, theological appraisal.

Introduction

Writers on Pentecostalism such as Sherrill distinguish between classical and Neo-Pentecostal churches (cf. Sherrill 1964). The Classical Pentecostal churches teach that speaking in tongues is to accompany the experience of baptism in the Holy Spirit. They also claim that the experience is post-conversion. The Neo-Pentecostal churches, on the other hand, do not accept that "speaking in tongues" is needed as the sign of Spirit Baptism. To this other group, speaking in tongues is only helpful. The Neo-Pentecostals, therefore, see speaking in tongues simply as a spiritual gift (Folarin 1994:73-74). The term "Pentecostal churches" is used here to describe the churches in Africa that promote the contemporary use of all spiritual gifts given by God to the church. The term is used in this article to include the churches traditionally regarded as Classical Pentecostal, Neo-Pentecostal and Charismatic churches ("Charismatic Movement" 1998; 2009:80). The current article first surveyed the way women were treated in African

Traditional Religion (ATR) and culture. Secondly, the article examined the ministry of women in African Indigenous Pentecostal Churches (AIPC). Thirdly, the work investigated the emerging patterns of women status in the power structure of AIPC. Next, the study pointed out the implications of the emerging patterns of women in the power structure of AIPC. Finally, the research provided a brief theological appraisal of women's engagement in church power structure.

Power of Women in African Traditional Religion and Culture

Daniel surmises, "Africa's traditional society was not as fair to women as we would like to think. Often they (women) were used and handled like personal property of men, exploited, oppressed and degraded" (Daniel 2010:128; Cf. Adewale 2012:87-90). While at times African traditional priesthood recognises men and women in their individual rights, often female initiation is designed to domesticate women (Cf. Daniel 129). Olajubu notes that women traditionally assumed roles of leadership as priestesses, diviners, and healers and that African traditional religions recognise them as predominant possessors of spirits which bestow respect, authority and, sometimes, social status on them (Olajubu 2005, Olademo 2015). Olajubu uses the term, "gender complementarity" (Olajubu 2005:23) to describe the "cooperation in specified areas of control for the female as well as the male" (Olajubu 2003:10).

While women serve as chief priests to female divinities, they never serve as such to male divinities. Again while women serve as regents in negligible number of Yoruba communities in Nigeria, they are rarely made substantive kings and decision makers over men. Ooni Luwo, the 21st king and the only female monarch of Ile-Ife (Odoaje 2015) and, Princess Olu, known as Oba (king) Pupupu, the first Osemawe of Ondo, both in Nigeria, were exceptions to this rule ("History of Ondo Town," 2013). Generally, however, the Yoruba do not accept equality in men's and women's power (Orebiyi 2001; Aluko 2014a). Jegede affirms, "the equality of (the power of) men and women is not an acceptable norm" on the ground that women in Yorubaland are rarely allowed to occupy the highest leadership position in the traditional administrative setting. While a woman could serve as a regent after the demise of a king, she only, in exceptional cases, permanently headed a town. "Also, in religious realm, women are not allowed to participate nor witness certain rites which are regarded as the exclusive preserve of men" (Jegede 2012:264).

While women's status and power was low in Nigeria before the coming of Christianity to Africa, Western Christianity did not provide them with power in the church structure in Africa when it came (Mwaura 2012:421). Christianity, however, empowered them through education and campaign that they be given voice outside the church. The discussions below illustrate how AIPC in Nigeria promotes women status, power and liberation.

Ministry of Women in AIPC

The role of women in contemporary AIPC has rapidly changed but not uniformly. Although Bateye observes that women's role in Pentecostal churches in

Nigeria is contentious (Bateye 2008a:114; cf. Mapuranga 2013a; Mapuranga 2013b), Williams discovers four women among the 50 most powerful pastors in Nigeria (Williams 2002). The women who Williams identifies are Bimbo Odukoya, Margaret Benson Idahosa, Nkechi Anayo-Iloputaife, and Helen Ukpabio. It is strange however that Williams skips the name of Mobolaji Bolanle Odeleke, the first female Bishop in Africa, from her list of the powerful pastors in Nigeria. The current article demonstrates that while some Pentecostal churches in Nigeria apparently curtail women, other Pentecostal churches allow them to rise in power hierarchy.

Relative deprivation theory may explain to a great extent the large movement of women to AIPC in Nigeria. The theory, based “on a social psychological thesis that frustration leads to aggression” (Hall 2003:363), states that people make for social change in order to acquire something that others possess and which they believe they too should have. The theory “refers to ... [the] feelings of deprivation and discontent which are related to a desired point of reference” (Flynn, n.d.). Feelings of relative deprivation arise when desires become legitimate expectations and those desires are blocked by society (Morrison 1971). Women are undoubtedly deprived of power in mission churches and in some Pentecostal churches. Relative deprivation may, therefore, explain in part, the movement of women to some Pentecostal churches with the expectation that their God given power taken from them by men would be restored.

Some feminists argue that Christian missionaries’ relegation of women to powerless status in the church hierarchy has greatly and negatively influenced biblical interpretation in Africa (Olajubu 2005). The present study showed that women in AIPC do function at both supportive and substantive levels. Substantively, they function as prophetesses, founders, bishops, and evangelists. People like Donna Beatrice even suffered martyrdom for their faith (Martin 1975). In denominations like “The Apostolic Church of South Africa,” female bishops preside only over women organisations and services (West 1975). The initial pre-occupation of the Zionist Christian Church (ZCC) also in South Africa was freedom from Western cultural bondage. In the recent times, the ZCC began to operate two strands of authority namely, the bishopric and the prophetic. The bishopric is in charge of administration and preaching while the prophetic is in charge of healing. Bishops of ZCC often make their wives the head Prophetesses to limit tension in their churches (West 1975). Since South Africans regard the husband as the head of the family and the issue of “women liberation” is still largely limited to the educated idealists in the continent, Prophetesses of ZCC submit easily to their Bishop husbands.

In the Church of Pentecost in Ghana, women only serve in supportive roles (Leonard 1989). The observation of Mwaura that women are “... absent from the power structures of ... (African) churches, which are male dominated” (Mwaura 2012:411) is, however, only partly true in Nigeria. The Cherubim and Seraphim (C&S) Church was co-founded in Nigeria by Moses Orimolade (1879-1933), male, and Christiana Abiodun Akinsowon (1907-1994), female. The two leaders with

their supporters split in 1929 after a prolonged leadership tension (Omoyajowo 1982, Boniface n.d.). Following this, both Orimolade and Abiodun individually registered their factions with the colonial administration. Orimolade registered his church as “The Eternal Sacred Order of Cherubim and Seraphim” with the registration number 316 while Abiodun registered hers as “Cherubim and Seraphim Society” with the registration number 318 (“St. Moses Orimolade Tunolase” n.d.). Abiodun managed her church well. She set “the pace for the emergence of female religious leadership by overriding cultural barriers against women in early twentieth-century Yoruba society” (“Christiana Abiodun Akinsowon” n.d.).

After the death of Orimolade, some of his followers challenged Abiodun’s leadership of the C&S organisation but the court resolved the issue in favour of Abiodun in 1986. She became a symbol of female empowerment and administrative acumen. Olajubu concludes from Abiodun’s successful challenge of Orimolade thus, “(...) this was her rejection of the arbitration of Yoruba kings who had advised her to accept the control of the church by male leaders” (Olajubu 2003:56). Olajubu thus clearly interprets and celebrates this as gender victory, “The unforeseen consequence of her victory was that women began to challenge the notion that power relations in the African independent churches were dependent on gender prescriptions” (Olajubu 2003:56). It is, however, not certain that Abiodun was driven by gender agenda rather than personality struggle. Another female church founder in Abiodun’s faction of C&S Church became the “Mother-Superintendent,” and she became the first General Superintendent of the C&S Church in 1936 (Sanneh 1983:193). Since the death of Olatunrinde, no other woman has risen again to the post of the General Superintendent of the church. At present women in C&S Church no longer exercise significant authority except in women meetings (cf. Omoyajowo 1982). In the contemporary times, even when women pray in worship services, they invite the men around to give benediction after their prayers (Aluko 2014). In the C&S Church women are, therefore, not currently represented in the power structure. This reversion of female status in the power structure of the C&S Church manifests retrogressive influences of African Indigenous Religions (AIR) and mission Christianity in the church. The initial substantive status of women like Abiodun and Olatunrinde were reversed after their death.

The Living Faith Church Worldwide was founded in Nigeria. It allows women to function in both substantive and supportive roles. Wives of the ordained ministers in the church are also ordained. Pastor (Mrs.) Faith Oyedepo is an example of this. In the church, women do administer sacraments to other members in the church. Pastor (Mrs.) Oyedepo was once the Director of Administration and Finance of the church, a Bible conference speaker, the Director of Word of Faith Bible Institute (WOFBI), the Senior Pastor, Winners’ Chapel, Lagos, the Managing Director of Dominion Publishing House and the President of Women Ministry International (*Bishop David Oyedepo ... Celebrate 12 Years of Exploits in Ministry* 1995:22).

The list of ordained women ministers in the contemporary Pentecostal churches in Nigeria is long. They include Rev. (Mrs.) C. Akpami of Christian Teaching Centre, Rev. (Mrs.) Ishaya Audu of Charity and Faith Church, Pastor (Mrs.) A. Bakare of Jesus is Alive Ministry, Rev. (Mrs.) Rose Favour Onye of Hour of Gethsemane Church and Rev. (Mrs.) Funbi Addo of Kaduna Praise Chapel. All these women baptise converts, administer Holy Communion, and some of them ordain others. Where some of these women are church founders, they make their husbands Pastors, Reverends or even Bishops; and in such situations, they hold the control of the churches they found. Where the husbands found the churches, their wives may be ordained, but in that situation the husbands hold the control of the churches.

Emerging Patterns of Women Status in Church Power Structure in Nigeria

Feminist scholars accuse men of using power to dominate women and argue that women, therefore, need to claim power for themselves to enable them cope better with life (cf. "Feminist Perspectives on Power" 2005). Some African feminist scholars make women inclusiveness in leadership through availing them equal opportunity with men in the church power structure their goal (White 2012), while other feminists are more daring in their demand.

The current research demonstrates that in West Africa, there are four positions to the status of women in the power structure of AIPC. The first category comprises churches founded by men and taken over by the founders' wives after their husbands' demise. This is represented by the "Church of God Mission International." Benson Idahosa (1938-1998) was a founding father of the church and its first Archbishop. After his death, his wife, Margaret Benson-Idahosa was ordained the Bishop in 1998, elevated to the position next to the Archbishop in 2009, and later made the President of the church. As at 2002, she presided over more than 3,000 assemblies worldwide (Williams 2002). The church has many investments one of which is Benson Idahosa University, a Nigerian Federal Government approved University. Margaret Benson-Idahosa wields great power over others in her denomination (cf. Weber 1978). She is also an effective administrator with ability or capacity to act (cf. Pitkin 1972, Miller 1992). The second denomination that follows such pattern is Victory Christian Church. Anayo-Iloputaife (1959-1995) founded the church in February 1985. Anayo-Iloputaife later became the first Bishop of the church. Presently, the headquarters of the church is in Victory Village, Satellite Town, Lagos ("About" n.d.). When Bishop Anayo-Iloputaife died, his wife, Nkechi Anayo-Iloputaife took over the headship of the church as its President and General Overseer. She became the second Bishop of the church ("G.O.'s Page" n.d.). The church allegedly has about 10,000 members ("Reluctant Pastor, A" n.d.). She has also founded and heads "Handmaiden of God Ministry International," a worldwide women ministry. One article regards her as one of the top three female preachers in Nigeria (Sadjere n.d.). In AIPC, Presidents or/and General Overseers (GOs) have almost absolute power which they often sustain with the claim to divine revelations.

The second pattern comprises churches founded and controlled by women. It is represented by Power Pentecostal Church (PPC) of Mobolaji Bolanle Odeleke simply called Bola Odeleke. She was the first female gospel preacher on Nigerian television (“Bishop Odeleke Interview: Widowhood in Nigeria” n.d.). On 13th March 1982, Odeleke established “Christ Message Ministry” (CMM) (Alokan 1991:229) with her husband. At the initial stage the couple operated within CAC. Bola Odeleke also founded in 1993 a CAC assembly which she later made the international headquarters of PPC (Ojo 2016). Two events led her to change her assembly which was initially CAC to PPC. The first was the death of her husband on 28th November 1990. The second was the new policies banishing private ownership of assemblies and ministries in the church following the crisis that began in CAC in 1989 (cf. Ojo 2016). Her husband, Colonel James ‘Lasun Odeleke, was a staunch Elder of CAC who would most likely have prevented her from leaving CAC if he were alive.

The new policy meant that CAC central administration was to take-over the assemblies she and her family set up with their resources and confiscate her CMM and its assets. The new policy did not target only her assemblies and ministry, but she claimed in an interview with a journalist to have left CAC because the church was undergoing a destabilising crisis. She claimed further that she had a divine revelation directing her to start her own denomination (Balogun 2010).

Truly, Odeleke was invited, with some others, to the General Secretariat of CAC, for interview discerned “for those having ministries/seminaries” in CAC, in Kusela Close, Aperin Oniyere, Ibadan, Nigeria on the 29th and 30th October 1991. But she was only one of the three women invited for the interview. Others were Bola Are and Mrs. Ogunranti. Thirteen (13) men were also invited for the interview. Among other things, the interview wanted to know if those invited were willing to surrender the administration and assets of their ministries to CAC. It also wanted to find out if the founders were willing to remove all their identities from their assemblies and ministries (“Interview Sheet for those having Ministries/Seminaries under Christ Apostolic Church” 1991). The report recommended on Bola Odeleke that: all appellation of “*Kiibaati*” be scrapped from her assemblies; the control, administration, transfer and staffing of her assemblies be taken over by Christ Apostolic Church (CAC); all the landed properties of her assemblies and ministry and her ministry, CMM, be taken over by CAC. A policy paper issued by CAC (Worldwide) later gave administrative force to these and other similar recommendations (The Policy Paper signed by Pastors E. A. Faniyan and Gideon Okegwemeh was neither numbered n.d.).

One thing is clear; Christ Apostolic Church did not force Bola Odeleke out on gender ground. If not for Bola Odeleke’s claim to divine mandate to leave CAC (Balogun 2010), one would have blamed her for leaving the denomination in a hurry. The policy made to dispossess owners of private ministries and founders of assemblies within CAC could not be and was not implemented. Bola Odeleke’s

claim to receiving a divine revelation to leave CAC is not verifiable to the third party because it is subjective.

Bola Odeleke was ordained by late Rev. Olumide Ige who also bestowed on her an honorary doctoral degree in Nigeria. She was ordained the Bishop of the PPC in 1995 by the International Ministerial Council of Great Britain. As the GO of PPC, she has total control over her church. The church passed through some serious crises. Several things were responsible for the downward turn in the membership of her church: her breaking away from CAC, reactions against her ordination as Reverend and then Bishop which were strange in the Nigerian culture, the many scandals that followed her remarriage and divorce and the problem she had with her tenants in Lagos (Oladipo 2012, “Bling Bling Bishop with OPC” 2012). She has apparently overcome the scandals and settled down to face her ministry (Lawal 2013). Her ministry has produced many ministers of both genders. As the founder and GO of PPC, Bola Odeleke wields great power.

One other church founded and controlled by a woman in Nigeria is “*Agbala Daniel Church*” (“*Vineyard of Daniel Church*”) of Dorcas Siyanbola Olaniyi with headquarters in Ibadan. “*Agbala Daniel Church*” began in 1979 as a CAC assembly (Olajubu 2003:57) but was later changed to a new denomination in 1990 when the destabilising crisis in CAC began (Olayinka 2001). Olaniyi claims that God has given her “a divine mandate to empower women to take up leadership positions in the (new) church and the wider society” (Olofinjana 2012). To Fatokun, “Olaniyi is ... not just a female pastor like any other but a woman of great spiritual resources ... a prophetess, pastor, teacher and church administrator” (Fatokun 2006). She has many male and female Pastors, including her husband, serving with her. As the Archbishop of the church, she exercises the greatest administrative power in the church. Helen Ukpabio also founded “*Liberty Foundation Gospel Church and Ministries*” with headquarters in Calabar (Bateye 2007). Ukpabio is the Apostle and GO of her church. The church’s acclaimed preoccupation is “*deliverance*” of family members from alleged demonic possession. As the GO of the church, Ukpabio controls power which she deploys without hesitation. Although most of her members are women, she also has male pastors in her church. Her use of power has, however, been questioned. She has been accused of preaching hate gospel and perpetrating violence against families (Igwe 2012). This shows that possession of power does not guarantee its positive use. She is the only woman among the 10 most controversial Nigerian Pastors announced by *Pulse Nigerian Television* in 2014 for her international reputation as a “*witch-hunter*” (“*Pulse NG (Nigeria) Releases List of 10 most Controversial Pastors of 2014*” 2014).

The third pattern involves Pentecostal churches in Nigeria with the explicit policy to limit women participation in the power structure of their churches but compensate them by elevating the women’s husbands for their wives’ contributions. Such churches recognise that both men and women can and are being empowered with charismata (“*spiritual gifts*”). Since women with great charismata could not be ignored, and these type of churches do not want to lose

their services and the assemblies they plant, they ordain and elevate their husbands in compensation. A notorious example of this pattern is CAC. Although CAC allows women to minister as midwives, prophetesses, evangelists, assembly planters, and revivalists, it does not give them power in its administrative structure. Even though women are now allowed to train with men in the same theological schools of CAC using the same curricular (Folarin & Afolabi 2012), they are rarely employed as pastors/evangelists, placed on salary, given official accommodation, and ordained like their male counterparts. From the 1980s however, women ministry in the church assumed a new dimension with the likes of the Lady Evangelist Bola Odeleke who established and registered their individual ministries within CAC (Alokan 1991, Bateye 2008b). Bola Are followed Odeleke's example. There are other women who did not register their ministries. Mary Aduroja is an example of the latter group. While Odeleke is based in Lagos, Aare and Aduroja are based in Ibadan. Ordination of the husbands of selected women Evangelists or Prophetesses is, however, done only in exceptional situations. Examples of men ordained as Pastors by CAC to compensate their wives for their spiritual contributions are the late Pastor/Major Lasun Odeleke, and the late Pastor Joel Oludipe Aare. Some husbands are even made "Superintendents" to districts created for the assemblies founded by their wives. In nearly all such cases, the husbands, who many times do not make any claim to divine call into the ministry, are figure heads as their wives remain the power in the churches they found. But women still wield great but indirect power in CAC at times by telling their husbands in power the decision they want their husbands to rubber stamp in meetings.

The last pattern comprises a church jointly founded by a couple in which the wife is the more popular of the duo. Such a woman is part of the power structure of the church. A clear example of this is "The Fountain of Life Church" (TFOLC) in Lagos co-started by Pastor Taiwo Odukoya and his wife, Pastor (Mrs.) Bimbo Odukoya, in 1992 (Oyewale 2014). It is a big and influential church with over 8,000 in Lagos, and with branches in many countries. The church is listed as one of the most influential Pentecostal churches in Nigeria ("List of Nigeria's Most Influential Pentecostal Churches" 2013). Pastor Bimbo is regarded by a columnist as "the best-known woman evangelist" in Nigeria ("Bimbo Odukoya" 2005). Her ministry targeted spinsters, bachelors and middle-aged couples whose marriages were floundering. She employed television and Internet services to effectively propagate her messages. She also wrote many books, and was a regular columnist for several national and international newspapers and magazines in and outside Nigeria. She was a Senior Associate Pastor of TFOLC. Her husband who was the Senior Pastor of TFOLC allowed her the freedom to operate both within and outside their denomination. She was a great speaker who concentrated on the sanctity of the home and family. Her emphasis agreed with the vision of TFOLC: To build the home, and thus the nation; and to equip the saints for life and ministry ("Vision and Mission" n.d.). She got more than 60 national and international awards from both religious and non-religious organisations. She even got some awards posthumously. As at 2002, Bimbo Odukoya was already regarded as one of

the 50 most powerful Pastors in Nigeria (Williams 2002). The case of the Odukoyas is unique, however, because the couple are educated: Bimbo had a first degree in Archaeology and History from the University of Ibadan while her husband had his first degree in Mechanical Engineering from the same university. In addition, the husband obtained another first degree in theology from a seminary in the USA. The couple's education undoubtedly influenced their relationship and the support which Taiwo gave to his wife and to her ministry.

Cherubim and Seraphim (C&S) Church demonstrates that a church may well be founded and headed by a woman but men may later take-over power permanently from women, especially after the death of the founder. The C&S church that was earlier headed by a woman, Captain Abiodun, no longer has a woman occupying any significant position of power in the church today. Like always, men have completely taken over the power structure of the church. Charles E. Brown suggests that prevalence of women in the power structure of the church is a sign of the church's spirituality, while their absence is a sign that the church is fatally sick (Sanders 1996).

Implications of Women in the Power Structure of AIPC

The problem of women leadership in Christian ministry in Africa includes but is not limited to ordination. Fortunately, the issue of pastoral ordination in relation to Christian ministry, as popularly conceived in the contemporary time, is not discussed in the New Testament. Even then, only a few Pentecostal denominations in Nigeria do not ordain women. Unlike most Evangelical churches which limit women, many Pentecostal churches rate divine call and charismata above gender in defining the status of women in their power structure (cf. Howe 1984:1181).

Positively, involving women in the power structure of AIPC has been shown to enhance the growth of the church (Martin 1975, Oderinde 2012), especially among the women in purdah (dress used in screening women from men and strangers) since it is easier for fellow women to reach them. Allowing women to function substantively in the church allows them to contribute to the decision making of the church. Again such inclusion allows women to use their gifts without hindrance. Next, the freedom permits women to apply their feminine touch to where men are not so patient and understanding. Finally, it allows the church to benefit from the gifts of the Spirit bestowed by God on women (Cf. Oladeinde 2016:148). All these positive contributions have been observed by the current researchers in many Pentecostal churches in Nigeria.

Negatively, however, too much involvement of women in ministerial work could be costly to them. For example Bola Odeleke had a broken home. Her two marriages, after the death of her first husband, broke-up, although she alleged that the break-up was because the men duped her. Compared to the experiences of Katherine Kuhlman and Aimee Semple McPherson, it appears some men cannot stand the long absence of their wives from home or endure their wives' popularity. When women are too occupied with church work, there is the danger that their

children may be denied the maternal care needed for their development. Gender controversy in the church has risen to an all-time high and this is dangerous to the church as secular and liberal theologians replace the traditional spiritual emphases on sin, salvation, love, service and the return of Christ with gender concerns.

Theological Appraisal of Limiting Women's Engagement in Church Power Structure

While the debate on women status in the power structure of the church is generally distracting, feminist theologians have successfully drawn attention to the disdainful status of women in many churches and indicted the churches of the abuse and oppression of women in the hands of chauvinistic men. Certainly, limiting women in the power structure of the church on the basis of gender inferiority and/or culture is untenable. First, the human being created in the image of God (Gen 1:26, 27) comprise “man” and “woman.” The Hebrew word translated in many English versions as ‘Adam,’ with or without the definite article (אָדָם, v. 26; אָדָם, v. 27) is the generic man. The referent is explicitly defined as “male and female” in verse 27. Again in the Fall of “man,” both genders sinned (Gen 3:1-6). Using Genesis 3:16 to deny women equal opportunity in the power structure of the “household of God” is, therefore, a coloured interpretation of the text (cf. Adebayo 2016) that needs to be countered through the application of historico-grammatical interpretation. Adeogun surveys the ideological ways feminist theologians domesticate the Genesis 3 text (Adeogun 2012:152-161).

While the limitation imposed on women in the leadership structure of the church in 1 Timothy 2:14 is beyond the scope of this work, a brief summary of scholarly opinions on the text is in order here. One opinion is that Paul did not write the text. The second position is that the text is wrong no matter who wrote it. The third opinion is that the limitation placed on women in 1 Timothy 2: 9-15 was a local and temporary provision (Nicole 1984). The last position is that Paul authored the passage and that the prohibition in 1 Timothy 2:9-15 is intended to be universal and permanent. Vorster opines, “Equal treatment seems to be a defining characteristic of a biblical understanding of equality Christ’s liberating work creates a priesthood before God that transcends differences of culture, economy and gender (Gal 3:28)” (Vorster 2012). In his literary-theological investigation of 1 Timothy 2:11-15, Abiola I. Mbamalu rejects “Paul’s” position on women marginalisation in 1 Timothy 2:11-15 in the church because

(...) the grace that was poured out abundantly on him: a blasphemer, a persecutor and a violent man and on account of his *ignorance* and *unbelief* (1 Tim 1:12–16) is apparently, being denied women on account of Eve’s deception (Mbamalu 2014).

Another significant but controversial text on women status in the church is 1 Corinthians 14:33b-37 (Knight III 1977). There are three commands in 1 Corinthians 14:34-35. These are, “let them [women] be silent” (v. 34), “let them

submit [to men]" (v. 34), and "let them ask [in silence]" (v. 35). There are three possible ways to interpret this passage. The first is to say that verses 34 and 35 are an interpolation, unworthy of interpretation and should be excised (e.g. Barrett 1968). The second is that the verses (34-35) represent a rabbinical saying or a Corinthians' slogan which Paul presents in order to demolish women. The third is that the verses (34 and 35) are declarative and that Paul uses them to forbid women from taking up authoritative status in the church (Knight III 1977:48). The interpretation that resonates with women's rise in the power structure of AIPC is the second interpretive option which states that 1 Corinthians 14:34-35 was a local sanction imposed by the Corinthians on women in the Corinthians church which Paul restated and rejected in 1 Corinthians 14:36 (Folarin & Afolabi 2012). This option affirms the full inspiration of the Bible, agrees with the position of Pentecostals that the Bible is the word of God and, reduces theological hindrances to women's upward movement in the power structure of AIPC. It is the view of this researcher that in 1 Corinthians 14, Paul distances himself from the law in verses 34-35 which subjugate women in church power structure.

Feminists build their theology on "hermeneutics of suspicion" (Reuther 1991, Mkamkandawire 2005, Truth 2010 and Olademo 2012). The feminist theologians suspect every theology that supports male's priority in ministry. They re-evaluate traditional biblical interpretations, and re-interpret biblical texts from feminine perspective. They blame "Paul" for theologising that women be subjected to men in church power structure. In their fight for equality in gender representation in the power structure of the church, secular and liberal feminist theologians build heavily on the "bitter personal experiences of injustice" allegedly meted out to them by men. The problem with this approach is that it is too subjective, and can lead to confusion. Many Evangelical feminist theologians, on the other hand, accept Paul's authorship of the Letter to Timothy and argue that the church hierarchical order in 1 Timothy 2: 9-15 is divine but insist that the abuse of the text needs to stop. Akinwumi exemplifies an Evangelical feminist scholar's position that the Bible is divine and authoritative but its abuse by men to oppress women ought to be discouraged and discontinued (Akinwumi 2012:260-261).

The Bible shows that women played important roles in the apostolic times. Widows brought up their children in faith, showed hospitality to strangers, washed the feet of saints, assisted the distressed, and prayed for others (1 Tim 5:10). The Samaritan woman of John 4 has even been interpreted to be a freelance evangelist who preached the gospel to others (Aluko 1993). Aluko's opinion is, however, debatable because the Samaritan woman's "gospel" lacked information on human's sinfulness, the need for salvation, and the availability of eternal life in Jesus. Such "gospel" is less than the Christian gospel. It is likely correct, however, that women were included in the commission to evangelise the world, since they were part of the Acts 1-2 experience.

Some women in the early church hosted church meetings in their houses at various occasions (Mary, Acts 12:12; Eudias and Syntyche, Phil 4:2). Some other women served in the church as prophetesses (Acts 2:18; 21:19; 1 Cor 11:5) and, at

least one woman was arguably a female apostle (Rom 16:7) (cf. Nicole 1984). Admittedly, there is no consensus among Bible scholars on the exact meaning of Andronicus and Junia being οἵτινες εἰσιν ἐπίσημοι ἐν τοῖς ἀποστόλοις (Rom 16:7). Some interpret the phrase as those “who are of note among the apostles” (American Standard Version), some as those who “are well known to the apostles” (English Standard Version), and some others interpret it as those who “are very important apostles” (New Century Version). Kasali interprets the use of the term “apostle” in this text as only meaning messenger or commissioned missionary (Kasali 2006: 1402). One thing is, however, certain: “Junia” is a feminine name. Although lexical, syntactical and theological arguments cannot definitively prove that Junia was an apostle in the narrower sense (Harding 2016), it is significant that many early Church Fathers took Junia to be a female apostle (Epp 2005). Pentecostals do support the inclusion of women in the administrative and power structure of many of their churches by arguing that the Holy Spirit has given them spiritual gifts just as he has given to men. “The Assemblies of God” argues thus, if *God* has called and supernaturally endowed women for ministry the church should not stand in their way in serving at all levels for which they are equipped (cf. “Role of Women in Ministry as Described in Holy Scripture, The” 2010). Substantive involvement of women in church work may be good for widows and celibates but it is debatable if it is as good for married women or ladies who intend to get married.

Gabaitse criticises what he calls the “unarticulated hermeneutics” of Pentecostal churches for “denigrating” women. Ayegboyin however disagrees that all AIPC denigrate women in their power structure (Ayegboyin 2006). Gabaitse blames the Pentecostal churches’ literal method of interpretation for “denigrating” women. She accuses them further of proof-texting the Bible to legitimise the marginalisation of women (Gabaitse 2015). “Proof texting” is a form of literalism. “Proof texting” harmonises a few biblical texts to support a particular position without paying due attention to the use of figures of speech in the texts and without considering how the selected texts relate to the Bible as a whole. There is, however, a problem equating literal interpretation with literalism in interpretation. Literal interpretation is historical, grammatical, contextual and systematic, but literalism is not. There are Pentecostal scholars who are working hard to redress that weakness but the results of their findings are rarely being adopted by many AIPC. Most Pentecostal churches in Nigeria use “proof texting” with all its many weaknesses in their interpretation of Bible texts. This approach to interpretation of the Bible has made it easier for many AIPC to promote women in the power status of their churches. With the degree of freedom presently enjoyed by women in AIPC, it is hoped that the liberating power of the Holy Spirit will set women free from bias against them.

Conclusion

The first observation made in the discussion above is that AIPC has impacted greatly on gender space in their denominations contrary to what obtained

in the traditional culture of the people and mission instituted churches. The second observation is that the upward mobility of women in the Pentecostal churches is either the product of their outstanding spiritual gifts as discovered in Bola Odeleke (cf. Prov. 18:16) or family succession as found in Margaret Benson-Idahosa. The third observation is that the change in women status in the power structure of Pentecostal churches is not the outcome of feminist liberation movement since none of the women leaders discussed above is a feminist scholar or an exponent of womanism. Oyewumi (2011) notes the same point with concern. Next is that power in whoever's hand is found does not guarantee that it would be used positively. Again, whenever a person with the required ability is put in a position and others cooperate with him or her, the church would progress. It is also not certain that after the death of great women leaders, women would not be relegated in the power structure of the churches. Lastly, the church may make available to both genders equal opportunity in its power structure, but appropriating that opportunity is more complex. It is the conviction of this researcher that for AIPC, spiritual gifts of Christian women are ultimately the game changer (cf. Ayegboyin 2002:50) in the women's upward placement in the power structure of their churches.

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Government Bureaucracy and the New Public Management in Nigeria: A Critical Analysis

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Abstract

The paper set out to establish the effect of New Public Management (NPM) on government bureaucracy with a view to identifying the positive or negative benefits of the new policy. Secondary data were collected from information already recorded and arranged in published and unpublished materials such as textbooks, newspapers, articles, publications and reports. The results showed that lack of efficiency, effectiveness, transparency and accountability were responsible for the adoption of new public management, while innovation and efficiency were the primary reasons for NPM involvement in the social service delivery in Nigeria government bureaucracy; that using ideas from private sector had positive impact on the effective and efficient service delivery; that there was positive relationship between the NPM and public service delivery in the Nigerian government; and that there were no significant challenges and problems in the adoption of new public management strategies. The study concluded that New Public Management (NPM) addressed the perceived lacuna and challenges in more traditional public administration strategies with greater managerialism, and an emphasis on privatisation and decentralisation, as methods for improving public services and improving public organisational efficiency, cost-saving and accountability.

Key words: administration, bureaucracy, development administration, new public management

Introduction

The paper set out to establish the effect of New Public Management (NPM) on government bureaucracy with a view to identifying the positive or negative benefits of the new policy. The quest to reinvent government emerged as a dominant reform initiative in the United States during the 1990s. This process dates from the early nineties with the onset of the crisis in state model, which had been created by developed countries during the post 2nd world war set off an unprecedented trend in capitalist prosperity.

The Nigerian government shrouded in the mystery of colonial master administration is still struggling to meet with the expectations of many Nigerians and this has carved the desire of government to adopt the NPM approach in order to improve performance management and efficiency of the government bureaucracy. The costs of governance in Nigeria have risen and resulted to economic recession, fiscal crises and poor public service delivery, coupled with the increasing demand for immaculate and regimented public service that conforms to international best practices (Ojeifo & Alegbeleye, 2015).

There is no doubt that the Nigerian public service has been afflicted over the years with series of problems, among which are poor performance, corruption, absenteeism and the ghost workers syndrome. Considering this malaise that has characterised the public service as well as the need to reposition it to make it people-oriented and compatible with the reality of global standard, President Olusegun Obasanjo approved the establishment of Bureau for Public Service Reforms (BPSR) (Agboola, 2016). The bureau was mandated to streamline and standardise the public service at the federal level, including setting minimum standards to be met by each Ministry or Agency. The task was “to build a civil service that is performance and result oriented, professional and technologically sensitive, and committed to a continuous improvement in the conduct of government business and the enhancement of national productivity” (Ajayi, 2006: 4). According to Ajayi (2006), the thrust of the Federal Governments position was to reposition and re-professionalise the public service for greater efficiency, effectiveness in service delivery, accountability, transparency and overall national productivity.

At the most basic level, this concept promotes the public sector’s use of private sector management techniques. Due to pressure, NPM has spread across the world, influencing a wide range of states. However, there are reservations over the general applicability of NPM especially in the developing world. (Baird, 2010). In the pioneering countries such as United Kingdom, United States of America, New Zealand had a strong impact on the cross-institutional range of activities and on institutional structures in the public sector in contrast to the more restricted modernisation within individual units of the overall administrative structures in the countries that followed after. In the advanced stage, NPM has raised issues with regard to privatisation possibilities, strategic administration in most European administrations (Ciarniene, *et al*, 2006).

The New Public Management model has been of immense success in the Western countries and some of the emerging economies such as South Africa, Thailand, Malaysia, Brazil, Ghana that have adopted the model have credited it. The model has since begun to gradually find its legitimacy in Nigeria and other developing countries (Ojeifo & Alegbeleye, 2015). New Public Management (NPM) emerged in response to a number of environmental forces which governments everywhere have faced in the last thirty years. Essentially, the need for the provision of infrastructural facilities in developing countries cannot be overemphasised as they constitute the backbone of any country’s national development. Response to the problem of management inefficiency and ineffectiveness has led to the development of specific tactical strategies towards the managing public institutions in an effective management to practical solution. To this end, the introduction of private investor strategies into the development of public infrastructure, the level of public awareness of private sector involvement in infrastructure development is considered crucial.

The purpose of this paper is to analyse the role of New Public Management (NPM) into the model of Nigerian government bureaucracy which is to serve as a panacea to improving public service delivery in Nigeria; the effects of NPM on Nigerian government bureaucracy; and the challenges facing NPM reforms and Nigerian government bureaucracy.

Conceptualisation and Literature Review

New Public Management (NPM) represents an attempt to correct the shortcomings of traditional public organisations in efficiency and service-delivery to citizens. One of its central themes is to stress the importance of public managers' discretionary space or freedom to manage. At least, statements to that effect are so common-place that it seems everyone knows they are true. (Hood, 2012). Haynes (2008) opines that the emergence of New Public Management is an alternative perspective to the tradition of public administration theory and thought. New Public Management emerged in the 1980s and was perceived to be a solution to many of the problems that had traditionally beset public administration. It emerged within the context of an ideological shift in the role of traditional public administration amongst other things, public service provision, the welfare state, employment, new technology and in the role of governments and markets in the provision and management.

Hugue (2008) conceptualises that the rigid administrative bureaucratic model is now being denounced and replaced with new managerial approach that is New Public Management. The most common official explanations for adopting the NPM model are weakness or failure of traditional state bureaucracy, especially in terms of its monopolistic nature, unmanageable size, managerial inefficiency, public inaccessibility, economic inertia, excessive corruption, and self-serving agenda. Although these allegations against state bureaucracy were always there in the past, the intensity of such anti-bureaucratic rhetoric was significantly increased during the 1980s and 1990s by the market-friendly ruling parties in advanced capitalist nations. The new agenda was to reduce the scope and role of public bureaucracy, transfer resources and services from the public sector to the private sector and restructure the public service in the image of business management. This is because the business sector was believed to be more competitive, productive, efficient, innovative, responsive, and customer-friendly.

In both developed and developing countries, the tarnished image of the public service was reinforced further as most governments began to hold the expensive public sector responsible for causing budget deficits and fiscal crisis, and introduced market-driven policies and structural reforms in line with the NPM model. Various forms of fiscal crisis, allegedly caused by an inefficient public bureaucracy, have been used as one of the most oft-cited rationales for adopting NPM as a more efficient model of governance in Africa.

Another dominant rationale has been to enhance innovations in the public sector based on NPM principle and techniques such as user-responsiveness, outcome-orientation and competition service delivery. These micro-managerial

principles and techniques are considered “good practices”, and founded upon the macro-level rhetoric of “good governance” used by governments and donors to justify the adoption of NPM. In particular, in the name of “good governance”, the World Bank has prescribed various facets of NPM for developing nations to pursue their public sector reforms (Hague, 2008).

Hartzell (2006) explains that administration is basically an organisation process concerned with the implementation of objectives and plans and internal operator efficiency. It often connotes bureaucratic structure and behaviour, relatively routine decision making and maintenance of the internal status quo. Entrepreneurship implies more creative external or open systems orientation. It involves innovation, risk taking and relatively dynamic leadership. The true modern professional manager tends to be both an administrator and an entrepreneur, although in varying degrees.

Adebayo (2011) defines administration as the organisation and direction of persons in order to accomplish a specified end. Perhaps the simplest and shortest definition of administration is the one which states that “when two men co-operate to roll a stone neither could move alone, the rudiments of administration have appeared”. Administration must exist in any organisation set up for a defined purpose or objective. Whether you think of the church, the military, a university, an industrial or business concern or a purely social organisation and in government operations, there has to be administration because each one consists of human beings brought together in a hierarchical set-up, making use of tools, equipment, human and material resources, all in the quest to attain the objective for which the organisation is established (Adebayo, 2011).

Bureaucracy is an administrative system characterised by a continuous organisation of official functions bound by rules, hierarchy, formalisation and competent personnel. It also refers to a complex, specialised organisation (especially a governmental organisation) composed of non-elected, highly trained professional administrative services and talks (Babawale, 2003). Adebayo (2011) opines that the word “bureaucracy”, therefore, appears to have acquired an opprobrious meaning, an odious connotation. It is associated with inefficiency, lack of innovativeness, unintelligent rigidity in the approach to human problems, undue fussiness and bossiness on the part of officials and downright stubbornness. This appears to be the sum of impressions that spring to mind at the mention of the word “bureaucracy”, when applied to the way that public officials go about their businesses.

Sapru (2008) opines that development administration is concerned with development. It initiates and manages innovation in terms of political, social and economic concerns. Development administration is characterised by innovation and social engineering. It embraces the array of new functions assumed by developing countries embarking on modernisation and industrialisation. Development administration is a mechanism for attainment of socio-economic progress and nation-building in the so called 3rd world countries. The concept of development administration is used to refer to the total transformation of a system.

Thus, when used to describe a nation, it describes the transformation of the various aspects of the life of the nation. In fact, development administration implies a progression from a lower and often undesirable state to a high and preferred one.

Anyebe (2009) defines development administration as a system of administration geared towards development. It initiates and manages innovations of political, social and economic concerns. Development administration is characterised by innovation and social engineering. He further describes development administration as a carrier of innovation values. It embraces the array of new functions assumed by developing countries embarking on the path of modernisation and industrialisation. Development administration ordinarily involves the establishment of machinery of planning economic growth and modernising and allocating resources to expand national income.

Theoretical Review

Public choice theory could be useful in discussing issues under consideration. This approach is based on the assumption that individuals pursue their own aims and act according to their preferences. From the public choice perspective, rationality is not bounded compared with a theoretical optimum; rather, rationale behaviour is when a person acts to pursue his or her aims according to his or her knowledge of the situation (Tullock, 2008). According to Boston et al. (2006), the central tenet of public choice theory is that the human is a rational being, acting or desiring to act autonomously and seeking to satisfy his/her personal best interest. In public administration terms, this would mean that services have to be targeted or varied (choice) and that the taxpayer would demand value ('more for less') and accountability. In view of Ostrom and Ostrom (2008), public choice theory advocates the rolling back of the frontiers of the state but promotes greater private involvement in the provision of social services and the creation of wealth. It also holds welfare democracy in high contempt based on the assumptions that welfare democracy breeds corruption, inefficiency and intense rent-seeking (Afegbua, 2013).

Olowu (2001) views the role of the Nigerian higher civil servants in ensuring the continuity and unity of Nigeria as an indispensable sovereign entity during the civil war as being dictated more by self-interest than by patriotism. Justifying the public perspective in this context was Jacobson (2002) who concludes that the public choice theory is regarded as the present political arrangements that show as poor predators of citizens, preferences that demand the bureaucracies for self-interested goals by officials who share the vested interests over higher institution (Agboola, 2012).

Rebuilding the Nation and Recovering its Governance

Clad (1998) claims that rebuilding a nation's capacity is an essential condition for enabling African countries to deal successfully with problems of re-democratisation, economic development and distribution of wealth. To this end, implementation of Managerial Reform is essential for improving the governance of

the state and for enhancing democratic governability in the political system. The managerial model takes its inspiration from organisational changes that have occurred in the private sector, where the bureaucratic pyramidal forms of administration have been modified by making management more flexible, diminishing hierarchical levels and increasing the autonomous decision-making power of managers, thus, justifying the concept “managerial”. These changes proceed from a structure based on centralised rules to one that is sustained by responsibility of administrators and endorsed by effective results. This new model attempts to respond more quickly to the major changes in the economic and contemporary societal environments.

Clad (1998) further expresses that despite the fact that it took its inspiration from private sphere the managerial model should be inescapably adapted to the democratic political context in which the public sector is inserted. The specificity of governmental organisation is derived, that is the motivation behind private enterprises seek profits, and public managers must act in the public interest. It is true that politicians are also guided by the desire for re-election and bureaucrats may be captured by economic interests. But the need to pass democratic scrutiny makes the action of politicians and bureaucrats subject to public interest. This control may be found in representative democracy arrangements or in direct democracy mechanisms or, as has more recently been observed, in citizen’s participation in public policy evaluation, all of which are typical form of the managerial model. This type of democratic control has no parallel in private organisations.

Olowu (2001) favours the view that the sequential or evolutionary view of the public administration still contains another error. It does not perceive the problems generated by the organisational paradigm contained in the weberian bureaucratic model, nor its inadequacies for current realities. The bureaucratic public administration did not account for the problem of efficiency. As a result of the decreasing resources available to governments, it became fundamental to increase administrative efficiency. Furthermore, the bureaucratic public administration became a self-referred organisational model.

The Weberian bureaucratic model was a fundamental instrument for advocating and guaranteeing the functioning of the first two modern waves of democracy 1870 and in the wake of World War II. Since the late eighties, however, this model no longer responds to the new demands for democratising the civil service, particularly those that emerged at local level. At the time, the public administration was guided by presumably universal rules and regulations, rather than by citizen expectations. The self-referred bureaucratic structure became more rapid and it lost the capacity to accompany the profound environmental changes observed since the onset of the Third Industrial Revolution (Olowu, 2001).

Clad (1998) summarises the rebuilding of a nation and recovering its governance depends on efficiency while democratisation of the civil service and rendering the organisation are flexible basic ingredients for modernisation of the public sector. But the concept of rebuilding of nation and democratisation of the

public service were not taken into consideration by the organisational paradigm of the bureaucratic public administration. Nevertheless, it should be noted that the criticism in this case focuses on the bureaucratic organisational model and not on the idea of professionalisation of civil servants which is a central notion of Weberian bureaucratic model. One of the main elements of Managerial Reform is the professionalisation of the bureaucracy that holds positions in the nucleus of state central activities; this assumes a merit-based system such as is advocated by the Weberian model.

New Public Management and Capacity Building

In the last 25 years, there has been a significant shift within the field of public administration. Traditional values and norms have been undermined in a number of ways. One aspect of this trend has been the emergence of a concept which has come to be known as the New Public Management (NPM). At the most basic level, this concept promotes the public sector use of private sector's management techniques (Baird, 2010). NPM is guided by the principle that the economic market should be used as a model for political and administrative relationships; however, there is no clear consensus in the precise definition of NPM, with different scholars and practitioners focusing on different aspects. According to Hope (2008), five key factors are noteworthy: (1) the adoption of private sector management practice in the public sector; (2) an emphasis on efficiency; (3) a movement away from input controls, rule and procedures toward output measurement and performance targets; (4) a preference for private or ownership, contestable provision and contracting out of public services; and (5) the devolution of management control with improved reporting and monitoring mechanism. One other important aspect of NPM is the rigid separation between policy-making and service delivery, which signifies a shift away from the policy-administration continuum (Baird, 2010).

Capacity building relates to the enhancement of capacity, where "capacity" means "the ability to carry out a particular tasks or function" (Larbi, 2008). As defined by Larbi (2008), it has two dimensions: (1) internal organisational capacity, which is a function of human resources, management/leadership, financial resources, physical/logistic resources, and information resources; and (2) external/institutional context within which the mobilisation and the use of organisational capacity that emanating from the economic, social and political environment. In this context, the task or function which is to be carried out is that of administration; and as such 'capacity building' refers to the enhancement of the resources and environment necessary for administration (Baird, 2010).

The Context of New Public Management

Haynes (2012) opines that the context of NPM is relatively clear and can be traced back to the public administration reforms of the 1980s that formed a part of Thatcherism in the UK, Reaganomics in the USA and "the New Zealand experience" in the southern Hemisphere as a response to the world economic crises

of the early and mid-1980s. Though the ideas were not new, the political will to engage with them in the public sphere followed the perceived failure of a public policy based on Keynesian demand management. Haynes (2012) further explains that within the context, researchers identified multiple and diverse strengths and enablers associated with the concept. These are not simply enablers because they replace a system that has been characterised as inherently inefficient but also reflect the changing nature of public services, government finance, political priorities and wider cultural attitudes.

The earlier discussion of the structure and framework of NPM indicates some of the key strengths that this approach presents. Indeed, issues of ownership, delivery and performance do provide some type of focus on strategy where public services are deemed to have failed, or are seen as overly bureaucratic or suffering from low morale. In this way, NPM as an approach that implies reform and on the basis that is relatively a well-established approach to such a reform agenda.

Decentralisation

Decentralisation is defined by Olowu (2001) as ‘the deliberate and planned transfer of resources away from the central state institutions to peripheral institutions. This is a broad term which even encompasses privatisation as a form of market decentralisation. Decentralisation is the most limited form of decentralisation. It operates through the intra-organisational transfer of responsibility, attempting to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of the federal state. This method allows the federal state to retain ultimate control through processes of management decentralisation. In contrast, devolution is based on the principle of inter-organisational delegation of responsibility where the federal state cedes a degree of power to local communities, allowing them to engage in limited self-government. Related to this is federation, which describes a process where there is a firm constitutional delimitation of responsibility between two separate political entities. It is more commonly found operating at the state level, as opposed to the local level which is often associated with less formal devolution (Baird, 2010).

Decentralisation and the inclusiveness of local public opinion within the process of the decision-making; that is, through consultation (focus groups or interest groups) might be advantageous for more inclusive decision making, which is crucial if public services are to be transformed. Such inclusiveness is perhaps more democratic since it makes decision more legitimate and facilitates feedbacks to help improve services by making them more appropriate to the needs of local people (Haynes, 2012).

Managerialism

According to Haynes (2012), managerialism implies reconceptualising public administration in terms of goal-setting and performance management techniques designed to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of management. Such a re-conceptualisation acknowledges that both the public and private sectors

are confronting similar forces, and it is receptive to learning about how the private sector has responded to such forces. This implies that targets and outputs can be clarified and that failure and inefficiency can be made more transparent. Further to this, assigning roles and responsibility to targeted outputs also implies greater flexibility for managers and increases the likelihood that a policy will be properly implemented (Haynes, 2012). One of the key managerial assumptions is that it has the ability to cost saving or to enable the public service to do “more with less” (Hood, 2001). With the cost implementation of an aging population and the high levels of unemployment that have persisted from the mid-1980s onwards, coupled with the political unacceptability of increased taxation, efficiency savings have been the key strength in the spread of NPM (Haynes, 2012).

Civil Service Reforms

The final aspect of NPM is Civil Service Reform (CSR). Although CSR may form part of the broader programmes of institutional and political reform, when associated with NPM, it is more likely to focus on the basic issue of internal organisation, with reference to size, recruitment, remuneration, career management and promotion (Minogue, 2001). In many ways CSR incorporates aspects of de-concentration and management decentralisation outlined above. However, in this section retrenchment and pay reform would be focused (Baird, 2010).

In Nigeria CSR has been on the agenda for a number of years. In the 1960s limited steps were taken to improve salaries and wages as well as reform the grading structure. But the first major reform came with the Public Service Review Commission. Reporting in the mid-1970's, this body hoped to achieve wholesale change through more open procedures, a new code of conduct and a range of other measures such as the introduction of a merit-based reward system. However, despite the goal of introducing more modern management techniques, the reforms were known for little more than increase in civil service salaries (Otobo, 2002). Since the period, wages have not increased in line with inflation and it is estimated that in real terms the 1993 salaries of senior officials had fallen to less than half their 1980 value. Despite the recognition that reform in this area is necessary, the most recent CSR has focused on staff retrenchment. At its peak in 1990, victims of retrenchment were thought to be 273, 392 federal civil servants, with the number reduced to 200,000 by 1998 (Baird, 2012).

Government Bureaucracy in Nigeria's Development: Past and Present

Olugbemi (1997) observes that the Nigerian civil service, like the country's public administration system, has its antecedent in the British colonial administration of the country (1860-1960). The limited objectives of the imperial administration up to and including 1947 viz. the consolidation of the imperial acquisition, the spread of the pox Britannica, and the establishment of the rudiments of infra-structural and social service facilities in aid of the administration and groups of British and operators of organisations within the territory resulted in a civil service that was similarly limited in function, small in size, scanty in

opportunities, and dominated at the middle and upper reaches by British nationals whose major interests were the maintenance of law and order and the exploitation of the wealth of the country for further enrichment of metropolitan Britain.

Preoccupied with its own interest, the imperial administration had little left to give to the developmental needs of Nigeria and its citizens such that much of whatever beginnings and achievements recorded in the development of the country up to 1947 can rightly be attributed to such non-governmental organisation as the Christian missions and the trading companies (Babawale, 2003). Olugbemi (1997) opines that the civil service itself is a beneficiary of Nigeria's development efforts since 1948. What with the phenomenal growth in the number of civil service institution-ministries, extra-ministerial, department, Parastatals and government owned companies, in the magnitude of personnel and their competence levels, and in overhead costs to sustain the vastly expanded apparatus of government. At the federal government level alone, for instance, the number of ministries rose from a mere 12 in 1960, the year of independence, to 24 in 1974 after which a process of deliberate pruning through mergers had progressively reduced the number to the 17 ministries of 1985. Side by side with these 17 ministries were 8 extra-ministerial department and 278 parastatals and government owned enterprises directly supervised by one ministry or the other. A similar pattern of growth is noticeable with respect to personnel whose number rose from about 60,000 in 1960 to 187,000 in 1978 and 302, 000 in 1984.

Olugbemi (1997) further explains that the development at the federal level must be added to the similar growth in the services of the 301 local governments across the country as well as states whose number rose from the three (3) regions of 1960 to 36 states of today. Indeed, when the institutions and endowments (physical, human and financial) of the civil services are put together, Nigeria can properly be described as an administered state. Development should, therefore, be assumed as a matter of course for a country so blessed. The hollowness of that assumption is the paradox of the Nigerian situation.

Omoleke (2004) asserts that the higher civil servants, indeed, have been playing a crucial role in that they participate fully in the formulation of government policies and their full implementation. The civil service bureaucracy in Nigeria is increasingly required to prepare development plans, appraise and select industrial and agricultural projects, decide when new roads, railways, harbours, bridges and telecommunication facilities should be constructed. The bureaucrats can and do ensure the optimum size of investment in these projects at any given time in the light of carefully analysed projections of demand and the basis of cost benefit analysis.

Olaopa (2008) observes that NEEDS form the core of the implementation modality of what was evolving into a medium term development strategy, with integrated policy and institutional reforms components. The broad emphasis was on economic growth, poverty reduction, human capital development and national value orientation. Its benchmarks were critically aligned to the major national and sector policies/strategies, including the fundamental objectives and principles of

state policy in the 1999 constitution, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the NEPAD strategies framework which leads to New Public Management Approach.

Need for New Public Management

Government is looking up to public private partnership (PPPs) which is one element of New Public Management (NPM) to radically improve infrastructure network in Nigeria and enhance service delivery to the people. It is hoping that this development finance model where the state shares risk and responsibility with private firms but ultimately retains control of assets which will improve service, while avoiding some of the pit falls of privatisation, unemployment, higher prices and corruption (Farlam 2006).

Chemane (2012) observes that public sector reform strategies which involve removing unnecessary bureaucratic layers and improving management and administrative capacity, also decentralisation of some central government responsibilities such as powers and resources to local governments and the use of market and private sector management techniques that introduced knowledge of e-Government in the ministries and government organisations, the introduction of information technology (computers, internet, multi-media, and systems networking) was to enable sharing of data, faster decision-making, and transparency in service delivery. Heeks (2012) opined that in the training programme, government administration and officials are being equipped with ICT knowledge and skills management systems, data standards, records and work processes, leadership and strategic thinking, attitudinal change using ICT, active weblog moderated by civil servants to facilitate sharing of ideas between civil servants, policy-makers, academics, practitioners and citizens, and general skills that would enable government managers to initiate, implement and sustain the process of e-Government performance in Nigeria.

Accordingly, NPM emerged in response to a number of environmental forces which government everywhere has faced in the last twenty years (Sarker & Pathak, 2010). First, large and expensive public sectors put pressures to cut programmes and/or increase efficiency. There have been massive technological innovations, particularly, the development of information technology; the globalisation of economy with increasing efficiency in resource management and quality goods and services. They are keen to compare services of all organisations (Minogue, 2001).

The Other Side of the Coin of New Public Management

Haynes (2012: 56) agrees that many of the limitations of NPM associated with the first wave of criticism of the concept in the mid-1990s relate to the perceived problem that it was unable to deliver the benefits that are claimed on its behalf. The issues of ownership delivery and performance cannot easily be quantified or outputs compared in a neutral way. The implication is that public service has no intrinsic value. NPM, therefore, can be seen as a diversion from

confronting substantial issues of governance and public administration. He goes on to state that the imitation of private sector management practices can have the weakness of simplified and appropriate decision-making. In many cases privatisation has been the transfer of a public monopoly into the private sector as a private monopoly. NPM has the weakness, then, of claiming to improve accountability, while through centrally created regulations actually enabling local decision-makers to blame either implementers of policy or regulators or central government, from where the rules or guidelines originated. NPM has failed to address equity goals or managed to overcome the perception that it is about cuts in services for the sake of greater efficiency.

Methodology

The paper relied on primary and secondary data. The primary data were collected through questionnaire administration and conducted interviews. The paper covered federal parastatal of Federal Road Service Commission (FRSC) in Osun State of Nigeria. The members of staff and customers in FRSC comprised the population of the study. Random sampling techniques were used in selecting a total number of 120 from three departments of FRSC and customers representing a sample fraction of 37% of total population of 325. Systematic sampling techniques were used in selecting every other customer that visited FRSC in Osogbo, Osun State until 25 customers were chosen. A total of 120 copies of a questionnaire were distributed to the three department staff members and customers of FRSC in Osogbo, Osun state. Interviews were conducted with three Head of Departments of Operation, Administration and Finance to provide information on the assessment of the New Public Management reforms on the performance of Nigerian Public Service. Secondary data were collected from published and unpublished materials such as textbooks, academic journals and research reports. Content analysis (qualitative) was employed. This enables a more objective evaluation than comparing content based on the impression of a reader.

Data Analysis and Discussion

Data presentation covering findings on the NPM played significant roles in the model of Nigerian government bureaucracy, the effects of NPM on Nigerian government bureaucracy and the challenges facing NPM reforms and Nigerian government bureaucracy. Data collected were analysed using simple percentages and content analysis. To collect data on NPM and Nigerian government bureaucracy, a number of questions were asked.

Table 1 above shows that new public management reforms played significant roles in the model of Nigerian government bureaucracy. 103 (86%) of the respondents strongly agreed and agreed respectively that New public management reforms had addressed issues related to the employment of qualified and skilled public service, while 17 (14%) of the respondent disagreed with it. 103 (86%) of the respondents strongly agreed and agreed respectively that new public management had helped in improving the means by which public servants carry

Table 1: NPM in Model of Nigerian Government Bureaucracy

Responses	Frequency	Percentage %
Strongly Agree	55	46
Agree	48	40
Disagree	17	14
Total	120	100

Source: Agboola & Raheem, 2017

out their duties while 17 (14%) of the respondent disagreed with it. 103 (86%) of the respondents strongly agreed and agreed respectively that through new public management reforms, good motivational factors for public servants had been introduced in order to increase efficiency in the public service while 17 (14%) of the respondent disagreed with it. 103 (86%) agreed that new public management reforms had led to the establishment of trainings and workshops for public servants in order to make public servants more qualified and up to the task of their job, while 17 (14%) of the respondent disagreed with it. Also 103 (86%) responded that new public managements reforms had brought about increased discipline, transparency and accountability in the public service, while 17 (14%) of the respondent disagreed with it. 103 (86%) agreed that new public management reforms had made the public service more responsive to the society, while 17 (14%) of the respondent disagreed with it. Majority (n=103, 86%) of the respondents admitted that new public management reforms had aided the public services in enhancing societal development, while 17 (14%) of the respondent disagreed with it. The respondents also expressed ways of improving the new public management reforms; most of them said training and workshops should be provided for public servants, proper accountability measures should be put in place and a good conducive working environment should be created.

Table 2: Effects of NPM and Nigerian Government Bureaucracy

Reponses	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	68	56.7
Agree	43	35.8
Disagree	09	7.5
Total	120	100

Source: Agboola & Raheem, 2017

Table 2 shows the effects of the new public management reforms on the performance of the Nigerian government bureaucracies. 68 (56.7%) of the respondents strongly agreed that new public management had brought about skilled and professional public servants, while 43 (35.8%) agreed with it and 09 (7.5%) of the respondents disagreed with it. 68 (56.7%) of the respondents strongly agreed that new public management had helped in reducing corruption amongst public servants, 43 (38.8%) of the respondents agreed with it and 09 (7.5%) of the respondent disagreed with it. 68 (56.7%) of the respondents strongly agreed that

new public management reforms had reduced wastage of resources in the public service, 43 (35.8%) of the respondents agreed with it and 09 (7.5%) of the respondents disagreed with it. 68 (56.7%) of the respondents strongly agreed that new public management reforms had aided an increased level of effectiveness and efficiency among public servants, 43 (35.8%) of the respondents agreed and 09 (7.5%) disagreed with it. 68 (56.7%) of the respondents strongly agreed that through new public managements reforms, transparency and accountability had been imbibed as a way of life among public servants, 43 (35.8%) of the respondents agreed with it and 09 (7.5%) of the respondents disagreed with it. Also, 68 (56.7%) of the respondents strongly agreed that through new public management reforms, a standardised recruitment process and criteria for promotion of public servants had been established, 43 (35.8%) of the respondents agreed with it and 09 (7.5%) disagreed with it. The majority of the respondents said that new public management had had an effective and efficient management of public services and had also improved the mode of conduct and performance level of the staff of public service.

Table 3: Challenges Facing NPM and Nigerian Government Bureaucracy

Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	64	53.3
Agree	38	31.7
Disagree	18	15.0
Total	120	100

Source: Agboola & Raheem, 2017

Table 3 shows the challenges facing NPM reforms and Nigerian government bureaucracy. Just 15 (12.5%) of the respondents strongly agreed that there were no challenges in adoption of NPM reforms and Nigerian public service, while 38 (31.7%) of the respondents agreed with it and 18 (15%) of the respondents disagreed with it. 64 (53.3%) of the respondents strongly agreed that downsising did not decrease the size and government cost in the public service, while 38 (31.7%) of the respondents agreed with it and 18 (15%) of the respondents disagreed with it. 64 (53.3%) of the respondents strongly agreed that politicism did not affect the government bureaucracy in terms of NPM reforms, 38 (31.7%) of the respondents agreed with it and 18 (15%) of the respondents disagreed with it. Lastly, 64 (53.3%) of the respondents strongly agreed that decentralisation due to the long centralisation in the public sector could not lead to the prevalence of corruption, 38 (31.7%) of the respondents agreed with it and 18 (15%) of the respondents disagreed with it. The majority of the respondents agreed that there were no significant challenges and problems in the adoption of new public management strategies.

Discussion of Findings

The results showed that NPM played significant roles in service delivery

and impacted positively on citizens through the efforts of Nigerian government with respect to ensuring efficiency and service delivery. The results also showed that before the establishment of NPM, the public service delivery was poor. Using indicators such as efficiency and effectiveness, service delivery was too low; the level of extortions and corruption was high. The results also revealed that the strategies adopted by NPM in realising its objectives enhanced service delivery through Nigerian government bureaucracy. This was with respect to ensuring efficiency, effectiveness and influencing public policy and discouraging corruption. The level of extortion and corruption had reduced drastically since inception of the fourth republic through new public management policy. Furthermore, the results showed the effect of NPM on Nigerian government bureaucracy which had enhanced service delivery in the public service with respect to ensuring trained personnel. The results showed that lack of efficiency, effectiveness, transparency, accountability and huge corruption of government bureaucracies were responsible for the adoption of new public management, while innovations and efficiency were the primary reasons for NPM involvement in the social service delivery in Nigeria government bureaucracy. The results showed that new public management had brought about skilled and professional public servants; it had also helped in reducing corruption amongst public servants, wastage of resources in the public service, it had aided an increased level of effectiveness and efficiency among public servants.

Through new public management reforms, transparency and accountability had been imbibed as a way of life among public servants, it has also standardised the recruitment process and criteria for promotion of public servants in Nigerian government bureaucracy. The results showed that NPM had addressed issues related to the employment of qualified and skilled public service; it had helped in improving the means by which public servants carry out their duties through new public management reforms and good motivational factors for public servants had been introduced in order to increase efficiency in the public service. New public management reforms had led to the establishment of training and workshops for public servants in order to make public servants more qualified and up to the task on their job. It had brought about increased discipline, transparency and accountability in the public service and it had made the public service more responsive to the society. The results also showed that using ideas from the private sector had positive impact on the effective and efficient service delivery through government bureaucracy. There was a positive relationship between the NPM and Nigeria government bureaucracy in the delivery of social services. Although some findings showed that there were challenges facing NPM and Nigerian public service, there were no significant challenges and problems in the adoption of new public management strategies.

Conclusion

New Public Management (NPM) addresses the perceived lacuna and challenges in more traditional public administration strategies with greater

managerialism and emphasis on privatisation and decentralisation as methods for improving public services and improving public organisational efficiency, cost-saving and accountability. Basic human resources must be enhanced, with general improvements in management and leadership in both the public and private sector of developing world. The major driving force behind the adoption of new public management model was the fact that the socio-economic situation in Nigeria was on the precipice. In Nigeria, the economic recession reflected in huge national and sub-national debts, high rates of unemployment, balance payment problems, unproductive industries, lack of accountability and transparency in the government business, which is the manifestation of inefficiency and ineffectiveness of economic policies.

Arising from the above, it is hereby recommended, first and foremost, that government should find a lasting solution to the failure of bureaucracies in Nigeria. There is an urgent need for the Nigerian government to adopt government bureaucracy performance-based management such as the New Public Management in improving good governance that will engender socio-economic growth and sustainable development. The Nigeria government should decentralise both financial and human resource management to the lower levels so that it would bring success to the implementation of NPM reforms.

The thrust of the Federal Government position was to reposition and re-professionalise the public service for greater efficiency, effectiveness in service delivery, accountability, transparency, and overall national productivity. The recommendations being made, if considered and implemented by government, would go a long way in resolving the inefficiency and ineffectiveness of the civil service and public sectors in Nigeria. Government needs to put in place the adoption of management concepts, theories and instruments such as utilised in the private sector to achieve effectiveness, efficiency, responsiveness to citizens with a view to promoting public value.

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War Against corruption and the Political Will to Wage it: A Case Study of President Muhammadu Buhari's Two Years in Office

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Abstract

The menace of corruption in Nigeria is systemic. No Nigerian with the least level of education can feign ignorance of what corruption connotes and how pervasive it is in the socio-political and economic milieu of the Nigerian state. It has practically stationed Nigeria's economy in the doldrums and seems irrecoverable. The author assessed the political will of President Muhammadu Buhari to fight corruption in Nigeria. He utilised the secondary source of data collection and adopted the framework of the Clashing Moral Values theory. He observed in the study that selectivity in dealing with corruption, double standards in fighting corruption and corruption fighting were major factors militating against winning the war against corruption. With all the hoopla of the high-ranking pending cases of corruption under prosecution, corruption cannot be wiped out of Nigeria's soil if corruption cases were selectively prosecuted. The author concluded that President Buhari had not been able to win the war against corruption and that a lot more needed to be done to check the factors militating against that common enemy of the nation.

Key words: corruption, political will, poverty, Nigeria's economy, good governance

Introduction

Nigeria, a country destined to be among the league of most developed economies in the world is still categorised as a peripheral state in the North-South division of the world system. It is one of the leading states in Africa during and after the colonial epoch; this, for its epoch-making role in championing the cause of independence - for itself and other African states – and for its abundantly endowed human and natural resources. Not too long after independence, the political-economic landscape of Nigeria was steered by men in uniform. The military ushered in new era of indigenous colonialism – colonisation from within. The military regime, as it is so called, ruled with impunity. This experience wiped away the notion of accountability and transparency from the psyche of most Nigerians while, in their place, corruption got rooted and firmly entrenched.

This culture of impunity, corruption, lack of accountability and transparency continued up to the last year of the 20th century (1999) which marked a watershed in ushering in the longest democratic regime in Nigeria. For, before 1999, all attempts at democratisation were botched. However, barely two decades into democracy, Nigeria is still unfortunately democratising at a snail's pace. Put differently, Nigeria has not democratised. In political and social philosophy corruption is a very fundamental concept. It signifies, argues Etchegoyen (1995), as cited in Rendtorff (2010: 127) destruction, death and degradation of a community. For this reason, this paper assessed the political will of President Muhammadu

Buhari to fight corruption in Nigeria for no elected president in Nigeria has made fighting corruption a cardinal objective before him. Having spent two years in office, assessing his political will to fight corruption will be achieved through a critical analysis of his actions and/or inactions. Secondary data was heavily relied upon in the analysis as previous works on corruption revealed that there is a nexus between it and national development. It goes without saying that the Achilles hill of democracy in Nigeria is corruption as will be discussed hereunder.

Conceptual Clarification

According to World Bank (2006) corruption is “The abuse of public office for private gain”. Although corruption is often associated with the exchange of favours for bribes, Disch, Vigeland & Sundet (2009: 40) explain, the above definition includes nonmonetary transactions, such as nepotism and influence peddling, and actions that do not refer to exchanges, such as forgery and outright embezzlement. The United Nations Development Programme defines corruption as “the misuse of public power, office or authority for private benefit – through bribery, extortion, influence peddling, nepotism, fraud, speed money or embezzlement” (UNDP 2005).

The above definitions locate corruption in the public realm and so dovetail with Becker’s assertion that “if we abolish the state, we abolish corruption.” There is a need to include a more systemic dimension of corruption and move away from the current focus on purely private gain. Hence, Transparency International extends the “cancer” called corruption to the private sphere where it defines it as “the misuse of entrusted power for private gain” (Transparency International 2007). The suggestion here is for such a modified definition: “The abuse of entrusted authority for illicit gain” (Disch et al., 2009: 40). These cover all transactions between actors in state and non-state spheres where the structural or positional relation between the parties may influence the outcome, but still can take account of non-transactional corruption like forgery. The concept of entrusted authority focuses on the ability to take decisions where both parties accept the legitimacy of the position to do so, whether formal (power) or informal (custom, norm). It covers individual as well as systemic corruption under neo-patrimonial systems and state capture.

UNDP classifies corruption into two types: spontaneous and institutionalised (or systemic). Spontaneous corruption is usually found in societies observing strong ethics and morals in public service. Institutionalised corruption, on the other hand, is found in societies where corrupt behaviours are perennially extensive or pervasive. In these societies, corruption has become a way of life, a goal, and an outlook towards public office (Balboa & Medalla, 2006: 3). Corruption in Nigeria is an institutionalised one. The International Monetary Fund (IMF) describes corruption as an abuse of office or trust for private benefit: and is a temptation indulged in by not only public officials but also by those in positions of trust and authority in private enterprise or non-profit organisations (IMF, 2016). Tanzi (1995), as cited by Begovic (2005), defines corruption as the intentional non-

compliance with the arm's-length principle aimed at deriving some advantage for oneself or for related individuals from this behaviour.

Not all acts of corruption, explains Tanzi (1998), result in payment of bribes. For example a public employee who claims to be sick but goes on vacation is abusing his public position for personal use. Thus, he is engaging in an act of corruption even though no bribe is paid. The president of a country who has an airport built in his small hometown is also engaging in an act of corruption which does not involve payment of a bribe.

It can be summarised from the foregoing definitions that corruption is an abuse of office by whatever means, overt or covert, which may include misappropriation of public treasure, acceptance of bribe in one's capacity as public functionary, non-compliance with the extant rules and regulations in appointment/nomination into public offices; selective application and non-application of the arm's length of the law against suspected and convicted criminals. The modern concept of corruption has widened to accommodate all other forms of abuse of office which may not be pecuniary, as traditionally believed, for personal, clannish or other primordial gains.

Theoretical Framework

This study adopted the Clashing Moral Values Theory which analyses corruption at the macro level. In other words, it focuses on the societal level. The main thrust of this theory is that the fundamental cause of corruption starts with certain values and norms of society that directly influence the values and norms of individuals. These values and norms influence the behaviour of individual officials, making them corrupt. From the perspective of this theory, it is observed that the present administration of President Muhammad Buhari's determination to fight corruption has found itself being fought back by the same corruption due to clash of moral values. The President, in the light of this theory, is not after a selfish personal or pecuniary gain but he is obliged by some certain values to be corrupt in order to repay family and friends who are his unrepentant loyalists. A famous adage says; 'for my friends everything, for my enemies nothing, and for strangers the law' (Graaf, 2007: 54).

According to this theory, conflicts in society arise when persons see themselves in two social roles with opposing moral obligations. The macro-morality of public officials requires them to treat different persons equally (this seems to be lacking in the acclaimed war against corruption by President Buhari's regime within the period under review, as will be argued later). The micro-morality, on the other hand, requires them to favour friends wherever possible. This is what Williams and Theobald (1999) termed 'patrimonial administration', a situation in which the private-public boundary (micro- versus macro-morality), central to the (Western) concept of public administration (Weber), is blurred. Corruption is often seen ethnocentrically as a phase developing countries have to pass through before reaching maturity. Theobald (1999: 473) averred that neo-patrimonial character is the root cause of corruption in the Third World. He warned

that “There is a danger that we are simply describing symptoms rather than identifying underlying causes”.

Corruption in Nigeria: A Historical Survey

In an attempt to trace the history of corruption, it is important to note that corruption is a global phenomenon that is not peculiar to Nigerians and Nigeria. Be that as it may, the incidence of corruption in Nigeria has made it a topical issue such that a lay person will conclude; it is peculiar to Nigeria and Nigerians. Official corruption in Nigeria could be traced to the pre-colonial era. This paper made no attempt to give historical details of incidences of corruption as other writers (Tignor, 1993, Iyoha and Enabunene 2005, Aluko, 2008, Adesote and Abimbola 2012) have sufficiently done that. It however alluded to the reality of corruption in Nigeria as far back as before the birth of Nigeria.

Corruption could be traced back to the pre-colonial era when Nigerians were bribed with different foreign goods in exchange for slaves. (Mathew, Barnabas, Isola & Joseph, 2013). Put differently, they sold out their brothers into slavery. As Ekundare (1973: 46) rightly observed, “Africans themselves offered their fellow men to be bartered for guns, gunpowder, gin, rum, beads, iron and copper bars”. Anene (1966) argued that colonialists established their empire in Nigeria on the foundation of scam and fraud through its “carrot and stick” approach which was itself manipulative and deceptive.

The wave of corruption, which, as stated above, predated colonial era and continued through the period of colonialism up to independence and the post-independence Nigeria. Corruption in Nigeria, argue Ojukwu and Shopeju (2010: 17) ‘runs rampant’ and has become synonymous with Nigeria. It has dented the image of the country so much that internationally Nigerians are commonly viewed with suspicion. Political corruption is the misuse by government officials of their governmental powers for illegitimate, usually secret, private enrichment. All forms of government, Gyekye (2003) emphasises, are susceptible to political corruption. This ranges from bribery, extortion, cronyism, nepotism, patronage, graft and embezzlement. According to Achebe (2012: 249),

Nigerians are corrupt because the system they live under today makes corruption easy and profitable. They will cease to be corrupt when corruption is made difficult and unattractive. he laments that.... corruption and indiscipline is probably worst than it has ever been, because of the massive way in which the Nigerian leadership is using the nation wealth to corrupt, really to destroy, the country, so no improvement or change can happen. Corruption in Nigeria has passed the alarming and enter the fatal stage, and Nigeria will die if we continue to pretend that she is only slightly indisposed.

Despite Achebe’s lamentation and seeming pessimism when he said ‘no improvement or chance can happen’, Nigerians massively voted for ‘change’

which was the campaign mantra of the political party All Progressive Congress (APC) party that brought in President Muhammadu Buhari's administration under review.

War against Corruption: Challenges

Corruption has posed serious challenges to the overall socio-political and economic development in Nigeria. In the social sphere that is heterogeneous, we are yet to have unity in diversity. The political terrain is so dreadful that it is characterised by thuggery, electoral violence, rigging, political hooliganism and assassination etc., all of which have hampered any attempt at institutionalisation of democracy in the country. Nigeria is still democratising after barely two decades of uninterrupted democracy. Corruption has negatively impacted on the Nigerian economy so much that the state could not provide and maintain infrastructure; it could not create a friendly environment for Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) and yet spends money lavishly on medical tourism. An act of corruption is perfected when the masses are panting for survival in dilapidated and ill equipped Nigeria's hospitals while those in position of authority shuttle between Nigeria and the United Kingdom for mere ear ailment. The nation's wealth expended on foreign education is quite alarming. The Speaker of the House of Representative, Mr. Yakubu Dogara, as reported by Ameh (2016), lamented that over N1.5 trillion is spent by Nigerians yearly in search of education overseas. It is not surprising that the State loses its hallowed position in the comity of nations. It is still ranked among the third world economies despite its huge population and immensely endowed natural resources. Military incursion into Nigeria's political landscape in 1966 was often justified on the grounds of the desire to stamp corruption out of the corridors of power (government circle) and from the Nigerians way of life. The military failed in its effort to fight corruption.

In a bid to get rid of this cancer (corruption) which has eaten deep into the fabrics of the Nigerian society, successive governments have, in one way or the other, come up with different strategies to fight corruption through many anti-graft agencies. But the irony is that these agencies operate in a system where corruption is institutionalised and, hence, has become a culture. Mathew, Barnabas, Isola and Joseph (2013: 3) aptly observed; "the system has been such that corruption is used to check corruption by corrupting the system all the more".

Table 1 below shows that every government in Nigeria, right from Murtala Muhammed's administration to the present administration under review, has programmes designed to nip the cancer called corruption in the bud. The only exception is ex-President Goodluck Jonathan's. The reason is not farfetched; it is because his administration did not consider "stealing as corruption"! From the table above, Obasanjo did not also have a programme to fight corruption but he created two agencies that are still in operation and will probably continue operation for some years to come. Thus, the Code of Conduct Bureau (CCB), Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) and Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Commission (ICPC) continued functioning under

subsequent administrations after their creation as agencies with the mandate to fight corruption. This is illustrated in the table. Other corruption fighting agencies are Nigerian Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative (NEITI), Budget Monitoring and Price Intelligence Unit (BMPIU) and Nigerian Investment Promotion Commission (NIPC).

Table 1: Regimes, Agencies and Programs against Corruption in Nigeria

President/Head of State	Agency /Year	Program	Year
Murtala Muhammad/ Olusegun Obasanjo	Asset Investigation Panel.	Operation Purge the Nation	1975
Shehu Shagari	Code of Conduct Bureau (CCB) [no legal mandate] 1979	Ethical Re-orientation Campaign (ERC), also known as Ethical Revolution (ER).	1979
Muhammadu Buhari	Special Military Tribunal Bureau	War Against Indiscipline (WAI)	1984
Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida	1. Code of Conduct Bureau (CCB) [with legal mandate] 1989.	War Against Corruption (WAC)	1989
Sani Abacha	Code of Conduct Bureau (CCB).	War Against Indiscipline and Corruption (WAIC)	1995
Olusegun Obasanjo	1. Code of Conduct Bureau (CCB). 2. Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC). 3. The Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Commission (ICPC).		
Umar Musa Yar'adua	CCB, EFCC and ICPC.	Rebranding Nigerian Project	2009
Goodluck Ebele Jonathan	CCB, EFCC and ICPC.		
Muhammadu Buhari	CCB, EFCC and ICPC	Whistle Blowing	2016

Source: by the authors.

Despite all these beautiful and appealing neologisms of programs purportedly meant to fight corruption in Nigeria, corruption resurrects – keeps coming back to life – “like a snake that was only wounded at the tail”. Corruption

continues to be a serious challenge in Nigeria because of the absence of strong institutions. The agencies so far established with the sole mandate to fight corruption are yet to be institutionalised. They are more like lapdogs in the manipulative hands of the ruling party in government. A state with weak institutions, argues Tyoyila (2014:55), will not be able to formulate laws, implement policies that will guard against corruption. He further asserts that a state like Nigeria with institutional fragility will become a breeding ground for corruption. Such a state, according to him, will produce corrupt leaders and other personalities that will occupy the various institutions of the state and continue to act corruptly.

Manifestation of Corruption in President Muhammadu Buhari's Administration

With all the ecstasy and euphoria that greeted the emergence of President Muhammadu Buhari as the messiah that has come to deal corruption a deadly blow, corruption is said to be fighting back. Why? Because the rule of law has become rule of men in Nigeria. The rule of law in Nigeria is best thought in school and agreed to in principle with no practical significance. Knuckles (2006, cited in Tyoyila, 2014) explains that “the rule of law that exists in a country has an effect on the level of corruption in that country, but corruption in a country can have an effect on the quality of its rule of law”. In a mild disagreement with Knuckles (2006), there is nothing intrinsically wrong with the rule of law in Nigeria; it is the corrupt milieu in which it is meant to operate and the corrupt authorities that are entrusted with its application.

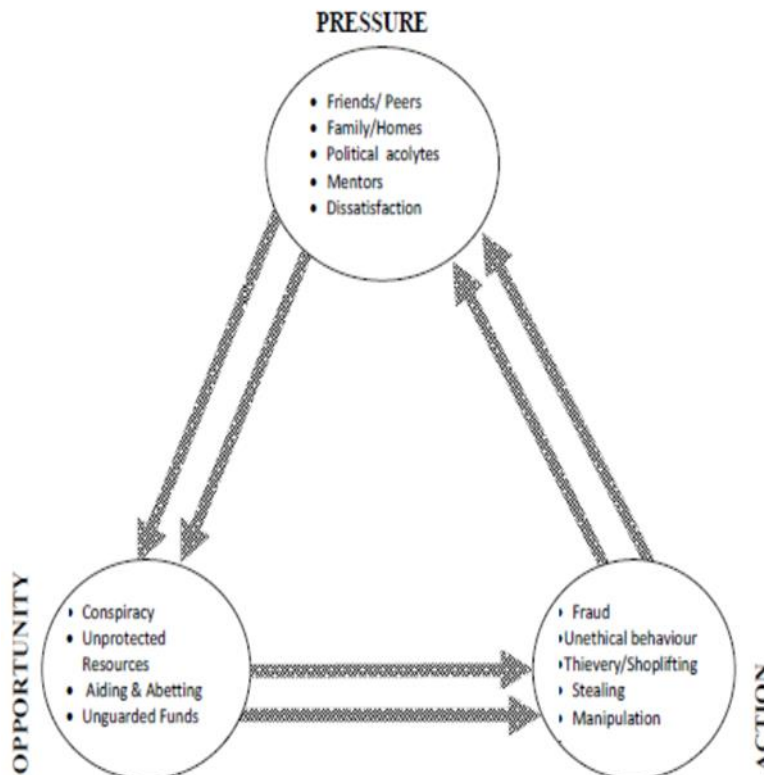
Nuhu Ribadu (2012, cited in Momah, 2013) made a remark which is very germane in explaining why corruption fights back; he said: “If you are going to fight corruption, make sure you are not corrupt yourself. The reason the fight failed before is that corrupt people are fighting corruption”. If this assertion is anything to go by, and there should be no disputing it, it means the stewards of Buhari's administration, with a few exemptions, are corrupt. This is not surprising. The administration is the recycling of the previous bad eggs in President Jonathan's administration. Hence, the vicious cycle of corruption continues.

While many still hold the belief that President Buhari is incorruptible based on his antecedents, it beclouds their thought that some actions of the President breed corruption. Diagram 1 illustrates a corruption model which comprises ‘pressure’, ‘opportunity’ and ‘action’. The relationship between the three components is symmetrical. This in turn facilitates corruption and emboldens the corrupt.

These components could be internal, external or both. Internal pressure is in-built, intuitional, deliberate and premeditated in nature. Public office holders consider it an opportunity to enrich themselves before the expiration of their tenures or retirement. This galvanises them into actions that are unethical like stealing and manipulation of public funds. External pressure on the other hand emanates from the environment outside the reach of an individual. In this case, the

public office holders may not be predisposed to looting public funds but will have to succumb to pressures from friends, relatives, political acolytes, religious group members and community group members who are expecting much from them and want to be relevant by all means. In most instances, aver Mathew et al (2013: 10-11), this manifestation is as a result of trying to meet the expectations, yearnings and aspirations of the above mentioned groups rather than self-aggrandisement.

Diagram 1: Trajectory of Corruption in Nigeria



Source: Mathew et al. (2013).

Corruption has manifested in this administration in many ways. It is agreed that corruption is not all about stealing, looting and mismanaging public resources; it includes nepotism, favouritism, influence peddling and disregard for the rule of law or its selective application. It is in this light that this paper argues that the present administration is not doing well in its fight against corruption. It continues to harp on the misdeeds of past People Democratic Party’s 16 year administrations which culminated in the widely celebrated defeat of President Goodluck Jonathan in 2015. Some of the manifestations of corruption are highlighted in the paragraphs below.

Selectivity in Dealing with Corruption

Buhari's government appears to be selectively dealing with corrupt people with whom he has political scores to settle and those that are considered bigwigs of the main opposition party (PDP). This is not to say that corrupt politicians of past administration should not be prosecuted but it should be within the framework of the rule of law. Take for example, the former National Security Adviser to former President Goodluck Jonathan, Sambo Dasuki, his Chief Security Officer, Obuah, and Diezani Madueke, whose house was raided and sealed after her purported arrest in London, business man, Jide Omokore, former Benue State governor, Gabriel Suswam, former Jigawa State governor, Sule Lamido and Godswill Akpabio are known high ranking members of the Peoples Democratic Party (PDP) or people that served in the last administration. They have been at one time or the other had things to do with the EFCC under Buhari (Matthews, 2015).

Double Standards in Fighting Corruption

The present regime is not fighting corruption; it is fighting its symptoms and manifestations. This is conspicuously seen in its double standards in handling the tripartite cases of the immediate past governor of Rivers State (Rotimi Amaechi), Secretary to the Government of the Federation (Babachir David Lawal), and Acting Chairman of the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (Ibrahim Mustapha Magu). These trio appear to be unrepentant loyalist of President Muhammadu Buhari and, hence, the arm's length of the law should not catch up with them. This is one of the fundamental causes of corruption. The President, in the light of the Clashing Moral Values Theory is obliged by certain values to be corrupt in order to repay family and friends who are his unrepentant loyalists. The adage that says, 'for my friends everything, for my enemies nothing, and for strangers the law' suitably applies to him.

The tripartite cases alluded to above deserve some details.

- **Secretary to the Government of the Federation' Case:** President Muhammadu Buhari crudely dismissed allegations of corruption levelled against the SGF, Babachir David Lawal, through a letter he addressed to the Senate dated 17 January 2017. He rejected the call by the Senate to sack and prosecute the SGF who was allegedly said to be corrupt in his handling of funds meant for the Presidential Initiative for the North East (PINE). The President disappointedly defended the SGF on three grounds. One, he argued that the SGF cannot be sacked or prosecuted because the Senate Ad Hoc Committee set up to investigate the Mounting Humanitarian Crises in the North East is an interim report as against a final report. Two, he said only three members of the Committee signed the report which makes it a minority report. Three, the President also claimed that the SGF as well as Rholavision Engineering (the company linked to him), was never given an opportunity to appear before the Senate to defend himself. "In replying on the foregoing", the President concluded; "I am not

able to approve the recommendation to remove and prosecute Engr. Lawal on the basis of the Senate Ad-hoc Committee report dated 15th December, 2016” (Ojiabor, 2017).

This outrageous letter from President Buhari threw more than few Nigerians into frenzied attacks on the credentials and credibility of the President to fight corruption. The letter caused consternation as it is an expression of not giving a damn to the collective psyches of Nigerians who invested trust and confidence in him as the Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces which cardinal objective is to drive the rotten corruption into the stinking trash can of history. The letter is seen as an endorsement of double standards in the anti-corruption battle. The President laid emphasis on technicalities rather than substance of the letter. Paradoxically, other government functionaries of the immediate past regime were put behind bars based on similar “interim report as against a final report”. In other words, President Buhari proceeded with the arrest and subsequent prosecution of former officials of immediate past administration of ex-President Goodluck Jonathan based on an interim report of the Committee that probed funds meant for weapons purchases. For instance, Col. Sambo Dasuki (Rtd), a former National Security Adviser, Femi Fani Kayode, a member of the opposition People’s Democratic Party (PDP); Olisa Metuh, the former National Publicity Secretary of the PDP were all arrested and remanded on account of mere allegations. The former is still in prison despite court orders to release him on bail.

The President’s argument that the report is that of minority is equally untenable. A good leader does not consider such a handy report un-useful; especially one that exposes corruption of colossal proportion that is committed against one of the most wretched people on earth (victims of Boko Haram). In addition, there is nothing like ‘minority report’ in the Senate’s Committee’s vocabulary. In reaction to the President’s letter, Senator Aliyu Sabi Abdullahi said the letter of the Senate did not address the issue of the Department of State Services (DSS) report. He also said they stand on their report on the SGF. By Senate rules, he explained, 1/3 is the number that is needed to sign the report. 3/9 is ok but the report was signed by 7 persons out of the 9 members of the committee. Senator Mohammad Hassan (PDP, Yobe) said there was no minority position on the report. Hassan, whom the President said did not sign the report told Daily Trust that the report represents the position of the entire members of the Committee. Senator Mallam Ali Wakili (APC, Bauchi) said contrary to the President’s letter he signed the report of the Committee (Mudashir, 2017).

The Chairman of the Ad-hoc Committee on mounting humanitarian crisis in North East which indicted the SGF, said:

Buhari's response was a funeral service for the anti-corruption fight. It is shocking to me that such a letter can come from the presidency with such misinformation and outright distortions. They lied by saying that the committee didn't invite the SGF. The committee invited the SGF and the letter was acknowledged by the Permanent Secretary in the Office of the SGF (Mudashir, 2017).

However, the President finally bowed to pressure and suspended the SGF, who should have been sacked, considering the APC led government's approach to handling corrupt allegations when they involve members of the opposition; and the acclaimed sterling records of President Buhari in his "commando style" in waging war against corruption. A unique parallel line of a repeat of history could be drawn between Babachir's saga and Mr Abdulrasheed Maina's, the Chairman of the Pension Reform Task Team under President Goodluck Jonathan, who was untouchable, despite all allegations of mismanaging pension funds levelled against him. While the latter, was finally sacked, the former was merely suspended. (See Adeniyi, 2017).

- **Rotimi Amaechi' Case:** The manifestation of corruption in President Buhari's government cannot be explained better than the case of Rotimi Amaechi, the immediate past governor of Rivers State. All the allegations of fraudulent practices preferred against him while in office as a governor fell on the deaf ears of the EFCC. This continues to cast aspersions on the anti-corruption war acclaimed to be championed by this administration. Many have begun to see EFCC as an anti-corruption agency that is not fighting corruption but corrupt people who are not in the good book of the presidency. EFCC failed to hurl its anti-corruption suffocating hook against Rotimi Amaechi who ultimately got a ministerial appointment in the present regime. The double standards of the presidency could be best explained and understood through the Clashing Moral Values Theory; shielding one's loyalists with the protective gadgets of the government, even if they are wanton, while humiliating one's foes with the same government machineries as retribution for past misdeeds.
- **Ibrahim Magu's Case:** The case of Ibrahim Magu, the Acting Chairman of EFCC, is a very disappointing one. Though many blame the Senate for sabotaging the anti-corruption enterprise, but a close examination of the President's sluggishness calls for suspicion. If President Buhari strongly believed in the competency of Magu as theatre commander in the war front, why did he allow him to bleed veins before presenting him to the Senate for confirmation? Ideally, confirmation of the Senate should have been sought first for anti-corruption tsar of Magu's calibre. More confusing is the role played by the DSS, an agency of the presidency – in nailing the anti-corruption tsar to the cross. A lot of Nigerians are unsettled

to get appropriate answers to many questions that arise from this regrettable scenario. Who is actually against Magu? The Senate or the Presidency? Why did the DSS confidently bite the fingers that feed it? Why does Magu operate in acting capacity for so lengthy period of time before his confirmation generates Senate's and DSS' fuse? Is Magu the only competent and trustworthy man to chair EFCC from among over 170 million Nigerians? Answers to these questions will bring about many conspiracy theories which are not the focus of this paper. What is indisputable is the crystal manifestation of corruption in this administration.

Why is Corruption Fighting Back?

Corruption fights back in the absence of strong institution. Since the 70s, Nigeria has established different bodies/agencies and designed diverse programmes to combat corruption but to no avail. The government continues to wage the war with a boomeranging effect. No regime (military and civilian) since the 1970s was successful in its fight against corruption. A comprehensive and multidisciplinary approach is required to prevent and combat corruption effectively. This can be possible when Nigeria is fully democratised. At present, the country is democratising. This accounts for why office holders wield enormous power at the expense of the rule of law. In climes where the rule of law holds sway, who occupies the topmost position of an agency like EFCC does not matter, what matters is how institutionalised is the agency.

As Ribadu (2006) observed that, “successive military regimes subdued the rule of law, facilitated the wanton looting of the public treasury, decapitated public institutions and free speech and instituted a secret and opaque culture in the running of government business.” What Ribadu did not add to his observation is that successive civilian regimes in the Nigerian state continued to act the script of their military mentors. What actually changed is the outfits and inundation of the Nigerian political landscape with democratic neologism like periodic election, transparency, accountability, people's sovereignty, freedom of speech and the press, the rule of law among others.

Corruption fights back because the government is fighting corrupt people instead of fighting corruption. Through its whistle blower program, this government has discovered huge amount of looted public funds in the region of billions of soft and hard currencies. However, the irony is that the agency (EFCC) which is instrumental in the recovery of this funds lacks transparency and accountability. For instance, when the Senate on the 15th of March, 2016 summoned the EFCC Chairman Mr. Magu to give a financial statement of what has been recovered so far. Mr. Magu said that he does not know how much the commission under him has recovered from national looters so far (Oghonna, 2017). Even if he knows, the amount of recovered stolen funds is not the fight against corruption. It rather shows the degree of damage corruption has done to Nigeria's development. As Ekpo, Chime & Enor (2016: 68) rightly argued that:

Recovering stolen funds from corrupt public officials is not a fight against corruption but rather a fight against the manifestations of corruption. This can only culminate in public officials adopting more stringent measures aimed at covering their tracks while they keep on raping the country dry. In fact, Buhari's strategy can only encourage more manifestations of corruption as politicians will continue to loot public treasury hoping to go scot free if they are not caught or return such funds if they are caught.

It is not surprising that most looted public moneys recovered in Nigeria by the EFCC tsar are re-looted in a similar vicious cycle due to weak institutions that lack transparency and accountability. The immediate past EFCC chairman Mr. Ibrahim Lamorde was dismissed by Buhari in November 9, 2015, for allegedly diverting ₦1 trillion of recovered funds. When summoned by the Nigerian Senate, Lamorde refused to appear before the senate and subsequently disappeared from the country without trace (Nuruddeen, Wakili & Mudashir, 2015).

Conclusion

Nigerians are convinced that corruption is their common enemy which has blurred the vision of attaining a better Nigeria. However, the defeat of PDP in the 2015 election with the emergence of APC at the helm of which is President Muhammadu Buhari re-awakened hopes in most Nigerians reminiscent of his days as the military Head of State. No sooner had Buhari declared his war against corruption than it dawned on the masses that corruption has also waged a counter war. It is fighting back. This has put Nigerian masses in a precarious situation. The electoral gains are reversed. The economy witnesses serious inflation. Nigerians writhe in dehumanising hardship which seems un-abating. President Buhari has proved not to be the corruption 'tsar' as claimed. He has reneged on his appealing promise to belong to everybody and to nobody through his compromise of selective fight against our common enemy (corruption). With all the hoopla of the high-ranking pending cases of corruption under prosecution, corruption cannot be wiped out of Nigeria's soil if corruption cases were selectively prosecuted.

Recommendations

- i. The President should exhibit an uncompromisingly dogged political will-power to fight corruption in such a way that he (the President) truly belongs to everybody and to nobody.
- ii. The EFCC (the corruption fighting agency) should be made accountable and transparent.
- iii. All the agencies established to combat corruption should be institutionalised and strengthened such that their operation will be independent of the government in power.

- iv. Government should make creating an atmosphere that discourages corruption its most cherished objective, not just dealing with the corrupt.
- v. If Buhari's government is serious about this long expected fight against corruption, it should plug all the loopholes that are frequently exploited to facilitate easy access to corruption and corrupt practices.
- vi. The government should sanitise the Nigeria's socio-political and economic environment from the vestiges of corruption through strengthening of all governmental institutions with earnest adherence to the rule of law.
- vii. The judiciary should be seen as an emblem of justice and upholder of the rule of law irrespective of whose ox is gored. Judges at all levels should be disinterested and act professionally.

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Strategies for Effecting Change and Innovation in a Typical School Organisation

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Abstract

The school system, like any other human organisation cannot remain static in a globalised economy and technological development. This has, therefore, made change and innovation inevitable phenomena in a modern society pervaded with new ideas. School organisations have some attributes and abilities to stand the test of time and face the competitive challenges, among others. For these attributes to be enduring and lasting, there is the need to incorporate into the school system, change and innovation. This paper utilises a conceptual design model to discuss some strategies and paradigms for effecting desired change and innovation in the school system. It identifies the variables that operate in the organisation, the possible potential sources of resistance to organisational change and innovation, the extent, the nature and process of innovation and steps and strategies that can be employed in virtually all effective change and innovation models. The cyclic nature of innovation and change is also presented in the model and how it could influence learning in the school.

Key words: the school system, change and innovation, agents of change, strategies of change

Introduction

Organisations are specifically established to achieve certain objectives conceived and set at the planning stage. Similarly, an organisation either profit-oriented or non-profit-oriented, public or private, labour-intensive or capital-intensive, formal or informal, human or non-human channels its activities to produce goods and services. Production, therefore, occurs at every point of administration. With the new idea of globalisation, it is increasingly becoming difficult to meet the production level without trying to meet the demand of the changing world. In other words, globalisation has brought with it, modern technology which ultimately implies change and innovation in the contents, structures, strategies, processes, designs and systemic contexts of the production system.

Modern organisations are characteristically endowed with some attributes and abilities to face the competitive challenges, among others. For these attributes to be enduring and lasting, there is the need to incorporate into the system of organisation, change and innovation. This is to say, more succinctly that change, as a concept is an inevitable phenomenon to every organisation. This, therefore, lends credence to the saying "Everything must change at one time or else, a static society or system will evolve". As organisations grow in size and complexity, new departments are created, membership fluctuates, and technology changes in response to innovation and customer demand (Champion, 1975). Organisational change in some cases brings about labour turnover, organisation conflict,

flexibility, growth, and so on.

Change and innovation are probably, two major concepts that must be built into an organisation that is aiming at standing the test of modern period when dynamism is rapidly replacing conservatism. Change and innovation are, therefore, inevitable, and are major challenges modern organisations have to grapple with to create an atmosphere for rapid and meaningful improvement in themselves. As a result of the increasing complexities in organisations in the face of stiff competition from others, Adepoju (2007) has advocated that change and innovation be incorporated into every organisation.

According to Fadipe and Adepoju (2006), nowadays, it is extremely difficult to discuss education at every level without change, reform and innovations, most especially in this period of globalisation, Information Technology (IT) and Information and Communication Technology (ICT) development, when teaching and learning activities are more of individualised instruction, learner-centred rather than instructor-centred. During organisational change however, it is extremely difficult to identify a feature which is to be altered and to develop a single strategy, which will change that feature.

In order to ensure that an organisation is structured and made much more relevant to the needs and aspirations of the society, new ideas, researches and approaches must be injected into the system. Miles (1964:689) specifically emphasised that adoption of these new ideas and approaches is anchored on the following principles: i. cost consideration, ii. technological factor consideration, iii. availability of associated support materials, iv. lack of implementation bottleneck and v. innovation system congruence.

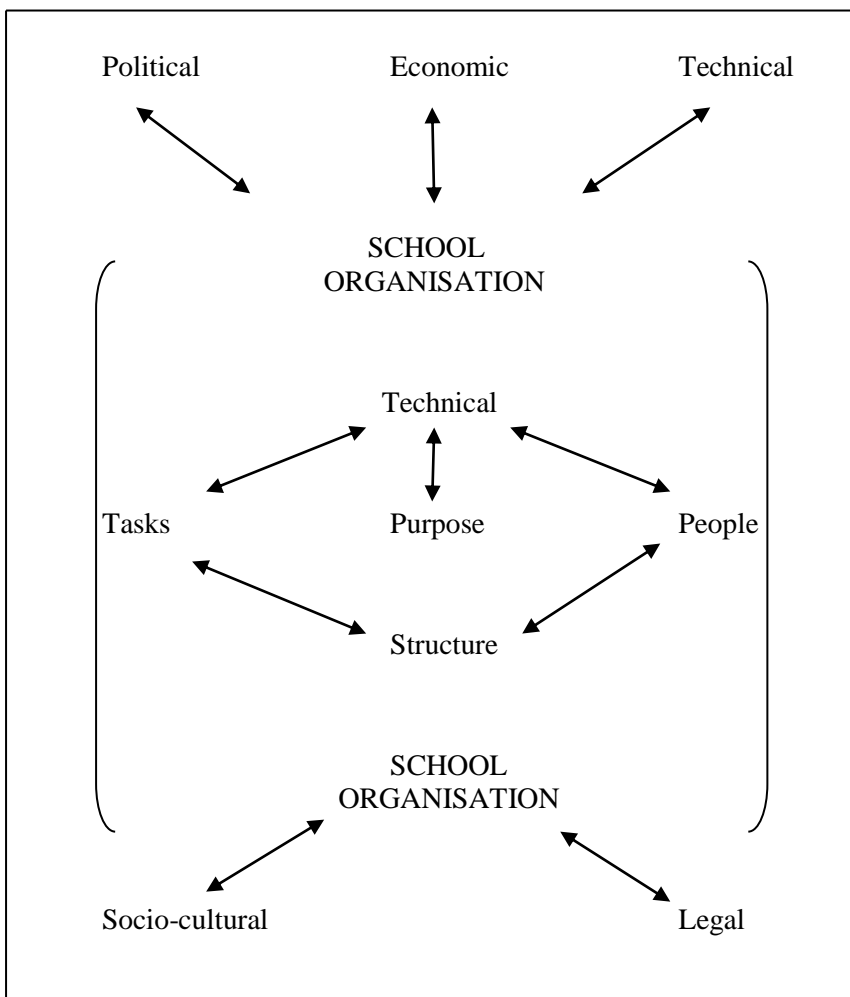
In view of the above arguments, discussions on change vis-a-vis school organisation are very relevant in modern economies and these days of globalisation. The fundamental objective of change and innovation is to help the organisation grow and develop. Apart from this, it will also help the organisation to stand the test of time and cope with stiff competition from other organisations. Every organisation operates within an environment where some variables exert their influence and which ultimately brings about change. This, therefore, confirms that change is inevitable in any organisation if the objectives of such organisation must be achieved. Figure 1 overleaf depicts this fact.

The diagram 1 shows the internal composition and elements of a school organisation and its environment. The structure, as shown in the figure, indicates the interplay of several variables both within and outside the system. The variables that constitute the structure and that operate within the organisation are technology, tasks, purpose, people, and structure while those variables that are external and which also exert influence on the organisation are; politics, economy, socio-culture, technology and legal framework. They are also called exogenous (external) variables. To a very large extent, all these variables influence the operations of an organisation since it cannot operate in a vacuum.

Having discussed the variables that operate within the organisation in Figure 1, it is essential to show the extent, the nature and process of innovation that

can take place in a school organisation as shown in Figure 2.

Figure 1: School Organisation and its Environment.



Source: Self-Developed

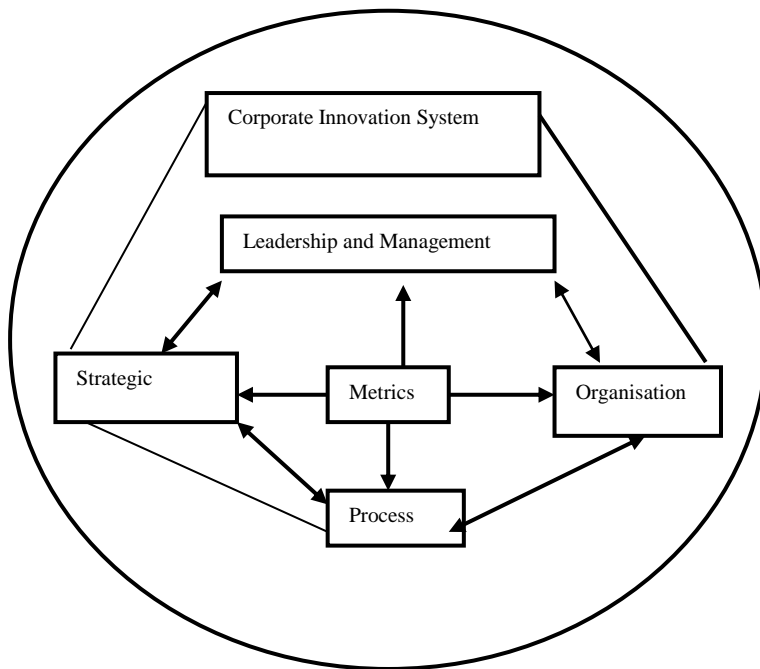
Figure 2 shows the extent, the nature and process of innovation in the school system. This process comprises five basic or core elements such as Leadership and Management, Organisation and People, Process, Strategic Alignment and Metrics. All these elements are interactive in nature. This interaction is shown through the two-way arrows that linked the core elements.

Types of Change in School Organisation

In school organisation, change takes two basic forms. These are deliberate

or planned / programmed change and non-deliberate or unplanned / haphazard change. Let us consider the two types briefly.

Figure 2: Innovation Process in the School System



Source: Adapted from *Relentless Growth* by Christopher Meyer (1987)

Deliberate/Planned/Programmed Change

The terms, deliberate, planned and programmed in the context of this discourse mean the same thing. Deliberate change occurs as a result of any action taken which is intended to adjust organisational operations, where the actions are conscious and deliberate efforts on the part of one or more agents promote the change. Such changes are pre-conceived, pre-planned, programmed and probably pre-evaluated (Ajayi, 1986). This deliberate planned or programmed approach, according to Reddin (1975), as cited by Adepoju (2015), goes under many names which can be used interchangeably, such as planned change, changed programme, organisational development and organisational effectiveness programme. These names generally indicate a long-range programme of change designed to move an organisation from one level of effectiveness programme to another. Reddin (1975) emphasises further that the key idea is to get managers in the system to take a look at themselves, their divisions and the organisation itself, and to take changes in a planned direction.

Non-deliberate Change

This type of change is otherwise known as random, unplanned or haphazard change. It is the type of change that occurs without any effort previously made to prepare or plan for it. It may be occasioned by the urgent need to introduce a programme without prior consultations or consideration of all the experts or stakeholders who might have caused a stop of such a change and/or who might delay its operation. Non-deliberate change is usually characterised by lack of strategic plans and this, to a very large extent, affects the implementation. Of course, it does not always allow adjustment and/or evaluation to be made easily (Adepoju, 2006).

Rationale for Change and Innovation in School Organisations

Several reasons may be attributed for the need to allow change and innovation to take place in formal organisations. Adepoju (2006) summed up the reasons as follows:

- i. Need to improve on the standard. For a school organisation to enhance its operation, there is the need to improve its standard. Where standard is not improved, such a school organisation could go to extinction.
- ii. Future expectation. Where the expectation of a school organisation is high, there will be the need to allow change and innovation into its operation.
- iii. Exogenous (External) variables or forces. Where there are other variables outside the system that are posing some challenges into its operation, the need to inject change and innovation into its operation is very desirable.
- iv. Need for achievement. Achievement could not be sustained where there is no turnaround of things. One of the essence of change and innovation in the school organisation is to ensure the achievement of the goals of the school.
- v. Desire for creativity. Change and innovation bring about creativity while creativity engenders stability competitiveness in the system.
- vi. Internal contradictions. Within the system, there are possibilities of internal wrangling which could only be solved by allowing change to take place or injecting innovation into the system.
- vii. Event of natural disasters. In the event of disasters, change and innovation could come as aids to ameliorate the implications.

Resistance to Organisational Change and Innovation

As earlier pointed out, change and innovation are inevitable if the organisation must grow and develop and if it must stand the test of time and be relevant in this time of globalisation and competitiveness (Adepoju, 2016). It has also been stated that, conflict should also be expected in the process of introducing new ideas in an organisation since change, even though, desirable, its process is not without some obstacles and incidences. Regardless of how good or necessary a change may be, resistance should be expected.

Champion (1975), Weihrich and Koontz (2003) and Adepoju (2006)

summed up the possible potential sources of resistance to organisational change and innovation thus:

1. Change creates anxiety for many workers, most especially when it is a threat to their job.
2. Change tends to alter informal group relationships on the job. Since employees may derive considerable pleasure and satisfaction from these associations (Hawthorne studies confirmed this in 1934). They are likely to resist changes/innovations, which could prevent their age-long associations.
3. Change may demand employees to acquire additional education or training to remain on the job. Learning to do a new job may be acceptable to some employees as a new experience whereas, others may regard it with hostility and criticism.
4. General ignorance or lack of knowledge about the extent, nature and scope of change can create resistance by some members of staff.
5. To some employees, change may imply a loss of status, economic gains, power, benefits, prestige and recognition whereas, to some, it signifies substantial gains. For those who perceive change as a loss, the tendency is there for them to resist it.
6. Informal groups such as labour union in an organisation may create some form of organised resistance to change for any reason in the interest of their members.
7. If an outsider is involved as agent of change in a particular organisation, hostility may exist among employees towards such a change agent.
8. Researches (Reddin, 1975; Fullan and Stiegelbauer, 1991) have also shown that those at the lower levels in the organisation hierarchy are those that usually resist change and innovation in the organisation.
9. Some employees do not like change to occur since they do not like to change what they are used to doing.
10. Failure to develop an adequate design for implementation may bring about resistance.

Apart from the above, there are other reasons why people resist change in school. Where those concerned did not see any need for change, where change is going to make it harder for them to meet their needs, when the risks seem to outweigh the benefits, when they do not think they have the ability to make the change, when they believe the change will fail, when they believe that the change process is being handled improperly by management, when they see the change to be inconsistent with their values and when they believe those responsible for the change cannot be trusted (Boin, Kuipers & Steenbergen, 2010; Glor, 2014; David & Katina, 2007; Agbim, 2013; Agbim, Godday & Abu, 2013; Agbim, Oriarewo & Ijie, 2013; Duygulu & Ozeren, 2009).

Steps Involved in effecting Change and Innovation in School Organisation

The following steps are probable strategies that can be employed in virtually all effective change and innovation models.

Step 1: Agree that a problem exists.

Step 2: Agree that a problem needs solution.

Step 3: Set clear goals that go beyond surface issues.

Step 4: Understand what is in the organisation's current structure that works for and against these goals,

Step 5: Establish a participatory structure that allows those affected to organise how and when changes will happen (one that can accommodate new ideas and conflict when they arise).

Step 7: Start making the changes in an orderly manner, according to the process, which must include steps for on-going evaluation and reflection. (Wehrich and Koontz, 2003: 82; Jones & George, 2008; Karami, 2008; Ogbojafor, Olamitunji & Sulaiman, 2011), and

Step 8: Institutionalise the change in the organisation.

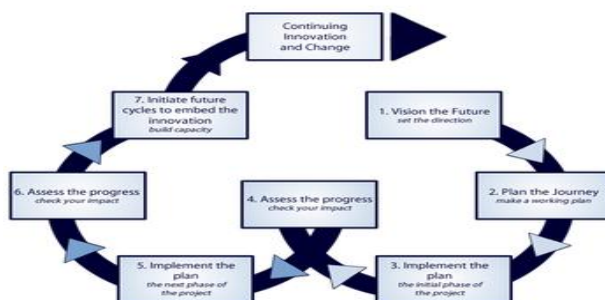
In the school organisation, change and innovation are bound to generate conflicts or resistance. For instance, the issues of curriculum and instruction that emerge, pedagogical innovations like cooperative learning or exhibitions, all these could generate structural conflicts; or poor communication could become the source of discontent, sparking attention to either classroom practice or school structure and governance. Again, these three areas (pedagogy, structure and communication) continually shift positions as schools juggle the tasks of change; again, the dynamic is more important than any scripted sequence (Fullan and Stiegelbauer, 1991). Figure 3 explains how innovation and change are essential to learning in schools and the cyclic nature of the concepts.

Innovation and change are essential components of every school day work. They are the drivers of growth and well-being in society ensuring that all have “choice and chance” in a rapidly changing world. School innovation and change as represented by the model in figure 3 consists of cycles of learning which incorporate an initial phase of action, reflection and assessment of achievements before further cycles of learning are undertaken.

Initial Cycle (Stages 1-4)

From vision and plan to action and assessment. It begins with a review of new and emerging technologies to support pedagogy and consideration of future possibilities to create a 'vision' for this cycle of learning and improvement. The

Figure 3: Innovation and Change Model



Source: Luecke, Richard and Ralph Katz (2003). *Managing Creativity and innovation*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press

school then moves into the planning phase where goals and strategies are agreed. The professional learning needs of all have been identified and are addressed in an environment of collaboration and support. The next phase is about ‘doing it in classrooms. This initial phase of action is an integral part of the change cycle for continuous improvement. An understanding of structures and processes to support this with the ability to embed these underpins this stage. From the initial phase it moves to assessment of progress in learning to determine whether programmes are meeting the needs of teachers and students. Here consideration is given to what changes may be needed before the plan goes into its second phase of implementation.

Further Cycles (Stages 5 onwards)

Using experiences and reflections from the initial phase of innovation and change, it is possible now to continue embedding the processes that grow and sustain a culture of continuous improvement and innovation in the school. Timely reassessment and redirection opportunities allow the school to maintain purpose and relevance and to embed the process of innovation and change.

Designing Systemic Change for School Organisation

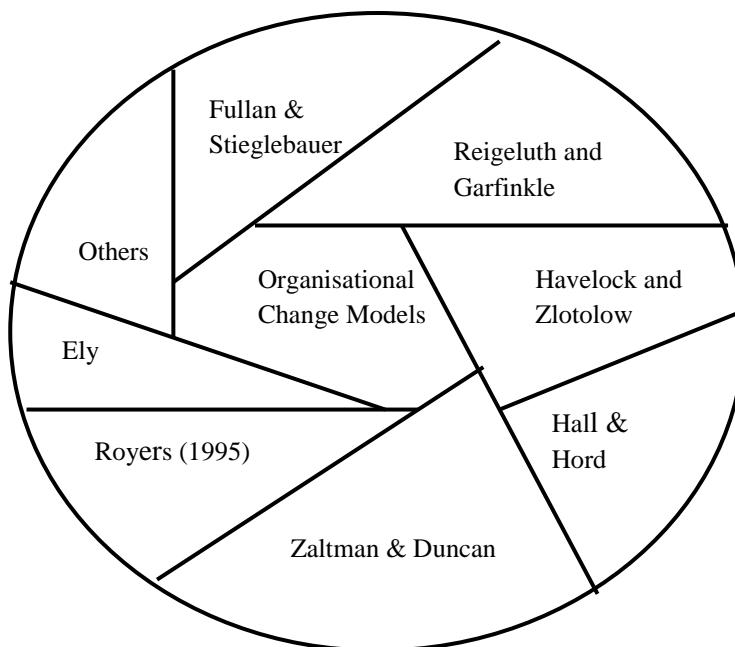
At this point, there is the need to understand a few of the basic ideas of systems theory, including the characteristics shared by most dynamic systems. The next step is to apply some of these ideas to education system with a deep need for systemic change (Fullan and Stiegelbauer, 1991). School restructuring is defined in many ways by different people. Traditional school reform leaves the basic educational system intact, while fixing up or adding on discrete parts. Often, such reform fails to consider how these parts *interrelate* to form the complete system in which they are intended to function. This frequently leads to superficial and short-lived change, as the feedback loops-triggered by introduction of a change not

clearly compatible with the rest of the system-reject it like a transplant patient rejects an incompatible organ (Fullan and Stiegelbauer, 1991).

Early advocates of systemic change often assumed this to mean that the only way to achieve lasting change was to discard the old system in its entirety and design a new one, meeting the new requirements, to take its place. Unfortunately, this ignored the practical reality that some existing subsystems remained a "good fit" with the new system's design, and would just have to be rebuilt if the new system started from scratch. It also neglected the political reality that those who control the existing system have a personal stake in the status quo (Ellsworth, 2000).

Systems theory provides the strategy for educational change, ensuring that a "critical mass" of coordinated innovations is in place, and that stakeholders' needs are addressed. Designing a change model for school organisation is very essential because of its socio-political frame. This is because, schools are 'dynamic system' and government policy is an external 'driver' initiating change. In figure 3 for instance, seven organisational change models and their initiator (s) are highlighted. The synopsis of the various change models is very necessary here as it would be helpful to have a summary of key features per model in the follow up explanation.

Figure 4: 360° view of Organisational Change.



Source: Adapted from Ellsworth, J. B. (2000) Surviving Change

The change model in Figure 4 expresses the organisational change frameworks, which are rich and solidly grounded in empirical evidence and

practical applications. This concept map features, seven models determined by Ellsworth (2000) to be the epitome of a perspective shared by a group of models. The combined perspectives yield a 360-degree view of the change process, in which, one may start anywhere and skip around to different models depending on the context.

We must strive to guide all our change efforts with a systemic understanding of the context in which we undertake them. Nevertheless, depending on the circumstance, or as the implementation effort progresses, it may be most effective to focus interventions on a particular component of the framework at a time. Anyone trying to improve schools, for example, teachers, principals, students, district administrators, consultants, parents, community leaders, or government representatives may look at the new meaning of educational change (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991) to decide where to start (or to stop an inappropriate change).

One interesting thing about all these models is that, just like the leadership styles that could be employed by a school head, there is no best model for a typical school; hence, the situation on ground would determine or necessitate the model to be adopted for optimum performance.

Long Range Strategic Planning in effecting Changes in School Organisation

Wehrich and Koontz (2001) define strategy as "the determination of the purpose (or mission) and the basic long-term objectives of an enterprise, and adoption of course of action..." According to Thompson and Strickland (1984), every organisation can be said to have a strategy, however imperfect or unconscious it may be. Management may openly state its strategy, or it may have to be deduced from management actions and the ways in which an organisation operates and behaves.

In relation to promoting desired changes in education industry, the following three basic strategic questions emerge:

- i. What should be changed and who are to be affected when change occurs?
- ii. What objectives do we want to achieve or what results are to be accomplished through organisation change?
- iii. How are we going to manage the organisation's activities so as to achieve the chosen objectives (change)? (Thompson and Strickland, 1984: 19)

These three strategic questions summed up the 'game plan' for positioning the organisation in its overall environment and for managing its portfolio of activities. In relation to change and innovation in formal organisation, the job of managing an organisation's long-range strategic plan has two distinct elements viz. (i) Formulating the strategic plan and (ii) Implementing/executing the strategic plan.

These two elements essentially imply what is called strategic management.

The essence of strategic formulation is to identify new market opportunities; developing new and improved products and services; figuring out better ways to satisfy customers' needs and wants; evaluating how to meet emerging environmental or competitive threats. Strategic implementation implies, executing the chosen strategic plan, that is, putting the strategy into place and trying to make it work. This is essentially, an administrative task. It involves building a capable organisation, instilling a strong commitment to strategy accomplishment, creating organisational culture, etc. (Palmer & Dunford, 2008; Lee & Yu, 2010).

Three key components comprise the management process of giving direction to an organisation in relation to change and innovation. These are:

- Defining purpose and mission
- Establishing objectives
- Formulating a strategy to achieve the objectives (Thompson and Strickland, 1984: 19).

These three components do not only have important roles in shaping the organisational outcome of success or failure but are also basic to creating a comprehensive strategic plan for the organisation in relation to change and innovation (see Figure 5).

Human Relations Strategies for Promoting Desired Changes/Innovations in School Organisation

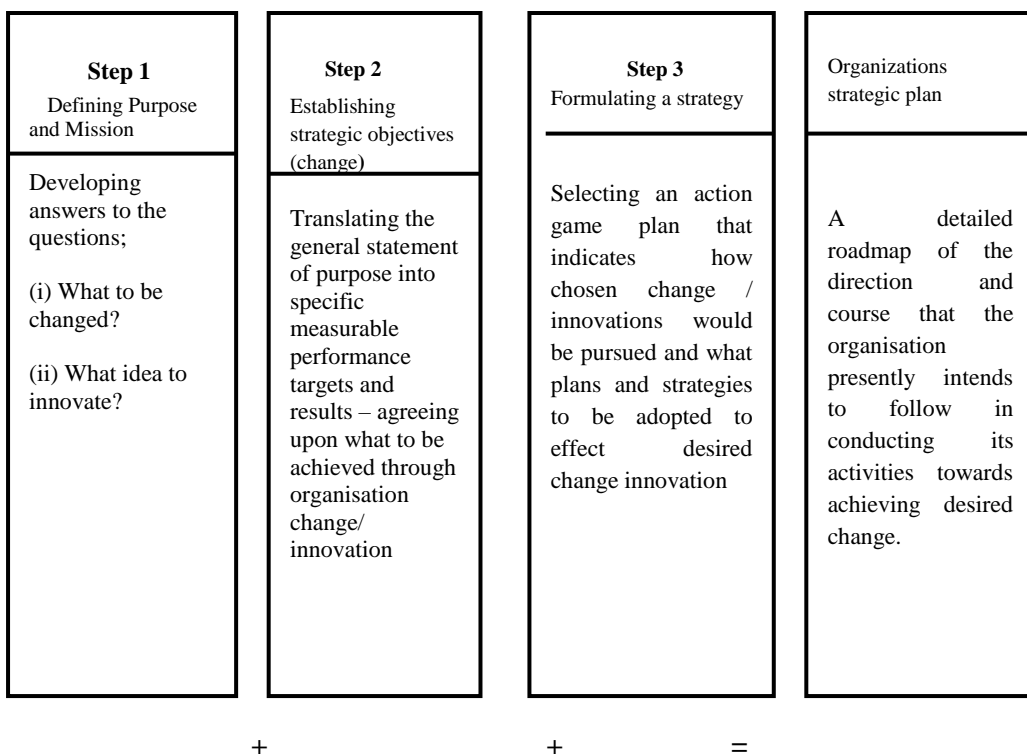
According to Fadipe and Adepoju (2006), one of the basic strategies for promoting desired changes and innovations in an organisation and more particularly in a school system, is to adopt human relations approach. By human relations strategy, we mean, a strategy that essentially puts the human variables or factors into consideration before changes and innovations are injected into the systemic operations of an organisation. In other words, it implies that considerations should be given to the needs of the employees within the system before introducing change and injecting innovation into such system. This is very necessary to avoid these employees working against such move if it would affect them negatively. Adepoju (2015) states that human relations' strategies attach significance to the involvement of organisational members in planning changes affecting them. Employees are adequately involved in decisions, which pertain to their patterns of work and social interaction.

- 1. T -Groups and Sensitivity Training:** Individuals representing different managerial levels and statuses within several organisations are brought together in groups of at least ten persons. They begin to share experiences with one another, and over time, each person becomes increasingly sensitive to the needs and reactions of others as well as to the impact of his own behaviour on other group members and most importantly, on the need to bring about changes and innovations in the organisation. This approach

is associated with the National Training Laboratories in the USA. The emphasis of this strategy is primarily on individual development. It is otherwise called group dynamics, development group, etc. (Wehrich and Koontz, 2003).

2. **The Case Method:** This method is particularly useful for the purpose of inducing persons in all levels of an organisational hierarchy of authority to think about and analyse intra-organisational problems. This method enhances flexibility in thinking about and deciding which strategies are most suitable and applicable to cases frequently encountered in the real life situation. It helps people to be sensitive to the many problems involved in the process of change.

Figure 5: Setting Organisation Direction and Performing Managerial Function.



Source: Thompson, A. A. and Stickland, A. J. (1984) *Strategic management: concepts and cases*. Texas: Business Publications Inc.

3. **Role Playing:** This strategy of introducing or promoting change emphasises the need for role playing in ensuring and/or enabling persons

not only to sympathise but also to empathise with others. For instance, in organisations, role playing might consist of a superordinate and subordinates exchanging roles to feel the essence of their designated positions. No doubt, it is very effective when people of different positions and levels in the hierarchy are involved and must work together during the process of change in the organisation.

4. **Training Organisational Leaders:** As the name implies, this involves introducing change/innovation in the organisation through professional leadership. In other words, this is to say that when the organisation has leadership of high quality, change and innovations would be more successfully introduced and implemented.

Wehrich and Koontz Initiating Model of Change and Innovation

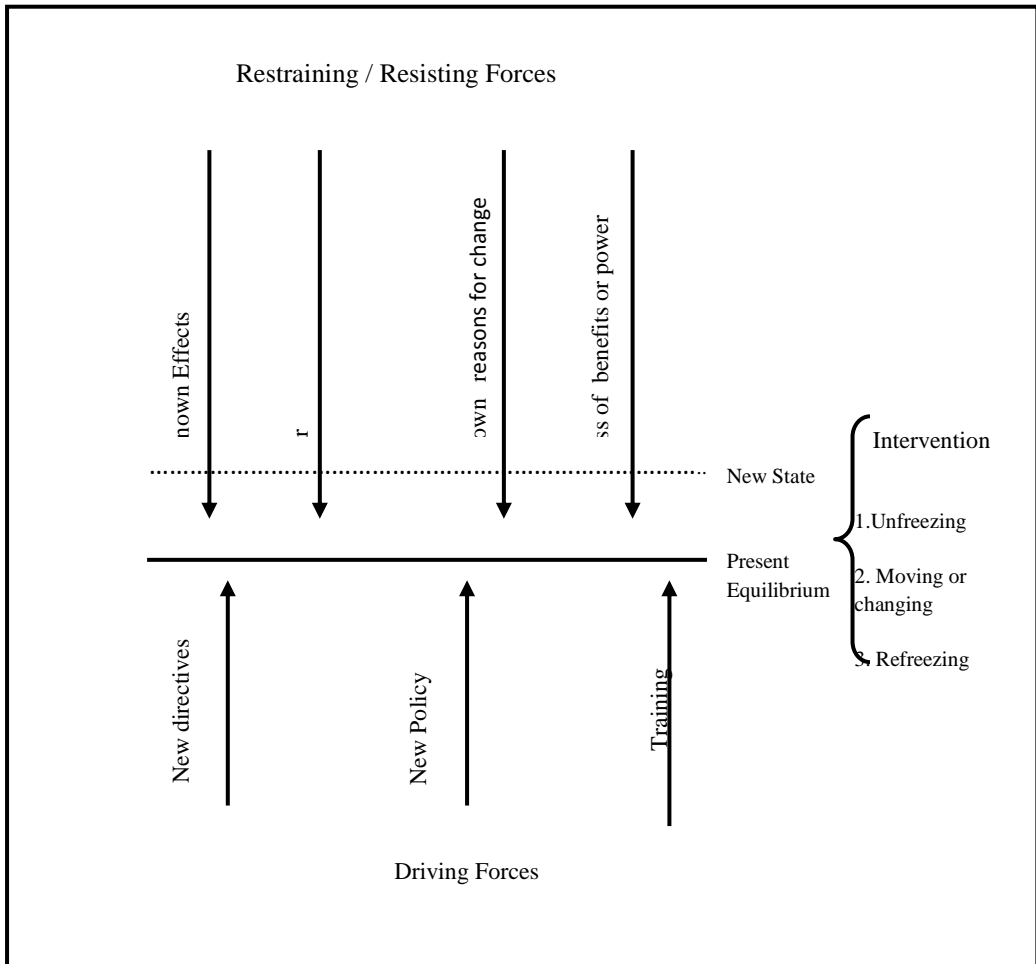
The duo of Wehrich and Koontz (2001: 430- 431) developed a model on how best to initiate change in the organisation (see Fig. 6). The model in figure 6 recognises those elements that resist change and those that are drive forces of change in the organisation. Thus, “organisation may be in a state of equilibrium, with forces pushing for change, on the one hand, and forces resisting change by attempting to maintain the status quo, on the other hand.

According to Wehrich and Koontz (2001), initiating change in this situation implies, increasing the driving forces, which may also increase resistance since there are likelihood of production of movement on either side. Another strategy being suggested by the duo which is more effective is to reduce or eliminate the restraining forces and then move to a new level of equilibrium. This strategy calls for the involvement or participation of those affected by the change. Hence, change in organisational policy is less resisted. Change process in this regard involves three basic steps viz;

- (a) Unfreezing;
- (b) Moving or Changing; and
- (c) Refreezing.

While the first implies creation of motivation for change to take place, if people feel uncomfortable with the present situation, they may see the need for change. But how legitimate and ethical the creation of discomfort to request for change? The second is the change itself, it occurs through assimilation of new ideas, information, technology, exposure to new concepts, etc. In the case of refreezing, the person's self-concept and values must relate with each other positively. In other words, there must be linear correlation between self-concept and value system of the would-be-adopter.

Figure 6: Managing Change through Manager and Organisation



Source: Wehrich, H. and Koontz, H.(2001). *Management: A global perspective* (3rd Edition) New Delhi: McGraw-Hill. p. 431

Summary and Conclusion

Change and innovation are necessary ingredients towards which things can be turned around in formal organisation such as a school system that aims at meeting the challenges of modern and globalised world. The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) which expired in 2015 and the current Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) have also posed more challenges to school system. This has also demanded a shift from conservativeness and *status-quo* to systemic change and innovation. Change and innovation are very inevitable in modern organisation particularly the school system. This statement has confirmed the need

for the introduction of change and injection of innovation into the school system. The cyclic nature of innovation and change was also presented in model and how could influence learning in the school. The paper also discussed the roles of school head/leader towards effecting change and innovation in schools. This paper finally discussed some strategies and paradigms for effecting desired change and innovation in school organisations.

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Accommodationist Response: A Critique of Footwear in Costuming Recent Nigerian Ethnic Dances

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Abstract

Costumes are visual language people use to express their cultural essences and identities. Specific dresses are expected to correspond to cultural details of the wearers; ditto costume used in playing roles in dances and acting. This paper aims to describe the ways costumes are presented in dance performances on the Nigerian cultural stages. The main discourse is, however, on the fundamentality of costume in showing the ways of life of a people, which performance seeks to do in whatever form it is fashioned. It raises questions about the necessity for the tangible cultural heritage of Nigeria in costuming the performances of Ondo, Imo and Nassarawa States' Arts Councils with a view to appraising them within an ensemble. The data collection derives from unstructured observation, photographs and secondary sources such as books and relevant articles. The findings reveal the inappropriateness of footwear in the total costume ensemble of some of the States Arts Councils and in traditional dance performances in Nigeria in relation to the cultural messages they are supposed to present. It then concludes that the accommodationist response may need to be modified with the right choices of fabrics and designs in order to bring about correctness in the total outlook of costumes used for traditional performances, which are part of a people's legacy.

Key words: costumes, Nigerian dances, footwear, accommodationist

Introduction

The black race must celebrate its cultural identity; find meaning in its cultural values and mores so as to remain a race that is humane. Ajose Adeogun¹

Dressing is a way of life Yves Saint Laurent²

Deriving from the above assertion by the renowned French designer, Yves Saint Laurent, it is pertinent that costumes used for any given performance be faithful to the culture they represent. Culture, as defined in the "Nigerian Cultural Policy", is the totality of the way of life evolved by a people in their quest to meet the challenges of living in their environment (Fasuyi 1973). It is this that gives meaning to their existence, characterises and distinguishes them from other groups or races. There are, however, intangible aspects of culture that have no physical form like literature, rituals, festivals, customs, language and dance (UNESCO, 2002:19). There are also some elements of culture that aid these intangible aspects to make them tangible and give identity to a people. One of such is clothing worn by people and shown in costumes used for performances. Costumes should be

“archetypal because they evoke certain emotions and associations, such as the past, traditional values, heritage, and identity, that are connected with certain cultural heritage” (Boultwood and Hindle, 2018: 149). They consist of all underclothing, hairdressing and accessories such as scarves, hats, jewellery and footwear. A costume that is inharmoniously combined in colour or historical period, no matter how beautiful it may be in itself or how becoming to the actor, can ruin an atmospheric effect (Ommaney and Schanker, 1982: 348).

Costuming the Nigerian Dances

Layiwola, quoted by Ojuade (2000: 386), states that ‘in recognition of the fact of its being conceived as the oldest art form because its medium of expression is the human body, dance, is an artistic expression predated on movement.’ This submission presents dance as an art form that is as old as human existence and has helped in passing down history of a race. According to the Roman philosopher and statesman, Cicero, as cited by Krieger (2002:249), history can be considered as:

The witness of times, the torch of truth, the life of memory, the teacher of life, the messenger of antiquity. – Not to know what has been transacted in former times is to be always a child. If no use is made of the labors of past ages, the world must remain always in the infancy of knowledge.

Dance, as a great aspect of culture, presents the ways of life of a people in movement, expression, costumes and makeup. A strong vehicle for retention of a people’s identity, culture can be a yardstick or tool for measuring the survival of any people’s heritage while dance is also often taken as a minuscule of the people’s culture. Therefore, whether the dance is secular or sacred, the costumes reflect the culture that engenders it. Dances can be performed in the public at social occasions, for leisure and recreational activities as well as for a rite or ceremony, a festival, or for any kind of collective activity. Whereas an ethnic group is said to develop an identity based on customs and traditions, there are distinct characteristics of dance based on the cultural space that produces it. For Africa, it is a common knowledge, according to Ojuade (2000), that there is no dance for dance sake in Africa and specific dances are tailored to specific events or occasions. It is a complete art form that communicates, not only through movement and expression, but also in the visuals. Amongst its visuals is the costume, which encompasses all clothes worn by artistes or performers to aid their presentation at any given time and space. It entails manipulation of the design of fabrics to project some form of specificity on the wearer’s personal details or what s/he stands for (Gillette 2000) and these include dresses, footwear, headdresses and other accessories such as bags and jewellery.

Clothing can provide both psychological and physiological meanings to its user. It can be clues to the wearer’s emotional state and at the same time, it provides a variety of objective information about the wearer (Gillette 2000) - the

mood, age, period, season, and socio-economic status of the wearer. In providing this visual information about the world of a performance, costume must be built in details, for any exclusion of the minutest details might deform or have noxious effect on the general picture that is intended to be portrayed.

Furthermore, Wickramasinghe (2003:3) considers costume critical in the representation and reproduction of the society that it presents and it is used implicitly or explicitly to manifest the message of a performance. Wilson (1998:387) aptly states that:

Costume is an aspect of the visual elements in a performance as the performer and costume are perceived as one, because they merge into a single image onstage. At the same time, costumes have a value of their own, adding color, shape, texture, and symbolism to the overall effect.

Gillette (2000) explains further that costumes have their own visual elements which include the 'clothes, accessories (shoes, hats, purses, canes, parasols), jewellery, wigs, and makeup' used by artistes during the performance; and they cannot be played down in the total appearance of a performer.

At present, there has been an influx of foreignness in the costumes of many Nigerian performers, which has adulterated the true cultural outlook they should be promoting and preserving in their presentations. An 'accommodationist' response would permit this influx, whereby a particular culture such as the Nigerian culture adapts to and compromises with the use of foreign materials in its dressing culture, which costumes represent in a performance. In reaction to the accommodationist response, this paper focuses on footwear as a part of costume ensemble (Gillette 2000:428) in traditional performances of *Imole Oloba* and *Imole Osele* from Ondo State, *Odu* and *Ashum-Agbye* masquerade from Nasarawa State, and *Gelede* from Yewa or Egbado. They are also used to protect the identity of the wearers, especially in the masquerade art forms like Egungun and Gelede. However, most cultural dances in Nigeria are done with costumes without shoes.

The Dances: Imole Osele from Ondo – State

The dance, *Imole* is peculiar to Akokoland in the northern axis of Ondo State. *Akoko* takes the largest land mass in Ondo State and it comprises of about forty towns in four Local Government Councils of the present eighteen in the State. *Imole Osele* is a dance named after the popular market in *Ikare Akoko*, just as it is named after popular markets in other Akoko towns. There is *Imole Ajoke* in *Oka Akoko*, *Imole Oloba* in *Oba Akoko* and *Imole Agolo* in *Supare Akoko*. The peculiarity of the dance is that, first, it is named after a market; and, secondly, it is observed during the New Yam Festival amongst other cultural activities in the various Akoko towns. In *Ikare*, it is called *Imole Osele* after the *Osele* market. It is believed that the dance ushers into town the presence of deities for blessings at the occasion of New Yam festival. Through the able representation of the priestess, the

deities cleanse and bless the whole populace at the palace of the king which is situated at the main market of the town. There is a procession of ladies from the stream to the town and this is led by a priestess who sprinkles water on people as they pray for anything they want from the gods.

Ladies, garbed in white wrappers with bottled effigies on their heads, transport sacred water for sanctification and healing of the people from the stream to the palace where the main ritual takes place. The Priestess (*Alaworo*) who leads the dance procession uses raffia to sprinkle water from a clay pot carried by an acolyte. She is also dressed in white wrapper with a bag worn across the shoulders like the other dancers. The bag is the housing for protective charms and other paraphernalia for propitiation of the deity. The white chalk (*Efun*) applied on the dancers' faces is believed to serve purification role in the cause of the rituals, while two long canes soaked in *osun* (camwood powder) are used to touch the barren to enable fruitfulness. The rattles are used to alert the townspeople of the arrival of train from the river source.



Fig. 1: Margaret (in red wrapper) leads the Ondo State troupe in Imole Osele dance at the Ife International Festival of Arts, 2008

Nasarawa at a Glance Dance

The *ankara* wrapper costume represents the day-to-day clothes worn by the typical Nasarawa man or woman. It is not restricted to any particular ethnic group. The dance being performed is titled "Nasarawa at a Glance". It features dance movements from all the ethnic groups within its thirty various ethnic groups, all of which have a common history and similar socio-cultural ideologies. The multi-ethnic composition of the state breeds a variety of cultural festivals that the people celebrate and the Arts Council re-enact in dance performances, especially the collage called "Nasarawa at a Glance". This and many others were taken by the

over one hundred and twenty ‘home of solid minerals’ contingent to the 2008 Ife International Festival of Arts.



Fig. 2: Nassarawa State Cultural Troupe dancing at the Ife Festival of Arts, 2008

Another performance showcased at the festival is that of *Odu* masquerades. These masked ones appear during *Odu* festival celebrated annually at *Doma* – one of the *Alago* speaking towns of Nasarawa State. *Odu* festival is celebrated to give thanks to the gods for protection and bountiful harvests. The *Odu* masquerade is synonymous with fertility and bumper harvest. The appearance of this masquerade during the festival signifies a positive response from the gods, that the years ahead will be filled with peace, joy and fruitfulness. The masked performers are garbed in monochromic white and black stretched wool leotard with leather skirt wrapped round their waists. The footwear is designed with the same leather fabric, which gives a picture of harmony and balance.



Fig. 3: Odu Masquerade from Nassarawa State dancing with leather footwear made from same fabric used for their skirt

Ashum-Agbye is another team of performers that is one in the corpus of over ten masquerades (*Ashum-Shum*) among the *Eggon* speaking people of Nasarawa State. Most *Eggon* masquerades are believed to be spirit mediums and the *Agbye* occupies a central position in spiritual ranking. It derives its name and peculiarity from the feather which horns out pointedly on its headgear made from woven cotton thread. The feather comes from the Owl, a bird believed to possess and evince bad omen. *Ashum Agbye* performs to celebrate war victories or in honour of the demise of revered members of the *Ashum* club. Historically, it was adorned by only men who demonstrate valour and bravery in battles. Women and uninitiated children are forbidden to see the *Agbye*. The masquerade represents a very strong tradition of order, respect for custom and indigenous institution.



Fig. 4: Ashum-Agbye Masquerades

Many of the people spoken to about the footwear used by cultural troupes in traditional dance presentation have *raison d'être* for the choices; and they condemn the style of performing barefooted either indoors or outdoors. In an interview, Adavi Abraham, former Deputy Director, Kogi State Arts Council and at present, a Permanent Secretary with the Kogi State government, Nigeria, posits that the reason for the use of shoes is “necessity, which is the mother of invention”. His narration of a harrowing experience he had along with his fellow artistes in the National Troupe of Nigeria is a veritable impetus and foundation for the present discourse. He recounts that in 1991, the National Troupe of Nigeria had a performance for the then President Ibrahim Badamosi Babangida at the Tafawa Balewa Square, Lagos, on a relatively hot day in a country that falls within the tropical zone. The dancers had to dance barefooted round the big event centre on a hot tarred road, and they inescapably went home with aching blistered feet.

When Adavi was eventually recalled to his home State of Kogi to join the services of the Arts Council, he thought the artistes there should not be made to suffer like the National troupe dancers; so he saw the need to make them

comfortable in their exhibition of cultural heritage, by introducing tennis shoes. This soon became the fashion fad for many of their cultural dances. He, however, realised later how ignominiously defective the choice was. Maslow's theory of hierarchical need will suffice for his explanation for the option he made of tennis, and his present attempt at changing it for good. He explains that people are motivated to fulfill basic needs before moving on to other and more advanced needs. With the hierarchical need theory in mind, he states that 'the ready option initially was the tennis, but the realisation of its oddness in the Kogi's dance costume ensemble, has brought up another need for modification for appropriateness and suitability. He, therefore, suggested that, a craftsman in any of the Local Government Council Areas in Kogi can be contracted to build befitting shoes with appropriate fabric on comfortable soles'.



Fig. 5: The Ondo State Cultural Troupe in the performance of Akure Traditional Dance

Also commenting on the combination of tennis shoes in traditional costume ensemble, the lead dancer for *Imole-Osele* dance of Ondo State, Margaret Ehinola, says 'it makes us look obnoxious to people watching us, Iro and buba (wrapper and blouse) on tennis! It is very appalling'. But she was also quick to explain the necessity that prompted the use, which she loathsomely detests. 'We were always injured by dancing round town and doing float at the annual Arts and Culture Festivals without shoes, so the option given then was tennis.' She went further to explain that the dance she leads at the Cultural Centre, *Imole-osele*, is the only dance that all Akoko³ towns share as a major dance sequence. It is usually done to celebrate the harvest of new yam; we call it "New Yam Festival". So, the dance is a ritualistic sequence done to purify the whole community before the new yam is eaten by anyone in Akoko kingdom. She, however, states that the dance has become a form of entertainment for people doing chieftaincy ceremony and the ilk.

Dressing in ritualistic costume with pairs of tennis is highly outrageous.’ (See Fig. 1)



Fig. 6: Ondo State Troupe in Ondo Dance Costume at the Annual National Abuja Carnival

Many other established States troupes in Nigeria costume their dances the same way (See Figures 6 & 7). They never bother to explore what Gillette (2000) explains about harmonising in design: ‘it does not require that all lines, forms, masses, values and colours within a design be of one particular style, shape, or character. What it does mean is that those elements should be chosen to complement one another (p. 73).



Fig. 7: Imo State Arts Council Troupe after a performance at the National Association of Nigerian Theatre Arts Practitioners’ (NANTAP) organised International Theatre Day (ITD), 1998, Owerri, Imo State

Masquerades are considered as ancestral spirits being impersonated by humans. In Yorubaland, they are believed to be messengers from the deities; so, their appearances are revered. There is, therefore, religious fervour attached to their performances and costume. The costume conforms to the specification of tradition and peculiarities of each phenomenal god. Libations are poured to them with the accompaniment of incantations to make them have ritual potency and sacredness before or after use. Aremu (1991:10), in his article, 'Between Myth and Reality: Yoruba egungun Costumes as Commemorative Clothes', states that, the costumes are regarded as the sole and only visible emblems of departed ancestors on earth, for they are the only thing seen at their appearance. Figures 8 & 9 show masquarades with sneakers as performance shoes.



Fig. 8: An Imesi-Ile' Masquerade's (Wolewa) Feet in an 'Ibose'⁴(Socks)



Fig. 9: Wolewa and 'Paraka' in their Full Costume with their Drummers and Guide

Presently, a number of masquerades have allowed foreign brushes to get at them. There is no doubt that cultures do not exist in isolation, as human groups relate to one another, which results in borrowing and fusion. Ayakoroma (2011) says a culture could evolve from that of others who are their immediate neighbours, but Mahatma Ghandi throws in some words of caution when he aptly posits that:

I do not want my house to be walled in on all sides and my windows to be stuffed. I want the cultures of all the lands to be blown about my house as freely as possible. But I refuse to be blown off my feet by any. (Gandhi, 1959:166)

His position is not against opened doors and brushes with other cultures; but, he insists that it is necessary to be wise enough not to be blown off by these foreign influences.

Many of the Nigerian traditional dances have allowed avoidable influences in many areas of their performances. Costuming in the cultural performances under consideration shows some careless abandonment of details. Like the cultural dance troupes, the masked ones have also reverted to the use of tennis/sneakers for performances.



Fig. 10



Fig. 11

The simple fact is that costume designers in the cultural sectors have not risen to the challenge of creativity. As it is, these two opposing styles should not be allowed to synthesise into dominant practice; otherwise, it will engender fatal distortions to costuming Nigeria's masquerades. There has been a visible but subtle acculturation in the assemblage of fabrics in some *egungun* costumes, but not the ignominious manner of tennis with *egungun* costumes or traditional indigenous dance clothes. It will be appalling to even consider structuralism in rationalising this style within the Nigerian context. Adavi Abraham, of the Kogi State Ministry of Culture, opines in a personal interview that, 'it is just a case of laziness in creativity and ill-funding for those who have the imaginative ability to work out good and traditionally-looking designs.' In furtherance of his submission, he cites the ill funding of cultural activities by the government in Nigeria. Customised footwear could be designed with local fabrics to suit the traditional outlook expected in the performances, but the government would rather go the way of costume hybridism that will not synergise into a proper traditional picture. The situation is like wearing a pair of wedge with a skating costume, or a stiletto shoes to dance ballet.

Even the *Nigerian Cultural Policy* in section 5 on cultural heritage preaches that there is a need for well-established and correct documentation on cultural heritage, as well the need for a well-organised service for its restoration and preservation. But it becomes sickening and sad to see the very institutions that should preserve the cultural details of the people trade-in to foreignness in a highly visible aspect of costuming the footwear. Costumes in cultural or traditional dances should be faithful to the culture they represent as much as possible, because all eyes are on them in search for authenticity. In as much as this paper is not advocating for bare-footed dancers who will always be susceptible to injuries, efforts should be made to creatively design comfortable footwear that have same fabric as the one worn, or, similar fabric that can complement the costumes for the performers.

Sneakers, which are an important part of hip pop culture, were originally designed for sports, but they have become so popular with many people; and the cultural sector is not an exception because of their versatility and comfortability. It is established that the troupes sometimes perform at national festivals and they are often faced with poorly floored performance spaces, and it is compulsory for them to wear shoes. A flexible sole like the sneakers' could be designed for cultural appropriateness; but, definitely not tennis or sneakers. (See Figures 8 & 11).



Fig. 12: Gelede Masquerades in Performance

There is no harmonious congruity in the above picture because of wrong choice of footwear. Gillette (2000) posits that, to be an effective designer, it is compulsory to understand the basic principles of design of which unity and harmony are part. He explains unity in design as ‘the creation of a stylistic plan to which all parts of the design subscribe’ (p. 72). Each part should have a kind of ‘logical connection that blends into a whole,’ and that is what is lacking in the costumes of the troupes under study.

Every culture has set rules about what is allowable in particular circumstances for standard behaviour and attitude, which is unique and peculiar to them. For example, the subject matter of this study, which is footwear, will pass in performance cultures like South Africa and some other White-dominated African countries. The dress culture there agrees with tennis or sneakers as footwear for any occasion, which shows pure cultural diversity when reviewed against the Nigerian situation. This state of cultural confusion is caused by migration, trading, marriages, technology and media, which allow brushes of one culture on the other. The resultant effect is often hybridism and multiculturalism in various aspects of culture.

Institutions like Councils for Arts and Culture have the preoccupation of presenting, promoting and publicising Nigerian culture within and outside the country. They are also to foster appreciation and pride in local tradition and culture. Mainly, the focus of the cultural centres is to transmit culture in its totality. Even when reactions to pressing need are externally induced, efforts should be made to maintain and be faithful to indigeneity.



Fig. 13: A baby masquerade from Ifewara, a town in Osun State



Fig. 14: Imesi-Ile masquerades with their guides

The masquerades in figures 8 and 9 exhibit grace and indigenuity in their full regalia which displays colourfulness in their choice of fabrics - wool, cotton, hand-woven aso oke and animal skin. The combination of achromatic, split complementary and other colour schemes are undoubtedly beautiful to behold without befuddling them with athletic tennis shoes (see Figure 12).

Conclusion

Creativity is one aspect of our culture highlighted in the *Nigerian Cultural Policy*. It covers literature (written and oral), visual and performing arts, and is expected to give meanings to the environment. If the customary dressing styles of the Nigerian people are waning and losing their primal significance as conveyors of cultural identities, the cultural sector should not be part of the past; rather, it should give order, and be a reference point for the people. Deleting crucial cultural elements and pasting foreignness without discrete selection or filtering could be suicidal to a people's heritage. There should be room to work out something that can uniquely be Nigerian. Conclusively, it must be noted that in 'style, material and cut, a costume must be appropriate to the social background and period of performance' (Ommaney and Schanker, 1982: 348).

Notes

1. Ajose-Adeogun H.O. Part of the foreword he wrote for Toyin Falola's *Cultural Identity and Nationalism* at the 28th Adeniran Ogunsanya College of Education Distinguished Lecture Series, held on the 30th June, 2009.
2. Born Yves Henri Donat Mathieu-Sam Laurent, Yves Saint Laurent, was a French fashion designer and one of the greatest names in fashion history.
3. *Akoko* is a major ethnic settlement in Ondo state of Nigeria.
4. *Imesi-Ile* is one of the principal towns in Obokun Local Government Area of Ijesaland in Osun State, Nigeria.
5. *Ibose* is a Yoruba word for stockings.

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Access to water supply in varied income residential areas in parts of Lagos metropolis, Nigeria

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Abstract

Access to potable water is vital for healthy living. The study examined household's access to water supply in varied income residential areas in parts of Lagos metropolis. Data employed for the study was sourced from the administration of the questionnaire using simple random sampling technique. The data collected were analysed using descriptive, bivariate, multivariate statistical techniques and world health organisation benchmark. The result showed that piped water connection, public standpipe and unprotected dug well predominate in the high, medium and low-income areas respectively. About 60.5% of the households had access to improved water while only 29.5% have access to safe water in the study area. The high-income zone recorded full access based on distance and time taken to collect water. The FA extracted three major components namely; water access, demographic and economic attributes accounting for 77.41% of the variance. The R square change of the linear regression was 0.259 with a significant contribution. The ANOVA model indicated three variables: main water source, income, and cost as the predictors and was significant at $p < .000$. The study revealed that access to safe water supply in the low-income area is poor. The study concluded that main water source, income, and cost were factors affecting access to water supply in the area. The study recommended an investment in safe water infrastructure within trek able distance with priority in low-income area for sustainable socio-environmental and healthy living.

Key words: access, Lagos-Metropolis, residential types, regression analysis, water sources

Introduction

Nigeria is confronted with so many challenges in the water supply sector. Apart from the rapid population growth and urbanisation, the rise in demand and shrinking in supplies due to overexploitation and anthropogenic impacts remains some of the major challenges in the public water sector. In addition, low budget and poor investment in water infrastructure, poor policy implementation and lack of political will also contribute to the current low access to safe water supply in the country. The provision of potable water supply is one of the vital human needs for healthy living based on the seventh Millennium Development Goal (MDG) geared towards ensuring sustainable access to safe drinking water by increasing water supply from 40 to 70 liters per capita per day (LPCD). Therefore, it is expected that adequate attention for urban water supply is placed on the front burner in urban planning. In Nigeria, for example, the investment in water supply sector is still low compared to other infrastructural facilities. Similarly, government policy on water

supply has been viewed by many as a free gift which can be used without limitation as long as the supply lasts (Oyebande, 1978).

The low investment and weak policy have been responsible for the country's low performance below the targets of 75% coverage for safe drinking water by the year 2015. Available statistics revealed that only 65% and 30% of the population gained access to improved water sources in the urban and rural areas respectively (WHO/UNICEF, 2008). The evolution of water supply in urban areas of Nigeria can be traced to the colonial era. During this era, two principal authorities, namely; the Public Works Department (PWD) and the native administration water schemes were responsible for water supply (Akpen, 2005).

A major challenge in the provision of water supply was mainly attributed to the economic depression of the 1930s which affects both the planning and funding of water supply schemes. Hence, only cities with financial capability were considered in the provision of water supply schemes (Akpen, 2005).

The inadequacies observed in the Nigerian water supply sector have led to the formulation of a National Water Supply Policy (NWSP). The policy is aimed at ensuring the provision of sufficient potable water to all Nigerians in an affordable and sustainable way through participatory investment by the three tiers of the government, the private sector, and the beneficiary. The policy aims at attaining 100% coverage of the population in 2011 and to sustain it beyond. Despite government's efforts both at the Federal and other tiers of the government and the international donor agencies towards improving the water supply situation in Nigeria, the majority of the population is still disenchanted due to poor access to safe water supply. The current water supply coverage in Nigeria is put at about 58%, representing 87 million people. It is estimated that about half of the Nigerian population, i.e. 70 million people do not have access to potable water supply (FGN, 2011). This value represents about 6% of the world's population who lack access to safe drinking water. It is estimated that in the urban and rural areas of Nigeria, only 65% and 30% of the population gained access to improved water sources respectively.

The provision of public water supply in the study area is through the Lagos Water Corporation (LWC), as far back as the early 20th century. Despite the laudable efforts of the Lagos Water Corporation (LWC), there is still a very wide variation between the various residential areas in terms of access to water supply. Currently, water supply in Lagos state comes from three main sources, namely major, mini and micro waterworks. The major waterworks are mainly from a surface water source from Adiyin, Iju, and Isashi with a design capacity of 70Mgd, 45Mgd, and 4Mgd respectively. Unlike the mini/micro waterworks, they are mainly from a groundwater source, tapping from the coastal plain sand (CPS) (Longe, 2011). The mini water works are located in about 23 settlements with a total design capacity of about 53.2Mgd while the micro waterworks are located in about 17 sites with a total design capacity of about 16.3Mgd (LWC, 2012). According to LWC (2012), the major, mini and micro-water works accounts for about 28,070.16Mgd, 2,797.38Mgd, and 1,208.77Mgd respectively.

Statement of the Problem

In Lagos state, for example, the high-income residential areas (HIRA) where higher income earners reside have access to various improved water sources like borehole, piped water connection, protected dug well, public standpipe and rainfall harvesting. This residential area has several water schemes both public and private that afford the residents easy access to improved water sources for various uses. Examples of settlements within this area include Ikoyi, Opebi, and Victoria Island among others. In the medium-income residential area (MIRA), the water supply provision is similar to what obtains in the HIRA except that most of the water facilities within the residential area are obsolete and dilapidated. Though most of the residents fall within the middle-income group and have the capacity to pay for water supply, it is pertinent to note that water supply from the public agency in the area is not reliable due to several factors like erratic power supply, leakages/vandalisation of water trunks and poor water quality among others.

Despite the challenges encountered in the zone, the majority of the residents around Ebute-Metta, Festac and Surulere, etc. still have reasonable access to water supply, unlike the low-income residential area (LIRA) like Ajegunle, Makoko and Mushin among others. The dense nature of the population and poor water infrastructure constitute some of the problems of access to improved water supply in this area. Due to the low-income capacity of the residents, majority obtains/collects water from unimproved sources like stream/river, unprotected dug wells vendor-provided water whose quality cannot be guaranteed. In most cases, most of the residents in this residential area, despite their meagre income, pay exorbitant fees for their household water consumption on a daily basis. In most cases, they trek for more than 1km sourcing for water while some spend more than 30 minutes to and from fetching water. This poor access to water contributes significantly to the man-hour loss and poor hygiene status of the people.

Review of Empirical Studies

Studies abound on access to water supply in literature. For example, Oyebande (1978) assessed urban water supply planning and management in Nigeria and inferred that there is acute water shortage with the bulk of the available water supplies unmetered. He recommended a policy that would enhance financial viability and economic efficiency. Michael (1985) examined the challenges of urban water management in the United States and opined that an increase in the intensity of water usage is a major challenge which required an integrated approach. Bosch, Hommann, Rubio, Sadoff, & Travers (2001) studied the relationship of educational attainment and income level of households and noted that low-income groups were often confronted with the ability to afford high connection fees to piped water. They concluded that low level of education was a great barrier to empowerment with limited opportunities to vital amenities.

Akpen (2005) examines the temporal variations in electricity and water supply in Makurdi, Nigeria and concluded that the absence of government and the native authority is a major challenge in the provision of social services. Gabriel

(2005) in his study opined that to achieve a demand-led orientation in water supply, risk transfer, competition and contestability are vital elements necessary for successful public-private partnership capacity to respond to urban water needs. Abdul and Sharma (2007) observed that water consumption in Indian cities was far lower than the required standard laid down by the regulatory agencies. He attributed its population explosion, industrialisation and pollution of water sources. Robert, Khadija and Stephen (2010) examined water supply in Jordan and argued that high socio-economic costs of water rationing and management are a major concern to all consumers regardless of their socio-economic status. Habtamu (2012) identified the non-involvement of women in the decision making process and in the village water user committee, weak institutional support of the water supply systems after construction and poor contribution of cash and labour during and after construction as factors affecting the sustainability of rural water supply systems in Mecha, Ethiopia. He concluded that the construction of water supply systems within walking distance would increase people's access to safe drinking water.

Fan, Liu, Wang, Geissen and Ritsema (2013) examined the factors affecting domestic water consumption in rural households in the Wei River Basin, China and inferred that per capita domestic water consumption per day correlate significantly with water supply pattern and vegetable garden area. They recommended lifestyles and cultural backgrounds in formulating water management schemes for rural areas. Koskei, Koskei, Koske and Koech (2013) examine the effect of socio-economic factors on access to improved water sources and basic sanitation in Bomet Municipality of Kenya and show that households' characteristics such as occupation and education have a strong impact on the type of water source used by the household. Asgedom (2014) assessed the causes and challenges of urban water supply in Mekelle city and concluded that lack of technical skill, rapid population growth and urbanisation, uneven distribution of water infrastructure and timing of water service are the major causes of water supply shortage in the area. Mahama, Anaman, and Osei-Akoto (2014) evaluate factors influencing householders' access to improved water in low-income urban areas of Accra, Ghana and concluded that much of the population of the low-income areas do not have access to improved water for drinking based on the WHO benchmark. Dlamini (2015) evaluated households' water use demand and willingness to pay for improved water services in semi-urban areas of Lubombo and Lowveld of Swaziland and asserts that age, income, level of education, gender, distance, and household size significantly affect willingness to pay for improved water. He argued that these factors should be considered when setting domestic water tariffs and designing strategies on water demand management. Kithinji (2015) assessed the factors influencing households' access to drinking water in Imenti, Kenya and reported that demographic characteristics, economic factors (households' total monthly income, the time taken to collect water, the distance traveled and the household size influence water sourcing behavior and access to clean water in the area. Also, Obeta and Nwankwo (2015) opined that the physical

environment, inadequate water infrastructure, socio-economic, geographical location, management and cultural issues are the major factors affecting residential water supply in eastern Nigeria.

Yixing, Lili, Kim and Yanmin (2015) noted that the ability to save water, help the environment and to save money are vital components required for efficient household water usage in Greece and Poland. They argued that information provision, mandatory water restrictions and an adjusted water price have a significant influence on water conservation interventions. Balogun, Sojobi and Galkaye (2017) reported wide variations in the public water-supply-demand gap estimates under low, middle and high population growth rate scenarios in Lagos state and inferred that considering the urbanised nature of Lagos State, about \$4,033,775 – S\$ 9,875,525 would be required to meet this gap. They recommended strategic planning; improve the operational efficiency of existing waterworks, cost-recovery to reduce leakages for the enhanced public water distribution system. Similarly, Obeta (2017) noted that technical and infrastructural problems, institutional weaknesses, inefficiency in system repairs, poor external assistance and low capacities of existing water supply infrastructure are the factors affecting water supply in the rural communities of Enugu State, Nigeria. Wrisdale, Mokoena, Mudau & Jo-Anne (2017) argued that environmental, political, social-economic and attitudinal factors were the dominant parameters impacting water access among adults and people with disability in rural South Africa. Obeta (2018) noted that rural water supply in Nigeria is saddled with inadequate potable water on a timely basis and in the quantity required due to policy gaps and weak institutional framework in the water sector.

Despite the vast research studies on access to water supply both at the local and international levels, there is still the gap in knowledge particularly in varied income residential areas in Lagos metropolis. Thus, this study aimed at examining access to water supply in varied income residential areas in parts of Lagos Metropolis, Nigeria with a view to proffering appropriate policies that will enhance access to potable water for improved healthy living in the area.

The study area

The study area for the study is approximately located at longitude 3° 10' 0"E to 3° 40' 0"E and between latitude 6° 50' 0"N to 6° 80' 0"N within the Metropolitan area of Lagos State, Nigeria (Fig.1). It is bounded by Ibeju-Lekki and Ifako-Ijaiye LGAs in the east and north respectively, while the Atlantic Ocean and Alimosho/Ojo LGAs form the southern and western boundaries. The area occupies about 445.4km² of land. The climate comprised of two major seasons, the dry season between November and March and wet season spanning between April and October (Adetoyinbo & Babatunde, 2010). The average temperature is about 27°C with a mean annual rainfall of about 1532 mm (Odumosu, Balogun and Ojo 1999). The major vegetation consists of tropical swamp forest (fresh waters and mangrove swamp forests and dry lowland rain forest). The drainage system consists of Lagoons occupying almost 22% of the state's total landmass. The area is drained

by River Ogun at the center, River Osun towards the east while it is drained by River Yewa in the west. The population of the area is about 3,057,956 while the density is approximately 140,566/ Km² (NPC, 2006).

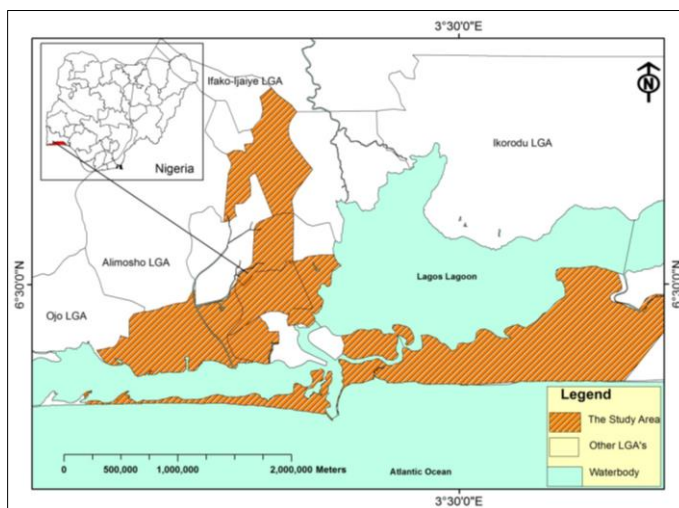


Fig.1: The Study Area

Materials and Method

Study population and sample size

The study population comprised household's heads from varied residential areas in parts of Lagos Metropolis, Nigeria (Table 1). The administration of a structured questionnaire was employed to obtain information on access to water supply in the study area. The study area was delineated into three distinct residential areas (RAs) based on their income levels i.e. HIRA, MIRA, and LIRA (Balogun et al., 1999) using a grid of 10x10cm² representing 1km x 1km on the ground (Fadare, 2008).

A total sample size of (n= 200) was designed and drawn from a population size of (N= 1,000,000) according to Yamane (1967). The proportional allocation was applied for the sample size across the three residential strata's of size N₁=200,000, N₂=300,000 and N₃=500,000 according to Kothari & Garg (2014). The sample sizes for the different strata are: n₁= 40, n₂= 60 and n₃=100. Thus, a total of two hundred questionnaires were administered using a simple random sampling technique (Fig.2).

On ethical consideration, approval was obtained from the ethics committee of the University. The respondents were informed that participation in the survey was purely voluntary and that they were free to decline me information at any time without providing justification. Consent for data gathering was also obtained before the administration of questionnaires. The survey was conducted between August and September 2012 with the aim of assessing household access to water

S/N	Residential types	Settlements	Characteristics
1	HIRA	Ikoyi, Opebi and Victoria Island	It is characterised by well-defined road/drainage networks and street layout plan. Patches of natural vegetation and landscaping are prominent. Most of the buildings are well spaced with adequate open spaces for recreation. A large number of the residents are high-income earners.
2	MIRA	Ebute-Metta, Festac town and Surulere	Parts of this area fall within the old colonial master’s residential area (Ebute-Metta) and government’s housing estate (Festac town). The area is characterised by well-defined road/drainage networks and well-defined street layout plan. The presence of natural vegetation cover is scanty while the level of landscaping is relatively high. The majority of the residents are middle-income earners.
3	LIRA	Ajegunle, Makoko and Mushin	The area lack well-defined road/drainage networks. There is a lack of clearly defined street layout. Most of the buildings are clustered without adequate ventilation. There are no open spaces and the area is devoid of natural vegetation cover and landscaping. The majority of the residents are low-income earners.

Table 1: Profile of the residential types

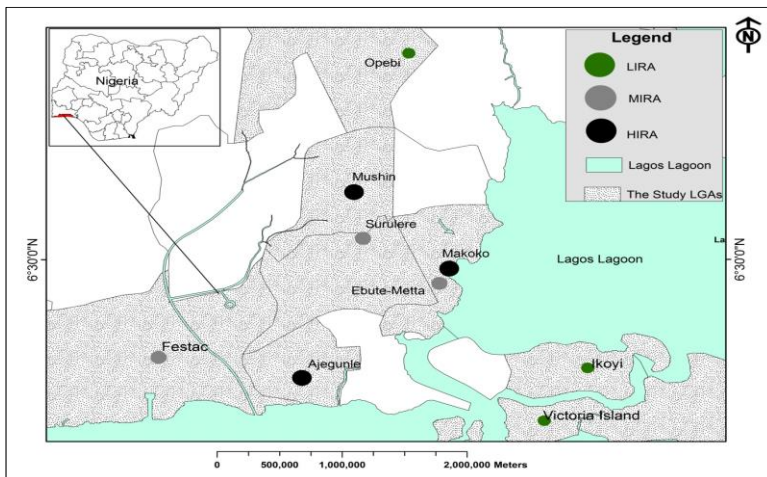


Fig. 2: Residential types in the study area

supply in parts of Lagos metropolis, Nigeria. The study focused on socio-demographic characteristics, sources of water, access to water sources and their attributes (i.e. distance to water source, the time is taken to obtain water and quantity of water consumed per person per day) of the households.

Data Analysis

Both the descriptive, bivariate (chi-square) and multivariate (factor analysis and linear regression) statistical techniques were employed. The descriptive statistics were used to examine the measure of location, chi-square helped to establish the interdependence of the variables, factor analysis (FA) was employed to explain factors affecting household access to water supply while linear regression analysis (LRA) was used to examine the effects of the contributions of each of the factors affecting household access to water supply in the study area. Nine variables were used to compute the FA based on Kaiser –Meyer-Olkin measure (KMO) and Bartlett's sampling adequacy test (Kaiser, 1974). The independent variables used for the LRA are sex, age, education, occupation, income (INM), household size (HHS), main water source (MWS) and cost (CST) expended on water consumption/day by household while daily water consumption (DWC) in lpcd serve as the dependent variable. Pallant (2007) method was employed to check for collinearity and to ensure that the independent variables have some degree of relationship with the dependent variable. The suitability of the dataset for factor analysis based on the KMO measure of the sampling adequacy value was .701, the value exceeds the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser, 1974). Bartlett's test of sphericity was found to be statistically significant ($p=.000$), therefore supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix.

The WHO and UNICEF (2014) benchmark were adopted for the definitions of improved water source and the attributes of water access. The improved sources include; borehole (BH), piped water connection (PWC), public standpipe (PS), protected dug well (PDW) and rainwater harvesting (RWH), while the unimproved source comprised of unprotected, dug well (UDW), and vendor provided water (VPW). The data were analysed using IBM statistical package for social sciences version 22.0 while ArcGIS software versions 10.3 were employed to generate a map of the study area. Tables and maps were used for the presentation of the results.

Results and Discussion

i. Socio-demographic characteristics of households

The proportion of household sex and occupation show that approximately 74.0% are females while the remaining 26.0% represents the males. This confirms the role of the female in water sourcing and handling in households in most developing countries. Regarding occupation, trading activities predominate representing 37.5%. About 26.5% accounts for other categories of occupation such as the retirees, religious leaders, and traditional healers among others.

Other socio-demographic attributes of the household revealed that more than three-quarter of the households interviewed are married. The dominant age group falls within age 31-35 and above representing 40.5% each. The result confirms the targeted group being the household head or their representative who can provide adequate information on household access to water supply.

Approximately half of the households interviewed had a tertiary education while about 41.0% had secondary education. This proportion indicates that the households interviewed have the basic understanding of issues relating to access to water supply. This result further supports the information deduced from the marital status and age of the household in the study area. Therefore, data collected in this survey are reliable. On household income, the majority representing 42.5% earn above N35, 000/month (\$177.7) while 27.0% earn between N10, 000 to 20,000/month. Though it was observed that quite an appreciable proportion of the households earn above N35, 000/month, it is evident that the purchasing power and the quantity of water consumed by the households in the study area may be affected based on their income level. Regarding the household size, the result shows that 49.0% and 45.0% account for 6-10 and 1-5 persons per household. Only 3.0% of the households decline to give information on their household size. This might be attributed to their cultural belief as this is common in most African countries.

Sources of water and access to water supply

The available sources of water for household uses show that VPW is the dominant source representing 31.1 %. This is followed by BH and PWC with 27.3 and 27.0% respectively in the study area. Obeta (2017) reported a similar result where about 32% of the respondents relied mainly on private borehole and vendor-provided water for their daily water needs in rural communities of Enugu State, Nigeria. The variations across the varied income residential areas revealed that PS and UDW predominate in the medium/ low-income areas while PWC is the dominant source representing 43.5% in the high-income residential area.

Access to an improved water source in the study area shows that 60.5% of the household gained access while 39.5% does not have access to improved source. The result agrees with the findings of Tadesse, Bosona, and Gebresenbet (2013) and Mahama et al. (2014). Regarding access to safe water (PWC and PS), only 29.5% of the households have access in this wise. The breakdown across the RAs showed a similar pattern with the available sources of water in the area. The predominant improved source in HIRA, MIRA and LIRA are PWC, PS, and PDW representing 40.4%, 90.5%, and 62.5% respectively. Access to safe water is very high in MIRA due to the presence of waterworks that are concentrated within the area. Tadesse et al. (2013) noted that access to safe water supply provided the deprived, especially women, an opportunity to be in command of vital aspects of their livelihood and maximise their sense of confidence or self-esteem. Also, Gronwall (2008) opined that exclusion of

anyone from safe water due to poverty or place of habitation is a violation of their human rights.

Water access attributes

Distance to water supply source

Access to water based on distance shows that the majority representing 91.6% has access to an improved source within their dwelling in the study area. Approximately, 54.9% and 22.0% of the households gained access to an improved source within 100m and 200-300m respectively in the study area. The result agrees with the findings of Obeta (2017) where he reported that the majority of the households in the rural communities in Enugu, Nigeria have water source located within trekking distance to their dwelling. Howard & Bartram (2003) have argued that distance is a crucial factor in determining access to water and sanitation facilities. They emphasised that the further away the source of water is to a household, the less water is consumed. Also, in areas where people walk for more than 1 kilometre or spend more than 30 minutes for collection of water, the per capita water use will drop to about 5 to 10 litres per day (Howard & Bartram, 2003). Similarly, Osman & Khan (2011) noted that at the level of service, it becomes very difficult to meet adequate hygienic standards. The variations across the RAs based on distance shows that households in HIRA have full access based on distance to an improved water source.

The breakdown indicates that the majority, representing 49.4% each and 1.2%, have access to PWC/BH and PDW respectively within their dwellings. In MIRA, 98.5% of the households have access based on distance. Out of this proportion, 73.5% of the households have access to water within their dwelling, while 25% gained access within the WHO and UNICEF (2014) benchmark of 100m – 1.5km. Only 1.5% of the households lack access based on distance in the area. However, it is pertinent to note that 22.1% of the households relied on unimproved source based on distance. In LIRA, households have full access to water based on distance. Approximately 80.3% gained access within 100m – 1.5km benchmark according to WHO and UNICEF (2014) while 19.6% have water within their dwellings. Though full access was recorded in this zone, more than three-quarter of the households relied on unimproved water source based on distance. The high proportion of households in MIRA and LIRA using unimproved source pose some health challenges such as water-borne diseases like cholera, typhoid among others. A study conducted by Bartlett (2003) observed that mothers with PWC within their dwelling practice safe hygiene compared to those whose sources of water are outside their dwelling.

Time taken for water collection

Household access to water source based on the time taken to collect water to and fro their dwelling show that 99.7% gained access in the study area. This result is in corroborates the findings of Mahama et al. (2014). Out of this

proportion, only 36% of the households have access to improved source based on the time taken to collect water. The breakdown shows that approximately 45.8%, 33.3%, 20.6%, and 0.3% spent between 10-20, less than 10, 21-30 and above 30 minutes respectively in the study area. The result is in consonance with the previous study conducted by Tadesse et al. (2013). Studies have also shown that household members who spent more than 30 minutes to collect water usually fail to fulfill the household daily water consumption (WHO and UNICEF, 2014). Similarly, Ako, Jun, Eyong & Fantong (2010) argued that the further away a water source is from a household, the more time is spent in sourcing for water. They inferred that when households have to travel for more than 30 minutes, they tend to compromise on drinking water supply.

In HIRA, households have full access to improved water based on the time taken to collect water. The observed high proportion attests to the fact that households living in the HIRA are high-income earners who have the financial capability of providing their own private water source with a piped connection within their dwellings. Similar results have been reported by Kimenyi and Mbaku (1995); GSS (2007); Obeng-Odoom (2012); Koskei et al. (2013) and Obeta (2017). Howard & Bartram (2003) noted that low-income communities who depend on public piped water receive less water and are confronted with serious water shortages compared to the high-income communities who have higher purchasing power. Also, they argued that households who get their water from outside their homes decrease to about 50 litres per person per day. Regarding the specific time spent, 56%, 26% and 18% spent less than 10, 10-20 and 20-30 minutes to and fro water point to their dwellings.

The variation in the time taken to collect water to and fro in LIRA show that 99.4% of the households have access based on the time taken. Out of this proportion, only 22.8% gained access to improved water based on the time taken. The breakdown on the specific time spent shows that 58.9%, 22.2%, 18.3% and 0.6% spent between 10-20, 21-30, less than 10 and above 30 minutes respectively to and fro water point to their dwellings.

Factors affecting household access to water supply

The FA extracted four main components with eigenvalues exceeding 1, explaining 77.41% of the variance from the nine variables in the dataset. Component 1 account for 35.9% while components 2, 3 and 4 contribute 17.2%, 12.9% and 11.4% respectively. The rotation indicates high loadings on four variables for component 1. This component indicates the dominance of water access attributes namely time spent to access main water source (TSMWS), distance to the main water source (DMWS), and time taken to fill a container (TTFC). The increase in component 1 shows a corresponding decrease in water access attributes. This implies that reduction in time spent, distance and time taken to fill water will result in an increase in household access to water supply. Component 2 also show a similar water access attribute with high loadings on MWS and number of trips to the main water source (NTMWS). Component 3

has high loadings on HHS representing demographic attribute. This result is in agreement with the findings of Ezenwaji et al. (2016). Also, Keshavarzi et al. 2006 and Ayanshola et al. 2010 noted that that HHS to a large extent determines domestic water demand. This result is further supported by component 4 with high loadings on cost (CST) and daily water consumption (DWC) representing economic attribute.

The result of the dependent relationship between education/income and the sources of water show that there is a dependent relationship for PWC, PS, and BH. This implies that the choice of source(s) of water is dependent on the educational/income of the households. This result is in consonance with the findings of Bosch et al. (2001). The increase in component 4 results in high CST incurred on water sourcing and also increases in DWC. This implies that the more the quantity of daily per capita water consumption the higher the cost expended on water provision in the household. This result agrees with the findings of Olajiyigbe (2010). Regarding INM, the result shows that this variable accounts for the highest communality which implies that the higher the income of household's the greater the access to improved water source.

The result of the LRA analysis shows that the overall value of the R square change is obtained as 0.259. This implies that the MWS explains an additional 0.26% of the variance. This value indicates a significant contribution based on the Sig. F change value. Further, the ANOVA result test (Table 2) shows that the entire model consists of three variables and is statistically significant [F (3, 196) = 35.159, $p < .000$]. Previous studies by Ezenwaji, Eduputa and Okoye (2016) and Obeta (2017) were at variance with the present result. The contributions of the independent variables included in the model were also examined to see which of them contributed to the prediction of the dependent variable (Table 3). The equation model indicates three strong predictors of access to water supply in the study area. The predictors are; main water source, income, and cost (Equation 1).

$$Y = 2.059 + 0.307_{MWS} + 0.286_{INM} + 0.164_{CST}. \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

Where Y is the predicted daily water consumption (lpcd). MWS- is main water source; INM is income while CST is cost. The results indicate that MWS, INM, and CST have strong contributions in explaining the dependent variable, DWC (lpcd). The findings of the study conducted by Ezenwaji et al. (2016) agree with the result of the present study. Other variables such as sex; age, education, occupation, and HHS were not statistically significant. Therefore, these variables do not contribute significantly to explaining the dependent variable. The coefficients for the MWS indicate that, on the average, about 0.3 litres of more water per capita per day will be required. Therefore, households that use MWS supply were found to have 0.3 litres more of daily per capita water consumption than households that use other sources as their MWS. This is due to the fact that, it is a more reliable source for various uses. Income has a beta

value of 0.3 indicating that a one unit increase of ₦1, 000 in the monthly INM of the HHS results in 0.3 liters increase in the amount of daily per capita water consumption of the households in the study area if the influence of other variables in the model is controlled. This result corroborates the findings of Kithinji (2015) and Ezewanji et al. (2016).

Table 2: ANOVA of the Factors Affecting Household Access to Water

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	79.211	1	79.211	69.089	.000 ^a
Residual	227.009	198	1.147		
Total	306.220	199			
Regression	99.497	2	49.749	47.409	.000 ^b
Residual	206.723	197	1.049		
Total	306.220	199			
Regression	107.137	3	35.712	35.159	.000 ^c
Residual	199.083	196	1.016		
Total	306.220	199			

- a. Predictors: (Constant), MWS
- b. Predictors: (Constant), MWS, INM
- c. Predictors: (Constant), MWS, INM, CST
- d. Dependent Variable: DWC (lpcd)

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
1	(Constant)	2.059	.171		12.071	.000	1.723	2.396
	MWS	.465	.056	.509	8.312	.000	.354	.575
2	(Constant)	1.487	.209		7.124	.000	1.075	1.899
	MWS	.296	.066	.323	4.486	.000	.166	.425
	INM	.328	.075	.317	4.397	.000	.181	.475
3	(Constant)	1.040	.262		3.966	.000	.523	1.557
	MWS	.280	.065	.307	4.307	.000	.152	.408
	INM	.296	.074	.286	3.984	.000	.149	.443
	CST	.239	.087	.164	2.743	.007	.067	.411

- a. Dependent Variable: DWC(lpcd)

Table 3: Coefficients of the regression analysis of the factors affecting household access to water

Conclusion

Access to household water supply was examined in varied income RAs in parts of Lagos metropolis using statistical methods and WHO benchmark. The result shows that PWC, PS and UDW sources of water predominate in the high, medium and low-income areas respectively. Household's access to water supply shows that 60.5% gained access to an improved water source in the study area. Across the RAs, 40.4%, 90.5%, and 62.5% of the households in HIRA, MIRA and LIRA have access to PWC, PS, and PDW respectively. Access to safe water supply revealed that 29.5% of the households have access to safe water supply in the study area with the highest recorded in MIRA.

The majority representing 91.6% has access to an improved source within their dwellings in the study area. Across the RAs, HIRA has full access based on distance to an improved water source. Time taken by household to collect water shows that 36% gained access in the area. Household in HIRA recorded full access while only 22.8% was recorded in LIRA. The FA extracted four main components accounting for 77.41% of the variance. Each of the component account for 35.9%, 17.2%, 12.9% and 11.4% respectively. Components 1 and 2 represent water access attribute (time taken, distance, the time taken to fill the container and the frequency of trips) to a MWS. Component 3 reflects demographic characteristic with high loadings on HHS while component 4 indicate economic attribute with high loadings on cost and water consumption. The result of the LRA shows that the overall value of the R square change is obtained as 0.259 with significant contribution based on the F change value. The result of the ANOVA indicates that the model comprised of three variables: main water source, income, and cost as the predictors of access to water supply and is significant at $p < .000$. The study revealed that household in LIRA has poor access to safe water supply due to their dependence on unimproved water source. Also, a unit increase of ₦1, 000 in INM of the HHS results in 0.3 liters increase in the quantity of daily per capita water consumption of the households. The study concluded that MWS, INM, and CST are the main factors affecting household access to water supply in the study area. The study recommends an investment in safe water infrastructure within walking distance in LIRA for sustainable socio-environmental and healthy living.

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A Linguistic Analysis of Online Newspaper Reports of the April 2015 South African Xenophobic Attacks

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Abstract

While the mass media plays a crucial role in the documentation of social realities, it has also been accused of agenda-setting. This study examined newspaper reports on the April 2015 South African xenophobic attacks. Contrastive in outlook, four debut reports on the violence – two from Nigeria and two from South Africa – were discussed. The selection of the online national daily newspapers was based on prestige, readership and accessibility. Employing Critical Discourse Analytical tools, attention was accorded to the linguistic portrayal of violence through the consideration of lexis, sentence structures and other foregrounded linguistic features. The counter-discursive strategies and ideologies behind linguistic constructions were identified. The analysis revealed that lexical categories frame and reflect the perspectives to the reportage of violence. Sentence types, particularly the complex sentences and passive sentences, symbolise a victim-aggressor relationship. Emotive language was employed to either emphasise or de-emphasise the xenophobic violence. Two dominant ideological motives were identified – Otherness/counter discourse and history. The study concluded that linguistic choices and structures are integral to newspaper reportage as they undertake ideological roles towards framing events and influencing their audience.

Key words: xenophobic attacks, ideology, Critical Discourse Analysis, news media, online news reports, violence

Introduction

Laher (2008) identifies xenophobia as the ‘hatred or fear of foreigners’. Touwen (2009) regards xenophobia as ‘the deep dislike of non-nationals by nationals of a recipient state’. Touwen (ibid) further states that the term may have ethnic or racial colorations, as attested to by the South African Media Institute, that xenophobia is a ‘manifestation of racism’. Moge kwu (2005) identifies xenophobic acts as embodied in discriminatory attitudes and behaviour, which often result in multifarious incidents of violence and abuses, including blatant demonstrations of hatred. Hussein and Hitomi (2013: 5) aggregate the causes of xenophobic attacks to be predicated on the ‘fear of loss of social status and identity; a threat, perceived or real, to citizens’ economic success; a way of reassuring the national self and its boundaries in times of national crisis; a feeling of superiority; and poor intercultural information’. Spates of xenophobic attacks have been documented (Konanani and Odeku, 2013), including the alleged complicity of the media in their enactment and reportage (Crush, 2008). The media is crucial because of its role in the creation of reality and its influence in shaping the perception of its audience (McCombs and Shaw, 1972; Owens-Ibie, 1994; Happer and Philo, 2013). According to

Easton (2004), the mass media define what qualifies as newsworthy. The expectations reposed on the mass media suggest objectivity as well as preclusion and insularity from untoward influences. However, as Nicolls (2010) opines, mass media platforms are often amenable to ideological leanings and viewpoints which they must either protect or sustain. That the reportage of a single story may be constructed to suit the implicit aims of the reporting agencies informs the present study. It is concerned with a linguistic analysis of the framing of violence in the reportage of the April 2015 South African xenophobic violence, using data from newspapers from Nigeria and South Africa.

Background to Study

The history of South Africa, particularly post-apartheid, is replete with xenophobic attacks. The April 2015 violence was largely blamed on a speech by Goodwill Zwelithini, a Zulu traditional leader, in which he blamed foreigners for South Africa's high crime and low employment rates. He wanted these foreigners "take their bags and go" (Hans, 2015). In the aftermath, citizens of other African countries were reportedly killed in the xenophobic attacks. While Zwelithini's inciting speech was blamed for the crisis, government officials were believed to have contributed to the outbreak. In the preceding weeks to the violence, Nomvula Mokonyane, Minister of Water and Sanitation, reportedly said that 'in Kagiso almost every second outlet or even former general dealer shops are run by people of Somali or Pakistani origin.' The Minister for Small Business Development, Lindiwe Zulu, also said that 'foreigners need to understand that they are here as a courtesy and our priority is to the people of this country ... They cannot barricade themselves in and not share their practices with local business owners.'¹ Edward Zuma, the son of then South African president, said '[w]e need to be aware that ... we are sitting on a ticking time bomb of them [foreigners] taking over the country. We can't rule out the possibility of a coup in the future.'²

The unofficial government stance asserts the usual refrain in South Africa that foreigners, derogatively called *Kwerekwere* or *Amakwerekwere*, have taken up the scarce jobs available. The word reflects the array of referential possibilities of perception as 'the Other'. *Kwerekwere*, from isiXhosa, describes somebody or something new or unfamiliar and includes economic and political refugees, immigrant workers and seasonal labourers³. Resonating with previous violence, Touwen (2009) informs that 'not only foreigners in the sense of a different nationality are attacked but in fact everybody not belonging to the dominant ethnic groups in the main cities, being Zulu or Xhosa.' The racial perspective is, however, ironical since 'white people are not viewed as foreigners in the context of xenophobic violence' (Touwen, *ibid*).

Aim and Objectives

The research examines the linguistic portrayal of the April 2015 South African xenophobic violence and identifies how counter-perspectives are relayed in newspaper reports. The specific objectives of the study are to

- a. present a linguistic analysis of the reportage of xenophobic violence in the selected newspapers reports of the South African xenophobic attacks;
- b. identify how language use reveals ideology and counter-discourse in these reports; and
- c. discuss the implication(s) of the identified features to the mass media and the society.

News Media and the Framing of Ideology

Ideology is concerned with belief systems that help justify the actions of those in power by distorting and misrepresenting reality. According to Luke (1998: 366), ideology refers to ‘the systems of ideas, beliefs and practices, and representations, which operate in the interests of an identifiable social class or cultural group’. It could also refer to a system of meaning that helps define and explain the world and help in making value judgments about that world (Croteau and Hoynes, 2002: 160).

Mass media texts can be understood in ideological terms, since they often privilege certain ideas and neglect or undermine others. Different ideological viewpoints jostle for dominance and pre-eminence. Eventually, certain ideas and perceptions become widespread while others are subdued. Olowe (1993: 8) says of the relationship between ideology and newspaper reports that:

the editor and his reporters on the one hand and their audience constitute an ideological empire. The newspaper subjects all newsworthy events that constantly come up in social life torigorous linguistic manipulation to make them suit the ideological expectation of the audience

Cepulkauskaitė (2000, in Aiyesimoju, 2015) opines that the influence of the mass media exponentially heightens in situations where they are the only source of information. This places a huge burden on the mass media to provide qualitative reportage on events. This task is, however, called to question as Abati (2006: 1) avers that ‘in the emergent power equations [...], the media is often drawn into a competition for power’. Consequently, the mass media compromises its responsibility through biased reporting, deliberate distortions, criminal partisanship and unprofessionalism. The implication is that, in use, language is an accomplice in the presentation of societal issues such as power imbalance, social inequalities, non-democratic practices and other injustices

(Taiwo, 2007). In addition, it is used in the media to tone down, suppress, exaggerate, or repress events and ‘realities’.

Violence, Xenophobia and Media Reportage

Violence is the use of physical force to injure somebody or damage something (Microsoft Encarta Encyclopaedia, 2009). Amonyeze (2014) asserts the media’s capacity to manipulate information and create stereotypes can negatively influence its audience. Huston et al (1992) and Iruonagbe, Imhonopi and Ahmadu (2013) also restate that the media’s portrayal of events influences listeners and ideologically shapes perception on issues. This is because the kind of information disseminated is critical to sustaining or rupturing peace and harmony in the society (Asogwa, Iyere and Attah, 2012). With regards to allegations of agenda-setting in the media, van Dijk (1998a) and Wilson and Gutierrez (1985) have identified also racism, ethnic profiling and covert discriminations as rife. This presupposes the existence of underlying perspectives even to single events and these are easily proliferated and ingrained into the subconscious of the audience (van Dijk, 1995a). Odunlami and Soremekun (2013) however recognise the positive influence of the media and opine that media practitioners should facilitate and promote cordial communal relations.

Existing studies have dissected the roles and influences of the mass media in the reportage of xenophobic violence in South Africa. Smith (2008) employed a meta-design framework in studying media reports of South African xenophobic violence prior to and during May 2008. Signalling the South African media as complicit in the break-out of violence, the study identified deprecatory and anti-immigrant rhetoric as commonplace. Touwen (2009) explored the media coverage of the 2008 South African xenophobic attacks. The study identified subtle media justifications, particularly through the framing of the event, as a class struggle perspective between employed victims and unemployed perpetrators.

Mohammed’s (2011) analysed public perception of foreign nationals within the Nelson Mandela Bay Community in South Africa. The study concluded that there is a covert complicity of the media in framing and influencing public perception of immigrants. Olijo (2015) investigated the Nigerian newspaper coverage of xenophobic attacks in South Africa with emphasis on Nigerian victims, perpetrators and the South African Government. The study revealed a dyadic perception – a positive portrayal of Nigerian victims, while the perpetrators were negatively portrayed. These studies explored public perception of xenophobia in the media and employed data from single locations (either South Africa or Nigeria). The present study is, however, a linguistic analysis of media reports through representative data from both Nigeria and South Africa.

Methodology and Theoretical Framework

The debut news reports on the April 2015 xenophobic attacks culled from four purposively selected online daily newspapers – two from each of Nigeria and South Africa – form the data. The selected newspapers are: *The Vanguard* and *Nigerian Tribune* from Nigeria; and *The Eye Witness News* (EWN) and *News24* from South Africa. These newspapers are established and reputable publications which enjoy substantial readership (see Table 1). The analysis considered frequency of violence-related expressions, lexical categories, sentence structures, thematisation and passivisation. In addition, the ideological implications of the linguistic features are discussed.

The theoretical framework is Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). It studies the relations between discourse structures and power structures. CDA is also interested in gleaning representations of social issues through the analysis of discourse, where discourse is, to Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 4), ‘an instance of spoken or written language that has describable internal relations of form and meaning which relate coherently to an external communicative function of purpose and a given audience/interlocutor.’. Clarifying the extent of CDA, Dontcheva-Navratilova (2005: 141) opines that, ‘[f]irstly, it is used to refer to unified, meaningful and purposive stretches of spoken and written language. Secondly, it is used to refer to language in action. Last but not least, it is used to refer to the language of a particular language variety.’

CDA submits that language is riddled with ideological patterns. This, as identified by Malkmkjaer (1991: 89), shows that language is not a ‘transparent’ or innocent medium of communication; instead it is a constantly ‘operative part of social process’. The analysis thus reveals the ‘hidden’ interpretations (McGregor, 2003) couched in ideology which refers to attitudes, set of beliefs, values and doctrines which shape an individual's/group's perception and through which reality is constructed and interpreted. According to van Dijk (1995b: 17), ‘ideologies are typically, though not exclusively, expressed and reproduced in discourse and communication, including non-verbal semiotic messages’. van Dijk’s (ibid.) model specifies the main tenets of CDA in the analysis of the hidden ideologies of newspaper reports as:

- a. examining the context of the discourse: historical, political or social background of a conflict and its conflicts;
- b. to analyse groups, power relations and conflicts;
- c. identifying positive and negative opinions about Us versus Them;
- d. making explicit the presupposed and the implied; and
- e. examining all formal structures: lexical choices and syntactic structure, in a way that helps to (de)emphasise polarised group opinions.

The present study relies on van Dijk’s (1998b) Discursive Expression and Reproduction, one of the tripod consisting of Social Functions and Cognitive Structures. This is selected in view of its identification of the structure of texts –

lexical items, syntactic structure, proposition, presupposition, etc. – in its analysis of ideology and power in discourse.

Data Presentation and Discussion

S/N	Name of NP	Date of Publication	Nation	Population of Online Facebook Readership (follows)
1.	Eye Witness News	16 April, 2015	South Africa	904,515 (907,515)
2.	News24	14 April, 2015	South Africa	5,993,085 (5,967,892)
3.	Vanguard	18 th April, 2015	Nigeria	2,941,972 (2,933,740)
4.	The Nigerian Tribune	19th April, 2015	Nigeria	900,325 (899,412)

Table 1: List of Newspapers

N-Gram and Keywords Analysis

The study identified the frequency of features with attention to N-grams (frequently recurring strings of words) and keywords (terms occurring at a higher rate in one body of text versus another). The identified key words further constitute a lexical range of the concerns of the reports. The realisations of keywords are presented thus:

S/N	Word	Frequency & Percentage (Nigeria)	Frequency & Percentage (%) (South Africa)
1	Xenophobia/ic	16	8
2	Dead/th/ly	2	3
3	Attacks	19	7
4	Violence	6	9
5	Kill	4	0
6	Migrant/immigrant	2	0
7	Foreign/er	10	16
8	Hate/hatred	3	0
9	Crime	3	0
10	Slaughter	1	0
11	Afrophobia	2	0
12	Looting	0	1
13	Police	3	16

Table 2: Keywords of Violence-Related Words

Table 2 reveals the linguistic similarities and differences in key words from the news reports. The reports from Nigeria are very expressive as they contain all key words except one – *looting*. The identification of *xenophobia* and its variant *xenophobic* in Nigerian reports is 16 as against 8 in South African reports. The same situation is realised with the word *attacks* which has 19 mentions in Nigerian reports as against 7 from South Africa. Words such as *kill*, *migrant/immigrant*, *hate/hatred*, *crime*, *slaughter*, *afrophobia* are identifiable in Nigerian reports but have no mention in the South African reports. The absence of these expressions validate the inference that the reportage in the South African reports intentionally gloss over and under-report the attacks. The realisation of *Afrophobia* in the Nigerian reports delineates the discrimination and killings in South Africa. The targets of the violence were surprisingly fellow Africans, including nationals from neighbouring countries. However, its use differs from the stance portrayed by the South African government. This is corroborated by the *Herald's* report of the same event which states that:

1. President Zuma ‘insist[s] [that the incident] should be called Afrophobia. This continues the officialese of the Mbeki administration as Mbeki also stated that ‘[e]verything I know about my people tells me that ... [they] are not xenophobic. These masses are neither antipathetic towards, nor do they hate foreigners.

The realisations of *dead/th/ly*, *violence*, *foreigner* and *looting* were marginally higher in South African reports when compared with the reports from Nigeria. While most of the realisations of ‘foreigners’ in South African reports are statements of happenings, some realisations reveal an anti-accusatory stance as the government sought to douse the tension. For instance, President Zuma says:

2. We reiterate that there can be no justification for attacking foreign national. *News24*

On the other hand, Nigerian news reports placed emphasis on the crux of the incident and the resulting casualties. An instance is:

3. Foreign shopkeepers in and around the vast township of Soweto... were forced to flee and six were killed as looters rampaged through the area *Vanguard Newspaper*

Looting, however, has just a sole realisation, thus downplaying the different forms of attacks to which foreigners are subjected to. Attention must also be drawn to the identification of *police* in the data. While *police* is realised just thrice in the Nigerian data, two of those instances emphasise the complicity of the police in the violence. An example is:

4. Many Nigerians and other African nationals have been clobbered to death in broad daylight on the street *by the South African police officers*, not because they committed any offence, but because they just hate seeing them in their country. *Nigerian Tribune*

In the South African data, references to the police reinforced their activities in quelling the uprising and restoring peace. Extracts supporting this are:

5. Police also raided several local homes including hostels searching for stolen goods and deadly weapons. *EWN*
6. Police used tear gas, rubber bullets and stun grenades to disperse locals threatening foreigners, demanding they leave the area. *EWN*
7. Police officers in Umlazi repeatedly called for backup during the night. *News24*

From the South African reports, linguistic items are employed for crisis-management. The reports of the xenophobic attacks are thus downplayed and softened, with emphasis placed on drawing attention to government's attempts at restoring calm.

The N-gram analysis shows that the recurring string of realisations revolved around four words – *xenophobia/ic, violence, attacks and foreigners*. These words occurred 91 times in the data and form the crux of the reportage – the outbreak of violence and the unleashing of attacks on the foreign communities within South Africa.

Contentives and the Reflection of Violence

English words are broadly split into two categories – Contentives and Functors. Contentives can stand alone because they have inherent meanings, unlike functors which are reliant on contentives to make meaning. Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives and Adverbs are contentives. An analysis of these meaning-making words reveals the lexical range and collocational possibilities in the text and how these reflect the incidents of violence. These expressions indicate a range of meanings depending on whether a knowledge or value system is presupposed in their use (van Dijk, 1998a). Some violence-related words are:

8. **Adjectives:** Barbaric, primitive, provocative, unfortunate, obnoxious, domineering, senseless, gruesome
9. **Verbs:** Burn, killed, attacked, accused, snatch, obliterate, distort, ambush, beat, clobber, incite, condemn, blockade, anger, condemn
10. **Nouns:** Migrant, immigrant, foreigners, hatred, crime, struggle, ignorance, afrophobia, xenophobia, xenophobic, attacks, victim, death, hate, legal, illegal, murder, criminal, anti-foreigner, hatred

11. **Adverbs:** deadly, repeatedly

The nouns used to refer to the victims suggest ‘Otherness’. Some of these are migrants, foreigners, immigrant, etc., and they aptly capture the reality that the migrants can never successfully integrate into their new environment. The perceptions of their activities are also reflected in expressions like crime, criminal, illegal, etc. While this is arguable since most of these ‘migrants’ actually had thriving legitimate businesses which were really the reason for their persecution, Touwen (2015) observed that most South African newspaper reports on the migrant community are on crime and criminal activities. Danso and McDonald (2000) also indicated that the South African media ‘reproduce racial and national stereotypes about migrants from other African countries’. This may have shaped the average South African’s opinion of the foreigners. The consequent negative emotions subsequently led to ‘*hate, afrophobia, xenophobia, xenophobic violence*’ which in turn bred ‘*attacks, death, and victim*’. The framing agenda in the Nigerian newspapers is reinforced with the designation of the perpetrators as ‘*anti-foreigners*’ who have displayed their ‘*ignorance*’ of the history of the relationship between South Africa and other African nations.

In extending the ideological perspective to the reportage and the underlying concept of otherness, the use of adjectives were revealing. While the incidents were adjudged ‘*obnoxious*’, ‘*unfortunate*’ yet ‘*gruesome*’, the perpetrators were presented as ‘*barbaric*’ and ‘*primitive*’. Interestingly, the victims were stated to be ‘*provocative*’ and ‘*domineering*’ by the aggressors as identifiable in the South African newspapers. These descriptions are linked to the business acumen and success stories of the migrants who have against all odds built themselves business empires.

The analyses of the verbs are revelatory of the violence during the xenophobic attacks. However, the ideological leanings still find expressions in the lexical choices. The two realisations of the verb *burning* were used to describe the riotous incident and never referred to any killings, as against the graphic depictions of the event circulated online which showed gory sights of charred human remains. Interestingly, the Nigerian data did not use the verb *burn* too but rather preferred *kill*. In addition, the South African data had no use of the verb *kill*.

12. Locals in Jeppestown and Cleveland blocked roads with rocks and *burning* tyres ordering foreigners to leave the country
13. People even blocked the roads with *burning* barricades to stop police from doing their jobs

The Nigerian data however had three mentions of the verb *kill* and its variants.

14. A number of migrants including Nigerians are believed to have been *killed* in a wave of xenophobic attacks in recent days by South Africans on foreigners.
15. This has emboldened South Africans to *kill* Nigerians at will.
16. Six were *killed* as looters rampaged through the area

These realisations exemplify how language and the (non-)use of certain words reveal the form of information that the media intends to convey to the public. While some expressions downplay aspects of the event, some others reveal the attitudes of the two groups – the angry South Africans and the foreign community. The success of the migrant community is regarded as provocative and their ‘get-rich-or-die-trying’ attitude to making a success of their business ventures is seen as ‘*domineering*’. The Nigerian reports through language use portray South Africans and the government as envious of the successes of migrant communities.

Sentence Types and Implications for Linguistic Framing

Consideration was given to the sentence types in the data as they are a testament to the construction of viewpoints and ideologies. These sentences aid information sharing and perspectives to media issues.

S/N	Sentence Types	Eye Witness News	News 24	Vanguard	Nigerian Tribune	Total
1.	Simple Sentence	10	3	10	8	31
2.	Compound Sentence	4	1	3	5	13
3.	Complex Sentence	6	13	9	7	35
4.	Compound-Complex Sentence	2	1	2	4	9
	Total	22	18	24	24	88

Table 3: Sentence Types and Frequency

Two sentence types are identified as preponderant in the news reports. These are Simple sentence (31) and Complex sentence (35). Because of their directness, simple sentences are employed to simplify yet convey the happenings and incidents to the attention of the reader. Instances of the use of simple sentences are:

17. Police spokesperson Major Thulani Zwane confirmed the attacks in Umlazi.
18. In South Africa, xenophobic attacks over the last three weeks have displaced over 5,000 foreign nationals

19. The other is fighting for his life.
20. Nigerians were displaced at Jeppes Town, near Johannesburg.
21. Calm has been restored to the area for now.

The construction of agency and ideological viewpoint is obvious. Sentences 17 – 19 are in the active voice and reveal the situation during the xenophobic attacks; whereas 20 and 21 are in the passive voice and draw attention to the victims. In sentences 20 and 21, the identities of the agents which have become deleted objects in the passivised sentence are hidden.

The complex sentences account for multiple actions and events which are accommodated within the disparate relationship between main/independent clause(s) and dependent clause(s). For instance:

22. South Africans see Nigerians who live in their country as new black colonialists, who have come to take out of their hard-earned resources, which they jostled for for many years.
23. Neighbouring Zimbabwe, Malawi and Mozambique announced plans to evacuate their citizens, as the violence drew regional outrage.
24. A Pakistani man who has been staying in the area for 16 years says they do not understand why locals want them to leave when they are employing South Africans.

These connect to the disparate experiences as revealed by the victims and aggressors during the outbreak of the South African xenophobic violence.

6.4. Thematising the Violence

Theme systems in language create a ‘texture’ in the fabric of conversation or written language. They guide readers’ point of view as they perceive and interpret the flow of information in the discourse. As they help readers to follow the ‘thread of discourse’, theme systems provide cohesion within language. The theme of a sentence is its focus or topic while the rheme consolidates this as it provides more information on the theme. While for stylistic purposes, the theme may be realised by the fronting of any constituent of the sentence, normally the theme is identifiable in the initial position of a sentence. As a point of departure, it is noteworthy that the two news reports from South Africa both started with how the police had tried to quell the xenophobic violence along the hotbeds alongside quotes from police chiefs providing updates on the event.

1. Police officers in Umlazi repeatedly called for backup during the night, according to a police source who did not want to be named...“We did manage to arrest 22 people overnight on various charges, including one man who was in possession of an illegal firearm.” *News24*

S/N	Theme	Rheme
1	Foreigners who have fled their homes	are sheltering in makeshift camps
2	A number of migrants including Nigerians	are believed to have been killed in a wave of xenophobic attacks in recent days by South Africans on foreigners
3	Many Nigerians and other African nationals	have been clobbered to death in broad daylight on the street by the South African police officers
4	And in 2008, 62 people	were killed in xenophobic violence across the city's townships
5	In January, foreign shopkeepers in and around the vast township of Soweto...	were forced to flee and six were killed as looters rampaged through the area

Table 4: Thematisation Samples from the Nigerian Reports

S/N	Theme	Rheme
1	Police	have had their hands full in Joburg CBD overnight in the latest flare-up of xenophobic violence.
2	Officers	tried to prevent angry mobs from looting foreign-owned businesses.
3	Yesterday, police	used tear gas, rubber bullets and stun grenades to disperse locals threatening foreigners, demanding they leave the area
4	Attacks on foreign nationals	continued in KwaZulu-Natal on Sunday night
5	Police officers in Umlazi	repeatedly called for backup during the night

Table 5: Thematisation Samples from the South African Reports

2. Police have had their hands full using live ammunition, teargas and rubber bullets in central Johannesburg CBD overnight in the latest flare-up of xenophobic violence. Officers tried to prevent angry mobs

from looting foreign-owned businesses. Police also raided several local homes including hostels searching for stolen goods and deadly weapons. *EWN*

On the other hand, the reports from Nigeria prioritised the violence and the Nigerian government's position on the event. The Nigerian media was also quick to reel out statistics on the number of dead or displaced people.

3. Countries neighbouring South Africa on Friday prepared to evacuate their citizens from South Africa as the UN raised the alarm over deadly xenophobic attacks which have **displaced thousands**. The anti-foreigner violence, which erupted in the eastern port city of Durban, has left at least **six people dead** and spread to the economic hub, Johannesburg. "In South Africa, xenophobic attacks over the last three weeks have displaced over **5,000 foreign nationals**" *Vanguard Newspaper*
4. The Peoples' Democratic Party (PDP) has described as provocative and completely unacceptable the xenophobic attacks on Nigerians and other foreign nationals in South Africa. **A number of migrants** including Nigerians are believed to have been killed in a wave of xenophobic attacks in recent days by South Africans on foreigners, who they accused of snatching their jobs. *Nigerian Tribune*
5. **Six were killed** as looters rampaged through the area (*Vanguard Newspaper*)
6. **50 Nigerians** affected in South African attack (*Nigerian Tribune*)

These resonate with findings on the thematisation of incidents in newspaper reports (Taiwo, 2007; Olijó, 2015). Whereas the plights of Nigerians and other victims in the crisis as well as the death and displacement toll formed the framing focus of Nigerian reports, the reports from South Africa fronted topics that eulogised the activities of the police in ensuring sanity. They also paid attention to the government's statements on finding a resolution to the crisis.

6.5. Passivisation

Passivisation refers to expressing action done to subject and is used in indicating that the apparent subject of a verb is the person or thing undergoing, not performing, the action of the verb. Instances of passive constructions from the data include:

7. A number of migrants including Nigerians are believed to have been killed in a wave of xenophobic attacks in recent days by South Africans on foreigners. *Nigerian Tribune*

8. Many Nigerians and other African nationals have been clobbered to death in broad daylight on the street by the South African police officers. *Nigerian Tribune*
9. And in 2008, 62 people were killed in xenophobic violence across the city's townships. *Vanguard Newspaper*
10. In January, foreign shopkeepers in and around the vast township of Soweto... were forced to flee and six were killed. *Vanguard Newspaper*

A passive voice sentence is a sentence in which the agent/doer, that is the person or thing doing the action, is not the grammatical subject of the sentence. Passive structures allow the writer to avoid imparting agency or individual volition on or avoid even naming the person doing the action. In excerpts 31 and 32, the identities of the aggressors (South Africans/South African police) are provided whereas the identities of the perpetrators are hidden in excerpts 33 and 34. In revealing the identities of the perpetrators in A and B, the actions of 'killing' and 'clobbering to death' are provided with agents/actors. The newspaper wants its readers to know that the acts of violence are unleashed by South Africans and South African police, thus suggesting government complicity. In fact in Nigeria, during the crisis, calls were made on social media for Nigerians to desist from patronising South African businesses in Nigeria. In excerpts 33 and 34, the identities of perpetrators are hidden with emphasis placed on the victims of the attacks. The numbers of people killed (62 and 6) as well as their identities (foreign shopkeepers) are fronted and foregrounded. These realisations align with van Dijk (1997: 34) that:

Syntactic topicalization by fronting a word may draw special attention to such a word and — following the ideological square such may be the case again in order to emphasize our good things and their bad ones. Active sentences will associate responsible agency with (topical) syntactic subjects, whereas passive sentences will focus on objects (e.g. victims) of such actions and defocus responsible agency by putting agents last in prepositional phrases, or leaving it implicit.

Passivisation, in the Nigerian instances, serves to draw attention to the plight of the victims – their nationality, population, time of event – as against their South African aggressors. The passive voice constructions help to hide and downplay the role of the aggressors, especially in the South African data where the newspapers sought to protect and preserve national integrity.

The Ideological Implications of Identified Linguistic Framing of the South African Xenophobic Violence

In line with Fairclough's (1985) submission that CDA focuses on the discursive strategies that legitimise control, or otherwise naturalise the social

order, and especially relations of inequality, the employment of emotive language was found to be influential in the media's attempt to exercise power and control over the perception of their audience. The preponderance of emotional lexical items such as *xenophobia/ic*, *violence*, *attacks and foreigners*, *kill*, *migrant/immigrant*, *hate/hatred*, *crime*, *slaughter*, *afrophobia* in Nigerian news reports are instructive. They draw attention to the event as well as make their readers active participants in the experience. This viewpoint is facilitated by the use of words which lend themselves to graphic interpretation. Interestingly, there is a reversal in the South African reports where certain linguistic items and structures enjoy preference instead. These emphasise the ideological frames from both countries. The fronting of certain sentence parts and passivisation were also found integral to the media's framing of the xenophobic event.

The central ideology in the reports is that of Otherness. This involved counter references which either reduced the severity of the violence, as in the South African reports or escalated the violence and called for action against the South African government and people, as identified in the Nigerian reports. While the South African reports covertly tried to justify the attacks as an outcrop of pent-up anger at foreigners who seemed to be dominating the South African economic landscape, the Nigerian reports portrayed the attacks as stemming from envy. It is, therefore, attestable that newspaper reports pay attention to the framing of their 'realities' through the perspectives presented in their news narratives, particularly how they subtly impress their viewpoints on the reading public. Language is consequential because the framing of a social narrative is often a strong determinant in the perception and strategies for addressing it. The realisations at the lexical and syntactic levels of analyses reveal the place of emotions in the reports of violence in newspapers.

History is also wielded as an ideology. The news reports from Nigeria reiterate the roles of Nigeria and other African countries in combating the 'white' or western hegemony during apartheid. Nigeria served as a bastion in calling for respect and equal rights for Black South Africans who were being oppressed. The Nigerian news reports thus found it disconcerting that Nigerians and other Africans have been labelled as outcasts and criminals in a country for which independence they fought. Conversely, the South African reports failed to acknowledge the roles and influences of sister African countries. In fact, there is an underlying effrontery suggestive of acquiescence to white domination simultaneously juxtaposed with an abhorrence of fellow Africans.

We thus conclude that media narratives possess influence in the representations of events. Through the pervasive dissemination of their contents, these narratives physically and mentally dominate their audience through subtle, routine, banal forms of text and talk that appear natural, harmless and quite acceptable until subjected to scrutiny.

8. Conclusion and Recommendation

In conclusion, the indeterminacy of language, particularly when purposefully made pliable, and the presence of paradigmatic choice are brought to the fore. Newspaper reports are only windows to the truth – where the texture or colours of the panes may influence or distort one's sight. The reportage of a single event is often relayed linguistically to depict multiple ideologies and perspectives. Language, therefore, constitutes a tool employed by the news media in framing viewpoints, a potent potion in influencing ideology-formation among the audience. The resultant implication is that not only can media texts normalise behaviours, they can also set limits on the range of acceptable ideas.

We establish the counter-discoursal reportage of a single event in newspaper reports. While the Nigerian reports portrayed the South African people and its government in a negative light and also drew attention to the killing, looting and displacement of victims, the South African reports played down the incidents, with more attention paid to the action of the government and security forces in controlling the violence. In fact, the re-christening of the xenophobic attacks as 'Afrophobia' by the South African government suggests the complicity of the South African elite to discountenance the role of African countries towards the dismantling of apartheid system in South Africa. Unfortunately, 'Afrophobia' is racist as it reflects a dichotomy between Africans and non-Africans resident in South Africa.

It is recommended that free and fair reportage of events should be upheld by media corporations as this will facilitate peace and minimise the occurrence of reprisal attacks. In addition, manipulative news reports may instigate and escalate conflicts in volatile and crisis-prone regions. The media should instead play an integrative role in stemming the tide of xenophobia and communal violence.

Notes

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2. <http://www.news24.com/SouthAfrica/News/Zumas-son-wants-foreigners-out-of-the-country-20150331>
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Effects of Modes of Computer Animation Instructional Packages on Students' Attitude to Biology in Secondary Schools in Osun State

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Abstract

This study examined the effects of modes of computer animation instructional packages on students' attitude to biology in secondary schools in Osun State. The study adopted a Pre-test-post-test control group, quasi experimental research design. Random sampling was used to select six (6) secondary schools while 100 senior secondary (SS II) students in six intact classes randomly assigned to Animation combined with Narration (A+N), Animation combined with narration and on- screen text (A+N+T) group and control group. One instrument, Students' Attitude to Biology Questionnaire (SABQ) was used in collecting data. Data were analysed using Analysis of Covariance and Scheffe Post-hoc test at 0.05 level of significance. There exist a significant difference in the attitude of students exposed to the animated packages and those exposed to the conventional method. The results revealed that $F_c = 58.21$; $p < 0.05$ was significant. This is because the significance of $F = 0.000$ is less than the alpha level. The study, therefore, concluded that animation combined with narration, animation combined with narration and on-screen text are significantly effective in enhancing students' attitude towards biology.

Key words: animation combined with narration, animation combined with narration and on-screen text, attitude to biology

Introduction

Biology curriculum is designed to provide students with the knowledge of the key concepts in biology, to promote their knowledge of the world around them, as well as develop broadly applicable skills such as problem-solving communication, critical thinking and objectives reasoning ability to prepare the students for work place and self-sustainability in the world economy (Federal Republic of Nigeria *National Policy on Education* 2008). The biology curriculum as a teaching subject has the following objectives as provided in the *National Policy on Education* includes:

- to understand certain key biological concepts necessary for successful living in a scientific and technological world;
- to illuminate the problems of sex reproduction, growth, pollution health etc. for the benefit of the society;
- to acquire ability to apply scientific knowledge to everyday life in matters of personal and community health and agriculture; and
- to make rooms for technological advancement and to disperse superstitions beliefs in a technological methods.

Biology is an important subject among the core science subjects taught at senior secondary school level in Nigeria. Biology, as a subject, occupies a unique position in the school curriculum. It is introduced to students at secondary school level as a preparatory ground for human development where career abilities are groomed (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2008). The importance of Biology in the industrialisation and other sectors of the economy cannot be overemphasised. As a matter of fact, it is a prerequisite for pursuing a number of careers in sciences which include medicine, pharmacy, biochemistry, botany, nursing, zoology among others. The learning of Biology provides an individual with useful information in solving everyday life challenges. Studies have shown that the knowledge of Biology contributes towards the socio-economic development of a country (Odubunmi, 2005). The knowledge of genetics which is a branch of Biology has revolutionised determination of paternity disputes and identity of culprits of serious crime with precision and certainty through Deoxyribo-Nucleic Acid (DNA) sequencing and profiling, (Institute of Biology, 2007).

The 2013 edition of the biology curriculum (NERDC, 2013) has four themes namely: organisation of life, the organism at work, the organism and its environment and continuity of life. It has been observed that the current mode of learning in Nigeria is principally structured on traditional chalk-and-talk methods. Aladejana (2008) explains that teaching still retains the old conservative approach with the teachers acting as repertoire of knowledge and students the dormant recipients. The teacher-centred method emphasises learning through the teachers' guardians at all times which favours passive reception of knowledge by the students hence limiting students from learning from variety of sources.

With global scientific and technological growth occurring rapidly, declining student interest in biology courses and careers is a worldwide concern that has prompted biology education reform efforts on an international scale. Since student attitudes toward science affect course and career choices, measuring the impact of reform efforts on student attitudes is important and will require measurement tools with robust psychometric properties (Owen, Toepperwein, Lichtenstein and Bablock, 2008). However, the definition or concept of attitude towards biology is vague and ambiguous and can simply be seen as a concept that defines emotional trends in response to affairs, persons, locations, events or ideas. Therefore, phrases such as "I like science" or "I enjoy science courses" can be regarded as attitudinal (Simpson and Oliver, 1990).

Gagne (1979), as quoted by Adesina and Akinbobola (2005), defined attitude as an internal state that influences the personal action of an individual, he recognised attitude as a major factor in subject choice. His emphasis was based on the fact that attitude is a mental and neutral state of readiness, organised through experience, exerting a directive influence upon the individual responses to all objects and situations which it is related. In his own

contribution, Shrigley (1983) suggested the five key elements that made up the concept of attitude which include the fact that; attitudes are learned, attitudes predict behaviour, the social influence of others affect attitudes, attitudes are a readiness to respond, and are evaluative with emotions being involved. Kendeler (1985), as quoted by Delphonso (2015), stated that the term attitude is applied to an individual's predisposition to respond in a characteristic way to some features of the social environment; that is, to behave positively or negatively towards any social situation, such as institution, a person or a concept. Attitude can be affective, cognition or behaviour. Allport (1935) defined an attitude as "a mental and neural state of readiness, organised through experience, exerting a directive and dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related".

Attitudes can be formed about many things. The object of attitude can be a lecture, a restaurant, people, or abstract things. Indeed, anything that arouses evaluative feelings qualifies as an object of attitude. Attitudes are individual mental processes which determine both the actual and potential responses in the social world. Students' attitude toward Biology or Biology learning have become a key component of science education. Empirical research emphasises that the development of a positive attitude toward science should be an important goal of the school curriculum. Over the years, the investigation of students' attitudes towards studying science has been a substantive feature of the work of the science education research community for over three decades. Its current importance is emphasised by the current mounting evidence of a decline in the interest of young people in pursuing scientific careers (Department for Education 1994, Smithers and Robinson 1988).

Myers and Fouts (1992) examined high school science classroom environment and attitude toward science in the Pacific North West of the United States. The result of the study revealed that there was a link between positive attitudes toward science and the classroom environment. Positive attitude was found in science classroom which had high levels of involvement, teacher support, student-student affiliation, order and organisation and teacher use of innovative teaching strategies. It was also noted in the study that the classroom had low levels of teacher control. The study suggested that science the teacher had the greatest role to play in creating the positive environment that would lead to positive attitudes toward science.

It is generally appreciated that there exists the association between attitude and achievement toward science. The findings of many studies confirmed that attitude was more or less correlated with academic achievement. For example, one of the most powerful meta-analyses in science education concluded that the correlation between attitudes toward science and achievement was 0.55 for females and 0.50 for males (Weinburgh, 1995). In a study conducted by Freedman (1997), using a post-test only control group design, found that the correlation between attitude toward science and

achievement was 0.41 in the treatment group. Moreover, Salta and Tzougraki (2004) examined the correlation between attitudes and achievement in chemistry and reported a moderate correlation ($r = 0.41$) between students' own perception of difficulty of chemistry and achievement. Furthermore, it is also established that, attitudes also predict individuals' decision making and action taking (Glasman and Albarracin, 2006; Kraus, 1995). Kelley (1988) reported that British students' liking for a particular science subject was a good predictor of their actual choice of physics, chemistry, or biology.

Animation is a way of developing a motion picture using a series of drawings, computer graphics, and photographs of objects. It is a technique of photographing successive drawings or positions of puppets or models to create an illusion of movement when the film is shown as a sequence. Pilling, (1997) defined animation as "created performance," that is carefully worded to establish validity and secure resources for an animation program or class. Schnotz and Bannert (2003), describes animation as the rapid succession of pictures indicating a series of slides, appearance and disappearance of iconic element continually. According to Mayer and Moreno (2002), animation refers to a simulated motion picture depicting movement of drawn (or simulated) objects or moving something that cannot move by itself. In educational terms, animation is simply a technique of visualisation. Sánchez, Cañas, and Novak (2010) described educational animations as animations produced for the specific purpose of fostering learning.

The popularity of using animations to help students understand and remember information has greatly increased since the advent of powerful graphics-oriented computers. This technology allows animations to be produced much more easily and cheaply than in former years. According to Thomas and Israel (2014), animation teaching is a device that has the features of both audio and visual representations that are used in the teaching/learning process for effective dissemination of knowledge.

Lin (2011) ascertained that animation has been used in various disciplines to deliver instructional materials that are hard to present alone using static visuals or that contains content that is highly abstract or invisible to human eyes. Thus, in computer based instructional environment, animation is typically used due to its inherent characteristics that facilitate the teaching and learning processes. However, animation must correspond to the context of the concept being learned, otherwise it might become distracting, and the intended objectives of using it defeated. The study, therefore, centres on animations as the rapid display of sequence of pictures on computer screen that has the potential to provide feedbacks in students' achievement, attitude and retention in learning.

Animation history draws back to 1880s. The first animation films dated back as early as 1910 when cartoon shorts began showing in theatres. Since then, numerous animation films have been released, expanding into more complex films from the static cartoons to motion animations. Algilasi (2010),

maintain that most of the first films were French and released in America. The Warner Brothers produced some of the most notable motion pictures of the 20th century.

The continuous development of technological inventions allowed animators to excel in this field. Hoban and Nielsen (2010) observed that the worldwide explosion in personal digital technologies offers increasing opportunities for students in primary or secondary schools to create their own digital media. Waldrip, Prain and Carolan (2006) has attributed this exponential growth in personal digital technologies with a growing body of research which suggests that getting students to create a multimodal representation of a science concept is a good way to enhance learning. Hoban & Nielsen (2010) had shown that constructing a representation helps students to make meaning of a science concept and this is often preferential to students copying an expert-generated representation from a textbook, which is a common practice in classrooms.

Rieber (1991) posited that animations assist students to understand abstract and invisible processes and can improve students' learning motivation. David and Dan (2002), asserted that a successful animation syllabus is interdisciplinary and encourages students to develop effective skills and practice interactive activities. The use of animations has been strongly encouraged as an innovative, constructivist and students-centred alternative to the traditional learning approaches in many countries. Studies from many countries have demonstrated positive effects in the use of different and innovative methodologies and visualisation technologies may have to engage students' understanding of central scientific concepts. Therefore, this study examined the effects of computer animation instructional packages on Nigerian secondary school students' attitude to biology. The study, therefore, intends to provide answers to the following questions:

1. Will the use of animated instructional packages improve students' attitude to biology?
2. Will there be any significant difference in the attitude of students exposed to different modes of animated instructional packages and the conventional method?

Methodology

This study adopted the non-equivalent pre-test, post-test control group design. The population for the study comprised all public senior secondary school students in Ife Central Local Government Area of Osun State. The study sample was made up of 100 Senior Secondary School 2 (SSSII) biology students from the three intact classes in three randomly selected senior secondary schools in Ife Central Local Government Area of Osun state, using simple random sampling technique. The schools were randomly assigned into three groups; and students were used in their intact classes.

One research instrument was used to collect data for the study named “Students’ Attitude to Biology Questionnaire” (SABQ). The purpose of the questionnaire was to elicit information from the students on their attitude to the learning of biology before and after the treatment. The instrument was divided into two sections. Section A sought the demographic information of the respondents, while section B contained 15 items statements on five-point Likert scale: Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Undecided (U), Disagree (D) and strongly Disagree (SD) with scale from 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1 respectively. The instrument was validated as follows: the researcher initially produced a draft of 20 items statements on students’ attitude towards biology. The face and content validity of the 20 items of the SABQ were determined through an expert’s judgment in the Department of Tests and Measurement, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife and another expert in the Department of Science and Technology Education. They all reviewed the items in terms of relevance, sentence structure and adequacy of the instruments. Based on their recommendations, 5 out of the items were dropped. Their corrections and suggestions were made to determine which of the items were valid enough for the study and to produce a final draft. The reliability of the questionnaire was determined by using Crobach alpha. A reliability coefficient of 0.71 was established. The value obtained was adjudged as good enough for the instrument.

Data Collection Procedure

Permission was sought from the principals of the school to allow the use of their schools. They were briefed about the purpose of the study and they gave their full cooperation and assigned biology teachers for assistance. SABQ was administered as pre-attitudinal test in the first week of the research exercise to all the students before they were subjected to treatments. A week after the pre-test, Group A was exposed to Animation combined with Narration (A+N) and the procedure is as follows:

The teacher projected the downloaded video of Human Digestive system depicting Animation and Narration package on the screen via the LCD projector; The students sat, listened and watched the animation; The students put down notes based on narration of the animated video; The teacher paused the video to allow interactions between the teacher and the students as well as among students which was based on questions and answers; After class presentation, students had opportunities of interacting with the animation by clicking on Next, Previous, Pause and Stop buttons at their convenience, using a stand-alone computer.

Data Analysis

The Data collected were analysed based on the stated research questions

using descriptive statistics, one way Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) and Scheffe post-hoc test. Descriptive statistics were used to analyse the estimated marginal means, standard deviation and standard error estimates, ANOVA and Scheffe post-hoc test was applied to examine whether any significant differences existed among the three groups A, B and C. All the analyses were carried out at 5% level of significance ($P=0.05$).

Results

Research Question

Research Question 1 states that “Will the use of animated instructional packages improve students’ attitude to biology?”

The attitudes of the students were measured and data obtained were analysed using a descriptive analysis,

Table 1: Descriptive Analysis on Attitude Scores of Students Pre- & Post-Attitudinal Test Tests

Packages	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
A+N	33	45.8182	3.69505	.64323	44.5080	47.1284
A+N+T	34	49.8529	4.56689	.78322	48.2595	51.4464
CTM	32	37.2813	5.95810	1.05325	35.1331	39.4294
Total	99	44.4444	7.08868	.71244	43.0306	45.8583

The dependent variable was students’ attitude towards Biology. The scores were generated from the SABQ. Based on the teaching strategy applied (i.e. packages and conventional method), the estimated mean score revealed that animation combined with narration and on-screen text (A+N+T) package produced the highest mean score (mean=49.85), followed by the Animation combined with Narration (A+N) package (mean=45.81); and the lowest mean score (mean=37.28) was recorded for the conventional teaching method. The mean scores for all the packages and the conventional method fall within the 95% confidence interval bands. Hence, the result showed that the use of animated instructional package is a better package in improving the attitude of the students.

Research Question 2 states that “Will there be any significant difference in the attitude of students exposed to different modes of animated instructional packages and the conventional method?”

Data collected were analysed using Analysis of Variance and Scheffe post-hoc.

Table 2: ANOVA of the Attitude Scores of Students Exposed to the Animated Packages and those Exposed to the Conventional Method

Source of variation	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	11.995	2	5.997	58.205	.000
Within Groups	9.892	96	.103		
Total	21.886	98			

An examination of the results in Table 2 revealed that $F_c = 58.21$; $p < 0.05$ was significant. This is because the significance of $F = 0.000$ is less than the alpha level. This implies that there exist a significant difference in the attitude of students exposed to different modes of animated instructional packages.

Table 3: Scheffe Post-hoc test of Students' Attitude among the Three Groups (A+N, A+N+T and CTM) Multiple Comparisons

(I) Methods	(J) Methods	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
A+N	A+N+T	-4.03476*	1.17661	.004	-6.9603	-1.1092
	Conventional	8.53693*	1.19458	.000	5.5667	11.5072
A+N+T	A+N	4.03476*	1.17661	.004	1.1092	6.9603
	Conventional	12.57169*	1.18590	.000	9.6230	15.5204
CTM	A+N	-8.53693*	1.19458	.000	-11.5072	-5.5667
	A+N+T	-12.57169*	1.18590	.000	-15.5204	-9.6230

*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The data in Table 3 revealed that there was a significant difference in the attitude of students exposed to the animated with narrated package and animated with narrated and on screen text ($p < 0.05$) and also those exposed to the two packages and the conventional methods ($p < 0.05$). It was, however, revealed that those exposed to A+N+T exhibited greater positive attitude when compared with A+N and CTM. Those exposed to A+N+T had a mean difference of 4.03 when compared with A+N and 12.57 when compared with CTM.

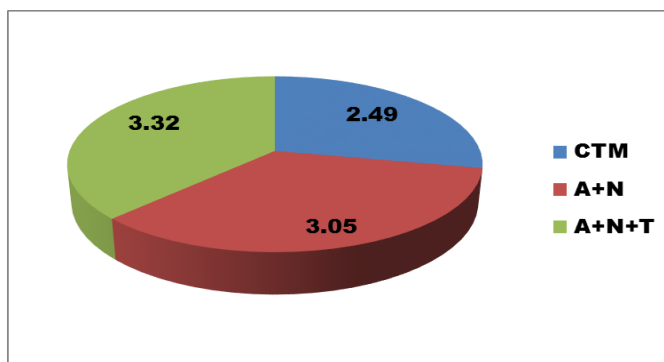


Figure 1: A Chart of the Means of the Groups in Homogeneous Subsets

The test for homogeneous subset revealed that students exposed to A+N+T had the highest attitude (3.32) followed by those exposed to A+N (3.05) and those exposed to the conventional method have the least attitude (2.49). Hence, A+N+T package may be said to have greatly promote positive attitude of the students in the subject when compared with A+N and CTM.

Discussion

The students' attitude to biology was significant. This is in support of Ajewole (2000) who found that teachers and students have positive attitude to the teaching and learning of biology but the correlation of students' attitude to performance was low. There was a significant difference in the attitude of students exposed to the animated with narrated package and animated with narrated and on screen text ($p < 0.05$) and also those exposed to the two packages and the conventional methods ($p < 0.05$). It was, however, revealed that those exposed to A+N+T exhibited greater positive attitude when compared with A+N and CTM. Those exposed to A+N+T had a mean difference of 4.03 when compared with A+N and 12.57 when compared with CTM. This finding was in support to the earlier finding of De Porter and Mike (2007) that students performed better when taught with instructional materials. Probably, the reason for this finding could be one of the most important skills possessed by effective teachers, which is classroom management. These skills considered by Glasman & Albarracin (2006) as the most important aspect of a teacher's training and they state that effective classroom management starts with effective lesson preparation. This was in line with Hasler (2007) that the proper use, careful selection and skilful handling of instructional resources by teachers render him/her useful in facilitating learning.

Conclusion

Based on the outcomes of this study, it was concluded that animation instructional packages was a better strategy in improving students' attitude to biology than the conventional teaching method. More importantly, the

animation combined with narration and on-screen text (A+N+T) package was seen as the best package for teaching and learning. The efficacy of this package, perhaps, establishes the need for the introduction, adaptation and use of a more effective learner-centred instructional strategy in teaching and learning situation, which will bring about the desired attitude to the students. Also, the study concluded that A+N+T package was more effective in promoting the students' attitudes to biology than the A+N package and the conventional teaching method.

Educational Implications

The findings in this study have profound implications for science teaching in Nigeria because the instructional media have significant effect in enhancing students' attitude to Biology. It is quite evident that those students taught with animated instructional media perform better than those taught with conventional (lecture) method in their attitudinal scores. Therefore, the acts of two modes of instructional media really improved the comprehension and understanding of biology concepts by the students. Based on the findings, the following recommendations are suggested:

Science curriculum should always stress the importance of instructional media to teach Biology.

Biology teachers are enjoined to engage more in the use of instructional media and they should always involve and encourage their students to participate, which will encourage desirable learning outcomes in our students'

The need to update teachers' knowledge on materials for teaching of biology and acquaint them with other new innovations is also to be enhanced. This could be made possible by frequently organised seminars, workshops and in-service training for biology.

Improvement of the conditions of science as a source of motivation is crucial at this moment.

Curriculum planners as well as school management should give periods in the school time-table for instructional media.

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Appendix

Title: Teachers' Instructional Guide on Animation combined with Narration (A+N)

Duration: 40 minutes

Group: Experimental Group A

Activity

The teacher projected the downloaded video of Human Digestive system depicting Animation and Narration package on the screen via the LCD projector.

The students sat, listened and watched the animation.

The students put down notes based on narration of the animated video.

The teacher paused the video to allow interactions between the teacher and the students as well as among students which was based on questions and answers.

After class presentation, students had opportunities of interacting with the animation by clicking on Next, Previous, Pause and Stop buttons at their convenience using standalone computer.

Title: Teachers Instructional Guide on Animation combined with narration and on- screen text (A+N+T)

Time: 40 minutes

Group: Experimental Group B

Activity

The teacher projected the downloaded video of Human Digestive system depicting Animation, Narration with on-screen Text showing simultaneously on the screen via the LCD projector.

The students sat, listened and watched the animation and also had the opportunity of reading the on-screen text.

The students watched the screen text showing simultaneously with the narrated animation and were able to form good notes.

The teacher paused the video to allow interactions between the teacher and the students as well as among students which was based on questions and answers.

After class presentation, students had opportunities of interacting with the animation by clicking on Next, Previous, Pause, and Stop buttons at their convenience using standalone computer.

Group C. The control group was exposed to the conventional teaching method using teachers' expository method.

Macroeconomic Determinants of Current Account Balance in Nigeria

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Abstract

With the saving-investment theory as a basis, this paper used the Statics Ordinary Least Squares to establish the magnitude of the selected macroeconomic variables via the classifications of the variable through domestic and external condition or economic environment. Both descriptive and econometric approaches were used to analyse the selected macroeconomic variables. The unit root test was also carried out using Augmented Dickey Fuller unit root test, which showed that some variables were $I(1)$ and $I(0)$. In addition, the ARDL estimate was carried out, since evidence from the literature revealed that the autoregressive distributed lag model (ARDL) was one of the major workhorses in dynamic single-equation regressions. The ARDL approach yielded consistent estimates of the long-run coefficients that were asymptotically normal, irrespective of whether the underlying regressors were $I(1)$ or $I(0)$, (Pesaran and Shin, 1995). The study revealed that both the external and domestic macroeconomic factors contributed to the current account balance in Nigeria, but the magnitude exhibited by the external economic environment on the current account balance is far larger than that of the domestic economic environment, especially the degree of trade openness (TOPEN) that had the coefficient of 58.6, followed by external debt (EXTDEBT) with the coefficient of 6.04. Next was the real exchange rate (REER) with the coefficient of 0.06 and lastly, was the fiscal balance to GDP (FMGDP), with the coefficient of 0.05. The conclusion was that the current account balance in Nigeria had been driven by trade openness, external debt, real exchange rate and fiscal balances, which was consistent with the findings in earlier studies and, therefore, implied that the government should ensure that policy that could enhance trade liberalisation and reduction in debt servicing should be put in place.

Key words: saving investment theory, auto-regressive distributed lags, macroeconomic variables, current account balance

1. Introduction

The current account balance is a key macroeconomic indicator and reasons have been provided in both the theoretical and empirical literature on the importance of investigating its determinants. One of such reasons is that the current account balance reflects an economy's international competitiveness and the extent to which a country is living within its resources. The current account balance also guides foreign investors in making investment decisions as it helps to predict threats to macroeconomic stability. Another relevance of the current account balance is that it helps policymakers in assessing the compatibility of macroeconomic policies with the goal of ensuring a sustainable external position.

In sum, the current account balance is a key indicator used in measuring the external sector performance and the overall health of an economy. Furthermore, identifying the determinants of the current account is of considerable importance, as also documented by the development of a number of theoretical inter-temporal models in the literature over the past few decades. Several empirical applications of these models have drawn on the national accounting identity, which treats the current account balance as the difference between national saving and investment, emphasising the important role of the factors that influence consumption (saving) and investment decisions in explaining current account positions. Other approaches employed so far include the elasticity, absorption and monetary model in the literature which had failed to incorporate other macroeconomic variables. Recently, the monetary approach has been claimed to be ineffective by scholars (Joseph 2012, Jimoh 1990, Imoisi, Olatunji, and Ekpenyong, 2013) and that it ignores some relevant macroeconomic variables which can give the direction of the current account balances.

However, the rising global imbalances have sparked a wave of interest in the sustainability of the current account deficit in many countries. Nigeria has witnessed both positive and negative balances in its current account, with the oil boom days of early 70s and the recent oil price rise (2000-2007) and, also, with the upsurge crisis of 2008/09 global recession, which is widely believed to have been partly caused by (or manifested) in large current account imbalances. Empirical literature on determinants of current account balance has been focusing on cross-country studies, including a few oil producing countries. Galinec (2009) Morsy (2009) and similar studies in the literature, such as Chinn and Prasad (2003), Chinn and Ito (2007), Gruber and Kamin (2009) and Cheung, Furceri and Rusticelli (2013) suggest that country-specific dynamics should be taken into account while investigating the determinants of the current account balance which make most of these studies to give far-reaching country-specific recommendations that can be useful for policy-making. Various studies conducted in Nigeria, including the study carried out by Egwikhide (1997) and Joseph (2012) have ignored which one among the macroeconomic variables that drives the current account balance.

This study makes a relevant contribution to the literature by examining the relationship between a number of selected macroeconomic variables and the current account balance of Nigeria, drawing largely on inter-temporal approach to current account balance. Specifically, the study attempts to examine among the macroeconomic variables identified, which factor drives the current account balance in the Nigerian economy. The empirical investigation is based on annual time series data (1981 to 2016), i.e. 36 observations compiled from secondary sources. The sources are Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) and Statistical Bulletin (2017).

2. Literature Review: Theoretical and Empirical

There are two major strands of theoretical models that have been exploited in explaining the determinants of the current account balance. These various models offer different predictions about the factors underlying the current account dynamics behaviour and consequently provides different economic policy implications. The theories have a dichotomy of three basic frameworks that are commonly adopted in modelling the behaviour of current account. They are the elasticity approach, the absorption approach and the inter-temporal approach. The elasticity approach treats the current account balance as the sum of trade balance and net international investment income. It is mainly based on the analysis of price elasticity of demand for imports and that of demand for exports, with respect to changes in exchange rate. In a typical elasticity approach, the current account balance is mainly determined by real exchange rate, domestic output and foreign output. This approach is largely applied to evaluate the effect of currency depreciation or appreciation on the current account balance. In particular, it is used to examine if currency depreciation can help to improve the current account balance. It also highly emphasises the role of exchange rate and trade flows in current account adjustments. Many economists and policymakers take this approach as granted and use it to construct the current account models due to its general appeal and simplicity. In short, the elasticity approach explains that the current account depends on the price elasticity of demand for imports and demand for exports, vis-à-vis movements in the exchange rate. However, the main weakness of the approach is that it is a partial equilibrium based analysis. In particular, it only looks at the traded goods market and ignores the interaction of other various markets in an economy.

In contrast, the absorption approach considers the current account balance as the difference between income and absorption, or equivalently, the difference between savings and investment. It is, therefore, also known as the saving-investment balance approach. This approach is a macroeconomics oriented approach. It investigates the effect of exchange rate change on trade balance through the absorption channel whereby income and relative prices change and adjust. It also states that if an economy spends more than it produces (i.e. absorption exceeds income), it must import from other countries for its excess consumption and spending. The economy thus runs a current account deficit. On the other hand, if the economy spends less than it produces (i.e. income exceeds absorption), it runs a current account surplus. Since the sum of current account and capital account must equal zero, ex post in a flexible exchange rate regime, shocks that occur first in capital account will obviously affect current account, vice versa. Therefore, the absorption approach argues that it is necessary to include determinants of capital account balance when modelling the behaviour of current account. In other words, the absorption model considers the current account balances as a function of what is produced and consumed in the economy. There is the Mundell-Fleming model which

emphasises the exchange rate and interest rate regimes as well as the national output, positing that through the combination of monetary and fiscal policy, the current account balance may eventually be determined by the exchange rate regime in place.

Furthermore, the monetary approach has been exploited to explain changes in the current account balances. The idea behind the monetary model is that any disequilibrium in the money market produces an effect on the aggregate expenditure. The proponents of the monetary model, therefore, argue that surplus in the balance of payments results from an excess in the stock of money demand that is not met by the monetary authorities. The portfolio balance approach expands the monetary model by incorporating financial instruments. The approach postulates that the current account adjustment may operate through changes in the size of the portfolio or through changes in the composition of the country portfolio. It argues that the exchange rate is unimportant in current account adjustments (see Krugman, 1987). The inter-temporal approach, which derives from the absorption approach, also considers the current account balance from the saving-investment perspective. The approach suggests that an economy runs a current account surplus if national income is temporarily high or investment temporarily low. However, the inter-temporal approach is a microeconomics based analysis, while the absorption approach is a macroeconomics based analysis. To be more specific, the former recognises the current account balance as a result of economic agents “collective optimisation behaviour based on the expected values of various macroeconomic factors under the inter-temporal budget constraint”. The approach achieves a synthesis between the trade and financial flow perspectives by recognising how macroeconomic factors influence future relative prices and how relative prices affect saving and investment decisions (Obstfeld and Rogoff, 1995). The economic theory underpinning this study stems from the intertemporal approach to the current account, which was initially proposed by Sachs (1981) and Buiters (1981) and later extended by Obstfeld and Rogoff (1995).

Empirically, considering the increase in the importance of the topic for individual country policy formulation, comprehensive studies on the subject are quite limited, especially in the case of developing countries. Furthermore, most of the available empirical literature tends to focus on multi-country analysis. Nonetheless, there are several studies that have examined the determinants of the current account balances in developing countries using different methodologies and giving different findings and a review is done on some of these below.

Khan and Knight (1983) examined the behaviour of the current accounts for 32 non-oil developing countries over the period 1973-1980. Using a pooled time series cross-section data of the countries found that external factors (captured by rising foreign real interest rates, slowdown in the growth rate of industrial countries, and the secular decline in the terms of trade) as well

as domestic factors (represented by increasing fiscal deficits and the real exchange rate appreciation) were relevant in explaining the deterioration of the current account of non-oil developing countries.

Debelle and Faruqee (1996), using economic theories of saving and investment as a guide, examined the extent to which a common set of underlying determinants has been relevant historically in explaining current account dynamics across countries and over time. Using a panel of 21 industrial countries over 1971-1993 and an expanded cross sectional data set that included 34 industrial and developing countries, found that fiscal surplus, terms of trade and capital controls do not play a significant role on the long term (cross-sectional) variation of the current account, while relative income, government debt and demographics do. Furthermore, a short-run examination of the determinants using both a partial adjustment model with fixed effects and an error correction model (to account for the possibilities of stationarity or non-stationarity of the ratio of net foreign assets to GDP, respectively) suggested that changes in fiscal policy, movements in terms of trade, the state of business cycle, and the real exchange rate affect the current account balance in the short run.

In the work of Calderon, Chong and Loayza (2002), they complemented Debelle and Faruqee's work by applying more recent econometric techniques to control for joint endogeneity, distinguishing between within-country and cross-country effects, and by specifically targeting developing countries only. Using a large and consistent macroeconomic data set on current account deficits and other national income variables for 44 developing economies, and also using a reduced form approach instead of holding to a particular structural model, they found that that current account deficits are moderately persistent, a rise in domestic output growth generates larger current account deficits, shocks that increase the terms of trade or appreciate the real exchange rate are linked with higher current account deficits, and that either higher growth rates in industrialised economies or larger international interest rates reduce the current account deficit in developing economies.

Chinn and Prasad (2003), using an approach that highlighted macroeconomic determinants of longer-term saving and investment balances, investigated the medium-term determinants of current accounts for a sample of industrial and developing countries using cross-section and panel regression techniques. They found that government budget balances and initial stocks of net foreign assets are positively correlated with current account balances. Their findings also indicated that, among developing countries, indicators of financial deepening and terms of trade are positively associated with current account surpluses (or smaller deficits), while measures of openness to international trade are associated with larger current account deficits. In general, most of the recent empirical studies have tended to use the saving-investment approach in examining the determinants of current account deficits, in line with the ICA theories.

Gruber and Kamin's (2005) incorporate observations on 61 countries over the period of 1982-2003 examined medium and long term determinants of current account balance with per capita income, relative growth rates, the fiscal balance, demographic variables and economic openness incorporated in the model as explanatory variables. A dummy variable is included to capture the effect of financial crises of USA. They argued that larger current account balances were associated with higher per capita incomes, lower changes in growth, higher fiscal balances, higher net foreign asset positions and lower shares of youth and elderly in the population.

Bardakas (2016) examined the relative importance of cyclical and structural factors in determining Greece's current account performance. The study employed five different filtering methods which were applied to the actual series to isolate the structural component via Hodrick-Prescott (HP) one-sided, Baxter-King, Christiano-Fitzgerald and First-Difference. The result showed that for the last 15 years the structural component explained most of the variation in the current account. Cyclical factors showed a small increase importance during the economic crisis. Thus, for any improvement in the current account to become permanent, emphasis should be placed, among others, on the adjustment of structural factors such as the development of import substitution and export promotion strategies and in finding ways to improve flows of trade-financing to exporting firms. Likewise, Brissimis, Hondroyannis, Papazoglou, Tsaveas, and Vasardani (2010) investigated the determinants of the CAB in Greece and aim at revealing the main macroeconomic, financial and structural factors that influence net national saving and its implications on current account developments, using fully modified OLS (FM-OLS) techniques. They found out that current account deficit had substantially widened since 1999 showing high persistence and sign of non-sustainability. Furthermore, the worsened current account deficit (CAD) was mainly the results of significantly decreasing in private saving rates and not exceptionally strong investment activity.

Fotourehchi and Panahi (2013) examined what common factors would have effect on current account by employing seemingly unrelated regression (SUR) method. They observed that different factors accounted for current account situation in both the Iran and Turkey. In the case of Iran, current account tended to decrease by any increase in the ratio of domestic credit to GDP and PPP per capita and dependency ratio (young) tended to increase by any increase in foreign currency reserve, net oil export and foreign asset. For Turkey, current account decreased by any increase in GDP growth and net lending/borrowing of budget. Meanwhile, Medina, Prat and Thomas (2010) examined the current account balances that were consistent with internal and external equilibrium for a sample of 33 emerging market economies. They found that higher fiscal deficit reduced national savings and thereby deteriorated current account balance. Both young and old dependency ratio had negative impact on current account balance. Higher population growth rate would have higher future work force, thereby creating an increase in the demand for future

investment, which would allow running higher current account deficit.

A few empirical study related to the Nigeria current account balance included the work by Egwaikhide (1997) who focused on the relationship between budget deficit and the current account balance in Nigeria between 1973 and 1993. Using a macro econometric model that captures the interrelationships between government budgetary developments, credit creation and current account balance, the study found that budget deficit leads to a deterioration of the current account. Egwaikhide, Oyeranti, Ayodele and Tchokote (2002) extended Egwaikhide's (1997) by investigating the relationship between government budget deficit or surplus and current account balance, using a group of African countries including Nigeria. The main finding was that causality ran from the current account balance to the budget balance. Okojie (2005) showed that the key determinants of the current account balance in Nigeria were the exchange rate, the domestic interest rate as well as the trade balance to export ratio. The study further found that Nigeria's current account deficits were caused by rising investment income going to foreigners, rising imports relative to exports and a deficit on the balance of trade in services. Olumuyiwa (2008) used the intertemporal model of the current account to examine the sustainability of Nigeria's current account over the period 1960 to 2003. The study found that excessive reliance on oil revenues and structural weaknesses contributed to unsustainable current account deficits and external crisis.

However, Enang (2011) adopted the Granger causality test, the co-integration test and the variance decomposition and impulse response function to investigate the impact of macroeconomic policy, non-policy and financial sector variables on Nigeria's current account balance. The results showed that exchange rate, monetary policy credibility and budget deficit were the important macroeconomic variables that influenced current account movement in Nigeria. From related empirical review, it is evident that little work had examined amongst the macroeconomic variables what and which factor drives the current account balance in the Nigerian context or classifying, whether either domestic economic environment or external economic environment drives the current account deficit over time or, perhaps, whether both environmental conditions drive current account deficits. If they do, which one is more significant than the others?

3. Methodology

3.1 Model Specification

The starting point of the estimation model is the identity of the current account (CA) with the difference of domestic saving (S) and investment (I)

$$CA = S - I \text{ ----- (1)}$$

whereby total saving is divided into private saving (Sp) and the government fiscal balance (Sg). Therefore equation (1) above becomes

$$CA = Sp + Sg - I \text{ ----- (2)}$$

For simplicity and accuracy, the variables can be set in relation to GDP (Y) and thus normalised by dividing equation (1) by Y, we have:

$$CA/Y = Sp/Y + Sg/Y - I/Y \text{ ----- (3)}$$

From equation (3) above, private saving can be specified as

$$Sp/Y = f \left(\frac{Y}{N}, REER, \frac{Sg}{Y}, \frac{I}{Y} \right) \text{ ----- (4)}$$

Hence, equation (4) expresses the private saving ratio as the relation of voluntary private savings (Sp) to GDP is a function of different variables.

The national real per capita income (Y/N) in relation to the real per capita income of the world or of a reference country (Y*/N*) represents an important factor in explaining the current account that characterises an economy’s stage of development. Anticipating real convergence and expecting a higher income in the future, consumers in emerging economies take on debt in order to smooth their long-term consumption. Besides the consumption smoothing the comparatively high capital productivity provides an important explanation for the fact that current account deficits are typical of catching-up countries. However, by considering fixed investment, this component will explicitly be taken into account below. Therefore, the estimated influences of the relative per capita income exclusively reflect consumption effects.

In addition to real income developments changes in the real effective exchange rate play an important role in the relative income and asset position of an economy. The real effective exchange rate (REER) generally tends to rise while the economic catching-up process is taking place. This is due to productivity gains in manufacturing (Balassa Samuelson effect) as well as demand-side influences such as the use of capital inflows and comparatively high government spending to build up infrastructure. To the extent that the real appreciation is anticipated to be an element of the economic catching-up process, the effects on the savings ratio are equivalent to those of real income developments: the initial undervaluation of the currency induces, in expectation of later gains in purchasing power and higher household debt, which is later reduced. Unforeseen (but permanent) appreciations affect the saving ratio in the opposite direction: as a result of the appreciation, the purchasing power of current and future income increases, as does that of monetary and property assets already accumulated. This positive wealth effect has a negative influence on the propensity to save. Therefore, the link between the real exchange rate and the saving ratio can only be determined empirically.

Furthermore, the fiscal balance as a percentage of GDP (SG/Y) affects private saving as today’s government debt induces future taxes for debt

servicing. In extreme cases, a rise in government debt is fully compensated by additional private saving (Ricardian equivalence). This is claimed by the standard intertemporal approach. However, there are also arguments for an incomplete absorption of government deficits by private savings (limited time horizon, heterogeneity of the population as well as liquidity constraints). The regression equation of the private saving ratio is, therefore, represented as

$$S_p/Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1(PCI - PCI'') + \beta_2 REER + \beta_3 \frac{Sg}{Y} + \beta_4 \frac{I}{Y} + \mu \text{-----} (5)$$

Substituting equation (5) into equation (3) above gives the current account (CA) equation

$$CA/Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1(PCI - PCI'') + \beta_2 REER + \beta_3 \frac{Sg}{Y} + \beta_4 \frac{I}{Y} + \frac{Sg}{Y} + \frac{I}{Y} + \varepsilon \text{---} (6)$$

Collecting like term from equation (6) above, the current account (CA) equation

$$CA/Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1(PCI - PCI'') + \beta_2 REER + (1 + \beta_3) \frac{Sg}{Y} + (\beta_4 - 1) \frac{I}{Y} + \varepsilon \text{-----} (7)$$

If Ricardian equivalence holds ($\beta_3 = -1$), the public finances have no effect at all on the current account balance. In the case of full international capital immobility ($\beta_4 = 1$), domestic fixed investment is completely financed from domestic savings.

3.2 Empirical Methodology

The aim of the empirical research is to identify among various macroeconomic component of current account balances determinants that will drive the current account deficit for Nigeria economy in the transition region of the post-SAP period till 2014. Following previous theoretical and empirical studies of Debelle and Faruqee (1996), Calderon, Chong and Loayza (2002), Chinn and Prasad (2003), Doisy and Hervé (2003), Bussière, Fratzcher and Muller (2004) and Zanghieri (2004), we present a functional model which may be expressed in the following specific form on a country specific:

$$CABGDP = f\left(\frac{m2}{GDP}, REER, TOT, \frac{I}{Y}, FMGDP, GDPg, EXT Debt, TRDOP\right) \text{---} (8)$$

The regression to be estimated relates to the model presented in equation (7 and 8), which, in different notation, is:

$$CABGDP_t = \frac{(b_0 + b_1 \frac{m2}{GDP} + b_2 REER_t + b_3 TOT_t + b_4 \frac{I}{Y} + b_5 FMGDP_t + b_6 GDPg_t + b_7 EXTDEBT_t + b_8 TRDOP_t + \varepsilon_t)}{\quad} \quad (9)$$

where the dependent variable is current account balance to GDP (CABGDP) (negative values indicate a deficit) and independent variables, includes real GDP growth (GDPg), trade openness (TRDOP), external debt (EXTDEBT), fiscal balance to GDP (FMGDP), real effective exchange rate (REER), Investment to GDP ($\frac{I}{Y}$) financial deepening $\frac{m2}{GDP}$ and terms of trade to GDP (TOT). From the foregoing, the independent variables are classified into two groups via the internal economic conditions and external sector/economic conditions. The internal economic conditions include: real GDP growth (GDPg), ratio of Investment to GDP ($\frac{I}{Y}$), financial deepening ($\frac{m2}{GDP}$) and ratio of fiscal balance to GDP (FMGDP) while on the other hand, the external sector/economic conditions were: trade openness (TRDOP), external debt (EXTDEBT), real effective exchange rate (REER), and terms of trade to GDP (TOT).

Further evidence from the literature reveals that the autoregressive distributed lag model (ARDL) is one of the major workhorses in dynamic single-equation regressions. The ARDL approach yields consistent estimates of the long-run coefficients that are asymptotically normal, irrespective of whether the underlying regressors are I (1) or I (0), (Pesaran and Shin, 1995). On this submission equation (9) above is thus presented in an ARDL specification below:

$$\Delta LCABGDP_t = -\alpha + \epsilon_i (\gamma_i CABGDP_{t-i} - \gamma_i M2_{t-i} \gamma_i REER_{t-i} - \gamma_i TOT_{t-i} - \gamma_i INV_{t-i} - \gamma_i FMGDP_{t-i} - \gamma_i EXTDEBT_{t-i} - \gamma_i TRDOP_{t-i} - \gamma_i GDPg_{t-i}) + \sum_{i=1}^{i=m} \rho_i \Delta LCABGDP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{i=m} \beta_i \Delta LM2_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{i=m} \phi_i \Delta LREER_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{i=m} \theta_i \Delta LTOT_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{i=m} \varphi_i \Delta LINV_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{i=m} \tau_i \Delta LFMGDP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{i=m} \pi_i \Delta LGDPg_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{i=m} \sigma_i \Delta LEXTDEBT_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{i=m} \theta_i \Delta LTRDOP_{t-i} + \mu_i \dots \dots \dots (10)$$

From equation (10) above, Δ is the first difference operator.

One particular attribute of the ARDL is its re-parameterisation to researchers as error-correction model (ECM); which uses have increased over time (Engle and Granger (1987). By determining the order of integration of the variables and forming a linear combination of the non-stationary data, all variables are transformed equivalently into an EC model with stationary series only. This methodology, in addition to other benefits already mentioned, allows

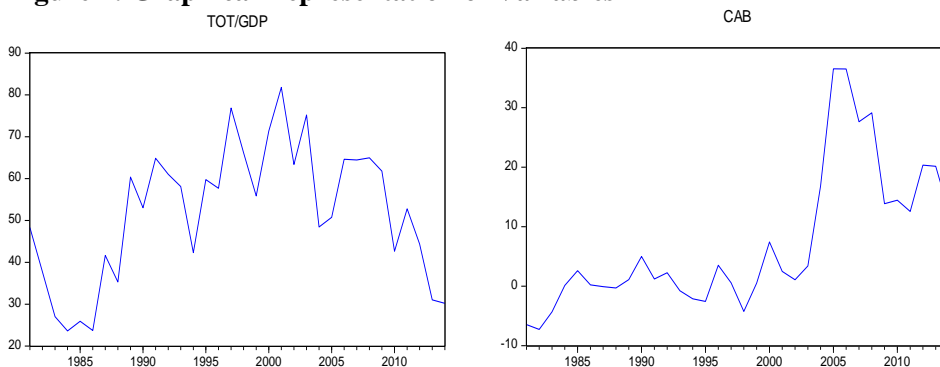
researchers to explore correct dynamic structure. It allows for inferences on long-run estimates which are not possible under alternative co-integration procedures. Finally, ARDL model can accommodate greater number of variables in comparison to other Vector Autoregressive (VAR) models (Pesaran and Shin, 1995). First, the variables used are tested for unit root. This testing is necessary to avoid the possibility of spurious regression as Ouattara (2004) reports that bounds test is based on the assumption that the variables are I (0) or I (1). Therefore, in the presence of I (2) variables, the computed F-statistics provided by Pesaran et al. (1995) becomes invalid. Hence, the implementation of unit root tests in an ARDL procedure is still necessary in order to ensure that none of the variables is integrated of order 2 or above. If the variables are found to be I (0) or I (1) the ARDL approach is applied.

4. Data Analysis and Interpretation of Findings

4.1 Empirical Analysis and Findings

The analysis is carried out in the following order. The empirical study begins with the plot of the variables used in the study in order to have preliminary insights into the behaviour and characteristics of the series, followed by the summary statistics of the variables and closely followed by test of stationarity. This is done through the Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) test. If stationarity is confirmed, the long-run estimates are obtained through the ordinary least squares (OLS) method, thus explaining the nexus between the selected macroeconomics variable which are likely to drive the current account deficit and further estimation using Autoregressive Distributed Lags (ARDL).

Figure 1: Graphical Representation of Variables



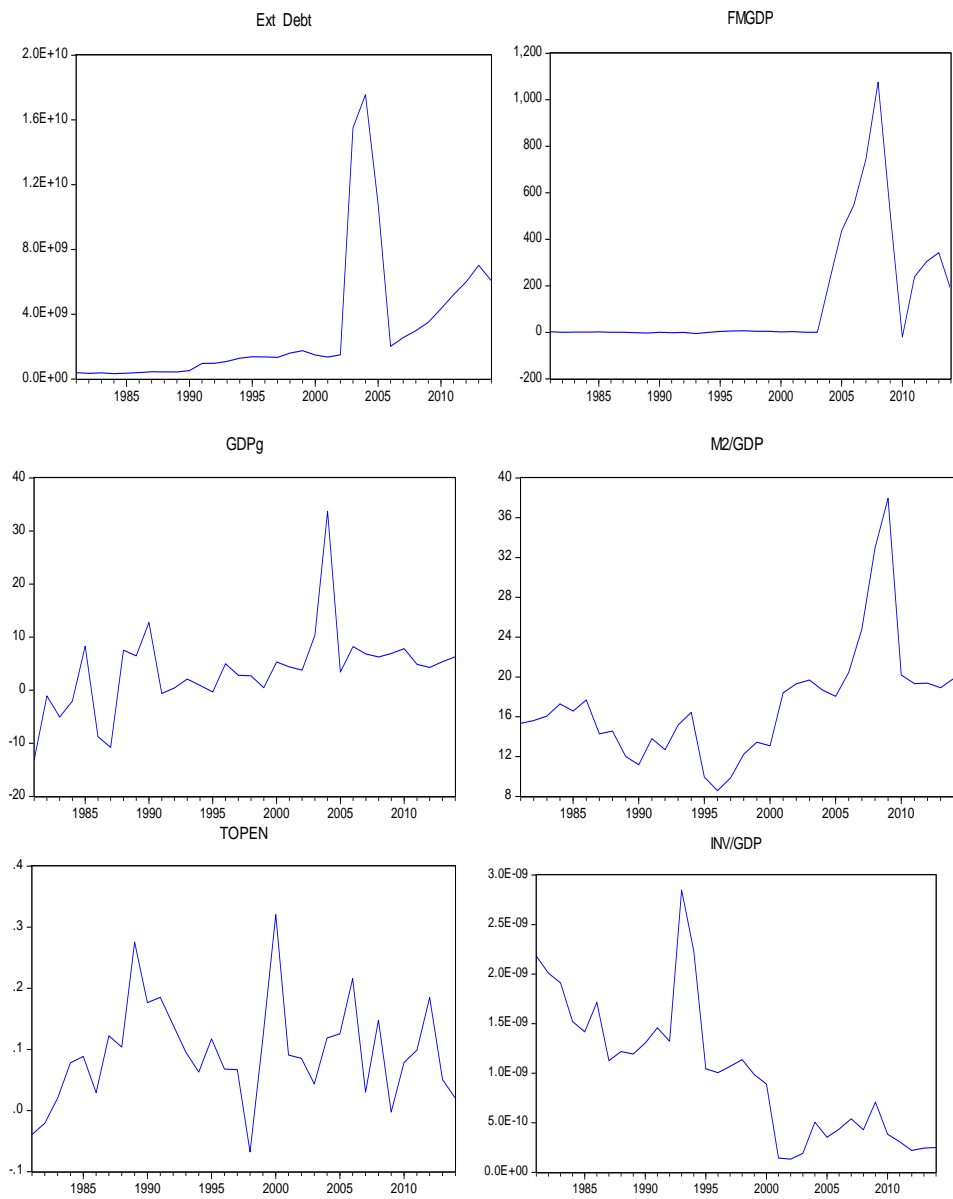


Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of Variables used in the Model

	CABGDP	EXTDEBT	FMGDP	GDPG	INVT	M2/GDP	REER	TOPEN	TOT
Mean	5.06011	3.24E+09	269.7625	710.0218	12.5041	17.1663	27.4532	0.2358	83.538
Median	2.541	1.43E+09	2.99087	608.9434	11.5521	16.5109	1.64349	0.09317	84.4843
Maximum	32.54304	1.76E+10	4765.098	1109.876	34.0208	37.9569	223.556	5.023	105.424
Minimum	-7.282	3.34E+08	-20.2034	494.239	5.46702	8.57709	0.04369	-0.0679	65.436
Std. Dev.	8.889863	4.12E+09	810.841	197.1312	6.04789	5.76187	61.7626	0.82489	10.0156
Skewness	1.281546	2.101242	4.948721	0.7633	1.88988	1.71679	2.2223	5.65452	-0.0521
Kurtosis	4.30731	7.070022	27.80487	2.070671	7.04662	7.13717	6.43236	33.3381	2.30155
Jarque-Bera	12.41776	51.33892	1069.861	4.791243	45.9925	43.3584	47.3034	1572.44	0.74805
Probability	0.002011	0.000000	0.000000	0.091116	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.68796
Sum	182.1639	1.17E+11	9711.45	25560.78	450.146	617.986	988.315	8.48884	3007.37
Sum Sq. Dev.	2766.038	5.95E+20	23011208	1360124	1280.2	1161.97	133512	23.8155	3510.95
Observatns	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	36

Source: Author's Computation using E-views 9 Package

The descriptive analysis is conducted with a view to ascertaining the statistical properties of the variables. The descriptive statistics of data series provides information about sample statistics such as mean, median, maximum value, minimum value and the distribution of the sample captured by skewness, kurtosis and Jarque-Bera statistics.

Table 1 presents the number of observations, minimum, maximum, standard deviation and the coefficient of variation for all variables from 1981 to 2016. The table shows that all the series are highly consistent as their mean and median values are perpetually within the maximum and the minimum values of these series, and further indicate that all the variables are normally distributed as the mean and median are approximately equal and fall between the maximum and minimum values. The standard deviations show that the current account balance, ratio of fiscal balance, ratio of investment to GDP, real GDP growth, financial deepening, real effective exchange rate, and term of trade to GDP are the most volatile variables while trade openness and external debt are the least volatile. Also, the current account balance, external debt, ratio of fiscal balance, ratio of investment to GDP, financial deepening, real effective exchange rate, trade openness are leptokurtic in nature with value greater than 3, while term of trade to GDP and real GDP growth are platykurtic in nature with value less than 3. Likewise all are found to be positively skewed to the right (i.e. current account balance, ratio of fiscal balance, ratio of investment to GDP, real GDP growth, financial deepening, real effective exchange rate, trade openness and

external debt) while only term of trade to GDP is negatively skewed to the left. Finally, the probability that the Jarque-Bera (J-B) statistic test exceeds (in absolute term) the observed value indicates that the current account balance, ratio of fiscal balance, ratio of investment to GDP, real GDP growth, financial deepening, real effective exchange rate, trade openness and external debt are all not normally distributed since p-value are greater than 0.05 i.e ($p < 0.05$) while only term of trade is normally distributed since the p-value are greater than 0.05 i.e ($p > 0.05$).

Table 2: Correlation Matrix of the Variables

	CABGDP	EXTDEBT	FMGDP	GDPG	INVT	M2/GDP	REER	TOPEN	TOT
CABGDP	1								
EXTDEBT	0.251329887	1							
FMGDP	0.435480193	0.2112726	1						
GDPG	0.587066472	0.3383077	0.503312	1					
INVT	-0.38795812	-0.173751	0.0167265	0.198524	1				
M2/GDP	0.415620173	0.3408305	0.2068203	0.607358	-0.00315	1			
REER	-0.3474524	-0.302263	-0.1477	-0.02072	0.609984	-0.11442	1		
TOPEN	0.229071828	0.1356043	0.9484066	0.337894	0.05999	0.056998	-0.11781	1	
TOT	0.173241269	0.1443337	-0.054325	-0.21926	-0.54015	-0.04695	-0.42976	-0.11145	1

Source: Author Computation using E-views 9 Package

Table 2 displays the strength of relationship connecting the variables in the model. In particular, current account balance is complete positively correlated on itself. The result shows that there is no multicollinearity amongst the variables as none of the values exceeds 0.8 except the value between fiscal balance and degree of trade openness that has a value of 0.94. There is positive correlation between CAB and EXTDEBT, FM/GDP, GDPg, M2/GDP, TOPEN and TOT/GDP. While negative correlation exists in invt (Gross capital formation) and real exchange rate and (REER).

In the estimate of equation (9) which is presented in table 3 below, the adjusted R^2 is 0.71 and it indicates that 71 percent of variations in current account balance are explained by the independent variables in the model, while the remaining 29 percent variations in current account balance are accounted for by other variables not included in the model. The F-statistics, ($F=10.47$, $p < 0.05$) is highly significant and indicates that the model fitted the data relatively well. The Durbin-Watson statistics is 1.67 and indicates that there is absence of

autocorrelation among the variables in the model. However, the result shows that the lagged current account balance has a positive and statistically significant effect on the current account. Thus, one unit rise in lagged value of CABGDP leads to about 0.36 of a unit point rise in the current account deficit thus indicating that there such countries is indebted.

Table 3: The Statics Regression Analysis Results

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	48.82035	21.08768	2.315112**	0.0044
CABGDP(-1)	0.360188	0.150967	2.385872**	0.0014
EXTDEBT	-1.20634	0.303458	-3.97531**	0.0003
FMGDP	0.00462	0.005996	0.770402	0.4483
GDPG	0.026955	0.009899	2.723028**	0.0016
INVT/GDP	-12.2152	3.428621	-3.562718**	0.0015
M2/GDP	-0.21497	0.083523	-2.573818**	0.0031
REER	0.02063	0.006878	3.002911**	0.0001
TOPEN	-3.68892	5.364232	-0.687688	0.0498
TOT/GDP	-0.06864	0.015374	-4.464680**	0.0002
R-squared	0.790465	Mean dependent var		5.06217
Adjusted R-squared	0.715032	S.D. dependent var		9.019641
S.E. of regression	4.814901	Akaike info criterion		6.216264
Sum squared resid	579.5818	Schwarz criterion		6.66065
Log likelihood	-98.7846	Hannan-Quinn criter.		6.369666
F-statistic	10.47907**	Durbin-Watson stat		1.67567
Prob (F-statistic)	0.000002			

Source: Author Computation Using E-views 9 Package
(*) implies (10%) 5% significance level respectively**

An increase in the domestic output growth rate (GDPG) has the effect of expanding the current account balance. The result is consistent with theoretical expectations that domestic economic growth accelerate demand for foreign goods and services and this affects the current account balance with 0.026 unit point. A one-unit point rise in GDP growth leads to about 0.026 of a unit point rise in the current account balance. Although a rise in domestic output growth may be associated with a greater savings rate, it seems that its correlation with the investment rate is positive, thus leading to a worsening of the current account balance.

A negative and statistically significant relationship between the terms of trade (TOT/GDP) and current account balance exists, which shows that the countries' terms of trade are inconsistent over time and findings contravene the

submission by Harberger-Lauresen-Metzler effect. In fact, the reduction of the terms of trade by 10 per cent leads to a current account balance by 0.068 unit. Nevertheless, the decline in savings was not solely a result of adverse terms of trade shocks but also a consequence of the poor economic state of the countries in term of corruption, bad governance, etc. Furthermore, a negative and statistically significant association is observed between total external debt (EXTDEBT) and the current account balance. A one unit point rise in total external debt leads to about 1.260 of a unit point rise in the current account balance; this indicates that the effect of the stock of debt on current account balance is a complex relationship that is likely marked by nonlinearities, asymmetries and threshold effects.

The relationship between the real exchange rate (REER) and the current account balance is positive, supporting the predictions of the Mundell-Fleming model. In fact, real appreciation of the domestic currency by 10 unit has the effect of reducing the current account balance by around 0.0206 of a unit point. The result is not a surprise, since real appreciation reflects productivity gains in manufacturing (Balassa-Samuelson effect) as well as demand-side influences such as the use of capital inflows and relatively high government spending to build up infrastructure.

The demand for investment and its significant effect on the current account is also closely related to an economy's level of development. The relatively negative coefficient of investment implies a marked link between domestic fixed investment and domestic saving, within the country. On average, a one unit falls in the investment will lead to a fall in the current account balance by 12.21 unit.

Lastly, the degree of financial deepening has shown a negative and statistically significant with respect to current account balance. This implies that with various measures put in place in the country, the financial deepening had suppressed the rise in the current account balance by 0.214 unit.

From all indications, the statics regression result in Table 3 above shows that gross domestic product growth (GDPg) and real exchange rate (REER) have a positive relationship to current account balances with only trade openness (TOPEN) insignificant while external debt (EXTDEBT), trade of trade (TOT/GDP), investment and broad money to GDP (M2/GDP) negatively and statistically significant to current account balance. Therefore, it is revealed that both the domestic and external economic environment drives the current account balance in Nigeria, being statistically significant at 5 percent level.

4.2 Unit Root Results

A series is referred to as (weakly or covariance) stationary if its mean and variance are constant over time and the value of the covariance between the two time periods depend only on the distance or lag between the two time periods, not on the time at which the covariance is calculated (Gujarati, 2003). A series that is not stationary is referred to as non-stationary. In addition, a

series is said to be integrated and is denoted as I (d), where d is the order of integration. The order of integration refers to the number of unit roots in the series or the number of differencing operations it takes to make a variable stationary. Before employing the data in estimation, the time series properties of all concerned macroeconomic variables have been identified by using the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF, 1981) unit root test, which involves the estimation of one of the following equations stated below, (Seddighi, Lawler and Katos (2000). Furthermore to equation 9 above, the time series variables features and order of integration are determined as stated above in generic form as follows:

For model with intercept

$$\Delta X_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \Delta X_{t-1} + \sum \pi_i \Delta X_{t-1} + \epsilon_{t1} \quad \text{_____} \quad (10)$$

For model with trend

$$\Delta X_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \Delta X_{t-1} + \alpha_2 t + \sum \pi_i \Delta X_{t-1} + \epsilon_{t2m} \quad \text{_____} \quad (11)$$

The additional lagged terms are included to ensure that the errors are uncorrelated. The maximum lag length chosen begins with 4 lags and proceeds down to the appropriate lag by examining the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC). The null hypothesis is that the variable X_t is a non-stationary series ($H_0: \beta = 0$) and is rejected when β is significantly negative ($H_a: \beta < 0$). If the calculated ADF statistic is higher than the McKinnon's critical values, then the null hypothesis (H_0) is not rejected and the series is non-stationary or not integrated of order zero I (0). Alternatively, the rejection of the null hypothesis implies stationarity. Failure to reject the null hypothesis leads to conducting the test on the difference of the series, so further differencing is conducted until stationarity is reached and the null hypothesis is rejected.

Table 4: Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) Test

Variables	With Drift	With Drift and Trend	Order of Integration
CABGDP	-4.5119 (0.0001)	-4.4550 (0.0065)	I(1)
EXTDEBT	-5.1860 (0.0002)	-5.0909 (0.0015)	I(1)
FM/GDP	-5.3706 (0.0001)	-5.2707 (0.0009)	I(1)
GDPG	-6.4388 (0.0000)	-6.3889 (0.0000)	I(1)
INVT	-4.2382 (0.0023)	-4.8687 (0.0023)	I(1)
M2/GDP	-5.3789 (0.0001)	-5.2890 (0.0008)	I(1)
REER	-4.9353 (0.0003)	-4.3958 (0.0001)	I(0)
TOPEN	-5.4578 (0.0001)	-5.5181 (0.0005)	I(1)
TOT/GDP	-7.9259 (0.0000)	-8.0683 (0.0000)	I(1)

Source: Author's Computation using E-view 9 Package

4. 3 Lag Order Selection Criteria

Table 5 shows the lag length which was determined by various lag order selection criteria by estimating a VAR model. Two lags were found optimal as indicated by the LR test statistic, Final Prediction Error (FPE), Akaike Information Criteria (AIC), Schwarz Information Criterion and Hannan-Quinn Information Criterion and only two lags optimal were found respectively.

Table 5: VAR Lag Order Selection Criteria

Endogenous variables: CABGDP EXTDEBT FMGDP GDPG INVT/GDP
M2/GDP REER TOPEN TOT/GDP
Included Observations: 32

Lag	LogL	LR	FPE	AIC	SC	HQ
0	-821.7772	NA	2.87e+11	51.92358	52.33582	52.06022
1	-614.5376	284.9545	1.31e+08	44.03360	48.15598	45.40005
2	-466.8916	119.9624*	8383010.*	39.86822*	47.70075*	42.46449*

* indicates lag order selected by the criterion

LR: sequential modified LR test statistic (each test at 5% level)

FPE: Final prediction error

AIC: Akaike information criterion

SC: Schwarz information criterion

HQ: Hannan-Quinn information criterion

However, Mordi (2007) notes that typically for a given p_j , the values of these criteria will be ranked as $AIC(p_j) \leq HQ(p_j) \leq SC(p_j)$. That is, the Schwarz criterion penalises the most the inclusion of extra lags, while Akaike has the lowest penalty. For these reasons, all criteria will not necessarily suggest the same lag length. In fact, practical experience shows that the Schwarz criterion will often choose too small an order for the VAR system. The study estimate an ARDL model with two lags of each variable while observing the Akaike Information and Schwarz Information criteria for model improvement.

Table 6: Bound F-tests Co-integration

	@ 5% Lower Bound I(0)	@ 5% Upper Bound I(1)	@ 1% Lower Bound I(0)	@ 1% Upper Bound I(1)
F-Statistic	2.22	3.39	2.79	4.10

Source: Author’s Computation Using E-views

Table 7: Estimate for the Bounds Test Result

Variable	CAB GDP	EXT DEBT	FM GDP	GDPG	INV/ GDP	M2/ GDP	REER	TOPEN	TOT
F- Statistics	4.237	1.205	1.4447	4.6798	7.499	4.999	5.4761	1.0620	6.7015
Decision	Co- integrat ion	No co- integra tion	No co- integra tion	Co- integra tion	Co- integr ation	Co- integrat ion	Co- integrat ion	No co- integrat ion	Co- integrat ion

Source: *Author's computation Using E-views*

Bounds Tests for Co-integration

Estimating the long run relationship following the Autoregressive Distributed Lagged (ARDL) approach, the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) is used to select a maximum lag order of two for the conditional ARDL-UECM. In terms of the Bounds Cointegration test, by comparing the value from table 6 and the estimated value from table 7 (calculated F-statistics) when each of the macroeconomic variables is expressed as dependent variable.

The values for current account balance (CABGDP), the domestic output growth rate (GDPG), real exchange rate (REER), investment ratio (INVT/GDP), terms of trade (TOT) and broad money to GDP (M2/GDP) are found to have a long run co-integration since they have higher value greater than the upper bound critical value in table 6, while no co-integration was established in both external debt (EXTDEBT), fiscal balance to GDP (FMGDP) and trade openness (TOPEN). In summary, the results of the Bounds test co-integration are presented in Table 6. Given the lower and upper bound test-statistics of 2.22 and 3.39 respectively at 5 percent level of significance and comparing values with result in Table 7, the calculated F-statistics of 4.237, 4.6798, 7.499, 4.999, 5.4761 and 6.7015 of current account balance, real gross domestic growth, ratio of investment to gross domestic product, financial deepening (M2/GDP), real exchange rate, (REER) and term of trade (TOT/GDP) respectively is greater than the upper bound test. Therefore, the null hypothesis of no co-integration cannot be accepted at both one and five percent level of significance. This indicates the existence of long run equilibrium among the variables.

The estimate of equation (10) shows in Table 8 above, as compared to that of equation (9) reveals that both the domestic economic condition and external economic environment have contributed to the current account balance in Nigeria but the magnitude of the external economic environment is larger than that of the domestic environment conditions. In addition, from Table 9, it could be observed that the coefficient of the error correction term was negative and statistically significant at 5 percent level of significance. This, however, confirms the existence of short-run relationship in the model and also reveals that the speed of adjustment from short-run relationship is 53.6 percent. It further implies that the adjustment that takes place is relatively high. It also implies that when there is any disturbance, convergence to equilibrium was

relatively fast with 53.6 percent of the adjustment occurring in the first year. Consequently, for an initial error of

Table 8: Output of estimate for the ARDL

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.*
C	-51.94242	30.35487	-1.711173	0.1025
CAB/GDP(-1)	0.676694	0.147483	4.588292**	0.0002
EXTDEBT	-1.659192	1.522476	-1.089798	0.2888
EXTDEBT(-1)	6.040076	1.421906	4.247873**	0.0004
FMGDP	-0.062935	0.016047	-3.923628**	0.0002
FMGDP(-1)	0.014151	0.007336	1.928746	0.0681
GDPG	-0.057082	0.019558	-2.918498**	0.0003
INVT/GDP	-5.184396	2.872122	-1.805075	0.0861
M2/GDP	-0.218143	0.034551	-6.313658**	0.0004
REER	-0.05246	0.015636	-3.355078**	0.0001
REER(-1)	0.086872	0.070512	1.232007	0.2322
TOPEN	5.485537	5.342729	1.026729	0.3168
TOPEN(-1)	58.05576	12.59263	4.610296**	0.0002
TOT/GDP	-0.530171	0.137587	-3.853344**	0.001
TOT/GDP(-1)	0.243066	0.09802	2.479754**	0.0222

Source: Author’s computation Using E-views

(*)** implies (10%) 5% significance level respectively

Table 9: Statistical Output for the Short Run Estimate

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
D(EXTDEBT)	0.0001	0.000001	-0.02821	0.9777
D(FMGDP)	0.003462	0.006402	0.540736	0.5935
D(GDPG)	0.023173	0.009095	2.547782	0.0174
D(INVT)	-0.897969	0.287941	-3.11859	0.0045
D(M2)	-0.308812	0.220073	-1.40322	0.1728
D(REER)	0.039375	0.034067	1.155808	0.2587
D(TOPEN)	-2.740867	5.702566	-0.48064	0.635
D(TOT)	-0.045106	0.113923	-0.39594	0.6955
ECM(-1)	-0.536543	0.200097	-2.68141	0.0028

Source: Author’s Computation Using E-Views 9 Package

5 percent, 53.6 percent of error would be corrected in the first year. Granger (1986) submitted that the existence of a significant error term is evidence of

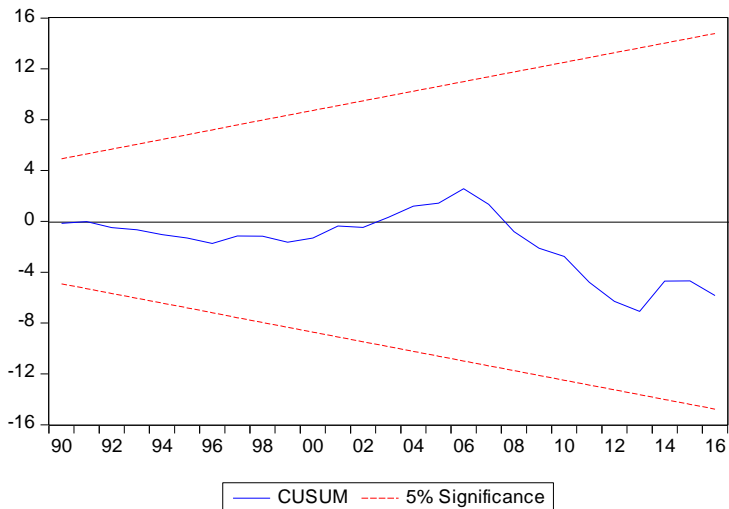
causality in at least one direction and also Bannerjee and Mestro (1998) corroborates this as noted that a highly significant error correction term is further proof of a stable long run relationship.

Table 10 shows that the Jarque-Bera statistic is not significant, indicating that the residuals of the model are normally distributed. In addition, the heteroskedasticity result shows that there is no evidence of the presence of heteroskedasticity, since the p-value is in excess of 0.05.

Table 10: Result of Diagnostic Tests

Diagnostics	Probability (p) values
Jarque-Bera Normality	0.7703
Breush-Pagan-Godfrey Heteroskedasticity	0.5106
Ramsey reset test	0.071

Figure 2: Cusum Stability



Furthermore, the Ramsey reset test suggests that the model has problem of misspecification. But the CUSUM recursive test confirms a reasonable level of stability in the model relationship as presented in Figure 2, since the blue line is within the boundaries and does not exceed the critical boundaries at 5% level of significance, indicating that the model is correctly specified and the long run coefficients are stable.

5. Conclusion

This study examined the macroeconomic determinants of Nigeria's current account balance between 1981 and 2016 using both the static Ordinary Least Square and dynamic Auto-regressive distribution Lags method in establishing amongst the selected macroeconomic variables the one's that drive

the current account balance in the Nigeria context. Furthermore, the selected macroeconomic variables were categorised into two different economic environment systems via domestic economic environment (M2/GDP, gross domestic product growth, FMGDP, fixed capital formation (INVT) while the external sector economic environment/conditions entails (trade openness, external debt, real exchange rate and terms of trade).

It was however, revealed in the study that both the external and domestic economic environment drives or constitutes to the current account balance in Nigeria, but the magnitude exhibit by the external economic environment on the current account balance is far larger than that of the domestic economic environment especially the degree of trade openness (TOPEN) that had the coefficient of 58.6, followed by external debt (EXTDEBT) with the coefficient of 6.04. Next is the real exchange rate (REER) with the coefficient of 0.06 and lastly, is the fiscal balance to GDP (FMGDP), with the coefficient of 0.05. Subsequent upon the outcome of the findings from this study, it indicated that the external macroeconomic factor precisely the trade openness which is an indicative attributes of trade liberalisation, external debt, and real exchange rate contributed immensely to the current account balance in Nigeria. The implication of the result is that, with the country high income from export earning, it was able to service its external debt.

The paper concludes that current account balance in Nigeria has been driven by trade openness, external debt, real exchange rate and fiscal balances, which is consistent with the findings in earlier studies and therefore, imperative on the part of the government to ensure that policy that can enhance trade liberalisation and reduction in debt servicing should be put in place so that the current account balance of the country can look more healthy and attract the investors to invest more in the productive sectors of the economy and also, the monetary authority should put in place more adorable policy to facilitate the domestic environment by reducing the current account deficit problem.

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Information Needs of Library Staff and their Perception of Training Programmes of the Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago Iwoye, Nigeria

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Abstract

The study investigated the information needs and perception of training programmes of the Olabisi Onabanjo University library, Ago-Iwoye. Data collection was by a questionnaire, administered by the researcher to sixty (66) staff and out of which fifty (50) of the questionnaires were returned and analysed using percentages frequency count for the above. The research revealed that the library personnel had different information needs in their day to day work in the library and that the selection of library staff for the training programmes had been fair enough for all the staff of various cadres. The study concluded that the success or failure of a library as a service organisation depends on the calibre of staff available and the qualifications acquired in terms of education and professional training Olabisi Onabanjo University has various manpower development programmes to enhance staff performance on the job.

Key words: information needs, library, training programmes, library staff

Introduction

The Olabisi Onabanjo University began as a centrally administrative complex that opens its door to staff, student and other members of the university community on July 7, 1982. At the beginning of the university, it was known as Ogun State University which was later changed to Olabisi Onabanjo University to immortalise the founder of the school, (Dr) Onabisi Onabanjo, who established the institution during his tenure in office from 1979-1983. One of the essential information centres of the university is the university library. The university library as part of the university system can be seen as a centralised building which the other departments surround as a nerve centre of an educational institution where information in print and in other formats is collected and arranged to serve all patrons of the library (Bua and Yawe 2014). Today the Olabisi Onabanjo University Library is a complex of libraries which is made up of the main library and other branches, as indicated from the Table 1 below.

The library as a service centre would fail in its role in services provision if the human resources development programme does not exist and coordinated as to produce the expected result. There three categories of staff in the library, they are Academic librarians, the non-academic senior staff and the junior staff of different categories. The library has about eighty two (82) staff consisting of twelve 12 academic librarians, 20 senior non-teaching staff and 50 junior staff of various categories. (OOU University Library nominal roll. 2017). Moreover, there are different training programmes that have been found useful for the development of the workforce in the library, including on-the-job and off-job

Table 1: The Olabisi Onabanjo University Library Complex (Field Survey, 2017)

S/N	NAME OF LIBRARY	LOCATION	ZONE	YEAR SET UP
1	Main library	Ago Iwoye	Ijebu North	1983
2	Law Library	Ago Iwoye	Ijebu North	1984
3	OACHES	Sagamu	Remo	1984
4	Sopolu Library	Ikenne	Remo	1989
5	Faculty of Basic Medical	Ikenne	Remo	2004
6	College of Agricultural Science,	Aiyetoro	Yewa	2004
7	College of Engineering & Environmental studies	Ibogun	Egba	2004

training programme in-house lecture, job rotation, vestibule training, apprenticeship, role playing, overseas training programme, Conference, Seminar, Business games and training on the use of library software such as Alice for Window, KOHA, Tinlib and X-lib. In order for library staff to put in their best into the services of the university library, their information needs should be attended to promptly and the management of the library should make provision for all member of staff to attended manpower programme for their benefit and make them conversant with this information age where Information and Communication Technology (ICT) facilities are introduced into the university library system where information resources have been found to revolutionaries all aspects of library services from acquisition to readers services and other essential services centre that the library provide for its numerous users. If an organisation like a library is to succeed in achieving the desired goals both the librarians and other supporting staff will need to acquire the necessary skills and knowledge required to perform their duties effectively (Ajibero 1998).

At the Olabisi Onabanjo University, there are different training programmes available for staff members of the library that have contributed immensely to their effectiveness and some of the manpower programmes include training programme of the Department of the Library Archival and Information Studies, University of Ibadan to pursue a Master Degree in Library Studies (MLS) and PhD programme. It is important to note that most of the librarians at the Olabisi Onabanjo University have all obtained their Master in library and information science (MLS) while one or two of them have completed their PhD degree in library and information science from university of Ibadan.

In the university system the most important of all the resources in any academic library is the human resources; these resources formulate various policies of the library and in order to achieve the desired goals both the librarians and other supporting staff will need to acquire the needed skills and knowledge to perform their duties effectively (Ajibero 1998).

Objectives of the Study

This study sets out to achieve the following objectives:

- a. find out the various factors responsible for human resources development programmes;
- b. examine the various programmes for human resource development; and
- c. identify if the human resources development programme in the library can be used to solve the problem of manpower deficiency

The following research questions were generated to guide the study:

- i. What are the training programmes available to the staff?
- ii. Can training programme be used to solve manpower deficiency in the library?
- iii. How do workers see the various manpower development programmes?
- iv. What impact does the training programme have on the recipients?
- v. Which cadres of staff need the human resources development programme most?

Literature Review

Several studies have been conducted in the area of human resources development programme. Uzorh (2002) is of the opinion that manpower development programme starts after the recruitment and placement of workers in an organisation. Such a programme has the aim at providing the necessary skill, proficiency and improvement of the current and future competence of such a worker. Tihamiyu (2003), citing Mokhtari (1994), stated that as far back as mid- 70s, there was a harmonisation of the education of librarians, document lists, archivists and information scientists. Stating further that those notable organisations like UNESCO and IFLA discussed the importance of training of information professionals in their various workshop and seminars.

Insaideo (2001) defined human resources development as a “process of education through which a trainee acquires the needed skills, knowledge and attitudes from training organisations.” To buttress the above, Ajao (2001) said that with the acquisition of needed skills by the trainee, it determines the present and future relevance of such a staff in an organisation pointing out that trained workers are assets to any organisation that employed them, Amaoge,(2015) saw training as necessary activities that provide learners with knowledge and skills needed to perform specific duties.

Jordan (2003) opined that training consists of both a set of generic modules as well as hands on practical experience “Train the trainer” course assists the participants to increase their confidence so that they can pass on skills they have acquire to others. He stressed the important of allowing adequate time for participants to learn and practice new skills and follow up training programme (perhaps by email) which is very imperative that participants should be able to communicate their own needs and goals and also

to implement on their return home.

Watts (2004) recognised the essence of continuing professional development (CPD) for those in the management position of the library that the management team of the library should ensure that the staff is proactive in maintaining up to date levels of expertise, while Uzorh (2002) is of the view that the purpose of most if not all employee and management development and training is to increase the organisation's position and future capacity in attaining its goals. Mohammed (1998) saw the emergence of the new specialisation and professional practices in professionally based human endeavour and call for revision of library education and training for librarians or information professionals in general within the frame work of local needs, academic and internationally acceptance norms. Thus librarians will no longer be referred to as outdated or irrelevant to the prevailing system.

Tiamiyu (2003) noted that information professionals are expected to continually learn and master new technologies on the job and on a regular basis at the risk of becoming dinosaurs in their useful time. For librarians to offer the best service to the users who use the library on daily basis, Chukwu-Nwosu (2008) is of the opinion that a librarian needs a good knowledge of a subject area before he can effectively and efficiently satisfy the information needs of the professionals in the subject area of which he too is equally a professional. Nwalo (2001) traced the history of library education and training to 1960 when the institute of librarianship was established at the University of Ibadan which serves as the vanguard for promoting library education and training in librarianship information science and archives in Nigeria. Training has great impact on the recipients by producing effectiveness in the staff of an organisation like that of University. Jatto (2005) emphasised the need for University teachers to be professionally trained in order to impact the needed skills to the students they teach at various levels of their University education.

Insaideo (2001) takes a critical look at the librarians who are not in the management cadre of the Ghana Library Board. He observed that they were dedicated, disciplined and hardworking, which was as a result of the intensive job training they received during practical librarianship exercises.

Looking at the state of the University and library in five selected institutions and their libraries in Africa, Carnegie Corporation of New York in 2007 came out with the following finding:

- i. Training has not been consistently and easily available which made it impossible for trainees to have the needed technical and traditional skills to update their knowledge in the provision of information to its numerous users. The after effect of this is that University resources have become even more limited over the past thirty three years thereby creating greater barriers to access information and fostering a greater dependence on external fund to take care of training of its work force.

- ii. Most librarian who are privileged to attend regional or local trainings were quite enthusiastic about the experience, but their complaints were that there was the need for more training programme adjusted to local needs, paced at the right speed and with a follow up possibility.
- iii. The range of training opportunities offered by the national library association vary with the strength of the association, some library that sent their staff for training reported that the staff lose the impact of the training due to inability to implement or practice what has been learnt.
- iv. Continual education is needed to increase understanding about central role of research in promoting and development of library education and training in African University Libraries.

Uwem (2003) opined that the core of professional training in information work was not just a theoretical understanding of knowledge and information management, but rather how these theoretical concepts translate to meeting users' information needs in a practical way. In order to provide information services to its numerous users, the library and its work force will need to develop knowledge and competence of the emerging information media.

Information professionals are expected to be aware of capable of using and demonstrating the emerging ICT Nwakana (2003). There is a need for additional training to augment the traditional skills and knowledge base with a competence in ICT use. Information professionals must be flexible and adapt traditional skills to incorporate the requirements of technological advances. Biddiscombe and Sharp (2001).

Looking at the impact of the digital device on skills development, Lim (1999) suggests that too much emphasis has been placed upon the development of ICT infrastructure in developing countries, whereas enough consideration has not been given to human resources development. However, in order to understand how ICTs have impacted upon skills development in developing countries, it is imperative to consider the situation that exists with regarding the ICT infrastructure. Jensen (2002) gave a vivid account of ICT infrastructure in Africa when he said that one in a hundred people have access to Personal Computers (PQ); the few Internet Service Providers are comparatively expensive; power Supplies are very unreliable or even non-existent and telecommunication is sparse with 90% of the population living in the rural areas having 50% telephone lines. Steinmueller(2001) suggests that many ICT users are self-taught, and are capable of developing an understanding of ICTs through the experience of utilising them.

If the above is true, then the case of countries who are unable to provide extensive access to ICTs are inevitably marginalised as they are less likely to produce capable self-taught persons. However, Steinmueller's suggestion does indicate a more optimistic scenario for those developing environment,

progressively providing access to ICTs as it suggests that staff may be able to gain at least some degree of expertise through self-learning.

In Nigeria, under-users' education in Universities has been summarised as uncoordinated, poorly introductory, and non-examinable. This scenario is replicated in most universities and other educational institutions across Africa. Consequently, the meagre information resources that one finds in libraries are grossly underutilised. Murtala (2004), in a study at the University of Zambia to determine the usage of the campus intranet among academic staff, revealed that those who are not using the facility cited is due to lack of guidance on how to use the intranet and inability to provide technical know-how on information utilisation. Jordan (2003) looked at the barriers to adequate ICT skills and training in developing countries arising from lack of IT literacy and the fact that many library schools fail to integrate ICTs into their curricular.

Ukorh (1984), as cited by Ogunsola (2004), stated that a librarian does not have to be literate in various technologies before employing them. In other words, he does not have to be a technical expert before using any form of technology or a programmer before using a computer. However, he is still required or expected to possess some technical knowledge in order to operate these information media.

Methodology

The main instrument used for this survey was a questionnaire and the staff of the Olabisi Onabanjo University library, Ago Iwoye constituted the population of the research. In all, eighty two (82) staff of the library were used for this study. A questionnaire was administered to the respondents in the library. Only 70 copies representing (87%) were returned and found usable.

Analysis, Findings and Discussion

Table 1: Age Distribution of Respondents

Age	Frequency	%
21-30	22	31
31-40	20	28
41-50	23	33
51-60	05	8
Total	70	100

Table 1 shows that 20 or (38%) of the work force fall within the ages of 31 to 40, 23 or (33%) of the total respondents fall within the ages of 41-50, 22 or (31%) of the respondents fall within the ages of 21-30 while 05or (08%) fall within the ages of 51-60. From the above it is evident that the bulk of staff that the library employed is still in the economic productive age that is 21-50. Such people, according to Adeniji and Onasote (2006), can give the best service to

the library operation, thereby assisting in achieving the overall objective of the establishment.

Research Question 1: What are the training programmes available to the staff?

Table 2: Training Programmes Available for Staff to Attend

Types of Training Programmes	Yes	%	NO	%
Higher Institutions Training Programmes like Diploma in Library Science, BLS, MLS, PhD	40	57	30	43
In-Service Training Programme for junior staff	50	71	20	29
Conferences /Seminars/Workshops	45	64	25	36
Training programmes for others staffs (Porters, Secretariat Staffs, technicians, cleaners, etc.)	48	68	22	32
Training on application of ICT to library operation systems	46	65	24	35
Annual National & International Training programmes i.e N L A, I F L A e t c.	26	37	44	63
Sabbatical and staff exchange programmes	29	41	41	59

In Table 2 above about 65 % of the respondents attended training on application of ICT to library operation systems while 35% of the respondents did not 71% of the staff attended In-service Training for junior staff while the rest 29% did not. 68% of the respondents attended training programmes for other staff and higher institutions training programmes while 32% did not attend. From the discussion above, it is observed that some respondents did not attend any training programme. Respondents that had not attended gave reasons like financial constraints, busy schedules, as well as uncompromising attitude of library management team on issues that focused on library development.

Research Question 2: Can training programme be used to solve the manpower deficiency in the library?

Table 3: Training Programme and Manpower Deficiency in the Library?

Respondent's view	Respondent's Return	%
Yes	45	64
No	25	36
Total	70	100

As could be seen from the table 3 above 64% (45) of the respondents are of the opinion that manpower deficiency as witnessed in the library could be

solved through the various training programmes that are available for the workers. While 36% (25) of the respondents are of the view that manpower programmes cannot be used to solve the skills deficiency as witnessed in the library. The purpose of most, if not all manpower development programme is to increase organisations present and future capability in order to attain its goals.

Research Question 3: How do the workers see the various manpower development programmes?

Table 4: Perception level of manpower development programme by respondents

S/N	HRDP	Staff Perception Very adequate		Adequate		Not adequate	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1	Conference	30	42	25	35	15	21
2	Workshop	40	57	20	29	10	14
3	Seminar	20	29	40	57	10	14
4	BLS	45	64	15	21	10	18
5	MLS	35	50	15	21	20	28
6	PhD	50	71	20	29	-	-
7	Overseas Training	38	54	32	46	-	-
8	ICT	30	43	40	57	-	-

Table 4 shows the perception level of the trainees of the various manpower programmes. About 71%, and 29% of the respondents saw PhD to be very adequate and adequate respectively, while Masters in Library Science (MLS), Information Communication Technology (ICT) and Overseas Training have 50%, 43% and 54% for very adequate and 21%, 57% and 46% as adequate. 57%, 64%, 42% and 29% of the respondents saw Workshop, BLS, Conference and Seminar as very adequate and adequate respectively. Moreover, some of the respondents perceived the manpower development programme as not adequate: such programmes include Conference and Bachelor in Library Science (BLS) 21%, Workshop 14% and Seminar 14% respectively. Respondents who have benefitted immensely from various manpower development programmes perceived them to be adequate and even very adequate, whereas, those who do not

have the opportunity for a programme like overseas training may conclude that such a programme is not adequate. However, training is necessary for updating knowledge, improving performance and efficiency on the job. You get to know what to do and how to do it through training. Such training must be adequate for the work at hand.

Research Question 4: What effect does the training programme have on the respondents?

Table 5: Effect of Training on the Respondents

Respondents' view	Respondents' Returns	
	Frequency	%
Training has led to effective communication among the rank and file of the staff that led achieving goals of the organisation	09	13
It has equipped librarian to meet Users information needs	12	17
Efficient services provided for library users.	13	19
Manpower programme has assist the staff to attain great height at the national and international arena	10	14
It has envision library staff in good negotiation skills, tested market strategies and adventurous public relations work	11	16
Newly employed library staff have gained first-hand information on library work	08	11
Training programme has led to resourcefulness and efficiency in the library work among the staff	07	10
	70	100

From the table 5 above, 19% of the respondents are of the view that training has assisted to provide efficient services to their clientele. 13% of the respondents state that training has enhanced effective communication among the management team of the library, thereby leading to the achievement of the organisational goal, while 17% and 11% of the respondents are of the opinion that training has helped the librarian to translate theoretical concepts to meeting users information needs and has assisted the newly library staff to gain first-hand

information about their work.14% of the respondents are of the opinion that training has equipped them to understand and appreciate library management and administrative practices and also equipped them to make great strides and impact in the international setting. 10% of the respondents stated that training has promote efficiency and resourcefulness in the staff of the library. In all, training has great effect on the trainees as new skills and knowledge are acquired for the library operations (Pylee and George 2004).

Research Question 5: Which of the staff needs training most?

Table 6: Library Staff that Needs the Training Programme Most

Cadre of staff	No of respondents	%
Academic librarian	12	17
Senior staff	28	40
Junior staff	30	43
Total	70	100

Table 6 clearly shows that 43% of the junior cadre needed manpower programme most, about 40% of the respondents saw the senior staff as the cadre that needed staff training most, while 17% of the respondents saw the academic librarians as requiring human resources development programme most. We can deduce that from all these responses that staff in all the cadres need one human resources development programme or the other to enhance efficiency on the job. Training should be given to all employees at least once in two years so as to update their current knowledge and skills on the job and acquaint them with the challenging trends in relevant training programmes on the job they perform in the library.

Conclusion and Recommendations

From the data collected, analysed and discussed in this study, the following conclusions were drawn. The success or failure of a library as a service organisation depends on the calibre of staff available and the qualifications acquired in terms of education and professional training. Olabisi Onabanjo University has various manpower development programmes to enhance staff performance on the job. Some of the programmes are the off-the-job and on-the- job training, initial orientation for newly employed staff and so on. Selection of staff for participation in these programmes has been fair to all cadres of staff. Most of the beneficiaries of the programme perceive them to be adequate to their need and that it has assisted them to acquire the needed skills, knowledge and proficiency in their day to day work in the library operation.

Notwithstanding the seemingly positive scenario reported above, it is still recommended that training programmes of staff of the library should be updated to cater for all areas like marketing, library services, labour and management relations and employee and employer rights, to mention a few. Beneficiary of the various programmes are to be retrained and maintained in order to avoid an exodus of staff who have acquired the needed skills to other institutions with better offers in terms of salaries and conditions of service. The management team of the library needs to recognise the imperative of continued professional development and ensure that staff is proactive in maintaining an up-to-date level of expertise. They should organise in-house seminars and workshops on the current event in the information world for all members of staff. Also management should exercise restraints when posting staff to head a section or branch library because certain jobs require specific skills or training.

The various library schools in Nigerian Universities should maintain a close liaison with the libraries in order to design an appropriate programme for the training and such a programme should include some aspects on human resources management that can assist the librarians on the management of the personnel. Training should be relevant to the job offered to the trainee on a regular basis. It should not be left till it is too late. It is important to state that staff should be assigned duties that are commensurate with their qualifications, knowledge and with the understanding of the expected performance. Lastly, it is expected that research comparative to this be carried out on a wider spectrum in other libraries of higher institutions in Nigeria. A comprehensive research could also be carried out in some West African university libraries to explore the major problems with the development and utilisation of various cadres of staff in various institutions of higher learning.

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