

ETHICS AND NEW PUBLIC MANAGEMENT MANTRA IN THE UNITED KINGDOM PUBLIC SECTOR

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Abstract

This short article will explore the value base that underpins New Public Management and its interplay with ethics in the UK public sector. For example, the public sector's business-like operations, individual responsibility and mistrust of human behaviour amongst others will be brought to the fore. Furthermore, this article will also explore how ethics/standards have become a 'managed' process, e.g. reports, audit amongst others. Notwithstanding the views to the contrary, this article will advocate that the values inherent in the New Public Management doctrine has not led to the erosion of ethical standards. This article is divided into six sections. The first section is the introduction. This section will define ethics and the New Public Management (NPM) mantra. The second section will dwell on the expected ethical standards and effects of New Public Management in the UK public sector. The third section will focus on the values of NPM in the UK public sector. Organizational impacts of NPM will be the focus of the fourth section of the article. The fifth section of the article will dwell on the criticisms of NPM and its interplay in the public sector. The final section is the conclusion. Here, a summary will be attempted and the article will posit that NPM is not inherently bad.

Keywords: New Public Management, Public Sector Ethics, Values of NPM, Organizational structure of NPM.

Introduction

Public Sector Ethics are the set of guidelines or legal regulations that guide public sector management in many countries. The United Kingdom is no exception. Thus, public sector ethics is the "application of moral standards in the course of official duties" (Chapman, 1998, 9). Public sector ethics applies to quality of work expected by government and agencies and it provides a framework that encompasses the totality of governance in the public sector (Chapman, 1998).

Generally, ethics is not a new phenomenon or fad (Davis in Bovaird and Loffler, 2003). The ensuring of high standards by political or government actors

predates the modern concept of the rule of law (Rechtsstaat) and it is traced back to the Medieval Greek and Roman epochs (Davis in Bovaird and Löffler, 2003). Some authors contend that the modern-day evolution of administrative or public sector ethics is traced to the mid-1970's which was largely influenced by the New Public Administration (Management) (Cooper 1994, Cooper 2001). However, the general consensus is that it was Professor Christopher Hood's writings in the 1980s that first introduced the term 'New Public Management' (NPM) (Elzinga 2010, Haynes 2011).

The public sector in the United Kingdom has undergone massive reforms. The public sector in the United Kingdom has been heavily influenced by the principles of New Public Management (Hughes 2003). New Public Management is the importation of commercial concepts into the public sector thereby watering down the traditional or bureaucratic concepts of administration inherent in the public sector. The Margaret Thatcher and Tony Blair administrations made NPM the cornerstone of their public sector reforms (Greenwood et al 2000). The present coalition government of David Cameron and Nick Clegg is no exception. Generally, a coalition government is made of members of the leading party (based on their electoral performances) and the junior members of the coalition (the smaller party) (Ekhatior 2008). Presently in the UK, the Conservative party is the major party in the Coalition government while Liberal Democrats is the minor or smaller party in the arrangement.

Some of the concepts imported into the traditional concepts of the public sector include contracting and the use of professionals in the public sector amongst others.

Ethical Standards in the UK Public Sector

Ethical standards (in the public sector) are affected by the principles of New Public Management prevalent in the present day public sector. The modern day public sector organization are run under business ideas, thus resulting in public firms focusing on results instead of processes or services (Davis, in Bovaird and Löffler, 2003). There are two contrasting views on the effects of New Public Management on the public sector. The first view is that, the reforms can lead to corruption because of the powers given to managers in public firms (Lawton in Rose and Lawton, 1999). It is argued that the declining public confidence reposed in the public sector is traced to the New Public Management reforms in the public sector (Wood in Dibben et al. 2004). The second view is that the reforms in the public sector lead to less corruption because there is greater competition and transparency in the modern-day public sector (Lawton in Rose and Lawton 1999). This article will stick with the second view that reforms in the public sector has led to more transparency and openness. This view will be analysed in the next part of this article.

Effects of New Public Management in the Public Sector of the UK

This part of the article will explore the value base that underpins New Public Management. For example, the public sector's business-like operations, individual responsibility and mistrust of human behaviour amongst others will be brought to the

fore. The question at this juncture is; with the importation of business ideas into the public sector, whether ethical standards still exist or the culture of the public sector has been upstaged by the business culture (Davis in Bovaird and Loffler 2003).

Furthermore, this section will also explore how ethics or ethical standards have become a 'managed' process, e.g. reports, audit amongst others. Undermining the views to the contrary, this article will advocate that the values inherent in the New Public Management doctrine has not led to the erosion of ethical standards.

The public sector has undergone reforms in the UK. In the UK, the bureaucracy involved in the public sector has been watered down by the outsourcing of traditional public sector functions to the private sector (Gray and Jenkins in Jones and Kavanagh, 1994). Thus, functions such as education, social services and housing have been given to outsiders or contractors (Gray and Jenkins in Jones and Kavanagh 1994). In a nutshell, the British Public Sector has been heavily influenced by the principles of New Public Management (Hughes 2003). The question at this juncture is; what are the values that underpin the New Public Management in the UK?

Values of NPM in the UK Public Sector

"Over the past ten years there has been a huge fuss over the 'New Public Management' (NPM)" (Pollitt 2003:26). New Public Management (NPM) is simply the reforms which the public sector or administration in the UK has undergone. NPM as an international paradigm in public administration had its origin in 1980s in the UK and New Zealand (Common 2001). The term 'New Public Management' as equating to the reforms in the public sector was first articulated by Christopher Hood in his seminal article entitled 'A Public Management for All Seasons' (1991). Hood traced the rise of NPM to be the consequence of four administrative or mega-trends (1991). These trends were;

- Slow down/reverse of government growth (especially in terms of spending and staffing)
- Shift away from direct service delivery by government(for example, a move towards privatization and quasi-privatization)
- Development of Information Technology (especially in the production and distribution of public services)
- Internationalisation (development of an international agenda that encompasses policy design and intergovernmental cooperation amongst others).

New Public Management Model (Common, 2001: 49-51)

REFORM

Structure

e.g.: agency creation

Process

e.g: strategic management

Budgetary process

e.g. use of budgets for planning

Process

Human Resource Management

e.g.: use of performance contracts

Quality management

e.g.: use of consumerist mechanisms

MEANING

Organisational Decentralisation

Introduce private sector management techniques

Top-down budgeting, and control

Meaning

Tenure determined by performance

Deprofessionalisation

This table represents the values inherent in the NPM in the UK public sector.

Organizational Impacts of NPM in the UK Public Sector

The effects of NPM can be divided into 'Structure' and 'Managed Process'. These two components of NPM represent a shift in emphasis on quality and performance. Firstly, the public sector has become customer driven or oriented. Secondly, NPM is a movement away from the professional/functional assessment of performance, thus, it is managing performance linked to organisational strategy and control. These effects will be analysed in the next part of this article.

Structure of NPM

The first major value inherent in the NPM in the UK Public Sector is its structural reform (Lawton, 1998). Technically this entails "organisational decentralisation or changes that involve reducing hierarchical authority as key features" (Common, 2001: 48). For example, the division of service delivery into business units at 'arm-lengths' from Government as seen in the Next Steps in the UK (Lawton, 1998). Here, Next Steps model involved setting up a distinct separate body responsible for the delivery or actualisation of services in tandem with the relevant Government policy department (Hughes, 2003). However, it has been contended that decentralisation is not a sine qua non in the New Public Management reform agenda (Hughes 2003). The reason is that the public sector organizations in the UK have the power to design their agenda and the policy of flexibility inherent in the public sector (Hughes 2003).

The public sector has become marketised by NPM (Common, 2001). This concept is about “states with strong capability can take on more activist functions, dealing with the problem of missing markets by helping co-ordination” (Common 2001: 49). This is supposed to enhance competition in the UK public service. Here, market-styled mechanisms are used for delivery of services (or products) (Pollitt, 2003). The analogy is extended to state that the government may not necessarily be the final purchaser (Hughes 2003). A consequence of market-based public sector is that it is now client-driven. Thus, citizens in the public sector are now referred to as ‘consumers’ (Pollitt, 2003).

Managed Process

This involves the changes to the managerial process in the UK public sector (Common, 2001). This involves “changes in the budgetary process, in human resource management and quality management practices” (Common, 2001: 51). The major reason for the ‘hands-on professional management’ is because the whole process is now made more accountable (Hood, 1991). The modern day public sector organisation is expected to focus on outputs instead of inputs. This entails a shift in the direction of the management from inputs (for example, employees, buildings) and processes (for example, teaching and inspection) towards outputs (results of tests and inspections) and outcomes (for example, schools which fail inspection may be closed down) (Pollitt, 2003). Tony Blair brought out the importance of relying on ‘outcomes’ stating that it “allows us to give freedoms back to the public service workers – if a service can be accountable for what it achieves, we need not worry how it achieves it” (Blair 2002: 15 in Pollitt 2003: 27).

Another important effect of NPM on the public sector is how performance is managed. In managing performance in the public sector, there are two types. There are output based (quantifiable standards/measures) and outcome based (to demonstrate change in performance). Performance involves a move “towards more measurement and quantification, especially in the form of systems of ‘performance indicators’ and/or explicit ‘standards’” (Pollitt 2003: 27). For example, civil servants who pay out benefit claims, the rate and the average time taken to process such payments is taken into consideration when measuring which of the local offices are slowest or fastest (Pollitt 2003). Thus, agencies or organizations are expected to develop performance guides or indicators as a means of measuring their growth towards attaining their desired aims and objectives (Hughes, 2003). However, as Bouckaert and Dooren (2003:135) observe: “performance measurement is useful only if it improves policy or management”. However, without performance management, we cannot measure the impact of an organisation on the agency or the society.

Another manifestation of NPM in the public sector is the flexibility in the workplace (i.e. staff). This entails increased managerial autonomy for managers (also includes frontline staff) have arisen due to the increased flexibility in the use of financial and staffing resources (Davis in Bovaird and Loffler 2003). There is also the

easier movement of workers from the private sector into the public sector. This has led to the development of the entrepreneurial spirit in the public sector (Lawton 1998). Another form of increased mobility in the public sector is the increased movement of staff from a sector to another sector or department (inter-departmental mobility). The flexibility in the public sector has led to easier ways of hiring and firing staff. Thus, it is easier to dismiss inefficient or incompetent employees (Hughes 2003). However, there is protection against unfair and arbitrary dismissal of staff (Hughes, 2003). Flexibility in the public sector is not fool-proof. It has been argued that it has led to the dilution of the traditional ethos of the public service and the problems of the passing of confidential information by employees who move from one sector to the other (Davis in Bovaird and Loffler 2003). However, the view of this article is that flexibility has led to more efficiency and less corruption in the public sector.

Another effect of NPM is the blurring of the differences between the public sector and the private sector (Ekhtor 2012). This has been especially evident in the levels of interactions between public and private or non-profit organisations (or voluntary organisations) that have led to different types of partnerships (Pollitt 2003). Thus, to elucidate on the relationship among parties it is important to clarify the roles and enhanced transparency in the relationships partnerships and other interested stakeholders (Davis in Bovaird and Loffler, 2003). If this is not done, it could lead to mistrust in the relationship between the parties and for government (or the public sector) activities. Thus, in the relationship among the parties, there must be accountability between the manager and the stakeholders (Hughes 2003).

A major value inherent in the public sector is 'contractisation' of government services. This concept entails that "any conceivable government service can be provided by contract; either externally through private or voluntary sector providers or internally with other parts of government" (Hughes 2003: 57). This is said to encourage competition. Thus, competitive tendering was adopted in the local government system in the UK in the 1980s (Hughes 2003). Contracting may include staff contracts, contracts with the minister or contracts with the government and contracts in form of charters between the public and clients (Hughes 2003).

However, contracting in the public service is not fool-proof especially contracts between private firms and public organizations especially in the area of sub-contracting. It has been argued that the parties to a contract have different aims and objectives (Davis in Bovaird and Loffler 2003: 216). Thus, a contractor provides the best possible service according to the terms of the contracts (Davis in Bovaird and Loffler, 2003). Here, a contractor may end up providing poor services. For example, it has been alleged due to the poor cleaning services rendered by contractors in the hospitals, there has been an increase in killer bugs which kill patients (BBC Website 2008). In essence, making profit and survival are the hallmarks of a contractor (Davis in Bovaird and Loffler 2003).

Recent Developments in the UK (NPM)

- Charters: Citizen's Charters to Service First
- Benchmarking: 'Best Value' in Local Government
- European Foundation for Quality Management: Investors in People and ISO 9000 accreditation
- Clinical Governance (NHS – supported by organisations such as National Institute for Clinical Excellence)
- 'Big Society' mantra under present Conservative and Liberal Democrats coalition government.
- The commercialisation of the National Health Services under the present UK government.

Criticisms of NPM

In analysing the effects of NPM on the public sector, the analysis will be focused on the effects or impacts of NPM on ethical standards. It is being argued that the reforms inherent in NPM will lead to the erosion of public ethos (Hughes, 2003). Research has shown that the declining public confidence in the public sector is as a result of the introduction of the New Public Management principles (Wood in Dibben et al 2004). In furtherance of this, neo-conservatives contend that erosion of ethical standards results from individual lapses or mistakes and poor communication which results in differences between government and the economic sector (Wood in Dibben et al 2004). Thus, in its present state, the modern public organization cannot effectively confront the scourge of moral and ethical issues inherent in it (Adams and Balfour in Campbell and Miller 2004). Moreover, the managerial autonomy inherent in the private sector is difficult to apply in the public sector. This unhealthy interchange of managerial autonomy in the public sector has led to unethical practices by workers via inappropriate means (Wood, in Dibben et al 2004). Also, the decentralisation inherent in the NPM influenced UK public sector leads to lack of accountability and invariably erodes democratic control.

NPM has led to the marketisation of the public sector and this invariably leads to the decline of the ethos (Wood et al 2004). NPM has involved the corrosion of the distinctions inherent in the relationship between public and the private sector resulting in the reduction of treatment of social services and low accountability standards (Wood et al 2004). Thus, the collective values inherent in the traditional public sector (such as universalism and equity) have now been upstaged by the private sector values such as efficiency and individualism.

NPM has resulted in business and market models which have replaced service as the cornerstone in the public sector (Wood in Dibben et al 2004). Thus, NPM "fails to account for critical differences between the government and the private sectors, and in particular, ignores the constitutional premise that government is based on a rule of law and not market driven mechanisms" (Wood in Dibben et al 2004:86).

This has led to the privatisation or contractisation of government services to the private sector. To its supporters, privatisation leads to greater efficiency through

the reduction of inefficient bureaucratic process and leads to profit for the government (Wood in Dibben et al 2004). Also, inefficient government firms should be privatised to save costs. Privatisation is not fool-proof. For example, the privatisation of the railways has led to less competition in that sector. Thus, privatisation creates short term benefits due to the inherent imperfections of the public sector markets.

Privatisation has made private firms involved to try to make as much profit as possible (Wood in Dibben et al 2004). This is the epitome of consumerism which conflicts notion of the citizenry being the end-users of a public service. Thus, the treatment of citizens as customers has led to the companies engaging unethical conduct so that they stay afloat or make enough profits. For example, the fares in the London transport system (underground and buses) are increased annually by the government in deference to the private operators of the transport system. This has affected the users of this hitherto public service (transport system) negatively because the public end up paying more to use the public transport system.

As a direct result of the contractisation of a civil servant services, except his contract expressly specifies a duty, he is not compelled to perform such a duty. Thus, such an official owes his allegiance to the terms of his contract and not to the minister or department.

This article will take the view that no matter the erosion of the public sector ethos, there still remains a semblance of ethos no matter the postulations to the contrary. This assertion will be elucidated upon in the next part of this article.

Are Ethos Undermined by NPM in the Public Sector?

The view of this article is that NPM has not undermined the public sector ethos rather it has enhanced them. The first argument to support this assertion is that in the UK, there is no uniform public sector ethos (for example, honesty, stability amongst others) which runs across the whole gamut of the public sector. Kemp, a former high ranking civil servant in support to this said "in fact there is no such thing as 'single public service ethos'. Different parts of the service and different agencies and units have their own ethos will vary according to their function..." (Kemp 1993:33). Conclusive proof was given by Pratchett and Wingfield (1994:32) after surveying local council staff that there is no universal ethos clearly defined in the public sector. Thus, uniform public sector ethos is not in existence in the UK public sector because each government agency or department is guided by the ethos peculiar to its sector.

NPM reforms in the public sector have resulted in greater transparency because unethical conduct including corruption is easily detected (Hughes 2003). Moreover, performance indicators have also led to higher ethical standards and less inefficiency in public sector activities or service delivery. Furthermore, as result of higher transparency in the public sector, politicians or government officials in charge of departments or agencies where ethical misconduct occurs can be held responsible for such conduct (Hughes 2003). Thus, government ministers in charge of such

agencies might be compelled to resign as a result of such unethical conduct in the agency. For example, in 2004, David Blunkett the Home Secretary resigned from the government because it was alleged that he used his powers to secure a visa for his nanny.

Since it is difficult to measure unethical behaviour (or corruption), it is impossible to know whether the total percentage (of corruption) is rising, falling or remains the same (Pollitt 2003). There has been few and isolated incidence of unethical conduct (including corruption) by politicians and civil servants in the public sector (Ekhaton 2012). Some of the scandals include the 'Donnygate' which was when some Doncaster council officials were convicted for expensive fraud (Davis in Bovaird and Löffler 2003). Others include the 'home for election' scandal in the Westminster Council (Davis in Bovaird and Löffler 2003). Corruption in the public sector is not widespread as the commentators and the media are painting. In comparison with the private sector, unethical behaviour (including corruption) is minimal in the public sector. Thus, it can be contended that the low level of corruption in the UK public sector is as result of the NPM reforms and the inherent ethos prevalent in the UK public sector (Ekhaton 2012).

A minimisation of the clash between traditional and NPM values (Pollitt, 2003). NPM has led to dislocations in the public service. However, NPM reforms do not challenge the traditional ethos inherent in the UK public sector, it enhances them! (Pollitt, 2003). Furthermore, NPM has added better values to the public sector. Such values include enhanced customer-based service, setting of annual targets and managerial freedom amongst others.

Notwithstanding its inherent defects, the New Public Management doctrine can remedy the corruption and unethical conduct in the UK public sector (Ekhaton 2012). To mitigate the effects of corruption and other unethical standards, the public sector is expected to have higher ethical standards or ethos than the commercial world. Public ethos can be said to "consist of a set of values held in common by public services managers and expressed through their virtues" [impartiality, honesty and trust amongst others] (Pratchett and Wingfield, 1994: 304). Thus, it is argued that reforms in the public sector lead to less corruption because there is greater competition and transparency in the modern-day public sector (Lawton in Rose and Lawton, 1999). NPM has done more good, than harm to the public sector of the UK.

Conclusion

The Public Sector ethos in the UK has led to higher ethical standards in the public sector (Ekhaton 2012). However, some commentators still doubt the effectiveness of the public sector ethos leading to higher ethical standards because of the inherent contradictions in it (Ekhaton 2012). Such commentators do not believe that NPM leads to higher ethical standards in the public sector. They believe that the notion of New Public Management (NPM) in the public sector has led to the watering down of the public sector ethos (Hughes 2003). They contend that research has shown that the declining public confidence in the public sector is as a result of

the introduction of the New Public Management principles (Wood in Dibben et al 2004). Furthermore, such commentators believe that the managerial autonomy inherent in the private sector is difficult to apply in the public sector. This unhealthy interchange of managerial autonomy in the public sector has led to unethical practices by workers via inappropriate means (Wood in Dibben et al 2004). Also, the decentralisation inherent in the NPM influenced UK public sector leads to lack of accountability and invariably erodes democratic control.

Other manifestations of the increase in unethical conduct as induced by NPM include: results in business and market models which have replaced service as the cornerstone in the public sector (Wood in Dibben et al 2004), and the problems of privatisation amongst others.

This article has argued against these views that NPM has led to lower ethical standards in the public sector. The article has posited that public sector does not lead to lower public sector ethos but to higher and improved ethos in the public sector.

Furthermore, the public sector is expected to have higher ethical standards than the commercial world because of the (the public sector) special relationship with the citizenry (Ekhtor 2012).

The value base that underpins the principles of New Public Management (NPM) were analysed during the course of this article and this article posited that NPM is a good thing because it has led to higher ethical standards in the public sector. NPM's principles such as the public sector's businesslike operations, individual responsibility and mistrust of human behaviour amongst others were thoroughly discussed in this article.

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JONATHAN'S TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN NIGERIA: LESSONS FROM THE BIBLICAL ABRAHAM

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Abstract

The issue of getting the right leadership to propel national growth and prosperity has been in the forefront of national debate in the last decade. Countries that desire to develop need special kind of leaders, leaders that are more than accomplished administrators and managers. They need leaders that have some charisma and possess the ability to inspire followers to subordinate their self interests for the good of the entire country. What most countries need are transformational leaders. Arguably, one of the greatest transformational leaders of all time was the Biblical Abraham. This paper examines the transformational leadership of President Goodluck Jonathan with special reference to the traits Abraham possessed. These are traits said to be useful to individuals desiring to become transformational leaders. With the use of Weber's theory of charisma, the paper analyzed issues of transformational leadership and the role it can play in sustainable development. Drawing experiences from developed and developing countries in the globalized era, it concludes that Nigerian leadership cannot successfully address challenges of national development, unless it embraces the qualities of transformational leadership which include vision, charisma, confidence, a willingness to be different, courageous, humility, a willingness to make great sacrifices for (his) vision, a strong sense of justice, and concern for others as well as

best practices cultivated and propagated from within Africa in the global era.

Keywords: Development, Transformational, Leadership, Sustainability, Biblical Abraham

Introduction

One of the major challenges facing Nigeria and other developing countries is how to create the context of stable political, socio-economic development environment for policies and programmes to be implemented. The issue of getting the right kind of leadership to propel national growth and development has been in the front-burner of debate in the last decade. Indeed, at the core of Africa and particularly Nigeria's challenges as a developing nation, is the lack of transformational leadership imbued with vision of the likes possessed by Nnamdi Azikiwe, Obafemi Awolowo, Abubakar Tafawa Balewa, Mahatma Gandhi of India, Kwame Nkrumah of Ghana, Mother Theresa, Amin Cabral of Guinea, Tanzanian Julius Nyerere, Thomas Sankara of Burkina-Faso, and Samora Mitchell of Mozambique. These leaders' brought innovations and selfless services to bear in their various endeavours such that decades after their death, they are still fondly remembered by those they impacted on.

The need to create a system of government that would facilitate freedom of choice and liberty for people to pursue their individual and corporate interests cannot be overemphasized. Once these enabling environments are created, it becomes easy for the people to confront and resolve challenges facing them by using resources within their environment to create a condition of life where each stage is progressively better than the previous one.

Transformational leadership is crucial to realization of any giant stride taken in pursuit of development, anywhere in the world, Nigeria is not an exception. Here lies the importance of transformational leadership. Most Nigerians are of the view that positive leadership remains elusive in the country especially since the 1966 military incursion into politics to the present democratic dispensation. Historically, Nigerians are known for doing things in common to mitigate challenges of development and promote corporate coexistence (Osaghae, 1994). Identification and nurturing of transformational leadership is key to ensuring sustainable development in Nigeria.

It is evident that the World Wide Web and the rise of the global economy have changed the way and manner government business is conducted. Changing the way things are done in any given society is not easy. Countries/societies that desire prosperity need special leaders, leaders that are more than just accomplished administrators and managers. They need leaders that have some elements of charisma and possess the ability to activate and inspire followers to subordinate their self interests for the overall good of the entire country (Osofisan, 2012; Friedman and Langbert, 2000).

For anyone to dream of developing or making a change in his environment, he would require positive esteem i.e. having a healthy approving and loving view of oneself, a true self esteem that gives one a balanced realistic appreciation of one's talent and allows one to overcome overt views of others and how they perceive one.

People who display traits of high self esteem would definitely be positive, rational and have a realistic world view of others and themselves.

Consequently, Osofisan (2012) identified four critical requirements a man needs to be a development agent of his society. These include: good leadership, talent development, accountability and innovation. If every man decides to imbibe and embrace these concepts, the task of seeing the true potentials God endowed nation with would be massively unleashed on the continent and world in general. Yet, a leader that desires to be respected would keep to promises made to himself as a way to keep those made to others, draw up a disciplined framework to his life, create a definite and realistic growth plan, get value for each day and responsibility for life rather than accept it. However, majority of those who had found themselves in position of authority in Nigeria lack these qualities, which is impacting negatively on the society at large.

The invoking of the "Doctrine of Necessity" by the Nigeria Senate in 2010, occasioned by the ill-health of late President Yar'Adua which almost paralyzed the conduct of government business, ushered in Goodluck Ebele Jonathan as the Acting President of the country and later President following the death of President Umaru Musa Yar'Adua on the 8th May, 2010. The subsequent 2011 general elections solidified his position as the democratically elected president. Goodluck, on assumption of office, declared himself a transformational leader. The Otuoke-Bayelsa born President seems determined from utterances so far made to be a "transformational leader", to borrow his own words. To most critics his body language and actions do not portend any change from the status quo. It is based on the good assurance on the implementation of a transformation agenda that Professor Adamolekun Ladipo who gave an inaugural lecture, perhaps something of a new dimension tries to examine in his lecture titled, "A Transformation Agenda for Accelerating National Development".

It is in the light of this development, that the paper seeks to examine the transformational leadership of President Goodluck Ebele Jonathan with special reference to the traits Biblical Abraham possessed. These are traits useful to individuals desiring to become transformational leaders.

Transformational Leadership: Conceptual and Theoretical Considerations

In every administrative organization, there are administrators who derive their legitimate powers based on formal organization. Since their power is derived from their position, they can punish and reward subordinates according to the provisions of their legal powers (Ujo, 1999). The importance of leadership in any human organization cannot be overemphasized. As rightly observed by Bedeian cited in Ujo (1999), leadership is both the adhesive that bind a work group together and the

catalyst that trigger employee motivation, thereby having major influence on organization performance. Leadership exists in diverse groupings and organizational settings. Some of the variants of leadership include: traditional leadership, spiritual leadership, political leadership, business leadership, and non-state leadership.

Transforming leadership in the words of Burns (1978) is a process in which leaders and followers help each other to advance to a higher level of morale and motivation. Transforming leadership shapes alters and elevates the followers' motives and values. It unites diverse members in pursuit of higher goals, the realization of which is tested by the achievement of significant change that represents the pooled interests of leaders and followers. Transformational leadership motivates followers to make large changes. There is a significant amount of evidence that transformational leadership is more effective in achieving higher productivity, higher job satisfaction, and lower employee turnover rates (Robbins and Coulter, 1999). Transforming leaders are idealized in the sense that they are a moral exemplar of working towards the benefit of the team, organization and/or community.

Burns (1978) was the first to introduce the concept of transformational leadership in his descriptive research on political leaders, but this term is now used in organizational psychology as well. Bass (1985; 1990) and Bass and Avolio (1994) developed the concept of transformational leadership to include charisma, inspiration, individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation. Sashkin (1988) emphasizes the importance of vision in transformational leadership. Trice and Beyer (1991) argue that charisma is characteristic of founders of organizations whereas transformational leaders are organizational members who wish to change existing organizations.

Transformational leadership refers to leadership that motivates followers to ignore self-interests and work for the larger good of the organization to achieve significant accomplishments. Emphasis is on articulating a vision that will convince subordinates to make major changes (Black and Porter, 2000). These leaders have a profound effect on their followers' beliefs regarding what the organization should become. They provide their followers with guidance so that they are able to achieve their goals. Some examples of individuals who are considered as transformational leaders in present day Nigeria include: Governors Rochas Okorocha of Imo State, Chibuike Amaechi of Rivers State, Fashola of Lagos State, Adams Oshomole of Edo State, Godswill Akpabio, and Sule Lamido of Akwa-Ibom and Jigawa States respectively. Elsewhere in Africa, we talk gloriously of Nelson Mandela of South Africa.

Understanding the qualities that make one a transformational leader can be very helpful to administrators and leaders concerned with improving their effectiveness. It is also true that people who have the potential to become transformational leaders can easily lose this opportunity by making serious mistakes. Indeed, former President Olusegun Obasanjo may be an example of an individual

who botched the opportunity to become a highly successful transformational leader, because of his third term ambition. An examination of the foregoing submission suggests that transformational leaders are individuals capable of motivating and inspiring followers by appealing to higher goals and the common good rather than individual needs and self-interest.

There are several theoretical plat-forms to analytically and scientifically discuss the issues raised in the paper. These include trait, path-goal, exchange, social learning, contingency, behavioural and charismatic theories of leadership. While other theories may be relevant in their right, the paper utilized the theory of transformational leadership rooted in Weber's (1952; 1978) theory of charisma, and his application of the theory to several historical examples, most importantly his interpretation of the respective roles of the ancient Jewish prophets and priests (Bryman, in Friedman and Langbert, 2000).

Charisma as conceived by Weber's (1979; 1952) theory of charisma is rooted firmly, although by no means exclusively in the real or imagined extraordinary qualities of a leader. Like any individual the charismatic leader is unique, and irreplaceable. A charismatic leader emerges from beyond the institution with the purpose of delivering the followers in their time of need. Charisma is rooted in persons, relationships, and contexts. With legal authority, obedience is to the legal order. With traditional authority, obedience is to whoever occupies a sanctified position while in the case of charismatic authority; obedience is given to an individual on the basis of extraordinary merit (Weber, 1978). Charismatic leaders emerge to fulfill the needs of their followers, which in times of societal distress are likely to be of an 'extraordinary' nature, particularly with regard to the need for meaning. Charisma must continually be proven in meaningful fashion to retain their recognition, without which it cannot exist.

The extent, to which a leader is transformational, is measured first, in terms of his influence on the followers. The followers of such a leader feel trust, admiration, loyalty and respect for the leader and because of the qualities of the transformational leader are willing to work harder than originally expected. These outcomes occur because the transformational leader offers followers something more than just working for self gain; they provide followers with an inspiring mission and vision and give them an identity. The leader transforms and motivates followers through his or her idealized influence (earlier referred to as charisma), intellectual stimulation and individual consideration. In addition, this leader encourages followers to come up with new and unique ways to challenge the status quo and to alter the environment to support being successful. Having seen what it takes to be a transformational leader, it is therefore imperative to situate this within the context of Adamolekun's (2011) submission. Situating our argument within position in the presidential inaugural lecture will enable us evaluate Jonathan's performance come 2015.

Adamolekun (2011) proposes five essential transformation result areas to include electoral legitimacy, peace and security, government policy stability, rule of law and anti-corruption. It is imperative and most significant that government that emerges through electoral legitimacy, free, fair and credible elections are expected to

be accountable that has entrusted it with the exercise of political authority. Indeed, the citizens who, through their votes decided who governs them have a duty to demand for accountability from their rulers. There is a general consensus among Nigerians and non Nigerian's opinion leaders that getting electoral legitimacy right is an antidote for development which has eluded the country since 1999. In fact all the elections conducted in the country since 1999 when Nigeria returned to democratic rule lack credibility (Adamolekun, 2011)

However, President Goodluck Jonathan in 2010 assured Nigerians as well as the international community of breaking the jinx of flawed elections in the country. This he has delivered to an appreciable extent on his promise of a free and fair election. Yet, bearing in mind that Nigeria's transformation geared towards electoral legitimacy is a continuum, Attahiru Jega, a professor of political science, the indefectible, honest and courageous chairman of the Independent Electoral Commission (INEC) has unarguably admitted that there are still some flaws in the electoral process that need to be corrected.

Assuring peace and security within the country is a challenge of a very urgent import and an incontrovertible prerequisite for any meaningful and genuine development effort in Nigeria. While post election violence in the states of Bauchi, Borno, Gombe, Kaduna, Kano, Katsina and Niger were as a result of political power struggle, religious fanaticism is the bean behind the violence unleashed by Boko Haram since the early 2000s which has now spread like wide fire. Literally the Hausa word Boko Haram means Western and or non-Islamic education is a sin. This is coming despite the fact that Nigeria is a 'Secular State' (FRN, 1999, 2011). It is based on these premises that the researchers wonder: "Is there a role for the Sovereign National Conference (SNC) that some opinion leaders have advocated since the early 1990s?" This needs to be addressed as a matter of priority which only a courageous leader can do.

It is worthy of note that stability in government policy reinforced by clarity and consistency is a major explanation for economic growth the world over. Government should consult stakeholders before embarking on policy reversal as not doing so could be inimical to development efforts. It is glaring that issues like Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) highly pursued all over the world as bedrock to development through improved service deliveries are not evident and apparent in Nigeria except on paper and electronic media. In fact, MDGs are now another avenue for embezzling public fund.

Most Nigerians are aware of the rot in the education sector, climaxing in a tertiary education level that has parents – and even the former Speaker, House of Representative – sending kids and relations to Ghana, South Africa to access better and quality university education (Adenle, 2011). The University Act started during the Obasanjo presidency, an Act that was almost immediately "placed on the back burner" leaves much to be desired. The rot in the Nigerian education sector is most severe at the apex institution – the university. But it appears that soon as rehabilitation efforts at that level begin to yield positive results, it cascades down to

polytechnics, secondary schools and primary schools. Also, most Nigerians are baffled and wondered why huge budgetary allocations to roads and electricity between 1999 and 2010 has not yielded better infrastructures. Nigerian Federal and State roads are mere death traps; electricity supply is more epileptic all over the country. The Nigerian public has no information on why such huge budgetary allocations for roads and electricity have not been used to construct good roads and improve power supply. Efforts of National Assembly to provide answers to what happened have resulted in numerous probes whose report is never made public. For example, the National Assembly's report on electricity has never been released years after its conclusion. The reason behind this is going to equity without clean hands which have remained a major challenge to the Nigerian National Assembly. It is disheartening to know that within the first six months in 2010, Nigeria imported more than \$100 million worth of generators, the highest in Africa (Adamolekun, 2011). Yet, government knows the saboteurs and is doing nothing to stop them.

In spite, of the military having returned to the barracks, the country does not yet function fully as a country under the rule of law. A country under the rule of law means that government in all its actions is bound by rules fixed and announced beforehand. Rule of law underpinned by an independent court system implies a predictable legal framework which serves as channel for settlement of conflicts between the state and individuals on the one hand and among individuals or groups on the other. Therefore, in order to restore confidence in the judiciary, the president should, as a matter of urgency, base ball appointments to the Court of Appeal and Supreme Court primarily on merit, competence and integrity, federal character should be used as a secondary consideration.

Corroborating Adamolekun's position is the statement credited to Sule Lamido, the executive governor of Jigawa state shortly after the Peoples Democratic Party (PDP) national convention which produced Alhaji Bamanga Tukur as the party's national chairman. Lamido cautioned the new leadership to chart a way forward on security and to create space for the younger generation. He went further to posit that the younger generation is expectant and must be motivated because there is so much despair in them. There are social problems like MEND, MOSSOP, MASSOB, Boko Haram etc. The question is what do we do? Because these are manifestations of a failed state (Akubo, 2012). Yet, free radicalism as witnessed today in Nigeria, is as a result of political and economic exclusion of the people.

Nigeria is widely acknowledged in the development literature as an example of a country where systemic corruption has been institutionalized. This is evidenced by the incidence of corruption in the country as given by Transparency International's Corruption Perception Index (CPI) which arguably is the world's most credible measure of both domestic and public sector corruption.

Table 1: Nigeria's Score Card on Corruption Perception Index (CPI) 1996-2011

Year	CPI	Score	Nigeria's CPI Ranking Remarks
1996	0.69	54/54	Most Corrupt Country
1997	1.78	52/52	Most Corrupt Country
1998	1.9	81/85	2 nd Most Corrupt Country
1999	1.6	98/99	2 nd Most Corrupt Country
2000	1.2	90/90	Most Corrupt Country
2001	1.0	90/91	2 nd Most Corrupt Country
2002	1.6	101/102	2 nd Most Corrupt Country
2003	1.4	132/133	2 nd Most Corrupt Country
2004	1.6	144/146	2 nd Most Corrupt Country
2005	1.9	152/159	3 rd Most Corrupt Country
2006	2.2	142/163	5 th Most Corrupt Country
2007	2.2	147/180	9 th Most Corrupt Country
2008	2.7	121/180	59 th Most Corrupt Country
2009	2.5	130/180	50 th Most Corrupt Country
2010	2.4	134/178	42 nd Most Corrupt Country
2011	2.4	143/183	143 Most Corrupt Country

Source: **CPI** (2012)

Evidence of Nigeria's rating by Transparency International Corruption Perception Index is the ongoing prosecution of a permanent secretary and five directors in the ministry of Finance over #14.5 billion naira pension fraud, and the stealing of #300 million naira in three months by a former Secretary to the Adamawa State Government, Mr. John Eddie Manassa (See The Nation, 2012), as well as the recent shameful exchange of verbal missiles between the Chairman of the House Committee on Capital Market, Herman Hembe and the Director-General of Security and Exchange Commission Ms. Arunma Oteh which the country and indeed the international community witnessed in the last weeks are all typical examples of corruption in the high places (Oke, 2012). Yet, the conviction and sentencing of former Delta State Governor, James Ibori to 13 years in prison by Southwark Crown Court in London after seven years of escaping from the long arms of the law enforcement agencies and the judiciary is a slight and shame on the Nigerian judicial system where Ibori was untouchable. Today, Ibori that was discharged and acquitted by an Asaba high court, pleaded guilty to all the same corruption charges leveled against him in Nigeria.

Also, worthy of mentioning is the recent report of Nigerian House of Representatives ad-hoc committee on the management of petroleum subsidy which established that the actual subsidy paid out by the federal government as at 31st December 2011 was #2.587 trillion against #245 billion appropriated in the 2011 budget. However, the committee noted with great dismay that over one trillion naira

of the said fuel subsidy was paid to fake and non existing contractors in collaboration with some staff of the regulatory agencies such as: Nigeria National Petroleum Corporation (NNPC) and Petroleum Products Price Regulation Agency (PPPRA). Corruption in Nigeria is now cancerous and has eaten deep into the fabrics of the society. This can only be tackled by a visionary, missionary and courageous leader.

Interface between Transformational Leadership and Development

One major index of social change today is indeed transformational leadership. No nation can boast of having achieved development if a large percentage of her inhabitants are still wallowing under abject poverty, want and adept in socio-economic penury (Akhakpe, Fatile and Igbokwe-Ibeto, 2012). Nigeria arguably boasts of some of the richest human and material resources in the world. These potentials in most cases lie fallow waiting to be harnessed for the benefit of its teeming population due to poor leadership. However, for these resources to be harnessed for the growth and development of the country and its people, visionary, exemplary and selfless leaders are needed.

In Nigeria, empirical evidence shows that underdevelopments have continued to wage on the people despite the enormous resources the country is endowed with. All developed countries in the world today have at one time or the other, had leaders who were able to take on challenges of growth and development in their respective countries as issues which must be overcome and did everything within their abilities to ensure that they subdued these challenges in order to pave the way for individuals and groups to actualize their innate potentials and abilities for societal transformation. Bass and Bass (2008), posit that thirty years of research and a number of meta-analyses indicate that transformational leadership positively predicts a wide variety of development and performance outcomes including individual, group and organizational level variables. They identified four elements of transformational leadership that can engender development to include:

Intellectual Stimulation

The degree and extent to which the leader challenges assumptions, takes risks and solicits followers' ideas cannot be overemphasized. Leaders with this style stimulate and encourage creativity in their followers. They nurture and develop people who think independently. For such a leader, learning is a value and unexpected situations are seen as opportunities to learn. The followers ask questions, think deeply about things and figure out better ways to execute their tasks.

Another element of transformational leadership is **idealized influence**. It provides a role model for high ethical behaviour, instills pride, gains respect and trust. The visionary aspects of leadership are supported by skills that make the vision understandable, precise, powerful and engaging. The followers are willing to invest more effort in their tasks; they are encouraged and optimistic about the future and believe in their abilities.

The degree to which the leader attends to each follower's needs, acts as a mentor or coach to the follower and listens to the follower's concerns and needs is known as **individualized consideration**. The leader gives empathy and support, keeps communication open and places challenges before the followers. This also encompasses the need for respect and celebrates the individual contribution that each follower can make to the team. The followers have a will and aspirations for self development and have intrinsic motivation for their tasks.

Yet, **Inspirational Motivation** has also been emphasized. The degree to which the leader articulates a vision that is appealing and inspiring to followers is critical if any degree of success is to be achieved. Leaders with inspirational motivation challenge followers with high standards, communicate optimism about future goals, and provide meaning for the task at hand. Followers need to have a strong sense of purpose if they are to be motivated to act. Purpose and meaning provide the energy that drives a group forward in any human endeavour. Will there be the necessary political will to carry on in these way? That is a litmus test for Jonathan's administration.

Jonathan's Transformational Leadership in Nigeria: Lessons from the Biblical Abraham

There are valuable lessons for individuals interested in deriving leadership lessons from Western literature (Clemens and Mayer, 1999). It is in the light of this development, that this section of the paper seeks to examine the leadership traits that Biblical Abraham possessed. These are traits useful to individuals desiring to become transformational leaders. For these researchers, the Bible is another source to examine in order to learn about positive and effective leadership. Histories of some earliest leaders are found in the Bible. Yet, the Bible is replete with stories of both successful and unsuccessful leaders. Some of the Biblical leaders were charismatic and others were quite uninspiring. Across the ages, many people -- both believers and nonbelievers -- have turned to the Bible for their role models, examples, and metaphors (Friedman and Langbert, 2000). Weber (1952) discussed the Biblical examples of prophets in his seminal works. This section interrogates the characteristics of a Biblical Abraham who arguably was the most successful transformational leader in the history of mankind.

The story of the Hebrews starts with Abraham, a simple and easy going man whose concern and feelings for the progress of mankind made him very popular and generous with his time. A clan chief who believed in one single God, Abraham left Ur and became the father of Nations (Genesis, 17:5). Abraham sowed the seeds that helped destroy paganism, planted the roots for the three major monotheistic religions (Judaism, Christianity, and Islam), and permanently changed the world with the ideas of monotheism, justice, and compassion. At least one-half of today's World has been influenced by Abraham's vision (Friedman and Langbert, 2000). It is not surprising that late Pope John Paul II expressed strong interest in visiting Ur (in Iraq), the birthplace of Abraham (Friedman and Langbert, 2000). An attempt to

locate this within the characteristics Abraham possesses that made him as capable as a transformational leader.

Abraham was humble: He was an individual of great humility. He referred to himself as "but dust and ashes" (Genesis, 18:27). When his wife Sarah passed away, Abraham approached the Hittites because he wanted to purchase a burial site. Abraham said regarding himself "I am an alien resident and settler among you" (Genesis, 23:4). The Hittites, however, knew who Abraham was and referred to him as a "Chieftain of God" (Genesis, 23:6). Abraham spoke to the Hittites with the greatest respect and even bowed down to them several times. He ultimately paid E'phron the Hittite the outrageous sum of 400 silver shekels for his land (Genesis, 23:14) while in Jeremiah (32:9) he paid only 7 shekels and 10 silver pieces for a similar parcel of land. Abraham knew what E'phron really wanted for the land since he stated the value while he was offering it for free. E'phron said to Abraham, in the presence of his fellow Hittites, "My lord, listen to me, a plot of land worth 400 silver shekels, what is that between me and you? Bury your dead" (Genesis, 23:14).

Abraham understood that E'phron was simply posturing and did indeed want 400 shekels; Abraham refused to take advantage of an offer that was not genuine.

When Abraham and his nephew Lot left Egypt they both had a considerable amount of cattle. Their respective shepherds began to quarrel because there was insufficient grazing land for the two herds. Abraham was a lover of peace and said to Lot "please let there be no quarrel between me and you and between my herdsmen and your herdsmen. Is not the whole land available to you? Please, separate from me. If you go to the left, then I will go to the right, but if you go to the right, then I will go to the left" (Genesis, 13:8-9). Abraham, though Lot's uncle and the head of the clan, was not arrogant and allowed his nephew to decide first in which direction to head. Arrogant people generally have difficulty providing subordinates with individual attention and often lack sensitivity to the needs of others. Clearly, some measure of humility is an important characteristic of transformational leaders. It is therefore no surprise that coldness and arrogance are some of the major reasons for leadership failure in Nigeria (See Nahavandi, 2000; Friedman and Langbert, 2000).

Abraham had a vision. His vision was to found a new Nation – the Promised Land, one where his descendents would live as a unified people believing in monotheism, concern for the helpless, and justice for all. Even though Jacob, Abraham's grandson, settled in Egypt, he wanted to be buried in the cave of Machpelah, the burial place of Abraham and Isaac. Jacob made Joseph swear that he would be buried in the Holy Land and was indeed buried there by Joseph and his brothers. He passed his love of the Holy Land on to all his children and we note that even Joseph made his brothers swear that they would bring his bones back to the Promised Land. In Joseph's words "I am dying but God will without fail turn His attention to you and He will certainly bring you up out of this land to the land about which He swore to Abraham, to Isaac, and to Jacob. God will surely remember you, and accordingly you must take my bones up out of here" (Genesis, 50:24-25). This

vision passed on from Abraham to Isaac to Jacob and to Jacob's children, sustained the Israelites through a bitter servitude in Egypt lasting many decades.

Abraham was a monotheist in a pagan society and spread the name of God wherever he traveled (Genesis, 12:8; Genesis, 13:4; Genesis, 13:18). Abraham planted a tamarisk tree at Beer-Sheba and there he proclaimed the name of Jehovah the indefinitely lasting God (Genesis, 21:33). It seems that the purpose of this tamarisk tree was to provide hospitality for travelers and to spread monotheism through the pagan ancient world (Friedman and Langbert, 2000). In fact, Abraham and Sarah used to invite strangers into their home and provide for them. After eating, they were encouraged to say grace to God. This approach enabled Abraham to spread monotheism and the values of hospitality and concern for others throughout the ancient world (Friedman and Langbert, 2000). It is not surprising that he was known in the ancient world as a "Chieftain of God" (Genesis, 23:6). Abraham not only had a vision but was also able to communicate this vision to his descendents living hundreds of generations later. Approximately two thousand years after his death, the Talmud states: "Whoever possesses the following three traits is of the disciples of our forefather Abraham: a good eye "(a generous nature), a humble spirit, and a modest soul (i.e., modest desires)" (Ethics of the Fathers, 5:19)

Abraham had courage and confidence; the Bible relates how Abraham mobilized his clan and, with only 318 people, waged war with four powerful kings in order to rescue his nephew Lot (Genesis, 14). Abraham was greatly outnumbered but pursued four powerful adversaries who had just soundly defeated five powerful kings (the Kings of Sodom and Gomorrah and three allies). After his defeat, the King of Sodom begged Abraham to give him souls and take all their goods, but Abraham said to the King "I lift up my hand in an oath to Jehovah the Most High God, producer of heaven and earth, that from a thread to a sandal lace, I shall not take anything that is yours" (Genesis, 23:21-23). Abraham was not only courageous but loyal to the members of his clan, even one who left to live in Sodom. Transformational leaders need courage to take risks and confidence to carry out their visions (Osofisan, 2012; Adamolekun, 2011).

Abraham cared about people and had a strong sense of justice; Abraham was the first person to tithe his possessions (Genesis, 14:20). Abraham was also extremely hospitable to strangers. The Bible relates that on one hot day, Abraham was sitting at his tent's entrance and noticed three strangers. He ran towards them and invited them to come to his home and "wash their feet" and eat a "morsel of bread" (Genesis, 18). Abraham did not offer them very much in order to make it easy for them to agree. Indeed, he provided them with bread, butter, milk, and a tender calf. Moreover, Abraham stood over them and acted as host and waiter. Abraham was an elderly man, yet the Bible states "and Abraham hastened to the tent". Abraham ran to the cattle (Genesis, 18:6, 18:7), when they left, the verse states that "Abraham went with them to send them on their way" (Genesis, 18:16). Abraham even showed his guests the courtesy of escorting them. His nephew, Lot, also

practiced hospitality in Sodom, a place that was violently opposed to treating strangers with hospitality (Genesis, 19).

Abraham's concern for others was also manifested when he heard that God intended to destroy Sodom and Gomorrah. Abraham was so upset that he dared to ask God "Is the Judge of all the earth not going to do what is right"? (Genesis, 18:25). Abraham: 'What if there are 50 innocent people in the city? Will you still destroy it? God answered: 'If I find 50 innocent people in Sodom, I will spare the entire area.' Abraham: 'Suppose there are 45? God: 'I will not destroy it if I find 45'. Abraham: 'What if there are 40? God: 'I will not act if there are forty' (Genesis, 18:20-33).

As this conversation continued, Abraham proposed and God agreed to allow for 30, 20, 10 in succession, until Abraham finally gave up presumably because 10 innocent ones could not be found in those evil towns. If Sodom and Gomorrah had ten righteous individuals, the cities would have been spared. Unfortunately, ten innocent people could not be found in the entire city of Sodom, and it was destroyed (Genesis, 18: 23-33).

This story of Abraham's "haggling" God to save Sodom and Gomorra from destruction demonstrates great humanity and great love for people and an optimistic nature. Abraham could not believe that some people were so wicked that they were hopeless. A transformational leader cares for his followers and is nurturing and supportive no matter the situation (Osofisan, 2012; Black and Porter, 2000; Nahavandi, 2000; Ross and Offerman, 1997).

Abraham had charisma. Charismatic leaders have the ability to influence others because of their inspirational qualities. The Greek word *kharisma* means 'divine gift' (Friedman and Langbert, 2000) and individuals with charisma have the power to secure the devotion of large numbers of people. It has been argued that the followers of charismatic leaders make attributions of heroic and extraordinary abilities to them after observing certain behaviours; they are the inspiration of their followers, and are themselves models of the desired behaviours (Conger and Kanungo, 1988)

Abraham had the ultimate divine gift since God assured him that "I shall make a great nation out of you and shall bless you, I will bless those that bless you and him that calls down evil upon you I shall curse and all the families of the ground will certainly bless themselves by means of you" (Genesis, 12:3). Moreover, almost over four thousand years after his death, he is still a role model for billions of people. His burial place, the cave of Machpelah in Hebron, is a holy place that is visited by hundreds of individuals every day. Abraham was obviously able to attract a following and, as noted above, 318 people joined him in dangerous battle against four powerful kings. The Hittites respected him and referred to Abraham as a "Prince of God". His followers were very loyal to him and Abraham was able to send his servant with ten camels laden with goods to a distant country without worrying that the

servant would abscond with his property (Genesis, 24). His servant did an excellent job of finding a wife for his master's son and brought back Rebecca.

Abraham must have been quite influential since even King Abimelech and his captain, Phicol, desired to make an alliance with him. Their primary reason for wanting an alliance with Abraham was because "God is with him in all that he did" (Genesis, 21:22-33). Apparently, Abraham, the man from Ur, was so well known and revered throughout the world that even a king wanted to make a covenant with him.

Abraham was willing to make sacrifices for his beliefs; the story of Abraham's test, in which God asked him to sacrifice his beloved son Isaac, indicated Abraham's willingness to make a personal sacrifice for God (Genesis, 22). It is interesting to note Abraham's reaction after being told by an angel of God saying "Lay not your hand upon the lad nor do anything to him for now I know that you are a God-fearing man" (Genesis, 22:12). Abraham did not speak to his son, but "lifted up his eyes and saw, and looked, and behold behind him a ram". Abraham was looking for another offering since he was totally dedicated to God. A transformational leader must show total commitment not minding what it costs.

What was the reason for this trial of Abraham? This may have been God's way of indicating to Abraham that spreading monotheism would require great sacrifice on the part of believers. Indeed, it took thousands of martyrs before monotheism prevailed over paganism. Charismatic transformational leaders must be willing to make sacrifices on behalf of the country or an organization (Black and Porter, 2000). Yet, transformational leaders must motivate followers to sacrifice their own self-interests for the greater good (Osofisan, 2012; Northouse, 1997).

Abraham was a person who was willing to make a great sacrifice and that is why he proved that he was the right choice as the first patriarch. Throughout the centuries, Abraham's followers – believers in monotheism – also made great sacrifices to spread his values in a pagan world. Abraham dared to be different. He was a change agent; it is often dangerous to be different from the people around you. Abraham's clan was distinct unlike the people that surrounded them. Nigerian must also be willing to make sacrifice for peace, stability and development of the country.

Abraham's view of hospitality to strangers was also the diametrical opposite of the philosophy of Sodom and Gomorrah, places that hated strangers. Sodomite "hospitality" involved raping strangers entering their country. Abraham showed hospitality to strangers by personally serving them (Genesis, 19:4-5). Strangers were not treated well in much of the ancient world and this was exemplified in fear of Abraham when traveling with his wife to Egypt. He was afraid that he would be killed so that his wife could be stolen away (Genesis, 12:11-13). This is instructive in the current wave of ethno-religious crisis in parts of the country where non muslim residents and strangers are asked to live for their state of origin

Transformational leaders are change agents that have the ability to completely alter the direction of a society or an organization (Northouse, 1997). Abraham not

only dared to be different in his own time, but also changed the religious direction of mankind. This calls for attention of religious leaders in Nigeria.

Conclusion and Implications for Leaders

We commenced the paper by taking a look at the meaning of leadership in general, and transformational leadership in particular, relying on the views of various authors. We are relying on the various definitions of the authors because the summarized views taken together agrees with the position that leadership is both the adhesive that bind a work group together and the catalyst that triggers subordinates followership, thereby having a major influence on organizational performance (Bedeian quoted in Ujo, 1999).

The definition of leadership based on the transformational leadership theory enables us to have basis for accessing President Jonathan's qualities as regards his transformation agenda in Nigeria. What constitutes a transformational leadership/change agent which our literature review examined is also relevant because our thesis is on change agent. A brighter picture of transformational leadership in Nigeria which is the concern of the paper was presented through Weber's theory of charisma with special reference to Biblical Abraham.

To scientifically undertake the objectives of the study, this paper traversed theoretical framework, conceptualizations, and discussed dominant issues in leadership. These were followed by analysis of critical areas that deserve urgent attention in Nigeria. These issues bordered on electoral legitimacy, peace and security, education, infrastructure, rule of law and anti-corruption.

Abraham spread the belief in a single God in a world filled with paganism. Today's world has been dramatically changed because Abraham spread monotheism and the concomitant philosophy of caring for one's fellow human being. His philosophy eventually became institutionalized as the law of "you shall love your fellow as yourself" (Leviticus, 19:18). What traits did many of the influential Biblical leaders, especially Abraham, possess? The same characteristics that any transformational leader needs to change a society or an organization: a vision, charisma, confidence, courage, a willingness to be different, concern for others, and a willingness to make great sacrifices for one's vision.

Yet, Abraham's philosophies can serve as a paradigm or touchstone for the successful leadership of today and may be summarized as: vision, courage, confidence, caring about people, a love for humanity; hospitality, generosity, a strong sense of justice, humility, charisma, a willingness to make sacrifices for one's beliefs, daring to be different from the establishment and a change agent.

Leaders in whatever capacity who wish to be successful transformational leaders should study the character of Abraham, and of the other great Biblical leaders, and learn what it takes to communicate a new vision to their immediate society in particular and the world in general, a vision that would dramatically change mankind. Changing a society is probably going to be a very difficult task than

changing a firm. The leadership traits needed are those possessed by many of the Biblical leaders.

Citizens should demand accountability from Jonathan, especially in view of the high expectations of millions of Nigerians. Without equity and justice, there will never be peace in Nigeria between the ethnic nationalities despite an ethnic minority being president. We believe the citizens should be ready to engage themselves in forcing those in government to listen to their cries. Yet, the press must wake up to its role as watchdog of the country and citizens' interests by availing themselves with opportunities provided by the freedom of information Act 2011.

It is our humble opinion that it seems President Goodluck Ebele Jonathan has never been unemployed since graduation from the university in the early 1980's, a situation where millions of Nigerian graduates are unemployed or underemployed with no hope of getting a job, calls for urgent attention especially if the present security challenges facing the country is to be tackled. Thus, it is only a visionary, missionary and courageous (transformational) leader that can ignite such change machinery. Can Jonathan kick the ball rolling? The score card of his administration come 2015 will answer this question.

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THE EFFECT OF CULTURAL DIVERSITY ON EMPLOYEE PRODUCTIVITY IN WORK ORGANIZATIONS IN PORT HARCOURT, NIGERIA

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Abstract

The thrust of this study is the investigation of the impact of cultural differences on the productivity of employees within organizations. Developments in science and technology have made it possible for modern work organizations to have people of variegated cultural backgrounds working together as employees. This variety in cultural background or cultural diversity creates challenges in the workplace which lead to conflicts and affect team work when not properly managed. This study sheds light therefore on how differences in cultural orientations can affect the productivity of employees and organizations. This usually arises because organizations channel most of their efforts to improving workers' skills and knowledge to the detriment of employees' daily organizational experience, in terms of cultural differences. The quantitative research method was adopted for data collection. Chi-square analysis was used to test the hypotheses formulated and the findings presented and discussed. The findings show that cultural diversity significantly affects the ability of employees to build or work in teams. This consequently affects their productivity. Since conflict arising from cultural differences wastes time and reduces employee morale, this study recommends that organizations should strive to create organizational culture that not only incorporates and enhances the cultural diversity of its workforce composition, but also enables employees to build relationships and acknowledge each other regardless of their differences of origin and background.

Keywords: Culture, Cultural Diversity, Employees, Organizations, Productivity.

Introduction

As in other parts of the world, organisations in Nigeria have increasingly become profit driven. This drive is primarily because organizations that do not make profit usually find it difficult to survive in the competitive economy of the 21st century. Central to this profit drive in organizations are the employees or human capital whose skills are required to manipulate other organizational resources (financial and material) and convert them into goods and services. This centrality of employees in work organizations has as such elevated the benefits of efficiency as tools of productivity (Bontis 1999, Iheriohanma 2008). Hence, the recurring theme in current organizational literature has been in the area of human capital development, especially skills development. As a result, less attention has been paid to some other employee challenges in the work organization which also affect their productivity such as diversity. This diversity encompasses race, gender, ethnic group, age, personality, cognitive style, tenure, organizational function, education, background and more. This study focuses on cultural diversity among employees in modern work organizations.

Taylor (1956) defines culture as "that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society". Relying on the above definition, cultural diversity of the labour force is increasingly becoming a reality in most countries. The social composition of employees within work organizations is changing all over the world. Just as rapid scientific and technological development has brought about radical changes in modern work organizations, it has also increased the ability of people from diverse cultural origins to migrate from their places of origin to urban cities to seek employment. In addition, modern education has limited the concentration of particular skills and trade within particular cultures or territories. It has also opened up opportunities for people from different cultures to acquire similar skills and training as the school curriculum is usually streamlined within (and sometimes across) a national boundary. Therefore, wider opportunities exist for employees from diverse cultural backgrounds to acquire skill sets which facilitate their employment into work organizations in which employees from other cultural backgrounds are also employed. Hence, most modern organizations employ people whose cultural origins and orientations differ significantly. In other words, cultural diversity has become a common-place reality in the employee make-up of most organizations.

Ogunbameru (2004:4) defines an organisation as "a collection of people, who with consciously co-coordinated efforts, pursue and contribute to the attainment of a common purpose". Akanwa and Ohiri (2003:71) observe that "through an organisation, one can enlarge one's ability and do work more efficiently than one could if one had to work without associating with others". Hence an organisation is regarded as the single most important factor in establishing and sustaining

productive work habits. Organizations exist to produce goods and services and thus, productivity has become "a central theme in the work environment" (Alugbuo 2004:102). Productivity represents the economic value of what is produced by an employee which in turn serves as fuel to organizational growth. This view is supported by Olabosipo et al (2004) in their assertion that "high productivity is a goal that ensures the long-term survival of organizations". Hence, a productive organization could be said to be a progressive organization.

On cultural diversity, Powell and Persico (1995) opine that it is "the representation, in one social system, of people with distinctly different group affiliations of cultural significance". This distinction encompasses differences in cultural values, attitudes, practices, philosophy, etc among a group of people in a given environment. Therefore, in organizations, heterogeneity of culture derives mostly from the ethnic origin, language, orientations and religion of employees which affect how individual employees perceive self and others and ultimately, their interactions with other employees in the work place. The existence of such cultural diversity in an industrializing, multi-cultural society such as Nigeria translates to a culturally diverse workforce.

Since modern work organizations are usually highly concentrated in mainly urban areas, workers are usually compelled to migrate to such urban centres even outside their cultural sphere in search of work. Hence, the past two decades witnessed a phenomenal and unprecedented migration of large numbers of job seekers of diverse cultural orientations from the cultural areas to the cosmopolitan cities in Nigeria. Evidence of this can be seen in the geometrical increase in the population of the urban cities in Nigeria especially Lagos, Abuja, Kano and Port Harcourt. Hence, Aworemi et al (2011) assert that "there had been a tremendous expansion of urban areas consequent to the rapid rural-urban migration ". They added further that "in 1974, rural population was 75% of the total population but by 2001, urban population had assumed a high dimension of 45% of the total population of the country". In these urban cities, employees with diverse cultural leanings find themselves seeking employment and working alongside employees with differing cultural origins.

In view of the above stated, Hong and Page (2001 and 2004) argue that "ethnic diversity can be beneficial to the organizations' performance through better decision making and improved problem solving". This study therefore aims to analyse the effect of cultural diversity on employee's performance within organisations in Nigeria.

For the purposes of this study, the following concepts would be used as interpreted below:

Culture refers to that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society.

Cultural Diversity is used to refer to the representation, in one social system, of people with distinctly different group affiliations of cultural significance.

Employees refer to a group of people who work in an organization to produce value (goods and services) under a contract of employment in return for wages.

Organisation is used to refer to intentionally structured human groupings in which work is done and set goals and objectives are accomplished.

Productivity refers to the measure of how much value individual employees add to the goods or services which an organisation produces.

Statement of the Problem

As the importance of productivity in the organizational context increases, organizations invest large resources in improving the skills and aptitudes of their employees. By so doing, other aspects of the work environment that affect an employee's performance are relegated to positions of insignificance with little or no regard as to their impact on employee morale and efficiency. Hence, despite the existence of cultural differences in the work place, organizations still concentrate on human capital development activities that do not incorporate the need to address the issue of cultural diversity.

Since work organizations usually channel their efforts towards increased performance and profit maximization, the other spectrum of the employees' daily organizational experience, in terms of cultural differences, is usually ignored. Little effort appears to be made toward having a deep respect and understanding of the simmering tensions among employees arising from cultural differences in an organization. In addition, management usually ignores how this affects employee interactions, team-building activities, teamwork and interpersonal communication. This work aims to review the effect of cultural diversity on the ability of employees to retain high morale and produce optimally. The focus is on three selected organizations in Port Harcourt, Nigeria.

Research Questions

The following questions are formulated to aid in this investigation. These include:

1. Do cultural differences exist among employees working within organizations in Port Harcourt, Nigeria?
2. Do differences in culture affect team-work in organizations in Port Harcourt, Nigeria?
3. Does cultural diversity improve productivity in organizations in Port Harcourt, Nigeria?

Objective of the Study

This study has as its general objective the analysis of the effect of differences in cultural origin and orientations on the ability of workers to maintain high morale and produce optimally.

In its specifics, the study aims:

- 1) To ascertain the existence of cultural differences among employees working within organizations in Port Harcourt, Nigeria.
- 2) To investigate the impact of cultural differences on team-work in organizations in Port Harcourt, Nigeria.
- 3) To examine the relationship between cultural differences and employee productivity in organizations in Port Harcourt, Nigeria.

Hypotheses

1. Ho 1: Cultural differences do not significantly exist among employees working within organizations in Port Harcourt.
2. Ho 2: Team-work is not significantly affected by cultural differences among employees in organizations in Port Harcourt.
3. Ho 3: Cultural differences do not have any significant negative impact on employee productivity in organizations in Port Harcourt.

Significance of the Study/Rationale

Theoretically, this study contributes to the body of knowledge in that it shows that in this era of Information and Communications Technology (ICT) and rapid globalization, organizations increasingly employ workers from heterogeneous cultures. It further highlights that when this heterogeneity is not properly managed, the impact can affect the level of performance of employees in terms of their productivity. It also attempts to show that organizations that are able to manage culturally diverse workforce will derive the benefits of increased employee satisfaction and commitment as well as improved performance in a world that is fast becoming culturally diffused but sensitive.

Practically, it derives its significance from the reality that organizations which are able to create work environments in which cultural differences among employees are properly harnessed and synthesized usually enable their employees improve their potentials, maximize their efficiency and improve productivity. It will serve as a signpost to the management of organizations, which aim to create work environments in which culturally heterogeneous employees are encouraged, to bring fresh ideas and perceptions that can effectively enhance the way employees do their work and improve their products and services. It will also enable management understand and manage cultural diversity among employees, nurture their creativity

and innovation as well as tap their innate capacities for efficiency which will translate to organizational growth and improved competitiveness.

Theoretical Framework

The social cohesion theory is adopted in this study. According to Maxwell (1996:3), "social cohesion is the building of shared values and communities of interpretation, reducing disparities.... and generally enabling people to have a sense that they are engaged in common enterprise, facing shared challenges, and that they are members of the same community". A socially cohesive group or society is one in which "the members share common values which enable them to identify common aims and objectives, and share a common set of moral principles and codes of behaviour through which to conduct their relations with one another" (Kearns and Forrest, 2000: 997). Social cohesion, the outcome of social and physiological processes which link individuals into social system also occurs in group interactions in organizations.

Social cohesion, when achieved, enables employees in an organization to work with tolerance for differences on a day-to-day basis across the organization with everyone contributing his best. It reduces the divisions of cultural and other social diversities while enabling employees develop bonds which link them to one another and to the work team as a whole. When the divisions are reduced, employees achieve synergy. This synergy is the constructive power of teamwork and is only attained when employees overcome differences in culture that set them apart and working as individuals. Absence of the ability to cohere creates conflicting dispositions in employees and greatly undermines their ability to work as a team. When employees in organizations are unable to build strong work teams, cooperation becomes difficult and their productivity is affected. This is because group coordination errors or poor group efficiency occur in the absence of group cohesion and this leads to reduction in performance and productivity of employees.

Methodology

The study primarily focuses on the effect of cultural differences within organizations on employees' productivity especially in major urban cities. Port Harcourt is selected as the study area since it is among the largest, industrialized cosmopolitan areas of Nigeria. It also adequately encompasses the diversity of the Nigerian cultures as people from the various ethnic origins are easily found within its territories.

The research method primarily adopted in this study is the quantitative research method. This method is considered appropriate based on the subject matter and the need to produce quantitative, reliable data that can be generalized to a larger population. Because of the empirical nature of the study, the survey method is employed in the collection of primary data for analysis. The questionnaire is specifically designed to solicit information concerning the effects of cultural differences within an organization on productivity.

The population of this study is the employees of Associated Telecoms And Electronics Limited (Assotel), Multinet Systems and Daatim Nigeria Limited. These companies are situated in Port Harcourt. While the first two companies deal primarily on fast moving commodity goods, the third company is a consultancy that specializes on provision of business solutions to companies. Information concerning the staff strength and staff composition was obtained from the Human Resources Department of the companies after the necessary permission was granted. The total population of the Assotel is about 51 employees. Multinet Systems has a total population of about 40 employees while Daatim has 43 employees. Hence, a total of 134 employees work in these companies. Of this number, about 118 employees have worked for periods of up to six months and above. This constitutes the actual population for this study. Hundred (100) copies of questionnaires were randomly administered to a sample size of 100 (about 85%) employees out of which 93 questionnaires were returned properly filled. It is important to note that all the companies are private organizations and as such, those on and above the positions of general managers were excluded from the sample population. This is to reduce bias which may influence the outcome of this study since they may have personal stakes in these companies.

The Likert 5-point scale was adopted in the development of 10 close-ended questions in the questionnaire for easy interpretation. The structuring of the questionnaire was done in order to guide against unnecessary deviation by respondents. Simple percentages were used in analysing data collected. The Chi-Square test of significance was used to weigh the evidence suggested by the data before conclusions were drawn. Qualitative data were collected from secondary sources such as textbooks, journals and other published works to support the findings of this study.

Data Presentation

Table 1: Distribution and Collection of Questionnaire

	Assotel	Multinet	Daatim	Total
Number of questionnaire distributed	34	33	33	100
Number of questionnaire returned properly filled	30	32	31	93
Number of questionnaire returned not properly filled	4	1	2	7
% number of questionnaire returned properly filled	88.24%	96.96%	93.933%	93%
% number of questionnaire returned not properly filled	11.76%	3.03%	6.06%	7%

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Table one shows that of the 100 questionnaire distributed, 93 were properly filled. Seven questionnaires were rejected because of the multiple errors in the filling. The 93 properly filled questionnaires represent 93% of the total questionnaires retrieved in the three companies. The analysis of data collected was made based on this figure.

Table 2: Background Characteristics of Respondents

Characteristics	Classification	Assotel	Multinet	Daatim	Total	Total%
Sex	Male	3	5	8	16	17.2%
	Female	27	27	23	77	82.8%
	Total	30	32	31	93	100%
Age	18-25	10	7	8	25	26.9%
	26-35	14	13	12	39	41.9%
	36-45	6	11	10	27	29.0%
	46 and Above	0	1	1	2	2.2%
	Total	30	32	31	93	100%
Highest Educational Qualification	WASC/GCE	5	4	2	11	11.8%
	NCE/OND	12	11	8	31	33.3%
	DEGREE/HND	13	17	19	49	52.7%
	MSC/PHD	0	0	2	2	2.15%
	Total	30	32	31	93	100%
Number of Months Worked	6-12 Months	7	6	3	16	17.2%
	13-24 Months	12	14	11	37	39.8%
	25-36 Months	7	9	15	31	33.3%
	37 Months/Above	4	3	2	9	9.7%
	Total	30	32	31	93	100%
Tribe	Yoruba	2	1	4	7	7.53%
	Igbo	15	13	9	37	39.78%
	Efik	7	8	4	19	20.43%
	Ijaw	1	2	3	6	6.45%
	Ikwerre	2	2	5	9	9.68%
	Ogoni	0	1	3	4	4.30%
	Anioma (Delta)	1	2	2	5	5.38%
	Igalla	2	3	1	6	6.45%
	Total	30	32	31	93	100%

Source: Field Survey, 2013

From Table 2 above, 17.2% of the respondents are male while 82.8% are female. With regards to age, 26.9% of the employees fall within the age range of 18 - 25 while 41.9%, 29.0% and 2.2% were within 26 - 35, 36 – 45 and 46 and above years respectively. In terms of academic qualification, those who posses WAEC/GCE

constitute 11.8%, NCE/OND 33.3%, HND/Degree 52.7% and M.Sc/Ph.D 2.15%.

Respondents who have worked for periods of 6 – 12 months constitute 17.2% of total respondents while 39.8% have worked for periods of 13 – 24 months. Those who have worked for 25 – 36 months total 33.3% and those who have worked above 37 months constitute 9.7%. Of the total respondents, 7.53% are Yoruba, 39.78% are Igbo, 20.43% are Efik, 6.45% are Ijaw, 9.68% are Ikwerre, 4.30% are Ogoni, 5.38% are Anioma (Delta) and 6.45% Igalla.

Test of Hypotheses

Three hypotheses were generated and were tested in this study based on the respondents' opinion obtained from the research instrument. Hence, questions 1, 5 and 8 were used in testing the hypotheses. Chi-square analysis was used to test the hypotheses and the summary of the analyses presented below.

Hypothesis I

Ho 1: Cultural differences do not significantly exist among employees working within organizations in Port Harcourt.

Table 3.1: Cultural differences exist among employees within the organization I work for in Port Harcourt.

Options	SA	A	U	D	SD	Total
Assotel	5	16	4	4	1	30
Multinet	8	18	0	6	0	32
Daatim	7	19	2	3	0	31
Total	20	53	6	13	1	93

Source: Field Survey, 2013.

Table 3.2: Calculation of Observed and Expected Frequencies for Hypothesis I

Options	SA	A	U	D	SD	Total
Assotel	25 (30.81)	64 (65.32)	12 (5.55)	8 (8.01)	1 (0.31)	110
Multinet	40 (34.73)	72 (73.64)	0 (6.25)	12 (9.03)	0 (0.35)	124
Daatim	35 (34.45)	76 (73.04)	6 (6.20)	6 (8.96)	0 (0.34)	123
Total	100	212	18	26	1	357

Source: Field Survey, 2013.

Table 3.3 Chi-Square Test of Hypothesis I

Ob	Ex	Ob-Ex	(Ob – Ex) ²	$\frac{(Ob - Ex)^2}{Ex}$
25	30.81	-5.81	33.76	1.1
40	34.73	5.27	27.77	0.8
35	34.45	0.55	0.30	0.01
64	65.32	-1.32	1.74	0.03
72	73.64	-1.64	2.69	0.04
76	73.04	2.96	8.76	0.02
12	5.55	6.45	41.60	7.5
0	6.25	6.25	39.06	6.25
6	6.20	-0.20	0.04	0.20
8	8.01	0.01	0.00	0.00
12	9.03	2.97	8.82	0.98
6	8.96	-2.96	8.76	0.98
1	0.31	0.69	0.48	1.55
0	0.35	-0.35	0.12	0.34
0	0.34	-0.34	0.12	0.34
				X² = 20.14

From table 3.3, at 5% (0.05) level of significance and 8 degree of freedom, X^2 tabulated = 15.5 and the calculated is 20.14. Since the tabulated value of 15.5 is less than the calculated value of 20.14, we reject H_0 1. Therefore, cultural differences significantly exist among employees working within organizations in Port Harcourt.

Hypothesis II

Ho 2: Team-work is not significantly affected by cultural differences among employees in organizations in Port Harcourt.

Table 4.1: Cultural differences among employees reduce team building and team work

Options	SA	A	U	D	SD	Total
Assotel	2	9	4	8	7	30
Multinet	14	11	1	5	1	32
Daatim	8	11	1	3	8	31
Total	24	31	6	16	16	93

Source: Field Survey, 2013.

Table 4.2 Calculation of Observed and Expected Frequencies for Hypothesis II

Options	SA	A	U	D	SD	Total
Assotel	10 (31.35)	36 (32.4)	12 (4.70)	16 (8.36)	7 (4.18)	81
Multinet	70 (49.55)	44 (51.2)	3 (7.43)	10 (13.21)	1 (6.61)	128
Daatim	40 (39.10)	44 (40.4)	3 (5.86)	6 (10.43)	8 (5.21)	101
Total	120	124	18	32	16	310

Source: Field Survey, 2013.

Table 4.3 Chi-Square Test of Hypothesis II

Ob	Ex	Ob-Ex	(Ob – Ex) ²	$\frac{(Ob - Ex)^2}{Ex}$
10	31.35	-21.35	455.82	14.54
70	49.55	20.45	418.20	8.44
40	39.1	0.9	0.81	0.02
36	32.4	3.6	12.96	0.4
44	51.2	-7.2	51.84	1.01
44	40.4	3.6	12.96	0.32
12	4.70	7.3	53.29	11.34
3	7.43	-4.43	19.62	2.64
3	5.86	-2.86	8.18	1.4
16	8.36	7.64	58.37	6.98
10	13.21	-3.21	10.30	0.78
6	10.43	-4.43	19.62	1.88
7	4.18	2.82	7.95	1.90
1	6.61	5.61	31.47	4.76
8	5.21	2.79	7.78	1.49
				X² = 57.9

From table 4.3, at 5% (0.05) level of significance and 8 degree of freedom, X² tabulated = 15.5 and the calculated is 57.9. Since the tabulated value of 15.5 is less

than the calculated value of 57.9, we reject H_0 , 2. Therefore, team-work is significantly affected by cultural differences among employees in organizations in Port Harcourt.

Hypothesis III

Ho 3: Cultural differences do not have any significant negative impact on employee productivity in organizations in Port Harcourt.

Table 5.1: Working with co-workers from different cultural backgrounds has enhanced my performance.

Options	SA	A	U	D	SD	Total
Assotel	2	6	2	5	15	30
Multinet	0	7	1	6	18	32
Daatim	3	6	0	8	14	31
Total	5	19	3	19	47	93

Source: Field Survey, 2013.

Table 5.2: Calculation of Observed and Expected Frequencies for Hypothesis III

Options	SA	A	U	D	SD	Total
Assotel	10 (8.73)	24 (26.56)	6 (3.15)	10 (13.28)	14 (16.42)	65
Multinet	0 (8.20)	28 (24.92)	3 (2.95)	12 (12.46)	18 (15.41)	61
Daatim	15 (8.06)	24 (24.52)	0 (2.90)	16 (12.26)	14 (15.16)	60
Total	25	76	9	38	47	186

Source: Field Survey, 2013.

Table 5.3: Chi-Square Test of Hypothesis III

Ob	Ex	Ob-Ex	$(Ob - Ex)^2$	$\frac{(Ob - Ex)^2}{Ex}$
10	8.73	1.27	1.61	0.18
0	8.20	-8.20	67.24	8.2

15	8.06	6.94	48.16	5.98
24	26.56	-2.56	6.55	0.25
28	24.92	3.08	9.49	0.38
24	24.52	-0.52	0.27	0.01
6	3.15	2.85	8.12	2.58
3	2.95	0.05	0.00	0.00
0	2.90	-2.9	8.41	2.9
10	13.28	-3.28	10.76	0.81
12	12.46	-0.46	0.21	0.02
16	12.26	3.74	13.99	1.14
15	16.42	-1.42	2.02	0.12
18	15.41	2.59	6.71	0.44
14	15.16	-1.16	1.35	0.09
				X² = 23.1

From table 5.3, at 5% (0.05) level of significance and 8 degree of freedom, X^2 tabulated is 15.5 and the calculated is 23.1. Since the tabulated value of 15.5 is less than the calculated value of 23.1, we reject H_0 , 3. Therefore, cultural differences do have significant negative impact on employee productivity in organizations in Port Harcourt.

Discussion of Findings

Based on the analysis on the above chi-square results of 20.14, 57.9, and 23.1 respectively on the three hypotheses tested, it is evident that (i) Cultural differences significantly exist among employees working within organizations in Port Harcourt, Nigeria (ii) Team-work is significantly affected by cultural differences among employees in organizations in Port Harcourt Nigeria and, (iii) Cultural differences have significant negative impact on employee productivity in organizations in Port Harcourt, Nigeria.

The findings show that cultural diversity not only involves how employees perceive themselves, but how they perceive other employees. These perceptions affect their interactions. The respondents are not happy that other employees discriminate against them on the basis of their cultural differences. This makes it difficult for them to feel valued and appreciated. Their morale, in terms of their work relationships within the organization is affected and the satisfaction they derive from coming to work depreciates. Cultural differences define individual employees' uniqueness regardless of tribe, culture, beliefs, and values. Therefore, if these differences are not properly managed, they become obstacles to good working relationships, lead to conflict, dysfunction and wasted man-hours. Hence, it is a

source of controversial, counterproductive and conflict-prone work environments in organizations.

The findings also show that as cultural differences create conflicts and misunderstanding among employees, it also creates stress and frustration as employees begin to feel they are placed at the mercy of cultural values and beliefs not their own. This usually results in tension among the employees. As such, when work teams are made up of employees from different cultural background, mistrust and misunderstanding arise especially when members of the team display ethnocentric tendencies. In the organizations sampled, it has created a less inclusive and supportive work environment, poor team building capacities and relatively weak team work. This must have prompted Lazear (1999) to observe that "ethnic-cultural diversity may affect an organizations performance negatively as it may (i) hinder potential knowledge transfers among workers due to linguistic and cultural barriers, (ii) reduce peer pressure by weakening social ties and trust among them, and (iii) create non-pecuniary disutility of joining or remaining in a demographically diverse firm. Along the same vein, Glaeser et. al. (2000), and Alesina and La Ferrara (2002) emphasized that "people often distrust members of other ethnic groups and tend to prefer interacting in culturally homogeneous communities". Under an organizational atmosphere of distrust, team work becomes difficult to be veritably attained and the productivity of each employee becomes relatively reduced.

Implications of Cultural Diversity on Employee Productivity in Work Organizations

This study has been undertaken to find out the effect of cultural diversity on employee productivity in work organizations in Port Harcourt, Nigeria.

McArthur (2010) asserts that "businesses that fail to successfully manage diversity will suffer economic and social consequences. A workplace culture that allows low morale, employee turnover, harassment, discrimination, absenteeism, and disruption to work teams results in a loss of productivity. When individuals are marginalized or isolated by their co-workers and/or managers because of cultural differences, the outcome is also loss of productivity. This study therefore concludes that differences in norms, values, attitudes, practices, philosophy need to be overcome for cultural diversity to become a tool for increasing productivity.

As mentioned earlier, cultural diversity not only involves how people perceive themselves, but how they perceive others. Those perceptions affect their interactions. Ineffective communication of key objectives deriving from cultural differences results in confusion, lack of teamwork propensities, low morale and low productivity. For a wide assortment of employees to function effectively as an organization, human resource managers need to deal effectively with issues such as communication, adaptability and change. Those aspects of cultural diversity which create tension should be revisited so as to formulate policies that will ameliorate their influence on employees.

Cultural diversity will increase significantly in the coming years. This is informed as a result of the effects of globalization, Information and Communications Technology (ICT), competitive and knowledge economy and some other underground problems arising from the effects of the facilitators of globalization; their cause and effect relationship and synergy with work in organization and the economy. Informed organizations have recognized the need for immediate action and are already expanding energy and resources on managing cultural diversity in their workplace now. They recognize that a culturally diverse workforce not only enables an organization better anticipate the needs of its increasingly diverse consumer base but also, is more adaptable to change, more innovative and more open to new ideas. An organization's success and competitiveness depends upon its ability to embrace cultural diversity and realize the benefits. When organizations actively assess their handling of cultural diversity issues, develop and implement cultural diversity plans, multiple benefits become the outcome. This enables organizations to formulate diversity programmes that incorporate the diverseness of each individual employee which in turn induces more commitment and productivity in their respective roles.

"The cohesiveness of a social group has much to do with whether members of such group decide to promote or subvert its corporate interests especially in situations involving highly visible and broadly engaging matters such as leadership, transitions, crises, significant policy shifts, or moral issues" (Friedkin 2004). This decision will in turn determine the extent of their identification with, and participation in the group (Cartwright 1968). Friedkin (2004) further notes "that when contrasted with a group with a low level of cohesiveness, a highly cohesive group will have more members who are strongly motivated by any number of factors (personal or group ambition, ideology or interests) to contribute to the group's welfare, advance its objectives, and participate actively in activities that will procure collective benefits". Some employees pursue narrow, self-serving interests, and maintain poor work relations with other employees within the organization as a result their susceptibilities to the influence of cultural differences. This translates to a lack of commitment to the team-working.

Organizations need differences, need debate, need people to challenge, need honesty but organizations do not need conflict and dis-cohesion arising from cultural diversity. Conflicts arising from cultural factors eat into time, affect employee engagement and morale, and reduce organizational profits as a result of fallen levels in productivity. It is detrimental to organizational goals. This therefore makes pertinent that organizations begin to recognize the economic consequences, when cultural diversity is inadequately managed, to their business in terms of low morale, productivity decrease, etc. This will enable such organizations realize the need to develop effective cultural diversity management strategies and the best ways to implement these strategies.

Conclusion

In a world in which globalization (which more or less subtly infers trans-national economic competition and domination of foreign goods and services) has become the order, organizations in Nigeria have pathetically failed to tap into the benefits of its multicultural workforce to develop and maintain cohesive, efficient, world-class work teams. The impact is felt in the areas of continuously decreasing productivity, falling standards of goods, services and the volume of production. This has created instability in the Nigerian economic sector. As other national economies overcome the challenges of multiculturalism in workforce and produce goods and services for global consumption, the challenges of a culturally diverse workforce will continue to deny Nigerian employees improvements in skills, technology, creativity, innovation, etc. Such improvements would have created opportunities for employees and organizations in Nigeria to acquire the capacities that would have facilitated favourable competition of locally produced goods and services with that of other organizations in other parts of the world.

Recommendations

Employees should also be made to understand that achieving unity despite cultural differences is the responsibility of every member of the organization. In addition, there should be periodic evaluation of the strategies to ensure they are having the desired outcomes. When such strategies are properly and successfully implemented, the positive influence of cultural diversity will manifest and enable members of the organization to build relationships and acknowledge each other regardless of the differences of origin and background.

As employees' behaviour in an organization is usually influenced by the nature of interactions and degree of diversity within the organization, human resources managers and departments therefore should seek to create organizational cultures that not only enhance the cultural diversity of its workforce composition but also boost individual employee performance. The positive influences of cultural diversity will not only enable the organization to increase the scope of its reach, the business will also receive favourable exposure from every sector of the population due to its multicultural make-up and outlook. Programmes for positive influence should always be adjusted to suit the dynamic nature of interactions among people. In addition, organizations should endeavour to establish regular forums and educational programmes in which employees are trained to be sensitive to and appreciate cultural diversity, as well as in maintaining desirable organizational behaviour. It may also be necessary to regularly post motivational quotes and messages of cultural diversity on the organizations notice-boards. When organizations and employees are able to recognize the uniqueness of each employee, recognize that every employee matters and promote inclusion, the productivity benefits become increased.

According to Patrick and Kumar (2012), in managing cultural diversity, organizations must "recognize that people from different backgrounds can bring fresh ideas and perceptions, which can make the way work is done more efficient

and make products and services better... and help organizations to nurture creativity and innovation and thereby, be able to tap hidden capacities for growth and improved competitiveness". This is more so in a world in "which communities [and economies] which were formally distant and unrelated are now continually brought together overtime to make a multifarious whole with an array of many flourishing subcultures" (Wokoma and Iheriohanma 2010:74), economic competition and dominance.

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JOB ANXIETY, ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND JOB SATISFACTION: AN EMPIRICAL ASSESSMENT OF SUPERVISORS IN THE STATE OF ERITREA

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Abstract

In the present investigation, an attempt is made to find out the relationship between job anxiety, organizational commitment, age and work experience with job satisfaction. The sample consisted of 116 supervisors selected randomly from different service sectors in Eritrea. A set of tools containing job anxiety, organizational commitment, job satisfaction along with biographical data sheet were used to gather information. Pearson's product moment coefficient correlation was used to analyze the data. The findings of the present research revealed that (i) recognition and self-esteem facets of job anxiety were found to be significantly related to job satisfaction, (ii) facets of organizational commitment and over all organizational commitment was found to be significantly related to job satisfaction and (iii) age and experience showed significant correlation with job satisfaction. The study also suggested some mechanisms to be considered for maximizing the level of job satisfaction.

Keywords: Job Anxiety, Organizational Commitment, Job Satisfaction, Correlation, Age, Eritrea

Introduction

Job anxiety, Organizational commitment and job satisfaction are the aspects of individual's behaviour shown while working in any kind of organization and these behaviours have received significant attention from behavioural and management scientists around all corners of the world. Various studies pointed out that committed and satisfied employees normally show high degree of productivity whereas job anxiety leads to deteriorate the performance of the employees and their productivity. In the State of Eritrea, very few researchers have taken initiative to explore the impact of attitudinal and behavioural aspects on job satisfaction.

This investigation is an initiative attempt to concentrate on the contemporary issues in the light of literature reviewed, and survey has been done by the investigator to examine the level of job anxiety, organizational commitment and job satisfaction among supervisors in the selected sectors in Asmara, Eritrea. It is a well known fact that the success or failure of an organization and the pursuit of quality to a large extent depend not only on how the organization makes use of most of the human potentialities/competencies, but also it is vital to know how it aspires to motivate personnel for organizational excellence. As far as job anxiety is concerned it is generally seen that individuals become psychologically anxious more frequently about their work to which they evolve a deep concern. Srivastava and Sinha (1983) stated that anxiety is employee's predisposition to emotional tension caused by his generalized feelings of vague fear, insecurity and apprehension in respect to one or several constituents of his job life. Hazari and Thakur (1970) made an effort to examine the relationship between manifest anxiety and intelligence and it was observed that the high and low anxious subjects did not differ significantly in their mean scores. The findings yielded inverse relationship of job anxiety with job satisfaction and organizational climate (Srivastava and Sinha, 1972; Sharma and Sharma, 1989) while positive relationship is observed with job involvement (Srivastava and Sinha, 1983). Managers/supervisors who were anxious and stressed were more likely to perceive the appraisal as unfair and inappropriate (Desai and Daftuar, 2000). Singh and Singh (1992) reported that managers who experienced high organizational role stress reported more environmental frustration, anger reactions, and job anxiety than managers of low stress. Parmar (2001) revealed that there was no direct relationship between core dimensions of the job and outcome variables, though the relationship was moderated by the job anxiety. Allam and Nasir (2007) found that bank managers and clerical staff did not differ significantly in terms of the degree of job anxiety.

Studies related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment and its integration to the literature have not been only a matter for international management science literature (Shore, Barksdale and Shore, 1995; Hunt and Morgan, 1994; Cohen, 1993; Randal, Fedor and Longenecker, 1990; Mowday, Steers and Porter, 1979) but also for national management science literature (Karatepe and Halici, 1998 and Cekmecelioglu, 2006). Rowden (2000) pointed out that greater commitment can result in enhanced feelings of belonging, efficacy, security, increased compensation, greater career advancement and increased intrinsic rewards for the individual. For the organization, the rewards of commitment means increased employee tenure, reduced training costs, limited turnover, greater job satisfaction, acceptance of organization's demands, and the meeting of organizational goals such as high quality (Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1982). Different researchers, depending on their backgrounds, have defined and measured organizational commitment differently. According to Mullins (1999), organizational commitment can be defined as an employee's level of identification and involvement in the organization. For Meyer and Allens (1997), organizational commitment is a psychological state that

characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization with its implications for the decision to continue membership in the organization. Mowday et al. (1982) explained organizational commitment to be a strong belief in an organization's goals, and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of an organization and a strong desire to remain a member of the organization. Demographic variables such as age, gender, marital status, education level and work experience are found to be significantly related to organizational commitment (Dodd-McCue and Wright, 1996; Mannheim, Baruch and Tal, 1997; Morrow, 1993).

The term job satisfaction was brought to limelight by Hoppock (1935). Job satisfaction implies the overall adjustment to work environment. Job satisfaction is a complex function of employee related variables. It is noted that an employee may be satisfied with one or more aspects of his/her job but at the same time may be dissatisfied with other aspects of the job. Job satisfaction is a function of the work one is engaged in, as well as of the people with whom one works. In terms of work, there are aspects such as feelings of achievement, a sense of independent thought and challenge, autonomy, feedback on quality of performance and completion, security, and prestige which contribute to job satisfaction (Neumann et al., 1988). In terms of people, satisfaction may be brought about by getting to know others, taking part in decision-making, forming cordial relationships with coworkers and helping others. According to Lease (1998), job satisfaction can be viewed as the degree of an employee's affective orientation toward the work role occupied in the organization. Fenech (2006) reported poor work conditions, low salaries, heavy workloads, unrealistic expectations from managers, low professional status, organizational conflict, and reduced autonomy to be the factors for job dissatisfaction. As we know, satisfied work force contributes a significant role in the development and transformation of organizations. Job satisfaction is a general attitude towards the job of an individual. The amount of satisfaction derived from one's present job is an indicator of one's satisfaction (Reddy and Rajasekharan, 1991). Working freedom, salary and fringe benefits are the major factors contributing towards job satisfaction but dissatisfied with the workload and the reforms (Okerlund, Jackson and Parsons, 1994; Fenech, 2006). There was a positive relationship between age and job satisfaction (Birdi, et al., 1995; Chiu, 2002; Allam and Reddy, 2007) whereas other investigators found that age is not related with job satisfaction (Gupta, 1980; Porwal, 1980). Marital status positively influenced the job satisfaction (Okolo and Eddy, 1994; Nasir et al. 2004). The sex differences were observed and it was found that females were more satisfied than males (Borg and Falzon, 1989; Padmavathi, 1995; Nasir et al. 2004; Allam and Reddy, 2007). Ghazali et al. (2007) noted that employees were not satisfied with the level of their income, service structure and career prospects but satisfied with designation and working environment of the organization. Janus et al. (2008) conducted a study and pointed out that participation in decision making positively affected the level of job satisfaction. Other important factors were opportunities for continuing education, job security, extent of administrative work, collegial relationships, and access to

specialized technology. These are important predictors of overall job satisfaction. Several researchers have reported mixed findings on the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. For instance, Curry, Wakefield, Price and Mueller (1986) found no significant relationship between the two. However, other researchers found positive relationship (Mannheim; Baruch and Tal, 1997; Salami, 2008; Busch; Fallan and Pettersen, 1998; Freund, 2005). Many studies use different facets of job satisfaction to predict organizational commitment (Dienhart and Gregoire, 1993; Yousef, 1998). Recently Azeem (2010) suggested that job satisfaction was the significant predictor of organizational commitment.

Objectives of the Present Investigation

The advent of fast technological changes and development in the world, public/ private sector would transform their performances by enhancing employee commitment, managing job anxiety and physiological, intellectual and psychological satisfaction. Various researches have been conducted on different sectors of employees throughout the world. Eritrea is a newly independent state that is considered as one of the poorest and under developed countries in African continent. It is almost untouched in investigations but it is gradually progressing in all the areas of service sectors. However, very few researches have been initiated by investigators by keeping the realm of Eritrean socio-economic and cultural issues. On examination of the literature on job anxiety, organizational commitment and job satisfaction, it appeared that there was a strong need for further research in different sectors related to the concerned variables. Hence, the present study was undertaken with the following objectives:

- To ascertain the relationships of the facets of job anxiety with job satisfaction.
- To determine the relationships of organizational commitment and dimension of organizational commitment with job satisfaction.
- To determine the relationships of age and work experience with job satisfaction.

Hypothesis

Keeping the objectives of the present study in mind certain null hypotheses were formulated and each hypothesis was verified to draw conclusion on the basis of the results obtained. These hypotheses were as follows:

- H0₁. There is no significant relationship between various facets of job anxiety with job satisfaction.
- H0₂. There is no significant relationship between various facets of organizational commitment with job satisfaction.
- H0₃. There is no significant relationship between age and experience with job satisfaction.

Method

Sample The respondents of the present study were 116 supervisors with a range of age and work experience of 21-59 years and 1-38 years respectively selected randomly from service sectors in Eritrea, North East Africa.

Tools

1. **Job Anxiety Scale** developed by Srivastava and Sinha (1974) was used to assess the level of job anxiety of the subjects. There are 80 items in this test with 'Yes' or 'No' response categories. The reliability of the test was established .85 and .81 by split-half and test-retest respectively. The validity of the test was 0.56 against the standard test of general anxiety.
2. **Organizational Commitment** was measured by the scale developed by Shawkat and Ansari (2001). This scale is a seven point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree and consists of fifteen items with three dimensions. These dimensions are taken from Meyer and Allen (1991) framework of commitment. They are affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment respectively. The total range of score is 15 to 105. Two of the items are negatively phrased and their scoring was done by reversing the scores. The higher the scores obtained by the subjects, the more the commitment of the subjects and vice-versa. Split- half reliability coefficient $r = 0.80$ and congruent validity is 0.76.
3. **Job Satisfaction Questionnaire** developed and standardized by Singh (1987) was used to measure the level of job satisfaction among employees. It is 20-item 5-point rating scale ranging from highly satisfied to highly dissatisfied with a score of 5 to 1. The reliability of test was established 0.96 by split-half method.
4. **Biographical Information Sheet** Self made biographical information sheet was used to collect the information of subject's age and work experience.

Data Analysis

Keeping in view the objectives of present study Pearson Correlation was preferred over the other statistical method to analyze the data to establish the relationship.

Procedure

All devices were administered to 116 supervisors of banks. Each respondent was contacted personally and requested to fill up the questionnaires. They were assured of confidentiality in their responses. The respondents were allowed to take their own time to complete the questionnaires. The collected data were scored and

put to analyses by using Pearson Correlation to find out the relationship between variables studied.

Ethics

The ethical considerations of research were taken into account while conducting the present study. First I received a supporting letter from the administrative office to conduct the study. Second, participants were given information by the investigator about the objectives of the study. They were also informed that participation was voluntary. Finally, they were assured of confidentiality in their responses and the research was only for academic purpose and findings would not be produced before higher authority.

Results and Discussion

Table: 1

Showing Relationship between Various Facets of Job Anxiety with Job Satisfaction of Supervisors (N116)

S/No.	Variables	r – value	Level of significance
1	Security	0.116	Not significant
2	Recognition	0.348	P <.01
3	Human Relation at Work	0.109	Not significant
4	Reward and Punishment	0.152	Not significant
5	Self-esteem	0.367	P <.01
6	Future Prospects	0.121	Not significant
7	Capacity to Work	0.101	Not significant
10	Overall Job Anxiety	0.113	Not significant

It appears from Table – 1 that out of seven facets of job anxiety only recognition and self-esteem were found significantly associated with job satisfaction ($r = 0.348$, $P < .01$ and $r = 0.367$ $P < .01$). The other facets of job anxiety such as security ($r = 0.116$), human relation at work ($r = 0.109$), reward and punishment $r = 0.152$), future prospects ($r = 0.121$) and capacity to work ($r = 0.101$) showed positive but not significant relationship with job satisfaction. Therefore the proposed null hypothesis (H_0) has been partially accepted. The result might be interpreted to mean that supervisors felt sense of inferiority complex in the organization due to their low job designation; roles and recognition at the work place and they are trying to enhance their recognition and self-esteem by being satisfied in their job. The finding is supported by the earlier studies by Parmar (2001) that no relationship between these variable existed. Though recognition and self- esteem showed significant relationship with job satisfaction.

Table: 2**Correlation between Facets of Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction (N116)**

S.No	Variables	r – value	Level of significance
1	Affective Commitment	0.241	P <.05
2	Continuance Commitment	0.412	P <.01
3	Normative Commitment Work	0.234	P <.05
4	Overall Organizational Commitment	0.268	P <.05

It is apparent from Table 2 that overall organizational commitment was found statistically significant with job satisfaction ($r = 0.268$, $P < .05$). Organizational commitment factors such as affective commitment ($r = 0.241$, $P < .05$), continuance commitment ($r = 0.412$, $p < .01$) and normative commitment ($r = 0.234$, $p < .05$) were found to have significant relationship with job satisfaction of bank supervisors and hence, the null hypothesis (H02) was rejected. The results may be explained that supervisors having emotional attachment, identification, involvement, good interpersonal relationships, hope for pension benefits, promotion, career advancement, willing to work towards organizational goals and values, and feelings of sense of obligations might be associated with job satisfaction. The finding has been supported by studies of Rue and Byars (2005); Chen (2007); Liu and Norcio (2008); Azeem (2010); Natarajan (2011).

Table: 3**Correlation of Age and Experience with Job Satisfaction among Supervisors (N116)**

S/No	Variables	r – value	Level of significance
1	Age	0.276	.05
2	Work Experience	0.217	.05

It may be observed from Table – 3 that age was found to be statistically significant correlation with job satisfaction ($r = 0.276$, $P < .05$) of supervisors. The finding has been supported by studies of Lee and Wilbur (1985); Birdi, et al. (1995); Chiu (2002); Allam and Reddy (2007). Work experience showed significant correlation with job satisfaction ($r = 0.217$, $p < .05$).

As age and work experience increase incumbents become more responsible expert in their work and these lead them to greater degree of job satisfaction. The results may be explained that supervisor by virtue of experience having more responsibilities, authority and power to accomplish the target and their works were being recognized by higher authority and these led them to greater degree of job satisfaction. The aged and experienced employees become more responsible, emotionally mature and develop the tendency to remain with the organization; these increased the level of job satisfaction. Further, according to Meyer and Allen (1997),

compared to younger ones, older employees are more bound to their organizations and, more satisfied with their jobs and their positions in the organizations.

Conclusion

On the basis of obtained results, the following conclusion was drawn:

- (i) The factors of job anxiety e.g. recognition and self-esteem accounted for significant correlation with job satisfaction among supervisors of Eritrean Bank employees whereas overall job anxiety did not reveal significant relationship with job satisfaction.
- (ii) Affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment and overall organizational commitment were found positive and significant correlation with job satisfaction of Bank supervisors in Eritrea.
- (iii) Age and work experience showed significant relationship with job satisfaction among supervisors.

Eritrea is a newly born and poor independent State in African continent. It is called the horn of Africa where resources are very limited but people are managing their livelihood within it and working in different sectors to fulfill their needs. However, the present study reveals that supervisors have more job anxiety.

Therefore, human resource managers must find some ways to improve the working conditions to make organizational environment more appropriate and conducive. They should provide all the basic facilities for achieving the targeted goals in organizations, enhance the level of job satisfaction and involvement among the employees. Moreover, there is urgent need to give proper training and guidance to the employees experiencing stress and anxiety to overcome such situations for better outcomes at individual as well as organizational levels and overall for the growth of the country.

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CONFLICT AND CONFLICT MANAGEMENT: A SPRINGBOARD FOR SUCCESS AND PROGRESS IN ORGANISATIONS IN NIGERIA

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Abstract

This paper investigates conflict and conflict management as a springboard for success and progress in organisations in Nigeria. In this paper, which is basically a literature review, the writer undertook a critical analysis of the causes and consequences of organisational conflict. He further attempted to review various scholars' opinions on conflict management strategies. The study reveals that conflict could yield both positive and negative results, but the former outweighs the latter when juxtaposed. This is no gainsaying that effective conflict management results in minimising disruptions arising from the existence of a conflict and proffers a solution that is satisfactory and acceptable for an organisation's progress. The policy implication of this paper is that conflict is indispensable, inevitable, normal, and an integral aspect of social life in any organisation; and administrators should be well trained and equipped in conflict management procedures with a view to stimulating and handling proactive and ideal-based conflicts, since it is a prime-mover of (positive) social change in organisations.

Keywords: Causes, Conflict, Conflict Management, Strategies, Organisations

Introduction

The relevance and function of conflict in organisations have been an issue of major concern. Traditionally, two approaches have emerged to account for the functional and dysfunctional implications of conflict in all organisations. These approaches, according to Singer (1949), are normative and descriptive. The former suggests that conflict is destructive and promotes conflict-elimination as a formula for organisational success and progress while the latter perceives conflict as an inevitable phenomenon in any social interaction and considers its proper management the primary responsibility and concern of all administrators. The normative concept of conflict, strongly influenced by a preoccupation with stability and equilibrium in organisational design, links conflict to violence, destruction,

inefficiency and irrationality (Singer, 1949). This school of thought has been criticised by its descriptive counterpart for suggesting that administrators have the responsibility of avoiding, controlling or eliminating conflict. For the apologists of this school of thought like Otite (1999), conflict may not be conceived only in a negative light of dysfunctional or disjunctive process and a breakdown of communication. Conflict is rather a normal process of interaction, particularly in complex societies where resources are usually scarce.

Mullins (1993) affirms that conflict is a reality of management and organisational behaviour. It is based on the incompatibility of goals which arises from opposing behaviour, and can therefore be defined as behaviour intended to obstruct the achievement of some other party's goals. Little wonder therefore that Schmidt and Kochan (1972) warn that administrators should be aware of 'conflict management' and the need to find a solution. Solutions are easier to find for conflicts when it is understood that conflict is a complex, multidimensional phenomenon. It is not caused by 'inadequate' structures, nor is it undesirable. It is natural and inevitable and, if properly managed, it is productive, relevant and creative.

Conflict is endemic in all social life. It is an inevitable part of living because it is related to situations of scarce resources, division of functions, power relations and role-differentiation (Bercovitch 2011). Consequently, every organisation should, as a matter of urgency, devise strategies for managing conflicts, seeing that they are unavoidable in any human organisation. Ekundayo (2012) is of the view that managers should preoccupy themselves with the task of managing conflict rather than detesting it. Perhaps, against this background, Odoh (2006) defines conflict management as the process of reducing tension and the negative effects of conflicts by the application of a number of measures aimed at fostering an understanding of the conflict situation by the parties involved. This remains the only viable option that can be applied where the process of conflict resolution has failed.

Consequently, there are two opposing group of people in every organisation: those who have power or authority and those who do not have it. Conflict arises when those who have power strive to broaden their power whereas those who do not have it struggle for access to it. Conflict, when properly managed, is undoubtedly a springboard for organisational success and progress. Any organisation where ideal-type or virile conflict is promoted, workers' right are safeguarded over time. This is because the presence of conflict in any organisation always calls for 'modus vivendi', an arrangement or reconciliation between parties with conflicting perspectives and antithetical perceptions towards duty which allows them to work together for the actualisation of their organisation's goals. During this brainstorming session, the opposing groups share insightful ideas and adopt innovative approach to work, and these facilitate success and progress in organisations. Thus, the aim of this paper is to identify the factors responsible for conflict in organisations, to appraise the implications of conflict in organisations, and to ascertain how conflict can be managed for the good and benefit of organisations.

The Need for Conflict in Organizations

Conflict is an indicator of imbalance and undemocratic-work environment while its absence implies that imperious and despotic leadership style prevails in such organizations. It signifies that a given system is not functioning as expected and as a result needs to be overhauled. Noteworthy here is that the manner with which an identified conflict is handled determines where the pendulum of the affected organization swings, successful or unsuccessful. Conflict, therefore, becomes a springboard for success and progress in organizations when it is properly managed. For instance, the six months strike embarked upon by the South East Chapter of the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) in 2011 has done more good than harm in the system. The conflict between the ASUU and the University authorities has really improved the condition of service and protection of workers' right. The students seem to have benefited most from it as they no longer witness series of industrial actions that do occur every semester in Nigerian educational system. They now graduate as and when due unlike before this endemic conflict was ill-managed, or perhaps, unresolved.

In social life, conflicts do occur but they are managed by family members, friends and relatives. The same case applies to organizations; when conflicts arise, it needs to be resolved by management for the sake of the organizational growth, survival and enhanced performance. However, conflicts are rarely resolved easily and to certain extent most conflicts are managed as individuals work out their differences (Barker et al, 1987; Ongori, 2009). Therefore, it is figured out that conflict keeps administrators abreast of recent development in their organizations. The implication is that managers should avail themselves of this ample opportunity of organizational appraisal created by conflict. Put differently, they ought to incorporate ideal-based conflict management strategies into their organizations to enable them rather exploit and utilize the vicissitudes and course of the problem(s) that led to the conflict. By so doing, the organization is bound to flourish—because it will enable the management to identify and correct unethical tendencies in their organisations—such as espionage, sabotage, care-free attitude, and indifference and insensitive to sensitive organizational matters,

Amoson (1996) submits that conflict improves decision making outcomes, especially on task-related conflict and group productivity by increasing the quality through constructive criticism and individuals adopting a devil's advocate role. Jehn (1995), as recorded in Ongori (2009), attests that task-related conflict is beneficial to organizations since it allows for exchange of ideas and assists better performance among group members. All these, we must admit, are catalyst for success and progress in any organization where proactive conflicts are promoted and well handled.

Parker (1974) contends that if conflicts arise and they are not properly managed, it will lead to delays of work, disinterest, lack of action, and in extreme cases, it might lead to complete breakdown of the group. Unmanaged conflict may result in withdrawal of individuals and unwillingness on their part to participate in

other group's activities and assist with various group's actions or programmes in the organization. It is against this backdrop that this present paper sets out to close the gap in literature, or contribute to the body of existing knowledge on conflict and conflict management; and also to examine how and to what extent conflict management could serve as a springboard for success and progress in organizations in Nigeria instead of otherwise.

Factors Responsible for Conflict in Organisations

Organisational conflict manifests in various forms and has differing causative factors. Social factors like inadequate motivation, political interference in labour issues and undue pressure exerted on the organisational structure by employers of labour often cause conflicts in organisations. No wonder Odoh (2006) detailed the causes of conflict in organisation to include: style of management, social consciousness of workers, irregular or non-payment of salaries and wages, improper termination of appointment, condition of employments that does not make for average living, promotional and motivational factors, cumbersome grievances and dispute procedure, breach of collective agreement, anti-union actions, interdependence, difference in goals and differences in the perception of reality.

The Nigerian University system has witnessed a plethora of strike in recent times occasioned by inadequate motivation of staff, and this has accounted for low productivity and output in students. Lecturers have some problems (needs) that are to be solved so as to enable them perform their duties more efficiently. But in a situation where these needs are not met, conflict may occur, and if not resolved or well managed, it can lead to insubordination, frustration, truancy and extortion on the part of lecturers. This invariably has adverse effects on students because they may not cover their syllabus which could lead to poor performance. They may also use the strike period to get involved in antisocial behaviour such as drug abuse and alcoholism, prostitution, gambling, rape, robbery and kidnapping since an 'idle mind is the devil's workshop'.

Thompson (1960) identifies three factors that give rise to conflict in organizations, viz: structural conflict, that is, conflict arising out of the need to manage the interdependence between different organisational sub-units; role conflict, that is, conflict emanating from sets of prescribed behaviour; and resource conflict, which is conflict stemming from interest groups competing for organisational resources. Robbins (1974) came up with similar factors that cause conflict in organizations, and these include: communicational conflict, caused by misunderstanding; personal conflict, stemming from individual differences; and structural conflict, arising from organisational roles. Suggesting a varying perspective, however, Bercovitch (2011) traces the cause of conflict in organizations to the units of analysis involved. According to him, units of analysis are the parties to a conflict. They perceive, initiate and sustain a conflict. Their characteristics specify the conditions which affect the cause of a conflict and determine the mode of its management. By implication, there exists conflicts that originate in the individual

person, conflicts that have their bases in the relationship between individuals, and conflicts that are caused as a result of interactions between groups.

Virtually all the extant literature so far reviewed has been dissected, modified and espoused by contemporary organisational conflict scholars. For instance, Vecchio (1995) asserts that managers typically attribute a sizeable proportion of conflict arising in an organisation to poor communication. Given the imperfection of communication, which results in the receiver not always receiving the message exactly as intended by the sender, many opportunities exist for misunderstandings that give rise to conflict. Incorrect, distorted or ambiguous information can create hostility and consequently result in conflict. Vecchio added participation as a cause of conflict in an organisation. In his argument, the higher the subordinate participation, the higher the level of conflict. This is because an increase in participation can lead to greater awareness of individual differences. However, the consequent conflict is not necessarily undesirable, as it can enhance the overall performance of the work unit and thus its existence can be productive.

Apata (2011) identified stress/frustration and insensitivity to grievances and early warnings as factors responsible for organisational conflict. Here stress or frustration represents a situation of blockage and obstruction to achieving a desired goal. Therefore, an attempt to remove the obstruction may lead to commotion, anxiety and emotional instability which are causes of conflict. Insensitivity, on the other hand, suggests that the lackadaisical attitudes of some concerned bodies to crisis-indicators are to say the least major causes of conflict in an organization in Nigeria. In addition, inadequate or unjustified motivation can also cause conflict in a given organisation. This assertion was justified by Vecchio (1995) when he argued that conflict is easily generated when one party obtains rewards at the expense of another party. This form of conflict is the difference between line and staff units within an organisation. Line units, according to him, perform jobs that are directly related to core activities of the organisation while staff units perform jobs that support the line function. Conflict can occur between line and staff divisions because of the functions they perform, the differing goals, and the value and backgrounds of the members.

Implications of Conflict in Organizations in Nigeria

Scholars have written on the wide-range of implications of organisational conflict. Substantial number of them opined that conflict in its entirety does not produce deleterious effects (see also Otite, 1999; Odoh, 2006; Bercovitch, 2011; and Ekundayo, 2012). We deduced from their studies that an organisation is just a miniature or an offshoot of the society as a whole. Accordingly, we should expect that what obtains at the organisational level is just a reflection of what happens in the larger society. A proactive and well managed conflict is to an extent normal, functional and prime-mover of social change in all organizations, especially in Nigeria. It is on this premise that we posit that absence of conflict in an organisation portends great danger, which includes system inadequacies. Reacting to the

speculations that conflict is often dysfunctional and detestable, Otite (1999) opines that conflict should not be regarded only in a negative light of dysfunctional or disjunctive process and a breakdown of communication as some scholars tend to suggest. He rather sees it as a normal process of interaction, particularly in complex societies where resources are usually scarce. Schmidt and Kochan (1972) maintain that conflict is natural and inevitable and, if properly managed, it is productive, relevant and creative.

Mondy et al. (1989) note that situations can arise where conflict can lead to greater creativity, more enthusiasm and better decisions, in which case people can develop by learning that certain perceptions or piece of information they held were incorrect. Thus, positive outcome of conflict can take the form of improved ideas, searching for new options and increased interest and creativity. Robbins (1998) reiterates that conflict, though can be destructive, leads to improvements in the quality of decisions, stimulation of creativity and innovation, and it can encourage interest and curiosity. Functional and constructive conflict can provide a medium through which problems can be aired and tension released, and also an environment of self-evaluation and positive change.

Depending on how conflict is managed, the experience can be growth-enhancing for the individuals involved or destructive to relationships and self-esteem. Conflict, if well managed, can utilise the creativity and problem-solving skills of workers, taking advantage of different gender, cultural and role perspectives in creating mutually beneficial solutions. But badly managed conflict or consistently avoided one, reduces productivity, undermines trust and may spawn additional conflicts (see also Siders, 1999). Based on this, Bercovitch (2011), quoting Boulding (1957), Aubert (1963), and Deutsch (1969), states that administrators must not seek to stifle or eliminate organisational conflict for that is hardly a realistic goal. An organisation devoid of conflict may indicate autocracy, uniformity, stagnation and mental fixity. It would also be protecting only the vested interests of the status quo. Administrators must accept, and indeed, occasionally encourage conflict because change and other desirable consequences are products of conflict. The challenge faced by administrators is to utilise such conflict management techniques that would ensure that as a conflict passes from a latent to a manifest phase, it proceeds towards its potential and realises its constructive values.

However, studies have shown that conflict could be negative or dysfunctional in an organization. Mondy et al. (1989) informed that dysfunctional conflict can arouse anxiety in individuals, increase tension in the organization, lower satisfaction and decrease productivity. Other adverse effects, they observed, include people feeling defeated and demeaned, thereby widening the emotional distance between individuals. A climate of mistrust and suspicion can arise and resistance rather than teamwork can develop. To Robbins (1998), unconstructive or excessive levels of conflict can affect the effectiveness of the organization or the group, which can result in reduced satisfaction of employees, increased absence and turnover rates, and eventually, lower productivity.

There has been a paradigm-shift in virtually all formal organizations with regard to conflict and conflict management. Certain globalization trends such as outsourcing, flexible life and work-life-balance have played a leading role in the success and progress of organizations. This does not mean that these concepts do not have their shortcomings, they do, but the benefits outweigh the disadvantages. Studies have shown that "too much work can lead to a variety of stress-related illnesses (conflicts) that sap workers' vitality, making them more prone to errors on the job, absenteeism, burnout and turnover" (Hakala, 2006). Quite incidentally, work-life-balance is imperative owing to the fact that it allows individual workers to live healthy in their workplace. So, it is necessary that administrators restore work-life-balance to workers by ensuring that work flexibility is given to all classes of workers in their organizations. This is because flexible life and work-life-balance can make even the unhappy worker who has been going through severe condition of service to improve up to a reasonable standard, hence a springboard for organizational success and progress.

Outsourcing simply means a significant change in work patterns. It refers to a situation whereby an employer of labour or management 'contracts out' work that is supposed to be done by permanent employees. The concept of outsourcing can cause conflict in an organization where it exists. But the manner with which the work was contracted out and manned determines the success and progress of the organization. It may adversely effects organizations by replacing greater number of permanent workers or very few of them reabsorbed by the 'contractor', thereby throwing many individuals out of job. Nevertheless, outsourcing can reduce cost for managers and equally reduce the workload of the retained permanent workers, if any, by employing people that are specially trained in the job. The current trend in virtually all Federal Government and some Private Establishments in Nigeria where civil security jobs, laundry works, catering services, gate-keepers, cleaners, and the like have been contracted out to professionals in these areas is a classical example of outsourcing. These contractors are well grounded in the work compared to the permanent workers who are employed with little or no professional training. By virtue of their expertise and technical-know-how, the success and progress of organizations where outsourcing is deeply embedded are guaranteed.

Strategies of Conflict Management in Organisations

The task of managing conflict is a major concern of administrators. Effective conflict management is necessary in an organisation that wants to thrive. A review of different strategies or forms of conflict management techniques that can be employed at different phases of the development of a conflict is paramount to this study. Although every organisation has its own modus operandi (MO) of managing conflict, they all are geared towards survival. As Bercovitch (2011) rightly states, these MO are consciously employed by administrators to influence the course and development of a conflict. The success or effectiveness of such procedures can be gauged by the extent to which they help to achieve a satisfactory solution.

Vecchio (1995) advanced five conflict management strategies. They are: forcing, collaborating, accommodating, avoiding and compromising. The forcing approach attempts to overwhelm an opponent with formal authority, threats, or the use of power. The underlying features of this style are assertiveness and unco-operativeness. It is a dominating approach to conflict management which represents a maximum focus on meeting private concern and minimal focus on meeting the concerns of the other group. The collaborating procedure is a combination of assertiveness and co-operativeness. Collaboration involves an attempt to satisfy the concerns of both parties through honest discussion. For this strategy to be successful, trust and openness are required of all participants. Accommodating approach to conflict management combines unassertiveness and cooperativeness, and may involve giving in to the other party's wishes.

From the above source, it is further observed that accommodating behaviour may be motivated by the desire to be charitable or pro-social and this approach appears to be the best for a party in a truly weak position. This situation may also arise when preserving the peace and avoiding disharmony are more important than reaching a solution that maximises a particular group's concerns. The last of Vecchio's five conflict handling styles, avoiding, is the combination of unassertiveness and unco-operativeness which leads to an avoiding style. This strategy assumes that a person will either improve or worsen a conflict situation. This procedure may thus be desirable in certain cases to ensure a short-term benefit or temporary solution to the organisation (see also Ivancevich and Matteson, 1999; and Lourens, 2000).

Some researchers suggest that negotiation/bargaining, mediation, arbitration, conciliation and strike can suffice in conflict management (Roberts, 1991). Of these factors, conciliation is singled out and defined as a process of peace making and a human institution that is useful in all fields of human activities: domestic, business, national and international political conflicts. When conciliation fails and internal machineries for settling conflict have been exhausted, the matter can be taken to arbitration. Here the disagreeing parties are not guided to further negotiation, but are requested to support the claims of the arbitrators and all the facts and arguments in their command.

Conflict management can be perfected through preventive and control procedures. Preventive measures refer to procedures that are initiated in order to avert conflict. This is apparently the most suitable pattern of conflict management, which is in accordance with the maxim of 'prevention is better than cure'. The control measure is a management function of monitoring, regulating and checkmating conflicts that have already occurred so as to prevent it from getting out of hand. Through these measures, the errors and flaws in the organisation may be detected with a view to correcting and preventing future recurrence. The decisive action taken by the management of Ebonyi State University over the violent protests by the students of this institution in March 2013 is a prime example of a control strategy of conflict management. The students accused the management of unjustified increment in school fees and then ran amok for three days to effect reversion. The

school on the third day of the protest was abruptly shut down pending when normalcy will be restored. Similarly, cult conflicts are commonplace in Nigerian institutions of higher learning. Rival cult groups often disrupt critical academic activities like examination. To guard against this, the school authorities instead of capitulating on this criminal subculture adopt preventive conflict management strategy by engaging the services of the Police or Joint Task Force (JTF) to ensure there is no disruption in the system.

Conclusion

Thus far, conflict and conflict management in organisations in Nigeria and elsewhere have been examined. Through the literature review, the major causes and consequences of conflict were unravelled just as various perspectives on conflict and its management were highlighted and discussed. The conclusion was also reached that proactive and ideal-based conflict is feasible and commendable in organisations.

Conflict with its proper management is inevitable, normal and a catalyst for social change in every organisation. Thus, in any system where functional or virile conflict is encouraged, staff rights are often guaranteed and the organisation's mission and vision achieved without reservation. It is on this premise that we conclude that absence of conflict in any organisation portends great danger and system inadequacies.

Recommendations

Administrators in organisations in Nigeria should be well trained and equipped in conflict management with a view to stimulating and handling functional conflicts while avoiding dysfunctional ones in organisations. The government, alongside administrators, should organise seminars and conferences to properly address the issue of conflict and conflict management in their different organisations. This will go a long way in dispelling the popular but erroneous notion that conflict is abnormal, destructive, and should be discouraged. It is recommended that administrators acquaint themselves with appropriate strategies of conflict management and to match that with the conflict situation.

Finally, the researcher subscribes to the descriptive school of thought as explained in the introductory part of this paper. Having abundantly justified the position that conflict is an indispensable part of social life and is ever-present in personal, intrapersonal, interpersonal and intergroup relationships, it is therefore important that every organisation be exposed to conflict and its management strategies in all its ramifications. This will have the advantage of not only equipping administrators and leaders with the requisite skills for managing their countries but also reducing the adverse effects conflict can generate in any environment.

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MANAGING THREE APPROACHES TO ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR FOR EFFECTIVENESS AND SUSTAINABILITY: IMPLICATION FOR EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT IN NIGERIA

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Abstract

The development of any nation is a function of Organizational Behaviour (OB) which is, in turn, influenced by the impact of individuals, groups and structure within the organization. OB encompasses the study of what people do and how they do it in an organization touching on employment related issues - job analysis with job specification and job description, productivity, individual performance and management matters. Three approaches to OB are identified which, if appropriately managed, would bring about effectiveness and sustainability in organizations. One of such approaches is Preventive Manager Behaviour (PMB). This addresses a situation where, because a manager lacks foresight to prevent a problem or nip it in the bud, the organization performs poorly. Another approach is Maintenance Manager Behaviour (MMB) which addresses a situation where, because a manager relaxed having attained a high productivity level, the organization starts going down. There is yet another approach - Remedial Manager Behaviour (RMB) which tries to cope with a situation where, because a problem has already taken place, production becomes very difficult or even uncertain. The three approaches have implications for educational management, effectiveness and sustainability

Keywords: Behaviour, Organization, Manager, Preventive, Maintenance, Remedial.

Introduction

The development of any nation is a function of organizational behaviour. It is so because the management of the resources of every nation is a function of the intra and inter-play of the various organizations which include corporate and non-corporate public and private bodies engaged in their different business activities.

The extent to which the business activities meet the respective set targets of the various bodies would suggest the nature as well as the effectiveness of organizational behaviour which they exhibit. This view is appreciably in line with general system theory which views all organizations as systems with a variety of

coordinated activities taking place within an organization (SashKin and Sashkin, 2004).

In Nigeria, organizations need to improve their behaviour for effectiveness and sustainability: Multi-million Naira industries and factories have crumbled; many have reached their peak of production but started falling and are at the brink of collapse; some educational institutions are epileptic and cannot stabilize their good academic and moral tone! Even in the wake of some antagonism managers do not seem to have the foresight to forestall their negative effects or nip them in the bud before they are deep – rooted. Worse still, many business organizations with high employment capacity but shut down for poor management are hardly thought of being rehabilitated or resuscitated, rather their structures and equipment are fast getting dilapidated. Hence today, dotted all over the country are poultry farms, cocoa processing factories, palm oil mills, iron and steel industries, glorified other mining industries, and an assortment of business organizations - all at varying stages of mal-function and dilapidation of structures and equipment. Therefore among other things, the following objectives will be addressed:

1. To place in simpler perspective the concept of Organizational Behaviour.
2. To provide avenues for domesticating the three approaches to Organization Behaviour.
3. To give hope to Nigerian managers especially educational managers by introducing them to the three approaches.

Obviously, the vexed issues so far highlighted are essentially attitudinal and therefore are within the purview of organizational behaviour. Hence the paper is approached in addition to introduction, under the following sub-headings:

- Conceptualizing organizational behaviour
- Three approaches to organizational behaviour
- Preventive manager behaviour .
- Maintenance manager behaviour and
- Remedial manager behaviour
- Implication for Educational management
- Summary and conclusion

Conceptualizing Organizational Behaviour

An expert view of organizational Behaviour (OB) is that OB is a field of study that investigates the impact which individuals, groups and structures have on behaviour within an organization for the important purpose of applying such knowledge gained toward improving the organizations effectiveness (Robbins, 2003). Summing up the definition, central to OB is what people do in an organization and how what they do (their behaviour) affects the performance of the organization, positively or negatively.

Analytically, OB encompasses the study of what people do and how they do it in an organization. It is concerned with employment-related issues; hence organizational concerns such as job analysis, job specification, Job description, work, absenteeism, turnover, productivity, individual performance and management matters are considered germane.

Furthermore, while debate is on regarding the relative importance of the inclusion of some components of the subject area of OB, there appears to be consensus on aspects such as motivation, leader behaviour and power, interpersonal communication, group structure and process, learning, attitude development and perception, change process, conflict, work design and work stress (Garcia and Keleman, 1989; Health and Sitkin, 2001).

Also considered within the embrace of OB are behaviour as a function of the person and what situation, that is, the context: the nature of the situation in addition to "understanding" and examining the relationship between means and ends which Sashkin and Sashkin (2004) credit to Weber. It is essential to note that the morality behind achieving ends with means should be of utmost consideration in OB especially in most Nigerian Organizations where grabbing attitude reigns supreme.

Also worthy of consideration in appreciating OB, especially in the Nigerian context, are attitude towards the use of organizational properties especially public properties and what the SERVICON BOOK (2007) calls "Critical Elements" in "Service Delivery" which include standards and practices/ performances, reception experience, complaints and grievance redress, information, customer feedback, transparency, efficiency, et cetera. Also from the Nigerian perspective OB should be expanded to include other aspects of SERVICOM---- Service Compact with All Nigerians namely:

Conviction that Nigerians can only realize full potential if citizens receive prompt and efficient service from the State.

Renewal of commitment to the service of the Nigerian Nation.

Consideration for the needs and rights of all Nigerians to enjoy social and economic advancement.

Avowal to deliver quality services based upon the needs of citizen.

Dedication to providing the basic services to which each citizen is entitled in a timely, fair, honest, effective and transparent manner. From these considerations, conclusion can be drawn to the fact that the concept of OB, with particular reference to the Nigerian situation, attempts to capture a plethora of human attributes which should gear towards making, not marring an organization.

Before highlighting the three selected approaches for discussion here, it is necessary to note that the hallmark of bothering about OB is effectiveness and

sustainability of whatever organization under consideration, be it education or otherwise. If our organizations were effective and sustaining one might not see the need to irk out approaches for their effectiveness and sustainability. But what is organization effectiveness?

When an organization achieves the goal(s) for which it is established, then it can be described as effective. Hence effectiveness is defined in terms of the group's output, morale and the satisfaction of its members (Stogdill, 1975; Bass, 1960). Hoy and Miskel (1978:181) express a similar view of effectiveness by saying that "leadership effectiveness... has an objective dimension- accomplishment of organizational goals – and a subjective dimension – perceptual evaluation of significant reference". The perceptual evaluations, according to them, include opinions held or judgments made by subordinates, peers and superiors. Therefore organizational effectiveness can be regarded as the extent to which the goal set by the organization is achieved (Njoku, 2001). It is necessary to note that the goal is in consonance with the mandate of the organization and the "subjective dimension-perceptual evaluations" made by subordinates, and others. Having appreciated the concept of effectiveness, it stands to reason to place in proper perspective the concept of sustainability.

Sustainability in its own case is the stabilization of effectiveness. When the goal of an organization is achieved it is of much significance that it be sustained – kept going in the desired direction. This requires a special behaviour package to maintain the status quo and the tempo of performance. Sustainability is the live wire of organizational survival once production has been optimally maximized-high profit margin, excellent service delivery, excellent academic performance, in respect of schools, high moral standards, high tone, et cetera.

Sustaining these good qualities requires special management ingredients that should be plugged into the organization.

Management in the title of this paper requires contextual clarification because it is often erroneously regarded as leadership. Management and leadership are related but not the same.

Aptly put, management is putting resources - personnel (manpower), equipment and facilities, finance, time, and even motivation - to effective use. When leadership is mentioned, it carries the connotation of followership backing it up. Hence leaders create a vision in such a compelling way that followers "sign on" to help attain the leader's vision (Sashkin and Sashkin, 2004). While a good leader may not be a good manager, a good manager may not be a good leader. But the two can be found in one person; where this is so, the organization (in which the leader-manager is operating) reigns supreme.

The Three Management Approaches To Organizational Behaviour

Whether production in an organization is tangible or intangible, the hallmark is service delivery which is a function of behaviour in respect of the individual,

groups(s) and structure. The intra- and inter-play of these three components have often given rise to three situations in an organization:

1. A situation where, because the manager lacks foresight to prevent a problem, the organization performs poorly.
2. A situation where, because the manager relaxed having attained high productivity, the organization starts going down.
3. A situation where, because a problem has already taken place, production becomes difficult/uncertain.

The three situations described have given rise to three management approaches to organizational behaviour which are discussed as follows:

Preventive Manager Behaviour (PMB)

The principle of PMB is in line with the common saying: "Prevention is better than cure". It insists that all measures to prevent any hitches emanating from individuals, groups or the structure of the organization be put in place; and should there be any, it should be detected and reported promptly. In other words, the early signs of an unhealthy situation in the organization should be detected, reported and nipped in the bud.

Unfortunately, in most of our organizations, including educational organizations, materials and equipment are hardly serviced to avoid breakdown; little pot holes on our roads are often allowed to develop into gullies; labour issues that might degenerate into protracted strike actions are not promptly addressed; students are not thoroughly nurtured and prepared for examination hence they resort to unprecedented examination malpractices; wearing parts of machines, gadgets and structures are not addressed early enough hence our government premises are littered with unserviceable machines, gadgets and structures.

PMB therefore emphasizes among others:

- Adequate provision of appropriate work materials
- Supervised delegated duties
- Regular monitoring and reporting of performance and constraints or circumstances beyond the control of the service provider or schedule officer which is likely to limit performance in the short term (www.serveinigeria.com., 2007).

Because an organization is a system with sub-stems it behooves the manager to put in place structures and mechanisms to ensure the various units of each sub-systems comply with the principles of PMB. PMB says: A stitch in time saves nine assuming they are ten.

Maintenance Manager Behaviour (MMB)

MMB asks the question: If the organization is performing, what does the manager do to ensure sustainability? In other words, what measures can the

manager take to sustain the good tempo so heralded such that performance does not drop? The manager should note that it is easy to destroy but difficult to build. He /She should know that of all resources human beings are the most difficult to manage and control. Conflicts of different types are typically inimical to good organizational performance as they reduce effectiveness of the organization (Ukeje, Akabogu and Ndu, 1992). Effective communication is a maintenance manager behaviour. Communicating is the transmission of attitudes, feelings, insights, and facts to others (about the organization) with the aim of influencing or modifying their behaviour (Sisk, 1973).

Declaration of employee bonus at the peak of performance is another maintenance manager behaviour. Other types of motivational incentives declared and offered employees at this time would discourage any obnoxious behaviour within the organization to an appreciable extent.

Ensuring constant quality control mechanism are in place and steadily checked is an indispensable integral aspect of MMB. This, however, varies with types of organization. A school organization is different from a business organization such as one that bottles drinks. Yet they must ensure that constant quality control mechanisms are in place.

Accountability by units or sub-systems of the organization needs to be ensured with members made aware of expectations of management with the accompanying reward(s). Hence Robbins (2003) lays emphasis on special motivation packages such as recognition of individual differences; employee participation in decisions that affect them; linking reward to performance; checking the system for equity and using goals and feedback. Above all, there should be a track record of performance unit by unit or sub-system by sub-system.

Remedial Manager Behaviour (RMB)

RBM operates a restoration agenda resting on the fact that what is mismanaged by man can be reactivated. Instances abound: That there is global food shortage does not imply that this has become a permanent situation in-so-far – as there is no natural disaster. That once booming shoe factories, poultry farms, cement factories and, of course, a school that has been recording excellent performance, and similar organizations which are now grounded cannot just be written off as irremediable.

In remedying the situation, management could employ situation analysis and not to shy away from the challenge. One of such analytical tools is SWOT analysis. SWOT analysis is a tool for analyzing a system and its functioning in an environment. It provides information that is helpful in matching the systems resources and capacities to the competitive and dynamic environment in which it operates.

SWOT analysis is not in itself a problem solver but rather an instrument in problem identification and strategy formulation (UNESCO, 2006). In the acronym SWOT, 'S' stands for "Strengths", 'W' stands for "Weaknesses", 'O' stands for

Opportunities” while ‘T’ stands for “Threats”. Strengths and weakness are internal factors, while opportunities and threats are external to the system. The manager therefore capitalizes on the strengths and takes advantage of the opportunities; in turn he converts the weakness into strengths and plays down on the threats as much as possible. It is essential to note that the approach demands endurance, steadfastness, and a collaborative strategic planning to manage the subjective tool, SWOT.

Implication of the Three Approaches to OB for Educational Management

Although to the not-well-informed, saying that the Nigerian educational system is epileptic may seem over-flogging the issue, yet it is no gain-saying the fact. Granted that efforts are being made by putting structures in place, to strengthen the system, there is a lot more to be done. Guided by the three approaches to organizational behaviour there are implications for educational management.

Njoku (2007) outlines instances of preventive management behaviour which are disciplinary measures to arrest the Nigerian school child: Ensuring adequate provision of school materials; ensuring regular school attendance of the school child; effective supervision, and monitoring and reporting of teaching and learning with adequate record-keeping for reference. These measures and more, other things being equal, would go a long way to prevent examination malpractice or, at least, keep it at a low ebb as long as the school child’s good moral foundation is complemented by the school. But the reverse will be the obvious case if an unkempt child is in a school without protective devices: classrooms with broken and dusty floors without adequate furniture, door and window shutters and teaching learning materials in short supply et cetera. The teacher who is not happy with the irritating school environment will not be expected to perform a miracle to produce a good end-result. For success in any venture the preliminary and basic issues must be addressed. This is the import of Preventive Management Behaviour.

Maintenance Manager Behaviour needs application in the Nigerian education industry. Many educational institutions have suffered abrasions of enviable status quo. At the tertiary level, for instance, each of the first generation universities was known for its excellence, at least, in one of the following disciplines: engineering, law, education and medicine. Some go extra mile to offer enviable business and community services – producing agricultural products including meat, egg, grains and roots, bread, et cetera - feeding the university community and their neighborhoods. At the secondary level, schools’ names were synonymous with the knowledge and skill areas in which they excelled- academic excellence, sports generally, football in particular, general discipline and good tone. The magic for such long term success was Maintenance Manager Behaviour (MMB). Continuity, commitment to duty, congruency of goals (staff goal and school goal were the same), leader regarding himself or herself as a servant not a lord, self discipline, recognition of special talents and recognition of constituted authority characterized

the system and brought about stability and sustainability of excellent performance. In this respect, cultural revival is welcome.

Remedial Manager Behaviour (RMB) would re-examine the three major components of organizational behaviour in respect of education namely: the individual, group(s) and structure. To resuscitate any ailing school or other ailing educational organizations therefore, the staff- teaching and non-teaching, - pupils/students, all, both individually and as a group, and the structure of the school or the particular educational organization should be subjected to situation analysis. Fortunately, SWOT analysis has been found suitable to identify the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats each of which should be subjected to appropriate treatment for its relative advantage(s). Every system is operated by human beings, even where they (human beings) have changed, their good qualities can be retrieved through the process of behaviour modification.

Summary

For effective management of organizational behaviour, the characteristic features of its three components – individuals, groups(s) and structure should be considered. The extent to which these determinants are managed to achieve the desired goal reflects organizational effectiveness. Three approaches to managing organizational behaviour have been discussed in respect of the Nigerian situation for effectiveness and sustainability. The first approach is Preventive Manager Behaviour so called because it is very cost effective to detect a problem early enough and nip it in the bud. The second is Maintenance Manager Behaviour which, among other things, involves encouraging the heart and modeling the way to maintain the high tempo when the organization is excelling. The third approach is Remedial Manager Behaviour which employs remedial strategies to resuscitate an ailing organization. These three approaches have implications for educational management.

Conclusion

Adequate preparation for school work and early detection of problems and terminating same forestall further damage. Enviably status quo of educational institutions, including universities and secondary schools should be sustained; even when these institutions suffer set-backs in their performance, SWOT analysis could be employed to obtain a profile for remediation.

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GOVERNANCE, COLLECTIVE BARGAINING AND PEACE CULTURE IN LABOUR RELATIONS IN NIGERIA

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Abstract

The formation of organized labour in Nigeria can be traced back to the late 1890s. Since then industrial relations on working conditions has been a challenge between the tripartite partners; the employers, employees and government. The struggle for improved working conditions, good governance and human dignity has been on. This struggle by the labour unions to improve on the unfair policies and working conditions has generated severe threat in maintaining peace culture in labour relations. It has adversely been affecting the growth of national economy in relation to global economic change. This situation has created almost total failure on the government as regards her social responsibilities to the citizens. This paper discusses the interconnection of governance, collective bargaining and peace culture in labour relations in Nigeria. Recommendations regarding how to make peace in a work environment were given such as government and labour being sensitive to early warning on industrial action to avoid conflict escalation, and government providing a situation where employees should exercise industrial democracy.

Keywords: Governance, Collective bargaining, Peace culture, Labour relations, Social responsibilities.

Introduction

The latent and often manifest antagonism between the employer and employee creates interest variance that affects the continuity of production. The relics of shackles of colonialism have made us to believe that trade unionism is an anathema to the smooth running of our organizations, state craft and its machineries. The issue of collective bargaining has generated serious tension in the Nigerian polity which have defied moral order and negatively affected the growth of labour sector. In this sense, Steiner and Miner (1997: 41) emphasized that:

Today's environment has rarely been exceeded in complexity, turbulence, rapidity of change and significance of change. All organizations, large and small, for their survival, must pay more

attention than ever before to their environment when formulating and implementing policies and strategies.

The purpose of this study is to develop a perspective about formulating and implementing agreement or policies by government as a key player in industrial/labour relations that will favorably accommodate the employer and employee. It seeks to present an overview of the importance of good governance in the process of collective bargaining and to maintain the peace culture in an environment that will comply with the motivation of workers.

The Logic of State Involvement in Labour Relations

The logic governing the involvement of the state in industrial/labour relations is, as aptly summed by Otopo (1988:161) "is rooted in economic, social and political foundations and has both national and international dimensions". This involvement has shown the fusion of state politics and organized labour business. The state system has social and economic influences on labour relations and on the control of public sector through governance. In the view of Omenka (2002:107):

Public sector is that segment of the country that is owned and controlled by the government of the federation or the agencies. It is the sector which serves all the citizens. In Nigeria, the concept of the public sector could be taken to imply: - the civil service bureaucracy exemplified by the federal, state and local government ministries and departments and the parastatals which include public corporations like Power Holding Company of Nigeria (PHCN), Nigeria Ports Authority (NPA), etc. Employees in these categories of the public sector form the largest number of workers in the country.

In every modern state, there are institutional elements that make up the state. These elements include the public service (variously referred to as civil administration or bureaucracy), law enforcement agencies (the police, the judiciary) as well as the legislature. People, some of who wield more power than others, occupy positions in institutions, which constitute the state. The point of emphasis here is that the state structures have positions which are occupied by people and, in the case of Nigeria; these groups form the largest paid employees or workers in Nigeria. This development places the Nigerian state as the major factor in the history of our industrial/labour relations system. As Omenka (2002:107) pointed out:

Unlike in developed nations where the industrial relations system in the public sector was modeled after that of the private sector, the practice in Nigeria is such that the opposite is the case.

The Practice of Governance in Labour Relations

In this study, the concept of governance is defined, according to Farazmand and Pinkowski (2006:703): "As involving all such governmental measures that guide, steer, control, or manage society". In essence, Dwivedi (2001:15) defined the term government:

As an institution, which refers to a set of investments through which people living in a state, believing and sharing a common core of values, govern themselves by means of laws, rules and regulations enforced by the state apparatus.

In further expression, Frederickson (1997:86) stated that:

Governance includes a range of activities involving all cultural communities and various stakeholders in the country, all government institutions (legislative, executive, administrative, judicial and parastatal bodies), political parties, interest groups, non-governmental organizations, (including civil societies) the private sector and the public sector.

The concept of governance is also viewed "as the exercise of political power to manage a nation's affairs" (World Bank, 1992) as well as "the manner in which power is exercised in the management of a country's economic and social development" (World Bank, 1994:vii).

The labour sector is one of the institutions in the country which government manages. For most labour relations business, government is a partner, sometimes silent and sometimes highly active and real. In Nigeria's national history, except in wartime, the government has been so deeply involved in labour relations that resulted in setting over thirty-six (36) wage commissions to fine tune labour relations. The government, particularly the federal government, has presented the most significant influences on labour operations as relates to growth, investments and capital markets. The impact of government on industrial/labour sector business in recent years has increased in response to the tough socio-economic problems and rising demands and expectations of people for a better living.

The expectations of the government can be measured from their performance and governance. Governance, from all empirical indications, in Nigeria, is largely government centered or protective. This implies the misapplication of governance to the protection of only the people at the helm of state craft and their offices. This form of governance becomes a misnomer and or aberration for state government to be a major player in labour relations (Omenka 2002). Most organizations in Nigeria are owned and controlled by the state government, and this leaves organized labour and the peasantry as the more likely threats to private profits and state controlled. Otobo (1988:163) explained in this form:

This political class itself would induce these threat by its consistent show of an embarrassing capacity to generate political instability by its own clumsiness and general incompetence at resolving internal contradictions and rivalries consequently jeopardizing the status quo itself.

On this background, labour relations issues themselves inevitably become politicized, relating as they do to differentials in pay, fringe benefits, status at work, control over work processes, living standards and attendant disputes and conflicts.

The Relevance of Collective Bargaining in Labour Relations

It is important to stress the role of collective bargaining in labour relations. The enhancement of production process inevitably necessitates a definite peace culture relationship between trade unions and the management. This relationship, broadly speaking concerns the implementation of labour agreements reached by the employer and employees. Issues such as the determination of general work force, keeping production high, providing welfare for workers, adjusting to technological change and so forth, are motivating factors that make collective bargaining essential in labour relations. In this sense, Chaturvedi (2006:53) defined collective bargaining as:

Settling matter appertaining to wage claims, conditions of work, productivity and related matters through bargaining between trade unions representing employees and organizations representing employers. This settlement is reached by influence, confronting and conciliation and brings about a de facto contract of employment, though it may not have any de jure status, as it would have no procedure in law.

In labour relations in Nigeria, government, employer and employees (labour unions) have tended to be antagonistic towards one another. This condition still exists and can only label both the government (management) and labour ineffective. Collective bargaining in its operational terms involves the government, employer and employees. In this context, the government has two functions: as an "employer" and as "umpire" to provide governance that will create healthy relationship to exist between the employer and employees, create enabling environment to make labour relations a success to the global economy. Management's task is therefore, primarily to devise appropriate strategies with which the organization can successfully utilized available resources into goods and services. The employees will ensure continuity of production. In analyzing this relationship, Araga (2008:11) stated:

Fundamentally, the basis of relationship between the employer and employees is the contract of employment. Hence, a contract of employment is an agreement that creates the relationship between the employer and employees, contain terms that are legally binding on both parties just like all other forms of contract.

Collective bargaining was further defined by Scott and Marshall (2005:84) as: A system for the fixing of earning and conditions of employment, in which the process of price (or wages), competition in the labour market between individual workers and individual employers were replaced, either in whole or in part, by rule fixing. These rules are of two kinds; procedural, regulating the forms and institutions under which collective negotiations are to be conducted, and, substantive, regulating the actual content of particular agreements. Typically, collective bargaining occurs between trade unions and an employer, or organization of employers.

From a critical assessment, in Nigeria, a system of governance will determine the success or failure of collective bargaining in the polity. The government will create the rules for fixing of wages, regulate the institutions that control the collective bargaining and influence the agreement between labour unions and the employers. In this post modern era, the government and the law in industrial societies have increasingly become parties to both the procedural and the substantive aspects. The government should not use their vantage positions to influence the labour relations in the polity. In his postmodern organization paradigm, Daft (1998:3) laid emphasis that:

Significant changes are occurring in organizations in response to changes in society at large, whereas modern paradigm focused on stable environment, routine technology, large organization size, growth and efficiency, goals, and a culture in which employees were taken for granted, the postmodern paradigm focus on a turbulent environment, non routine technology, small to moderate organizations, learning and effectiveness goals and a culture in which employees are empowered. Under the postmodern paradigm, organizational outcomes are on a more flexible and decentralized structure, a servant leadership, informal and oral communication, decentralized control and a guiding principle of egalitarianism.

Under the postmodern organization paradigm, employees are empowered to ensure that agreements reached are implemented to enhance productivity. "It helps to avert industrial actions and a way of solving collective grievances" (Daft,1998:3). The paradigm initiates consultations, getting recommendation to solve social, political

and economic problems. It brings about good planning and social peace. The workability of collective bargaining must be within the frame work of legislations, and no party should impose decisions, influence or intimidations.

Factors Working Against Implementation of Collective Bargaining in Nigeria

Various theories have been propounded to explain factors working against implementation of collective bargaining in Nigeria. According to Opara (2012), some schools of thought have simply heaped the blame on collapse of moral values. Others draw attention to long standing injustices and bad governance, while another group cited poor leadership.

The collapse of core moral values could be examined in the context of non-recognition and non-application of human relations theory of management, where the human employees are considered as the most important factor in the production process. Furthermore, Opara (2012:68) expressed that: "In this era of moral decadence, the employees are taken to be mere working tools that do not need adequate motivation for their efforts at the work place".

The labour-management relationship is rooted in the legality of public labour policy, which contains a system of fixing earnings and conditions of employment. It has rules that are of two kinds: procedural, regulating the forms and institutions under which collective negotiations are conducted, and, substantive, regulation of the actual content of particular agreements. When policy contents are not applied, it becomes application of injustice by the management/government to employees. No government/ management that imbibes or afflicts injustices to her workers without experiencing stiff resistance from the workers.

In every organization or state craft, success depends on the leadership. The leadership pattern will affect the performance of the workers, because the behaviour of the leader in charge of affairs proportionately affects the effectiveness and efficiency of the employees at work place. "By their ideas and deeds, leaders show the way and influence the behaviour of others" (Manning and Curtis, 2009:2).

When skill, intellect, candour and honesty are gradually relegated to the background, there is bound to be "collective action" by the workers in agitating for their labour rights. According to Scott and Marshall (2005:84), "this collective action theory talks about an action taken by a group either directly or on its behalf through an organization in pursuit of members' perceived shared interest". This organized collective action may degenerate into industrial unrest, riots, or the like actions that will create industrial conflicts or society wide conflicts.

The Basis for Peace Culture in Labour Relations

The importance of peace culture in labour relations cannot be over emphasized. According to Opara (2013:69), peace culture in this study means:

Creating enabling environment for creative management of human difference, initiating problem solving behaviour as a continuum in an organization setting. To maintain creative balance among bonding, to define identities, attitudes, values, beliefs and management patterns that lead people to work together harmoniously.

The aim is to collectively act in the support of peace building and promotion of ideals or principles, which include creating active labour relations and egalitarian civil society.

Furthermore, Opara (2013:68) explained labour relations as:

All about employer-employees relationship in the workplace. The essence of which is to enhance the employer-employees satisfaction and furtherance of industrial peace and organization growth. It deals on the application of naturally agreed duty in connection with status and roles of the workers in the organization and the relationship between the employer and employees and the outside world.

Also, Omenka (2002:106) is of the view that labour relations could be referred to: "As the study of these various kinds of inter-relationships as well as the rules guiding the organization's daily operations and the activities of institutions charged with job regulations". This relationship implies the labour-management relations that derive their legality through the recognition accorded by the government to the parties as partners in the production of goods and services. In another view, Fashoyin (1980:53), expressed that:

By the same token, there is a range of public legislation regulating their day to day activities in the labour-management relationship. This legislation is embodied in what is generally referred to as the public labour policy.

It implies that the position of government in labour relations is one acting as the watch-dog over the relationship between the employer and employees in the workplace. The existence of unions is to allow workers to participate in the determination of policies under which they will consent to work. The principal interest of the employer on the other hand is to maintain control of the organization especially by monitoring allocation of organization's resources.

Social Responsibilities and Peace Culture in Nigeria

In this study, the emphasis on social responsibilities is on the social policies aimed at meeting social needs, especially the state welfare system. The system has to adopt a practical, problem-solving and reforming approach for industrial and societal growth. To allow peace culture to flourish, the government should create an

enabling environment as a social responsibility for industrial/labour relations to operate. Effective security of the country is a social responsibility of the government for investment of business and to allow the management to apply human relations style of management on workers. In the application of human relations management, the workers shall have some duties to cultivate more efforts towards productivity and organizational growth.

Concluding Remarks

Change is the order of life in global business and effective change management is a necessary requirement in postmodern organization paradigm. In this light, the three labour relations partners (government, employers, and employees) must adopt the policy of instituting regular and scheduled review of terms and conditions of service for productive management. The government should effectively adhere to the principles of democratic norms, values, attitudes, in handling labour relations to ensure the growth of peace culture in the country.

In postmodern organizations' paradigm, the labour unions are leading performers in our social political economy. As a challenge, the labour unions should be more articulate to direct and inform the populace to develop constructive criticism on government policies that will stabilize peace culture. In this globalization epoch, the three major labour relations partners in Nigeria should, as a point of commitment, uplift the country to actively participate in the global economy.

Recommendations

The three partners (government, employers and employees) should imbibe good morality in their dealings to achieve peace culture. Hence, peace culture is the only way to provide good conflict resolution and meaningful development in a country.

The government of the day should engage on popular good governance and should imbibe the principles of democracy in organization management. The management and or government should create a situation where workers should have greater say in management decision making. Employers and government will derive more benefits in the form of increased productivity and efficiency. This is a form of industrial democracy, where steps are taken to allow workers to contribute in decision-making. Other consequences of workers' participation include improved workers' acceptance of decision, management capacity and accountability.

On collective bargaining, the government and employers' associations should adhere to the agreement reached with labour unions without any form of trust-gap. The impact of collective bargaining is not exclusively economic; it is also a major contributor to the management of democratic governance.

In sustaining peace culture in industrial/labour relations practice, the theory of "Collective action" should be checked with early warning approach. In this context, 'early warning' is understood as a part of mechanism that will help the three labour partners to size up threats of early crises by treating such promptly to the

appropriate collective decisions to take action. Failure to respond appropriately to stem the tide of the crises might brew or trigger off bigger consequences to manage.

The main concern is to detect the sign on conflict escalation which may result into collective action in due time in-order to initiate preventive measures (early responses, early action).

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INSECURITY AND NATIONAL ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IMPLICATIONS FOR NIGERIA'S VISION 20: 2020

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Abstract

Since the past decade or more, Nigeria has witnessed an unprecedented security challenges occasioned by the activities of militants in the south south region, kidnappers in the south east, violent armed robbery in almost parts of the country, political assassination, ritual killings and more recently activities of Boko Haram in some parts of the northern region especially north east. These social menace, when put together impinge on the security of lives and property of both Nigerian citizens and foreigners living or even trying to invest in the country. Thus, more particularly, since late last year 2011, suicide bombings in some parts of the northern region have put Nigerians and foreigners on their toes. This has become worrisome in the face of Nigeria's preparedness to be ranked among the twenty (20) developed countries of the world by the year 2020. These social menace trigger off a worrisome sense of insecurity that challenge Nigeria's efforts towards national economic development and consequently its vision 20:2020. It also scares the attraction of foreign investment and their contributions to economic development in Nigeria. This paper recommends effective leadership and good governance as a panacea to solving problems of insecurity, unemployment, poverty, hunger, disease, etc.

Keywords: Insecurity, Vision 20:2020, Militants, Kidnappers, Armed Robbers, Boko Haram and National Economic Development.

Introduction

Since the exit of the military from the political scene and the enthronement of democracy in Nigeria about 13 years ago, Nigeria has witnessed an unprecedented security challenges that have put Nigerians and foreigners on their toes. More particularly, since 2007, the state of insecurity in the country occasioned by the activities of different groups has assumed an alarming dimension. Such activities include militancy in the south south region, kidnapping in the south east, violent armed robbery, political assassination, ritual killings and more recently suicide bombings in some parts of the northern region especially north east. These social menace reinforce insecurity and impede Nigeria's efforts towards national economic development and with its consequence on Nigeria's vision 20:2020. Besides, foreign investors are scared away from making contributions to economic development in Nigeria.

President Jonathan had stated in the People's Democratic Party (PDP) National Working Committee (NWC) meeting held recently in Abuja that Boko Haram activities have affected his administration's ability to implement the 2012 budget aimed at achieving his transformation agenda. In particular, the activities of Boko Haram, following the frequent suicide bombings in the country especially in some parts of northern region, have culminated in the loss of lives and property and stagnation of economic activities. According to Olistemeka (2011:26), the several violent attacks by the Boko Haram have affected economic activities in Maiduguri and other cities in the north east as many residents have fled their homes while others who could not relocate, hardly go about their normal businesses. The city has been under siege from Boko Haram and the presence of the military following these senseless attacks that have put everybody on edge.

This paper laments the increasing security challenges facing Nigeria and the negative effects on national economic development and her preparedness to be ranked among the developed countries of the world by the year 2020. The methodology employed is library research, while descriptive method is used in analyzing this paper.

The study focuses on three fundamental issues viz:

1. To establish the causes of insecurity in Nigeria
2. To determine the implications of insecurity for Nigeria's vision 20:2020
3. To recommend measures out of the doldrum.

Conceptualization Of –Security, National Security, Insecurity And Economic Development Security

Macfarlane (1994) defines security as the protection of assets including people against damage, injury or loss from internal and external causes. Albert (2003) sees security as involving the survival of the state and the protection of individuals and groups within the state. The deduction from the above view is that the sovereignty

of a nation state may be determined by their capacity to safeguard citizens and her resources against any attack, be it from within or outside the state territory.

National Security

In the past, national security was perceived traditionally as building up defence and security manpower, and amassing or collecting weapon systems so that in the event of a threat situation, the state could meet the challenge. In other words, the state channeled all her energy and resources to military manpower and armaments. Thus, this idea of national security was perceived from a wrong direction. For instance, Mroz (1991), conceived national security as "the relative freedom from harmful threats". Similarly, Ian Bellany conceptualized national security as "relative freedom from war, coupled with a relatively high expectation that defeat will not be a consequence of any war that should occur". These conceptualizations of national security show that the state perceives it as equipping the military system in terms of training its personnel and armament acquisition or build up.

However, in the modern world, national security has taken a new dimension to embrace social, economic, cultural, political, environment and even technological variables. This became necessary because too many a scholar and researcher in this area or field, for a nation to be really secured, security must be seen from wholistic perspective. In this regard, lack of press freedom, obnoxious laws and policies, food insecurity, bad governance and ineffective leadership etc constitute critical security threats to any nation.

While recognizing the need for nations to have military forces McNamara (1968) insisted that development is essential for security. However, he regrets that ignorance on the part of leaders makes this fact problematic. In his words;

The rub is that we do not always grasp the meaning of security in this context. In a modernizing society, security means development, security is not military hardware, though it may involve it; security is not traditional military activity though it may encompass it. Security is development, and without development there can be no security. A developing nation that does not in fact develop, simply cannot remain secure for the intractable reason that its own citizenry cannot shed its human nature. This is what we do not always understand, and what governments of modernizing nations do not always understand.

The understanding here is that governments must look beyond mere equipping and applying or misapplying defence and security forces in the search for national security. Rather, they should give more attention to those factors that give rise to the urge to use or misuse defence and security forces such as poverty, unemployment, hunger and starvation, low technological development, lack of social amenities, obnoxious laws and policies and abuse of human and people's rights.

Booth (1991), one of the proponents of the new thinking on the concept of national security corroborated McNamara. He observed that:

One of themes of new thinking is the idea that security policy should have political accommodation as a primary and persistent aim. The adverse effects of identifying security almost exclusively with military strength was evident throughout the cold war. This approach can be described as strategic reductionism, that is conceiving security in a technical and mechanistic military way takes the politics out of strategy and reduces it to military accounting.

On his own part, Obasanjo (1999) conceives national security as the aggregate of the security interest of all individuals, communities, ethnic groups and the entire political entity. Thus, he argues that the preservation of the safety of Nigerians at home and abroad and elimination of corruption, pursuit of development, progress and the improvement of the welfare and quality of life of every citizen of Nigeria constitute our national security concern. He further sees national security as:

The aggregation of security interest of individuals, political entities, human association and ethnic groups, that make up a nation. The security interest includes safety of life and property, economic, psychological, mental well being and freedom to pursue the attainment of legitimate objectives without hindrance.

In his own analysis, Ogunbanwo (1997), writing on the developing world asserts that:

Security is more than military security from external attacks. For many of the 4 billion inhabitants in the developing countries, security is conceived as the basic level of the struggle for survival. Therefore in order to provide an integrated African security assessment, the non military dimensions of security should be added. Henceforth, African security as a concept should be applied in its broadest sense to include economic security, social security, environmental security, food security, the quality of life security and technological security.

Insecurity

It is a fear of the unknown; A feeling of trepidation and unsafe. Also, it is a state of being unable to protect lives and property. In other words, the person is vulnerable to damage, injury or loss from both internal and external causes. Thus, one can deduce from the definition that a nation's sovereignty cannot safeguard the citizen and her resource both within and outside the country. There are various types of insecurity.

- a. Job insecurity
- b. Food insecurity
- c. Political insecurity
- d. Economic insecurity
- e. Financial insecurity
- f. Social insecurity
- g. Demographic insecurity
- h. Gender/sexual insecurity
- i. Health insecurity
- j. Environmental insecurity
- k. Relationship insecurity
- l. Religious insecurity
- m. Moral insecurity
- n. Insecurity complex

Economic Development

One cannot conceptualize economic development without first invoking economic growth. This is because economic growth is one aspect of the process of economic development (Sen, 1983). Therefore, economic growth is the increasing capacity to satisfy the needs and wants of the economy overtime. It is conventionally measured as the percentage rate of increase in real gross domestic product, or real GDP.

On the other hand, economic development can be defined as "the process of improving the quality of human life through increasing per capita income, reducing poverty, and enhancing individual economic opportunities. It is also sometimes defined to include better education, improved health and nutrition, conservation of natural resources, a clear environment and a richer cultural life" (Penn State University, 2008). There are three variables of economic development.

First, structural change as defined by Matsuyama (1997) "is a complex, intertwined phenomenon, not only because economic growth brings about complementary changes in various aspects of the economy, such as the sector compositions of output and employment, organization of industry, etc but also these changes in turn affect growth" and hence can be seen through the development of an economy.

Second, external influence on government, and international institutions such as the World Bank and the IMF as well as MNCs, have the potential to decrease government control in its own country causing a loss of legitimacy (Riddell, 1992).

According to Miller (1992), external influence on local governments consists of political instability and policy instability. Political instability deals with the potential or actual change in the political system and the opportunities evolving from such changes. Policy instability refers to the instability in government policies.

Third, environmental conditions, which refer to “any change to the environment, whether adverse or beneficial, wholly or partially resulting from an organizations activities, products or services” (Service Canada, 2005).

Economic development generally refers to the sustained, concerted actions of policy makers and communities that promote the standard of living and economic health of a specific area. It can also be referred to as the quantitative and qualitative changes in the economy. Such actions can involve multiple areas including development of human capital, critical infrastructure, regional competitiveness, environmental sustainability, social inclusion, health, safety, literacy and other initiatives.

Causes of Insecurity In Nigeria

Insecurity in Nigeria can be attributed to many factors. These are as follows:

- a. **Imposition of unpopular policies-** Nigeria is yet to get a leader who will make policies that majority of her citizens embrace and support. More often than not, policies are foisted on people despite their opposition and disapproval. One of such policies was removal of fuel subsidy and deregulation of the downstream sector of the economy on January 1, 2012 by the Jonathan led government against people’s opposition and protest. This unpopular policy culminated into mass protest, crisis and violent demonstration as the youths engaged the police in a fight for two hours and threw missiles which led to the use of live bullets by the security agents. The security agents using live bullets caused the death of Mustafa Muyideen in Ilorin, Kwara state and another person was killed in Lokoja, Kogi state while many others sustained injuries in the violent demonstration that followed the removal of fuel subsidy (Obasi, 2012).
- b. **Corruption:** This is one social vice that is the bane of development of Nigeria despite her huge human and material resources. Corruption constitutes a run on the economy of any nation. This is the reason most governments in the world do not treat issues of corruption with kid gloves. In Nigeria, corruption seems to have defied solution despite the measures and campaign against it. Though, government has set up agencies like Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) and Independent Corrupt Practices and other related offences Commission (ICPC) as well as an enabling Act, but there is lack of political will to fight corruption. The global anti corruption watchdog, Transparency International ranked Nigeria 143 out of 182 countries in its 2011 Corruption Perceptions Index. Conversion of public funds to personal use remains pervasive. A recent report from the Independent Corrupt Practices and other Related Offences Commission (ICPC) showed that a government official was caught hiding #2 billion cash in his house ,so what do one tell that able bodied man or young adults, may be of Northern or Southern stock who

is unsheltered, sleeping in the street, sleeping inside broke down vehicles and could still dance to a good music in the day time, and at night could become a part of an insurrection group with law enforcement officers as a collective or representational target, unfortunately. What do you say to such a person? (Oshodi, 2012:17).

- c. **Unemployment** - In Nigeria today, unemployment is soaring very high because critical infrastructure like roads, constant power and water supply needed to create jobs is not put in place by the government despite promises made to fix them. According to Mohammed, a sociologist, with the high rate of youth unemployment, all manner of crimes such as the activities of Boko Haram, kidnapping and other vices were to be expected. "There is a serious economic violence on the people, that is why those with violent intentions can easily employ them. That is why religious organizations that talk about the youths get large followers" (Newswatch, 2011). Besides, the official rate released by the National Bureau for Statistics(NBS)puts unemployment at about 24 percent even though many unemployed Nigerians are yet to register with the government. Ekpo, an economist, opined that despite the healthy growth of the economy in the last five years, unemployment has been rising alongside the increased incidence of poverty. In 2007, eight million Nigerians were unemployed. The figure rose to 10 million in 2008 and hit 18 million in 2011. Ekpo stated that armed robbery, Kidnapping, gangsterism and other vices are not unrelated to the high rate of unemployment in the country and across the states." No country can afford to have millions of unemployed youths. This army of the unemployed can become a nuisance to society. It is a time bomb that must be diffused. It is sad and disheartening to see sound graduates of engineering, physics, mathematics being unemployed for about eight years after graduation from even our first generation universities or to see them selling recharge cards. This type of disguised unemployment is not healthy for the economy"(The News,2012).]
- d. **Poverty:** This is a social problem occasioned by unemployment and lack of empowerment. In other words, as unemployment rate increases, poverty level also rises. Poverty, despite decades of military rule by leaders from the north, coupled with a lack of formal education has driven the region's exploding youth population toward extremism. New government statistics released showed that in Nigeria's north west and north east regions besieged by Islamic insurgents, about 75 percent of the people live in poverty. Also, in a recent report of the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), Nigeria's poverty profile 2010 shows that at least 112.6 millions of Nigerians or 69 percent of the country's population are living below the poverty level. In the report by the Statistician-General of Nigeria, the highest poverty areas are within the

north –west and north-east geopolitical zones (Oshodi, 2012:15). In 2011, poverty level rose to almost 70 percent. According to Ekpo, the situation appears to have deteriorated because 11 percent of those with doctorate degrees could not find employment.

- e. **Terrorism/Suicide Bombing:** This is the greatest security challenge the government of President Jonathan has faced since assuming power last year. In some parts of the country especially north east, security of lives and property has been undermined due to the activities of Boko Haram. Boko Haram is a Nigerian Islamic militant group that is opposed to western education, but seeks the imposition of sharia laws in 12 states of Nigeria. The group has engaged in suicide bombings in different parts of the country including Abuja, Bornu ,Kano, Yobe, Plateau, Kaduna and Kogi that led to the loss of many lives and destruction of properties.
- f. **Defective Intelligence Gathering and Coordination on the part of security agencies as well as under funding and under equipment:** There is absence of effective information and intelligence gathering among the security agencies in Nigeria. For example, in the fight against terrorism, the Nigeria Police Force and State Security Service are enmeshed in unhealthy rivalry. According to Obi (2012),“by publicly discrediting the Police, members of the public have been told , in no unmistakable terms, that the Police and the SSS are working at cross roads or purposes. The public has known that there is no co-ordination between the two sister agencies; that they don't share information and /or intelligence reports”. Besides, the security agencies which include the Police, DIA, Army, Navy, Airforce and State Security Service are not adequately funded and equipped to match the Boko Haram militant group. These inadequacies on the part of the security agencies give hoodlums the leverage to tinker with the security system of the country.
- g. **External influence:** Since the terrorist attack on the United States of America in September, 2001 by Late Osama Bin Laden led Al Queda Network, terrorist groups have sprung up and spread across the length and breadth of the world, including Nigeria. Abu Qaqa, the spokesman of Boko Haram told Vanguard newspaper in November, 2011 that “al-Queda assists Boko Haram and any Muslim group struggling to establish an Islamic state (the News, 2012). Abu’s statement was corroborated by General Azazi who pointed out that many members of Boko Haram had received training in Afghanistan, Yemen, Pakistan, Somalia, Chad, Mauritania and Algeria. Besides, General Ham, the most senior America officer who specializes on Africa said that there is a strong tie between Boko Haram and Al-shabab (Obi, 2012:24).

The recent terrorist attacks in different parts of the country especially north east have shown that there is infiltration from outside Nigeria. According to Suswan (2012), membership of the Boko Haram sect transcend beyond Nigeria to include Niger Republic, Chad, Mali and some North African countries. Similarly, according to Ihejirika (2011), Boko Haram was receiving tactical support from foreign elements.

"It is definite that the youths who call themselves Boko Haram or terrorists receive training and possibly funding from foreign elements. This is evident in the type of weapons that we have captured from them and from the expertise that they have displayed in the preparation of improved explosive devices. These are pointers to the fact that there is foreign involvement in the terrorism going on in Nigeria". Furthermore, as reported in a 2005 foreign Affairs article on the terrorist threat in Africa.

To date, there is no evidence that terrorist cells have penetrated northern Nigeria, nor that terrorist and criminal syndicates have linked up. But the situation is increasingly dangerous. The Bush administration singled out Nigeria as a country with significant impact and deserving of focused attention (Lyman and Morrison, 2004).

- h. **Inequality and Uneven Development:** The increasing inequality and uneven development in the country are helping to fuel Boko Haram. "You can't just have this level of inequality persist. That's what's fueling all this stuff, said Clinton, who appeared along with Cherie Blair, the wife of former British Prime Minister Tony Blair, at this day Awards, an annual ceremony hosted by Nigerian Newspaper Magnate Nduka Obeigbena. "It is almost impossible to cure a problem based on violence with" violence, Clinton said. "You also have to give people something to look forward to when they get up in the morning" (This Day Newspaper, 2012). Similarly, at the 52nd Independence anniversary lecture titled "Nigeria: security, Development and National Transformation in Abuja, former Ghanaian President Kuffour said "naturally, Imbalanced development that involves horizontal inequalities is an important source of conflict and that is costing Nigeria the opportunity to be the giant nation that it can and should be (Daily Sun Newspaper, 2012).

Vision 20:2020

This is an idea, plan or roadmap of becoming one of the twenty largest economies of the world by the year 2020. The fundamental objectives subsume the promotion of responsible leadership, transparency, accountability, rule of law and security of lives and property. It also involves enhancing productivity, diversification and competitiveness of the nation's economic sectors, improving the nation's prospects for achieving the MDGS and creating employment in a sustainable manner.

The first national implementation plan (1st NIP) for Nigerian vision 202020 (NV 202020) has three main volumes.

The first volume contains three main parts. The part I of the document presents the strategic framework for the plan, which is premised on Nigeria's vision of becoming the 20th economy in the world by the year 2020. The part II is the macro-economic framework and encompasses a review of recent developments in the economy (1999-2009), the global macro-economic outlook (2010-2013) and the macro-economic projections for the plan period. The part III deals with implementation arrangement, monitoring and evaluation strategy and the financing plan.

The second volume gives the details of the sector plans of four of the six identified thematic areas. These are physical infrastructure, productive sector, human capital and social development and knowledge based economy; the sectoral chapters encompass, sector policy thrusts, objectives, strategies and targets, as well as, cost programmes and projects that will be implemented during the plan period.

The third volume contains two thematic areas: governance and general administration, and regional/geo-political zones development. In addition, the plan integrates the states proposed programmes and investment plan for the plan period. However, it should be noted that not all the states have made available their state programs as at date. Consequently, the document will continue to be updated as more states tender their investment plans.

The Implications of Insecurity For Vision 20:2020.

Nigeria as a member of the international community and a player in the global politics has a vision to be ranked among the twenty (20) developed nations by the year 2020. To this end, Jonathan led government has drawn a road map and set up an agenda to achieve this vision.

However, the increasing state of insecurity in the country as a result of the activities of Kidnappers, militants, violent armed robbers and more especially the Boko Haram sect seems to make the dream or vision unrealistic.

This scourge by these hoodlums has implications for Nigeria achieving its stated vision by the year 20 20.

In the first place, the increasing state of insecurity presently in Nigeria especially by Boko Haram sect, has culminated into Nigeria being black listed and given bad image as a terrorist nation by the international community. On 25 December 2009, a Nigerian, Umar Farouk Abdumuttallab, attempted to blow up an American airline enroute Amsterdam from Detroit (Olawale, 2012). This botched terrorist attempt strained US-Nigeria relations but was however resolved diplomatically. Nigeria was still included in the list of terrorist nations like Yemen, Afghanistan, Tunisia, Somalia, Iraq, Pakistan, Sudan to mention but a few. Consequently, Nigerians travelling abroad are subjected to serious security scrutiny more than others, and those staying or living abroad are also looked at as security risks.

Secondly, insecurity impinge on the political stability of the country. Thus, when the political system is unstable as a result of crisis, the government in power is distracted from pursuing its goal of transforming the country and moving it to the next level. This is because rather than focus on the agenda of government in power, government will be compelled to channel all her energy and resources towards security at the expense of other social goods that should be delivered to the people. For example in the 2012 budget security took a large chunk of N921.91 billion, (Newswatch, 2012) when compared with other sectors like education, health, agriculture etc, yet the country is plunged into instability as peace in the polity seems to be a mirage.

Thirdly, Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) in the country has dropped. When there is insecurity in the country, foreign investors are scared away from coming to invest their capital and contribute towards economic development. According to President Jonathan following his meeting with British Prime Minister, David Cameron in Lagos July 19 instead of Abuja, "Boko Haram began as a religious agitation but has snowballed into a monster". However, he promised to deal with the situation in order not to jeopardize foreign investment in the country (News watch, 2011).

Fourthly, the economy suffers from stagnation. There is multiplier effect of insecurity on the economy of the country. These include drop in foreign direct investment (FDI), unemployment, poverty, etc. In the Northern part of the country, Newswatch (2012) learnt that a group of investors from Germany, who wanted to build a cement factory in Maiduguri, have withdrawn from the project due to the activities of Boko Haram. The group got the approval of the late President Umaru Musa Yar' Adua's government for the project and had been on it for about four years and had already finished the preliminary phase of the planning including site clearing. Construction work was to begin only to be confronted by an upsurge of violence and bomb explosions. Similarly, Junger (2007), insecurity in the Niger Delta region caused production losses up to 25% in 2005 and 2006, contributing directly to world oil prices. Should the situation in the Delta continue to deteriorate, multinational oil companies risk losing further billions of dollars in potential earnings and importing countries will face increased oil price volatility which if serious enough could affect their national economic performance (Goldwyn and Morrison, 2004). In the south east especially Abia state, Kidnapping and armed robbery activities grounded the economy of the state to a halt few years ago. Thus, small and medium scale enterprises closed down their businesses, and even banks shut down their operations because they were losing so much money to the armed robbers. In some other parts of the country, Kidnapping and armed robbery activities took their toll on the lives and property of both Nigerian citizens and foreigners. For example, in Kano State, Repauch fritz, a German engineer attached to Dantata and Sawoe Construction Limited, was killed during a raid to free him from some kidnappers in a hide –out. Similarly, Franco Limolinara, an Italian and Christopher Mcnamus, a Briton were killed by Kidnappers. In Lagos, Ogun, Kaduna, Edo, Kogi, Ondo and Zamfara states to mention but a few, armed robbery incidents claimed the lives of many

people and while a bank in Kogi state had its vault emptied, four others in Ogun State invaded by armed robbers lost huge sums of money (The News, 2012).

Fifth, Nigeria has lost both human resources and property worth Billions of naira to the blasts by Boko Haram. In the former, people who should have contributed ideas and proffered solutions to national problems and paid taxes to the government for economic development died due to the blast. The insurgency of sect had led to the senseless killings of hundreds of innocent people. The sect's suicide bombers have unleashed Mayhem on citizens, first in Bornu and Yobe states and later Bauchi, Gombe, Adamawa, Abuja, Kaduna, Plateau, Niger, Kano and more recently Kogi states. It has killed at least 700 persons in the past two years (News watch, 2012). This affects the population and demand for goods and services that could boost the economy of the nation. In the latter, money that should have been used to provide new infrastructure would be channeled back to rebuild those properties destroyed. For example, the United Nations (UN) building in which President Jonathan announced recently a donation of about N3 billion for its reconstruction, others are Police Headquarters, Police Stations, Mosques, Churches, Markets, etc.

Measures To Tackle Security Challenges In Nigeria

The increasing level of insecurity in Nigeria occasioned by the activities of different groups especially in the northern part of the country, for example the north east, has instilled fear in both citizens and foreigners living in the country. Consequently, the federal government, individuals, groups, organizations (religious and political), non-governmental organizations and even the international community continue to articulate views and make suggestions on the way out of the doldrum. In particular, the federal government has been put under pressure to find lasting solution to security challenges facing the country.

First, government has core responsibilities to its citizens, the greatest being good governance which political leaders pledge to provide but which they renege at all levels. There is no doubt, this could be remotely connected to the disaffection in the polity. Government should put all political options on the table and nothing should be left in the search for peace. The Presidency should be free to talk with any agitated group or segment, without compromising public law and order, or the corporate existence of the country.

Second, government should create an enabling environment for job opportunities for the teeming Nigerian youths. This can be done through laws, policies and provision of infrastructural facilities which will facilitate investment and creation of jobs by the private sector organizations in the country.

Third, terrorism is a global problem especially after the 2001 attack on America by Late Osama Bin Laden Al Queda Network. This calls for synergy with the international community to fight the scourge of terrorism. Although, the federal government is collaborating with some countries and organizations which have even voluntarily offered to assist Nigeria in the fight against terrorism (eg US, UK, Israel,

South Korea and other bodies like AU, ECOWAS and UN), there is an urgent need to galvanize their efforts more effectively to check the Boko Haram sect whose activities have instilled fear in every Nigerian because of the mysterious way they carry out their mayhem. It should also diversify and strength its means of creating avenue for international intelligence sharing and inter agency cooperation through diplomatic channels/pacts.

Fourth, the security agencies including the Police, DIA, Army, SSS, Navy and Air force should be trained and retrained in a modern way of combating terrorism. Though, this is ongoing now, it should be supported and followed by the provision of modern equipment and facilities by the government to enhance intelligence gathering and effective coordination of the activities of security agencies in the country. Besides, government should increase its budget allocation to these agencies in order to boost their morale in securing lives and property of both Nigerian citizens and foreigners living in the country.

Fifth, corruption is the bane of Nigeria's development. Thus, in the face of huge resources that accrue to Nigeria from her mineral resources, majority of Nigerians still wallow in abject poverty as few people monopolize the resources (Tambuwal, 2012). This attracts negative reactions from youths that impinge on our security. President Jonathan should muster political will to deal with the acts of corruption instead of the lethargic attitude towards the vice. According to Akanbi (2012), "I know that if we don't kill corruption, corruption will kill us if we continue the way we are going". The war against corruption has to be total. We have to follow the examples of the likes of Leo Kuan Yew of Singapore or follow the example of Hong Kong Kuan Yew who made sure that the man who headed its corruption battle was learned and committed to fighting corruption.

Sixth, Boko Haram group is sponsored by some Nigerians apart from international sponsorship (Abimbola, 2010). The federal government should fish out their sponsors especially Nigerians and make them face the law accordingly. In this regard, President Jonathan should ensure that the law against terrorism is implemented to the letter against those found culpable no matter how highly placed if the goal of stamping out terrorism can be achieved.

Seventh, it has become imperative to decentralize the Nigeria Police Force because of the increasing security challenges witnessed in the states instead of the present centralized system. Though, discussions are going on in various quarters as individuals, groups and government officials are making their views and opinions known either for or against the issue. At the state level, the commissioners of Police are answerable to the Inspector General of Police (IG) and not the Governors, yet the latter are responsible for breaches of security in their respective states. If and when approved, a law should be enacted by the National Assembly to forestall abuse by the Governors.

Summary

Insecurity is a fear of the unknown. It is a feeling of trepidation and unsafe. Thus, a state of being unable to protect lives and property. It varies and includes job, political, economic, social and environmental insecurity to mention but a few.

On the other hand, economic development refers to the sustained, concerted actions of policy makers and communities that promote the standard of living and economic health of a specific area. Its variables include structural change, external influence and environmental conditions. Insecurity is caused by imposition of unpopular policies, corruption, unemployment, poverty, terrorism, external influence, inequality and uneven development. Its implications are as follows: negative image of the country, political instability, economic stagnation, lack of foreign direct investment, etc. However, effective leadership and good governance, well equipped, coordinated security and effective intelligence gathering, enabling environment for job opportunity, synergy between Nigeria and the international community and equitable distribution of national resources and egalitarian society can nip in the bud security challenges, and hence leverage the chances of our vision by the year 2020.

Conclusion

Insecurity occasioned by the activities of militants, kidnappers, violent armed robbers and more especially Boko Haram in the country can truncate our dream of achieving Vision 20: 20 20, if not tackled or checked by the government. This can be done by government proving effective leadership and good governance, ensuring well equipped and coordinated security and enhancing intelligence gathering mechanism through synergy between Nigeria and the international community. Besides, equitable distribution of national resources and egalitarian society are essential or germane to achieving our vision.

Recommendation

With regard to Nigeria's vision to be ranked among one of the 20 top most economies in the world by the year 2020, we hereby make the following recommendations. First, effective leadership and good governance have the capacity to ensure political stability in the country and guarantee economic growth and development. Second, well equipped, funded and coordinated security can protect lives and property through intelligence gathering mechanism with the cooperation of the international community. Third, government should create an enabling environment for job opportunities for the teeming unemployed youths. This can be done through laws, policies, programmes, projects and provision of infrastructural facilities like roads, potable pipe borne water and constant power supply that can attract investment especially foreign direct investment. Fourth, government should ensure equity and egalitarian society without discrimination.

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BRAIN DRAIN AS A CLOG IN THE WHEEL OF NIGERIA'S DEVELOPMENT: THE UNIVERSITY EDUCATION SYSTEM IN FOCUS

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Abstract

The critical and catalytic role of qualified and skilled manpower in facilitating a country's rapid and sustainable socio-economic and technological advancement cannot be under-estimated. Nations today depend increasingly on knowledge, ideas and skills for solutions to their developmental problems. The impact that a creative and skilled individual can make via his/her inventions, innovations and/or discoveries can be greater than the labour of thousands of unskilled individuals. In contrast, absence or gross inadequacy of pre-requisite manpower considerably retards the socio-economic and technological growth and development of a nation. This is because her capacity to develop her intellectual resources further, manage her institutions and provide required services to her citizens is seriously impaired. This study critically examines the brain drain phenomenon and its causes in Nigeria. These causes range from lack of employment, poor remuneration for top flight intellectuals and professionals, political instability, security risks to lack of research and other facilities (including inadequacy of research funds and professional equipment and tools). Others are under-utilization of qualified personnel, unsatisfactory working conditions, low prospects of professional development, lack of job satisfaction and poor standard of living. The research reveals that the consequences of this phenomenon include **inter alia** drastic fall in the standard of education, tremendous reduction in the quality of skilled manpower in tertiary institutions in Nigeria (particularly the universities), depletion of Nigeria's natural supply of intellectual and professional manpower and rise in the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of the receiving countries. The paper argues cogently that for national development to be appreciable and sustainable, the issue of brain drain ought to be adequately addressed. The paper concludes by proffering suggestions on how to combat and curb the menace in Nigeria.

Keywords: Brain drain, clog, wheel, development.

Introduction

Undeniably, human resources constitute the ultimate basis of production activities. Capital and natural resources are passive factors of production. Human beings, on the other hand, are active agents who accumulate, exploit natural resources, build social, economic and political organizations and carry forward societal development. In short, human resources often used interchangeably with manpower are a nation's most critical and valuable resources. In the words of Kinard (1988), they are more important than physical and financial resources. Without the required human capital in the form of stocks of skills possessed by human beings, physical capital in the form of machines and other technologies will not give rise to rapid economic growth and development.

Economists (especially development economists) have tended, in their treatment and analysis of Nigeria's economic woes, to concentrate principally on the difficulties arising from shortage of financial resources. Implicit in this line of argument is the assumption that if financial resources were available in sufficient quantities, they would be well managed. Research, according to development scholars such as Emeghara (2006) has, however, revealed that problems arising from dearth of skilled manpower particularly in the scientific, engineering, technical and managerial areas are indeed more critical and serious than those associated and connected with mere scarcity of capital.

It is on this premise that this study was conducted to examine the brain drain syndrome in Nigeria which has further exacerbated her human capital crisis. This is through the stimulation of outflow of a significant number of her most highly qualified and skilled nationals to overseas countries (particularly the industrialized countries of the North) in search of greener pasture.

The study therefore, illuminates the causes of brain drain in Nigeria. It concludes by suggesting measures to redress the ugly trend.

The Concept of Brain Drain

The term, brain drain, is also known as human capital flight. It means large-scale movement or migration of top flight manpower from various developing countries (predominantly African countries) to more developed countries notably United States of America, Canada, United Kingdom, Germany, France, Italy, Holland, New Zealand and Australia. As earlier stated, the chief reason for this movement is the quest for better opportunities. Similarly, the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English defines brain drain as "a movement of highly skilled or professional people from their own country to a country where they can earn more money". With particular reference to the University system, Utile (2008) conceptualizes brain drain as "the mass exodus of highly trained and well experienced academics from

countries with poor conditions of service to those with better work conditions in search of greener pasture".

Brain drain is common amongst such skilled personnel as medical doctors, pharmacists, nurses, medical laboratory scientists, industrial chemists and pilots. Others are computer scientists, engineers, university lecturers, researcher technologists and lawyers

The term "brain drain" originally referred to technological workers leaving a nation. But nowadays its application or meaning has widened to include the migration of educated and professional people from one country, economic sector or field for another usually for better remuneration and/or living conditions (Merriam Webster Dictionary, 2010).

Brain drain is usually considered an economic cost on the part of the releasing countries. This is because migrants usually take with them the fraction of value of their training sponsored by governments or other organizations. It could be likened to capital flight which refers to the same movement of financial capital. The converse of brain drain is brain gain. Thus, whilst developing countries from which trained personnel are migrating are suffering from brain drain, developed nations are experiencing brain gain.

Basically, brain drain entails the transfer of knowledge, experience, skill and expertise from one region, country or geographic location to another. Brain drain has grown in scale due to recent developments in modern electronic information technology, the widening of gap between the South and the North and spread of corporate globalization, an increasing political instability, civil wars and social and religious strife in many Southern and African countries, of which Nigeria is one.

Another term closely related to brain drain is brain waste. This is a situation whereby foreign nationals or workers are often hired to do jobs for which they are over qualified. For instance, there are many Nigerian doctors and European scientists working as taxi drivers in some large United States of American cities like New York, Chicago, Texas, Michigan, Washington, etc.

The obvious implication of this scenario is that Nigeria is being deprived of valuable contributions of this highly skilled manpower who are grossly underutilized in the USA. This is because they would have been contributing their quota to the development of the country if they were at home.

Causes of Brain Drain in Nigeria

The pertinent and worrisome question is: why have Nigerian intellectuals and professionals left or contemplating seriously leaving the country? A variety of reasons account for the migration of a large chunk of Nigeria's best brains from the country to other parts of the globe (especially the West). Previous and recent studies have revealed that a key driver of intellectual and professional exodus from Nigeria is the harsh economic condition under which most intellectuals and professionals work. Next is the desire to go to countries that could pay for and utilize their competitive skills (Adebayo, 2010).

It is germane, however, that we also take cognizance of the social, political and psychological pressures that compel Nigerian intellectuals and professionals to seek more conducive climates for their work and lives. It should therefore, occasion no surprise that they avail themselves of better opportunities in other countries when the situation presents itself.

In this study, we shall adopt a bi-polar model of push and pull factors propounded by Lee (1966) in analyzing the factors responsible for brain drain in Nigeria. The former are the depressing characteristics in the countries of origin which produce emigration, whilst the latter are the attracting features in the countries of destination. Prominent amongst the push factors are lack of employment opportunities, under employment, political instability, security risks, lack of research and other facilities and unsatisfactory working conditions. Others include desire for higher qualification and recognition, better career expectation, discrimination in appointment and promotion, lack of job satisfaction, desire for a better urban life and lack of freedom.

The pull factors, on the other hand, include better economic prospects (especially better employment opportunities and enhanced remuneration), higher standard of living, easy access to inputs necessary for satisfying job performance, adequate/proper value for intellectual and professional worth and better opportunity for higher education. Others are relative political stability, allocation of substantial funds for research, intellectual freedom, better service conditions, prestige of foreign training and better research facilities.

Effects of Brain Drain on Nigeria

Brain drain has been identified as one of the principal factors hampering development in Nigeria especially in the University system, teaching hospitals and research centres. This was especially during the 1990s (Adebayo, 2010). The phenomenon has caused and continues to cause incalculable damage to the country. Its effects on Nigeria are legion and multifarious. Some of the consequences are discussed below:-

a) Drastic Fall in Standard of Education The mass movement of highly skilled and seasoned academics from Nigeria's tertiary institutions (particularly universities) to overseas countries for greener pasture has certainly adversely affected the quality of outputs from the institutions. As Yesufu (1996) aptly observes "the quality of graduates is so poor that their impact on the national economy in terms of productivity is generally below the required standard for a developing economy".

Corroborating the above view, Oni (2008) avers that "the mass movement of academics from the nation's universities to other countries has invariably taken its toll on the quality of outputs produced from the system". He further laments that "in this very depressing situation the process of teaching, research, publication and

knowledge development has no relevance to the challenges of the next millennium or even the present global market".

b) Tremendous Reduction in the Quality of Skilled Manpower in Nigeria's Tertiary Institutions, Teaching Hospitals and Research Centres

Akin to the issue of fall in standard of education is that of reduction in the quality of skilled manpower in institutions of higher learning in Nigeria. Ipso facto, there is mass exodus of seasoned intellectuals from these institutions (especially the ivory tower) to other sectors of the economy within the country or other countries for greener pasture. It is hardly surprising, that the quality and quantity of academic staff will be considerably reduced. In this perspective, Mbanefo (1992) aptly observes that "today the Nigerian university system continues to suffer from intellectual haemorrhage created by the problem of brain drain". This, according to him, is more so in the very critical fields of human medicine, pharmacy, computer science and engineering. Similarly, in the words of Adebayo (2010) many hospitals and research centres in Nigeria were without specialist and consultants in the 1990s, whilst many higher education institutions (HEIs) were left hollow and shallow. The clear implication of this development is that as a result of migration of technological know - how, the economy cannot grow.

c) Retardation of Socio-economic and Technological Growth and Development of Nigeria

There is no gainsaying the fact that like other developing nations, brain drain has seriously retarded the socio-economic and technological growth and development of Nigeria. This is by depleting her natural supply of intellectual and valuable manpower. Evidence abounds to show that there are many talented and well educated Nigerians such as medical doctors, pharmacists, nurses, medical laboratory scientists, computer scientists, professors, lawyers, pilots, etc working and living in overseas (especially in the West). The educational and health sectors of the Nigerian economy appear to be the most affected by brain drain. For instance, according to Jibril and Obaje (2008) a source estimates the population of Nigerians in the United States of America as follows:

as of 2004, up to 3.24 million Nigerians were in the United States alone...Some 374, 000 were information technology professionals 202,000 were medical and allied professionals, about 50,000 were engineers and another 250,000 were professionals in other areas, including University lecturers.

Also, according to estimates of the Presidential Committee on Brain Drain set up in 1988 by the Babangida administration and headed by Professor Oye Ibidapo-Obe, former Vice-Chancellor of the University of Lagos, Nigeria between 1986 and 1990 lost 10,694 professionals from tertiary institutions alone. Also according to

Bangura (1994) between 1988 and 1990 over 1000 lecturers left federal universities in Nigeria. Ekundayo et al (2010) have, in their own view, opined that it is widely believed that more than 10,000 Nigerian academics were employed in the United States alone in 2010.

Similarly, according to the Minister of Health in the Abacha regime Dr. Ihechukwu Madubuike, 21,000 Nigerian doctors were practicing in the United States alone in 1995. According to him, by the time Nigerian doctors in Saudi Arabia and the Gulf States, Europe, Australia and those in other African countries are included, the figure would be close to 30,000. It is perhaps pertinent to stress that during this period Nigeria's health system was in a state of near collapse due largely to acute dearth of experienced medical practitioners. Evidence indicates that this appalling situation has not yet been ameliorated accordingly. This is evident in the medical check-up or treatment trips abroad by Nigerians. These educated Nigerians abroad (ENA) are basically making very insignificant or no contributions to the economy of Nigeria. Rather, they are contributing meaningfully to the economies of overseas countries (particularly the industrialized nations of the North) where vast majority of them are domiciled. By so doing, the West has become the major beneficiaries of their talents.

d) Increased Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of the Receiving Countries

Undoubtedly, with the flight of seasoned intellectuals and professionals to other countries due mainly to better opportunities, the GDP of the receiving countries are boosted. Consequently, whilst the receiving countries are the winners, the releasing countries (Nigeria in particular) are automatically the losers (Utile, 2008).

Other negative consequences of brain drain include: it increases the level of dependence on foreign aid by Nigerian government; it costs Nigeria billions of naira (huge foreign exchange) to replace Nigerians with expatriates from the West; it brings about separation of family members and leads to less adequate family cohesion thereby promoting delinquency (Osinowo, 2005).

Conversely, some scholars have expressed the view that brain drain is not an unmitigated phenomenon. They have argued that on a global level, free movement or interaction of highly skilled people is a positive thing which has its own merits and results in better development of the World and nations forming it. They are of the opinion that Nigeria has benefitted (albeit marginally) from the process in certain respects (Onwuhaonye, 2011). First is that through brain drain foreign remittances have been and will continue to be sent by migrants to their families back home to boost their families' income. It has been argued that monetary remittance is one of the main reasons family members tolerate migration and physical absence of their loved ones. Conversely, their inability or failure to remit money to their families at home has aggravated rather than ameliorated their (families') economic condition.

Next is the belief that brain drain is capable of transferring technology from the advanced industrialized nations of the West to developing countries like Nigeria. Accordingly, as Onwuhaonye (2011) posits the migrants would eventually return to

Nigeria with the knowledge acquired over the years and impact same on the ready and willing Nigerians. However, their contribution in this regard will be minimal as most of them would have wasted their talents by the time they are back.

As already emphasized, from whatever angle it is considered, the cost of brain drain to Nigeria is incalculable in terms of both development opportunities and loss of investments. This is as result of loss of her highly skilled manpower

Suggested Solutions

In view of the deleterious effects of brain drain on Nigeria's economy, it is hereby suggested that urgent steps should be taken towards curbing the menace. Below are some of the ways out.

i) Proper Funding of Tertiary Education in Nigeria Funds are very critical to tertiary education in Nigeria. Without adequate finance, tertiary education can hardly function properly. In this study, we shall use the university system for our analysis. This is because of its pivotal role in the whole gamut of Nigerian tertiary education. University education has over the years witnessed inadequate funding. As Odekunle (2001) succinctly notes, Nigerian universities have been grossly underfunded which resulted in the loss of great deal of valuable manpower to overseas countries. Also, according to Saint et al (2003), the university system in Nigeria has not had the financial wherewithal necessary to maintain educational quality even in the midst of significant population explosion. Worse still, Olukoya (2005) has painted a grimmer picture with the assertion that Nigerian universities have become "glorified secondary schools", due to overcrowded classrooms, with students sitting on the floor during lectures, lack of books in libraries, ill-equipped laboratories that cannot conduct experiments, and the menace of brain drain. It therefore entails that for the universities to execute their mandate satisfactorily they should be properly funded. In this regard, Mgbekem (2004) aptly opines that "there is the dire need for efficient funding of the university system through increased budgetary provision". This is necessary for the maintenance of dilapidated or decaying infrastructure, procurement of new equipment, relevant books and journals, chemicals and other vital learning inputs.

Also, given the capital-intensive nature of university education the universities themselves ought to adopt a number of strategies in order to exploit alternative sources of revenue. This is necessary rather than depending solely on revenue profile of the government. This is because experience has shown that government alone cannot provide all the resources required by the universities due to lack of predictability in resource flow. To this end, the Minister of Education Professor Riqqayatu Rufai recently commended the efforts of the University of Ilorin for putting in place recreational facilities for commercial purposes in order to boost internally generated revenue. She, therefore, enjoined other Nigerian universities to embrace the University of Ilorin example so as to improve their internal revenue base.

ii) Provision of Conducive Working Environment Based on the premise that unsatisfactory working environment, owing largely to dilapidated and obsolete facilities, was and is still partly responsible for human capital flight in Nigeria, it is suggested that urgent and massive overhaul of facilities especially in the universities, hospitals and research centres be undertaken. In the view of Ekundayo et al (2010), apart from the physical working environment, there is also the compelling need to make the psycho-social environment conducive. In this regard, there should be proper appreciation and recognition for intellectual and professional worth. Also, the Nigerian government should address and review all the various policies that have triggered the migration stream of intellectuals from universities, and other professionals like doctors, pharmacists, nurses, engineers, etc, from the country. For instance, the hitherto frequent harassment, arrest and dismissal from service of leaders of Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) which was common during the military era should not be allowed to re-occur.

iii) Upward Review of the Pay Package for Academics and Professionals based on their Qualifications Incontrovertibly, there exists a strong correlation between motivation via enhanced remuneration and employee performance (Ogunna, 1999). However, the research has revealed that there has been a general lack of motivation amongst Nigerian lecturers and professionals like medical doctors, pharmacists, nurses, lawyers, medical laboratory scientists, etc, due chiefly to poor wages. For instance, available statistics from ASUU Secretariat Abuja indicates that until recently, Nigerian lecturers constituted one of the least paid workers in the country. For example, whilst the annual salaries of some public sector (Oil and iron and steel) workers as at 1997 were N600,000 and N400,000 respectively, that of university academic staff was N54,000 (ASUU, National Secretariat Publication, 1997).

Worse still is the comparative disadvantage suffered by Nigerian academic vis-à-vis their contemporaries in other African countries. For instance, according to (Adebayo, 2009) a survey conducted in 2007 by the National Universities Commission (NUC) Abuja found that a full professor in Botswana earned \$27,000 per annum, in Namibia between \$21,000 and \$35,000 and in South Africa between \$58,000 and \$75,000. Whilst in Nigeria even with all the adjustments that ASUU was able to negotiate then with the Federal Government, the same professor earned about \$12,000 per annum in 2006. The same was applicable to other Nigerian professionals.

All the above led to a tremendous decline in the purchasing power of lecturers and other professionals and served as a strong incentive for brain drain. Perhaps the above unsavoury state of affairs may have influenced the present upward review of salaries of lecturers and professionals by government. Whilst the measure is commendable, it is the considered opinion of this paper that more needs to be done in this regard to further enhance their productivity.

iv) Enthronement of Good Governance. Brain drain has been identified as a product of bad governance. It is also a product of structural inequality in the political economy of Nigeria where those who control political power aggregate economic power to themselves through corruption. Hence, enthronement of good governance anchored on the principles of the rule of law, high level of integrity, transparency, probity and accountability becomes imperative. Also, there should be establishment of necessary and positive socio-political and economic conditions to curb brain drain. Of paramount importance is provision of a conflict-free political environment for the immigrants to return in order to contribute to the economic development of Nigeria. In this regard, the federal government should as a matter of urgency come to grips with security challenges being posed by kidnapping and Boko Haram menace in the southern and northern parts of Nigeria respectively.

v) Creation of Job and Career Opportunities with Commensurate Remuneration Another way of stemming the tide of brain drain in Nigeria is creation of adequate job and career opportunities with commensurate salaries. Evidence has indicated that there are scores of Nigerian professionals such as doctors, pharmacists, nurses, engineers, lawyers, etc , currently abroad who are tired of second class status in their countries of stay. They are willing to return to Nigeria provided they are assured that appropriate employment and career opportunities would be made available for them.

vi) Provision of Educational Opportunities Education plays a crucial role particularly in the growing problems of international migration. Thus, offering the individuals the necessary educational qualification in their home countries and expanding better educational infrastructure are capable of preventing emigrants from seeking a higher education abroad.

vii) Staff Retention Programme Another means of curbing brain drain in Nigeria especially in the university system is by putting in place staff retention programmes. This entails adopting measures capable of dissuading those still in the system from thinking about leaving. One of such measures is by providing deserving individuals with career opportunities as well as affording them the opportunity to prove their mettle. Another is the promotion of existing staff who have proven adequate academic excellence to senior lecturers, readers and/or professors (Mgbekem, 2004). All the above are capable of rejuvenating staff morale necessary for higher productivity.

viii) Nigerian Experts and Academics in Diaspora Scheme (NEADS)

The NEADS was launched in November, 2004. Its main aim is to attract experts and academics of Nigerian extraction in the Diaspora to contribute their quota to the development of the Nigerian university system and by extension to the development of the country through short-term academic appointments. According to Ajayi and

Ayodele (2005), this programme is designed to encourage the return of academics of Nigerian origin in the Diaspora to come and contribute to national development through engagement in teaching, research and community services. In the words of Yaqub (2007), if the scheme can be sustained, those who fled the country at the height of the economic trough and military dictatorship may eventually be lured back on a voluntary basis, just as they voluntarily went away in the first instance.

Conclusion

This study has been able to prove that multiplicity of factors account for the large-scale migration of skilled and intellectual manpower from Nigeria to overseas countries. Also, it has been able to x-ray the effects of brain drain on Nigeria. Based on the evidence provided above it is clear that the negative consequences of brain drain in Nigeria far outweigh the gains. The study revealed that the industrialized nations of the North where the vast majority of Nigeria's professionals are domiciled are the beneficiaries of Nigeria's human capital crisis. The only benefit that the country has tended to derive from the process has generally been in the form of individual-level remittances and some concomitant spin-offs.

It is, therefore, the paper's considered and fervent view and belief that the monster called brain drain should be adequately tackled without further delay. The measure is capable of launching Nigeria on the trajectory of rapid and sustainable socio-economic and political growth and development. This is in addition to enabling her to realize her aspiration and hope of becoming one of the leading economies of the World come 2020. The above discussed strategies can be of immense assistance in this regard.

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INDIGENOUS COMMUNICATION AS AN ENABLING FACTOR FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

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Abstract

Most development programmes end up as mere growth and not sustainable development. As a result, it becomes essential to examine indigenous communication systems that are supposed to aid development efforts. This is because development is multifaceted, multi-sectorial and widely a participatory process in which the intended beneficiaries are actively involved in every phase. It is also pertinent to assess the effect of exogenous media on the indigenous media with regards to rural development efforts. To achieve these, an in-depth anthropological fieldwork was conducted to examine rural development efforts with regards to their utilization of indigenous media in Mbano, South-east Nigeria. The study also adopted modernization and social change theories as well as impact assessment model. Sampling was by multi-stage and purposive sampling methods. Research methods used were both qualitative and quantitative. It was found that a lot of factors have prevented full achievement of development in rural areas of Nigeria. It has also been discovered that the best form of development is participatory development in which the actual beneficiaries actively participate from the inception of the programme up to the evaluation stage. As a result, indigenous communication is relevant to socio-economic development of the rural communities. So, participatory development is the ideal and it must involve a good knowledge of the people's culture, which has indigenous communication at its centre. The study therefore, recommends the full utilization of indigenous media in sensitizing and mobilizing the rural people for participation in development programmes.

Keywords: Indigenous Communication, Rural Community, Development.

Introduction

To gain a perfect insight into the reason why development programmes, especially in rural communities end up as mere growth and not development, it is essential to examine some indigenous communication systems that are supposed to

aid the programmes. This is because development is multifaceted, multisectorial and widely a participatory process in which the intended beneficiaries are actively involved in every phase from need identification to need prioritization, project planning, execution, monitoring, evaluation and the distribution of the benefits (Adelugba, 1996; Foster, 1969; Isah, 2011). There is also the need to examine the persisting traditional communication system and their attendant customs and beliefs as well as general socio-political perceptions toward implantation of development programmes. It is also pertinent to examine the effect of the exogenous media on the indigenous media with regards to rural development efforts. To achieve these, an in-depth anthropological fieldwork was conducted to examine the indigenous communication system that exists in Mbano, Imo State, Nigeria. The study also assessed rural development efforts with regard to their utilization of indigenous media.

The study is hinged on four main objectives. Firstly, to examine how indigenous media can be used to mobilize rural people for participation towards development. Secondly, it is to assess the knowledge of rural Igbo communities of Nigeria on the application of indigenous media for achieving effective rural development. Thirdly, it is to examine ways of combining indigenous and modern media to achieve effective rural development. In its fourth objective, the study assesses the ways in which indigenous communication can enhance rural development. The method is historical and analytical. Quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection were used.

The Nature and Content of Indigenous Communication System

According to Wilson (1987), indigenous communication system is a continuous process of information dissemination, entertainment and education used in societies which have not been seriously dislocated by Western culture or any other external influence. Indigenous communication media refers to the mode of control (ownership) and model. It is important to note that under indigenous communication system, ownership of the means (media/channels) of communication lies with the society. The village head only acts as a trustee and head of the gatekeeping process. Similarly, Mundy and Lin Compton (2013) posited that indigenous communication includes the transmission of entertainment, news, persuasion, announcement and social exchange of every type – it is an important aspect of culture and the means by which a culture is preserved, handed down and adapted.

Serious academic studies did not begin in this area of indigenous communication system until 1970s when Ugboajah (1972) began to call attention to these neglected but powerful communication system. Strength was also added to this area when Wilson (1981) working in the Cross River area of Nigeria approached this field through a systematic study. The theatre of workshop experimentation recommended by experts in Botswana in 1979 and studies by Nwuneli (1981) have also contributed to our knowledge of indigenous media. It is therefore becoming clearer to scholars in both the First and the Third Worlds that a good understanding

of the structures, patterns, process and uses of such media could enhance their multiple applications for human national development.

Wilson (1987) divided the numerous indigenous forms of communication found in Nigeria into ten classes:

- (i) **Idiophones** These are self-sounding instruments or technical wares which produce sound without the addition or use of an intermediary medium. The sound or message emanates from the materials from which the instruments are made and they could be shaken, scratched, struck, pricked, pulled or pressed with the feet. These include gong, wood lock, wooden drum, bell and rattle.
- (ii) **Membranophones** These are media on which sound is produced through the vibration of membranes. They include all varieties of skin or leather drums. These drums are beaten or struck with well-carved sticks or fists.
- (iii) **Aerophones** These are media which produce sound as a result of the vibration of a column of air. They comprise media of the flute family, whistle, reed pipes, horns and trumpets.
- (iv) **Symbolography** This simply means symbolic writing or representation. Communication takes place when an encoder uses graphic representations to convey a message which is understood within the context of a known social event and an accompanying verbal message. It is a descriptive representational device for conveying meaning. An example is the use of fresh unfolding frond of the palm tree usually with greenish yellow colour. It is tied and shaped in different ways to convey meaning in Mbano.
- (v) **Signals** These are the physical embodiments of a message. Many ancient signals are still being used today. Some of these signals include fire, smoke, gunshots, canon shots and drumbeats. It is obvious that almost all broadcasting stations in Nigeria use drum signal to draw the attention of its audience to the fact that they are about to begin transmission for the day; deliver their main news broadcast; announce time; close down or prepare for the broadcast of the local or national leader.
- (vi) **Objectifics** These are media presented in concrete forms which may have significance for a specific society only or may be universal through their traditional association with specific contextual meanings. These include kolanuts, the young unopened bud of the palm frond, charcoal, white pigeon or fowl, white egg, feather, cowries, sculptures, pictures, drawings among others.

- (vii) **Colour Schemes** This is the general conception and use of combination of colours in a design to convey some meanings. Colour uses the advantages of pictorial communication by combining the speed of its impact and freedom from linguistic boundaries to achieve instant and effective communication. Important colours used to communicate different meanings among Mbano people are red (danger), white (peace or pure), black (mourning), green (life) and yellow (spiritual).
- (viii) **Music** Itinerant musical entertainment groups sing satirical songs, praise songs and generally criticize wrong doings of individuals in society. Names of those being satirized or praised may be mentioned or descriptions of their physical or personality attributes given; where they live or what they do may form part of such songs. Grapevine stories concerning events or projects that are being planned for the society may be featured as a way of alerting the generality of the people. Such groups are potent sources of information.
- (ix) **Extra-mundane communication** This is the mode of communication between the living and the dead, the supernatural or Supreme Being. It is usually done through incantation, spiritual chants, rituals, prayers, sacrifice, invocation, séance, trance, hysterics or libation.
- (x) **Symbolic Display** These may be culture-specific or may have universal significance e.g. smiling, sticking out the tongue, expression of anger, disgust, happiness and fear, the way we walk or sit, gestures we use, voice qualities and facial expressions.

This categorization is not quite different from the ideas put forward by Ogwezzy (1999) and Akpabio (2003). They believed that African communication systems through their various categories have sustained the rural people over the years. According to them, the rural populace never experienced underdevelopment until the colonial period. This is because whatever they needed to make their lives meaningful were available to them within their environment.

In addition to the forms just discussed, many traditional institutions, clubs or societies in Mbano are also used to disseminate information, pass on gossips, rumours and at times highly confidential information. They include the town crier, cooperative societies, town/village unions, voluntary organizations, drinking clubs, market women's associations, traders' associations, religious groups, masquerade cults, sports clubs, self-help groups, choral groups and many others whose activities are directly linked with communication. All these are channels of indigenous communication system. It should be noted that the town crier is a very important conduit of communication in Africa, especially in Mbano.

Conceptual and Theoretical Framework

In social anthropological study, the focus of analysis is usually the community unit. This is the approach of this study because unlike the modern communication media, the indigenous media is community owned and used.

It should be noted that complete eradication of poverty is a key imperative to development of a country like Nigeria. This is because poverty is situated in the rural areas where the poorest people live (Ajadi, 2010). Therefore, in an attempt to explain the importance of communication towards achieving such development, Dalton (1970) points out that whatever the anthropologist is concerned about, whether the structure and performance of traditional primitive or peasant economies or their change, development and modernization, he is supposed to understand the characteristics of the industrial capitalist countries. Dalton's view is that the industrial capitalist countries should be casually copied. He means that in order to bring development to rural societies, it is important to understand the underlying communication pattern of the society to ensure not just development but sustainable development. In his own case, Ugboajah (1979) points out that the problems of developing nations, especially those with rural communities have given rise to various development theories. He explains that the "most important thing about Africa's traditional communication is that the audience has learnt to attach great significance to it" (Ugboajah, 1979: 11).

Similarly, Ayittey (1991) notes that the main obstacle that has caused the underdevelopment of Africa had been the difficulty of penetrating the layers of mythology, ignorance and prejudice enshrouding Africa and its people. As a result, Europeans conclude that Africans had no history. So, if Africans have no history, by implication they are not supposed to talk of indigenous communication media because they are said to have no culture. All these are wrong views of Africa and Africans. It has also been observed by Ogueri and Nnadi (2010) that Nigeria is blessed with natural resources especially hydrocarbons. Managing proceeds of resources to develop rural communities had created several conflicts. International communities had long been contributing to development in Nigeria. International NGOs, Bilateral Organisations, Multinational Corporations have demonstrated sufficient interest in development issues in Nigeria. Surprisingly, more assistance means higher poverty and conflict levels. The question is – How come most communities are still very rural and basic amenities lacking? To address this and other questions, the study attempts to find ways through which indigenous media can be used to enhance rural development.

The theoretical strength of the study includes modernization theory, social change theory and social impact assessment model (Ogburn, 1967; Preston, 1996; Carley and Derow, 1980; Campbell, 1987). The interdisciplinary nature of an anthropological study of community development informs this multiple theoretical application. This approach is in line with the anthropology of community development, which emphasizes complementarities in theory rather than contradictions (Ajala, 2002). Furthermore, each theory brings out useful but limited

explanations about community development paradigms being socio-cultural phenomena.

Modernization theory emphasizes that there is distinction between rural and urban, poor and rich, underdeveloped and developed, traditional and modern. Modernization theorists (Rostow, 1960; Pye, 1966) argue that the only way poor nations can achieve capital formation, productivity and consumption comparable to those in developed countries is for them to duplicate the cultural institutions of the later (Thompson, 2001). Category distinction which is the hallmark of modernization theory is under serious attack. However, modernization was basically an idea of universal development that placed all societies in the world on a simple and shared continuum from the least to the most developed.

According to this ideology, development should be a structured transformation of traditional societies from underemployed rural societies to productive urban-industrial societies. So, modernization is the process of acquiring new image, a process, which is made possible by mass contact, mass communication and mass education and more recently through the internationalization of culture. It rests on the ideas of development and integration.

Therefore, with imperialism, colonialism and their resultant institutions especially mass media, the traditional communication pattern changed. However, their credibility among the rural populace is still treasured.

Social change theory posits that there is the difference in attitude, behaviour, technology or social institution in comparison with what they were in the past. The theory being a popular reference in the study of societies explains that material culture changes faster than non-material culture. By extension, it points to the fact that material aspects of indigenous media are likely to be eroded by the modern mass media than the non-material aspect. So, there exists a great deal of difference in the perception and theoretical orientations of analysts of societal transformation. This is actually what made Marxist theories to believe that conflict is the only means for change (Haralambos and Holborn, 2008).

A close look at the real impact of indigenous communication on specific community's development shows that there is need to assess the people that are affected, the distributional effects of indigenous communication and the impacts of the practice on different development efforts for the people's benefit. To do this, social impact assessment model (SIA) becomes a reference. This model is a broad concept to studies in social and cultural impact of development plans and programmes (Carley and Derow, 1980). For this study, SIA was geared towards ascertaining how properly integrated and directed indigenous media can enhance real development efforts in rural communities.

Methods and Research Design

Socio-Economic Background of the Study Area

The study was conducted in Mbano, Imo State of Nigeria. Mbano is made up of two local government areas – Isiala-Mbano and Ehime-Mbano. It occupies a land

area of 352 square kilometers with a population of about 476,656 according to 2006 census (Nigerian Population Commission, 2006). The area is densely populated with density of about 600 people per square kilometer. Almost all the autonomous communities in the area have at least one primary and one secondary school each. Mbano has tropical rain forest but the vegetation is gradually turning to a derived savanna due to extensive farming activities. The area has a rural settlement which is more closely packed. There is no mass media station in Mbano. However, television and radio signals are clearly received in the area. Newspapers and magazines are also available especially at the local government headquarters.

Mbano is selected for the study not by happenstance. Imo State, where Mbano is located, has a large number of literate persons. Moreover, Mbano is a community which is still rich in indigenous communication in spite of the influence of the modern mass media. Its environment produces all the instruments used in its indigenous communication such as ekwe (wooden gong), opi (flute) and ogwo (drums). Again, it is a community which has witnessed several development projects that failed to achieve the expected objectives. All these factors made the selection of Mbano community purposive and significant for both the examination of indigenous communication system and assessment of its impact on rural development.

Mbano is predominantly occupied by Igbos. There is also some non-Igbos in the area, comprising mostly of the Hausa and Edo from the northern and western parts of Nigeria respectively.

The structure of compounds is basically the same everywhere. In the past, leaves of raffia palm were used as roofing materials while the walls of houses were usually mud. During this period, every compound was fenced with palm fronds for poor families and mud for wealthy ones. However, in recent time, modern houses with brick walls and corrugated iron roofing sheets have replaced the old styled buildings. However, the pattern of the compounds has remained relatively the same, that is, there is usually a cluster of houses in one compound.

The economic pattern is basically subsistence with the production of food crops, such as yams, cocoyam, cassava, maize, beans and leafy vegetables. Cash crops such as oil palm exist but are mostly adopted. Most of the cash crops are never cultivated. Most of the young people in Mbano live in different parts of the world. They mostly return home during festive periods, especially Christmas. Usually, many men and women in the area combine farming with other jobs such as trading, artisanship and commercial vehicle driving.

Each autonomous community in the area has one weekly market with two or more evening markets. These markets serve as primary source of food procurement and exchange. The people's staple diets are usually derived from cassava, yam, cocoyam, cereals and vegetables. Fish and meat are taken for provision of animal protein. Other food supplements include rice, plantain, beans, eggs and beverages.

Social organization is patrilineal with patrilocal residence. Monogamy is the predominant system of marriage. However, the culture does not frown at polygyny. The people of Mbano are mainly Christians but most of them still patronize traditional

religion, though secretly. In this study area, inheritance is only through the patrilineal males.

The people of Mbanda have no known tribal marks. Their dress is typical of the indigenous traditional Igbo attire, usually a singlet or shirt worn over flowing wrapper or trousers for men. On the farm, most men wear shorts and no top. This is to wade off excessive heat. However, during ceremonies, elderly men wear the chieftaincy attire and a red cap. Occasionally, men complete their dressing with walking stick (nkpara). Women on the other hand, wear an upper garment (blouse) tucked into an inner wrapper which reaches the ankle. Another wrapper which reaches the knee is tied upon the inner one. Dress is usually crowned by a head gear (ichafu).

In this area, the head of the family (ezi n'ulo) is usually the husband and he is also the breadwinner. But when he dies, the wife acts until the first son comes of age. Then, the first son assumes the leadership role as the head of the family. The common practice is the extended family system. It is a mixture of monogamous and polygynous extended family structure. Mbanda is a typical patrilineal society. The eldest male in the extended family holds in trust the immovable property of the family (especially land) on behalf of other members. When the young males come of age, such property is shared among the adult males. Women do not have right of inheritance in the family.

The indigenous language of the people is Igbo. However, in recent times, as a result of the influence of Western education, a lot of people in the area speak English language or at least 'pidgin' English. Their residence pattern is a cluster of houses (2-8) in one compound.

Traditionally, the people of Mbanda engage in several self-help development efforts. This development comes in form of clearing of roads; building wooden bridges across their streams, town halls, market stalls, churches and so on. To raise money for most of these projects, the people are usually mobilized to pay levies or sometimes their palm fruits are collectively harvested, sold and the proceeds used for such projects. To mobilize and sensitize the people, the town crier usually goes round the community with gong either to inform the people of the project or to invite them to a gathering where the project will be discussed. Most times, various age grades are empowered to ensure compliance of their members towards the developmental effort.

Research Design

The study applied multi-stage random sampling and purposive sampling techniques. The multi-stage random sampling technique enabled the research to achieve a fair representation while purposive sampling technique helped the study to gain in-depth knowledge of the issue investigated. For the multi-stage random sampling, the point of reference is the political wards (PWs) which were delineated by National Population Commission in 2006. A political ward is a compact area carved out of a locality with well defined identifiable boundaries. Mbanda had 28 wards. Four wards were randomly selected from each of the two local government areas that

make up Mbano. The second stage was the selection of household (HH). It was noticed that each political ward in Mbano has between 850 and 1100 households (HHs). The selected wards have 976 to 1050 households (HHs). From this number, 20 households were selected from each ward through simple random sampling. This gives a total of 80 households (HHs). From each of these households, 3 respondents were randomly selected. So, 240 respondents were selected from the eight wards to ascertain the relevance of indigenous communication to rural development.

Purposive sampling technique was used to select thirty (30) key informants and thirty (30) indepth interviewees who comprise of traditional heads, custodians of indigenous media, elderly men/women (over 70years), and leaders of various indigenous organizations, local government officials and development agencies.

Quantitative data were gathered through the use of questionnaire administered orally. Questionnaire designed covered variables such as demographic factors, knowledge of existence and use of indigenous communication media, rural development as well as the relevance of such media to development. Qualitative information gathering techniques included in-depth interview, key informants interview, observations and the assessment of written records, which produced data on traditional knowledge, practices and decision-making on the use of indigenous communication system for rural development. These data were generated through the analysis of both emic and etic perceptions.

Results

There exist a lot of factors that have prevented full achievement of development in rural areas of Nigeria. These are both exogenous and indigenous. The exogenous factors are usually imported ideas, philosophies and technologies that are not compatible with the rural communities' ideologies. The indigenous factors are cultural practices which if neglected may prevent the development projects from achieving their purpose in the community. These sometimes include the indigenous communication system. The critical analysis of all these factors constitutes the mainstream of the research findings.

Socio-Economic Characteristics of Respondents

In the study, a total of 300 respondents were involved. Two hundred and forty (240) respondents were involved in the survey study, while 30 were selected as key informants and another 30 respondents fell into in-depth interviews. Data presented here provide idea about the gender distribution, age variation, educational status, marital status, occupation, communication types/instruments used, effect of exogenous media on indigenous media and effect of indigenous communication on the success of rural development efforts (Tables 1, 2, 3).

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Variable Age	Male (N=155)	Female (N=85)	Total (240)
0-10	13	6	19
11-20	21	15	36
21-30	11	10	21
31-40	18	5	23
41-50	30	12	42
51-60	42	19	61
Above 60	20	18	38
Total	155	85	240

Education

No formal education	21	27	48
Primary	60	22	82
Secondary	56	20	76
Post Secondary	18	16	34

Marital Status

Single	51	20	71
Married	62	36	98
Widowed	39	23	62
Divorced	13	6	19

Source: Fieldwork 2011

It can be seen from table 1 that respondents who were below eleven years were 19 and this is made up of 13 males and 6 females. Those who were aged between 11 and 20 years were 36 in the sample. The third category of respondents was 21-30 years and they were made up of 11 males and 10 females. Respondents who were between 31 and 40 years in the sample were 23 in number. Forty-two other respondents belonged to the age bracket of 41-50 years. The highest number of respondents in the sample (61) belonged to the age bracket of 51-60 years. They were made up of 42 males and 19 females. Those who were above 60 years in the sample were 38 in number.

In terms of education, 48 respondents in the sample had no formal education and they were made up of 21 males and 27 females. Those who had secondary education were 82 in number, that is, 56 males and 20 females. Only 34 respondents had post secondary education and they were made up of 18 males and 16 females.

The above table also points out that the number of respondents in the sample who were single were 71 (51 males and 20 females) while married respondents were 98 (62 males and 36 females). Those respondents who were widowed were 62, that is, 39 males and 23 females. Divorced respondents constitute the least (19), which is made up of 13 males and 6 females.

Mobilizing the People for Development

Development has come a long way. In Africa, development has been on going for centuries but in the Western World, development became significant in the period immediately following World War II. The Western World confronted the new challenge of rebuilding countries that had been shattered by war. In those days, development was considered largely synonymous with industrialization (Rapley, 2010). But in Africa especially in the rural setting, development is the process of structural transformation of society which must be of benefit to the members of the society involved (UNDP,2006).

To ensure that development benefits get to the actual beneficiaries – the rural people – the development must be participatory. In other words, the people must be involved in the development process from the stage of conception to evaluation. To ensure effective participation of the rural people, there is need to mobilize them.

Table 2: Ways of Mobilizing the Rural People

DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES TOTAL	HOW ARE YOUR PEOPLE MOBILIZED?								TOTAL
	USE OF TOWN CRIER	USE OF WOODEN GONG	PERSONAL CONTACT USING INDIGENOUS LANGUAGE	RADIO	TV	NEWS-PAPER	ANNOUNCEMENT IN MARKET	SYMBOLIC DISPLAY	
FARMING	108	42	20	3	1	-	30	36	240
SANITATION	141	14	25	21	-	-	26	13	240
COMMUNITY STRUCTURAL PROJECTS	172	47	12	5	1	-	3	-	240
HEALTH CARE PROGS.	68	12	71	48	2	1	31	7	240
POLITICAL ACTIVITIES CAMPAIGN	89	6	70	50	4	1	20	-	240

Source: Field work, 2011.

Out of the 240 respondents in the sample, 108 admitted that when the development effort involves farming, the best way to mobilize the people towards participation is the use of town-crier, who moves from compound to compound to announce the programme. Another 42 respondents believed that the best way to mobilize the people is through beating of the wooden gong (ikoro). Twenty other respondents noted that in terms of farming activities, people are best mobilized through personal contact using the indigenous language to explain the purpose of such activities. In this case, newspapers were not used at all. Only 3 persons and one person went for radio and television respectively. Another way of mobilizing people for farming activities is through announcement in the market places especially when the market is in full session. This is supported by 30 respondents while the other 36 respondents said that people are best mobilized through symbolic display.

These displays include display of hoes and/or cutlasses at certain places in the village square. This helps to inform people that they need to gather for farming activities.

In the case of environmental sanitation such as the sweeping of market square, clearing of roads, clearing of streams and so on, 41 respondents agreed that town-crier is the best way to mobilize the people. Only 14 subjects went for the use of wooden gong (ikoro). Another 25 respondents said that the best method is through personal contact using the indigenous language. Twenty-one persons supported the use of radio. Nobody went for television and newspapers. Another 26 respondents said that the best way to mobilize people for sanitation programmes is through announcement in the market. Those who approved of symbolic display were 13 in number.

Community structural projects include the building of schools, town halls, hospitals, roads and postal agencies. Others are electrification projects and provision of pipe-borne water. These projects are common in the area of study. Most of them were obtained through self-help efforts of the people. However, to mobilize people for any of these projects, majority of the respondents (172) believed that it is best done through the use of town-crier. Another 47 subjects said it is done through the use of ikoro (wooden gong). Yet, another 12 respondents said it is best done through personal contact using indigenous language. Only 5 subjects went for radio and one person for television. Three respondents believed that announcement in markets is the best option.

In terms of health care programmes, the highest number (71) believed that personal contact using indigenous language (Igbo) is the best way to mobilize people to participate. Another 68 persons in the sample went for the use of town-crier. Those who believed that mobilization for health care projects is best done through radio were 48 in number. Twelve persons also went for the use of wooden gong. Two persons agreed that it is best done through television while one person went for newspapers. Another 31 respondents said that announcement in the markets is the best way to mobilize people for health care programmes. The remaining seven subjects went for symbolic display.

When it comes to political activities or campaigns, majority of the subjects of the study went for the use of town-crier (89) and personal contact (70). Another 50 subjects believed that they were best mobilized through the radio. Six respondents went for the use of wooden gong while 4 persons went for television. Only one person believed that newspapers can be used for such mobilization effort. The remaining twenty persons believed that announcement in the market is the best way to mobilize the people for political activities.

Development Projects and Knowledge of the People on the Application of Indigenous Media

In Mbano, indigenous communication takes the form of instruction, announcement, advertising, public relations (goodwill), entertainment, warning, spiritual activities, symbolic display and information. The materials or instruments

used for these forms of communication include metal gong (ogene), wooden gong (ekwe), flute (opi), fist flute (opi-aka), reed pipe (opi-achara), fist, eyes and palm frond. Central to all these instruments is the town-crier, who Ugboaja (1979) and Onwubiko (1996) referred to as gongman. It was noticed from the study that the whole human body or parts of it can be applied in indigenous communication. This is regarded as symbolic display. For instance, the shaving of head to the skin depicts mourning among the people of Mbano.

The people of Mbano believe that indigenous media are mostly used for funeral announcement, environmental sanitation, marriage ceremonies, advertisement of local wares, development projects, farm work, warning, information and public relations activities (Table 3).

Table 3: Difference in the Rate of Use between Indigenous and Exogenous Media in Community Activities

ACTIVITIES	FUNERAL ANNOUNCEMENT	ENVIRONMENTAL SANITATION	DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS	HEALTH CARE PROGRAMMES	FARMING	EDUCATION
INDIGENOUS MEDIA	MOSTLY USED	MOSTLY USED	MOSTLY USED	USED WHEN THE OTHER FAILS	MOSTLY USED	MOSTLY USED
EXOGENOUS MEDIA	SELDOM USED	NOT USED AT ALL	SELDOM USED	MOSTLY USED	NOT USED AT ALL	USED OFTEN

Source: Field work 2011

Table 3 shows the degree at which indigenous media and exogenous media are used in the study area. It was found that for funeral announcements, the indigenous media were mostly used while the exogenous media of radio, television and newspapers were seldom used. What the people in the area mostly use to mobilize people for environmental sanitation is the indigenous media of town crier. The exogenous media is not used at all. Again, for mobilizing people for community development project, the people mostly used the indigenous media. For health care programmes, the people of Mbano mostly rely on information from the exogenous media. They only use information from the indigenous media to extend what they got from the exogenous media. For planning and mobilizing people for farming activities, the people relied on the indigenous media. In the area of education, the indigenous media is most used but exogenous media is also used especially when it has to do with formal educational system.

So, the study revealed through the in-depth interviews (IDI) that exogenous media will achieve little or no success in advertising, development projects, warning and goodwill among the rural people. Similarly, exogenous media are not effective in the areas of environmental sanitation and farming in the study community. However, it was revealed that exogenous media of radio, television and prints were used extensively during the regime of General Mohammad Buhari (rtd) in Nigeria for

environmental sanitation. Generally, indigenous media feature in every activity of the community either individually or communally.

Table 4: Effect of Indigenous Media on Rural Development Projects

RURAL PROJECTS	COMMUNICATION SYSTEM USED	RESULT	UTILITY
Construction of Town hall at Umuozu	Indigenous media was used to mobilize and sensitize the people toward participation	Completed in 3 years	Used by the people of the community even before completion till present
Oil palm plantation at Obollo	Extension agents were used to sensitize the people. The project was aired on radio even before commencement	Completed in 15 months	Fruits collected by government agents. Plants reduced by 50% in 2 years.
Electrification project at Ogbor	Indigenous media was used to identify the need and mobilize fund and people toward participation.	Completed in 2 years.	People feel bad whenever light goes off. They set up vigilante group to protect the transformer.
Road construction from Amaraku to Umuelemai	Contract signed at Owerri and information got to the local people through radio.	Began in 1983, abandoned in 1984 because people could not provide land for collection of laterite. Began again in 2000 through the use of indigenous media to mobilize and sensitize the people and work was completed in 2001.	The people are happy to use the road.
Pipe-borne water project at Umunchi	Initiated by DEFRI without the people's participation.	Completed within a year.	The people used it for 6 months and the pipes became

			dry because it was sited at the hilly part of the village.
Low cost housing project at Eziamma	Initiated by Shagari regime in 1980 without the people's participation.	Completed in 1982	Nobody lived in those houses because it is a taboo in the area for a person to be a tenant in his village.
Building of health center at Umueze II	Initiated by women in the area through indigenous media but they also received government support in terms of personnel and equipment. The commissioning was televised.	Completed in 3 years	The people worked at the center and also received health-care attention in times of ill-health.

Source: Field work 2011

The IDI also pointed out that in Mbano three development projects that involved indigenous media were completed without being abandoned. The projects were fully utilized by the people because they were relevant to their needs. The other three projects were initiated through exogenous media. Two of these projects were completed as scheduled, that is, the oil palm plantation at Obollo and the pipe-borne water project at Umunchi. One (road construction from Amaraku to Umuelemai) was abandoned until indigenous media was introduced into it. This is in line with data as shown in table 4 above. In the case of oil palm plantation, the people never benefited. Therefore, they aided the destruction of the trees because their roots were negatively affecting the fertility of their soil. As for the pipe-borne water, the people used it when the taps were running but quickly forgot it when the taps were dry because they already know from experience that it will not last long. The low cost houses were never occupied because it is a taboo for an indigene of Mbano to be a tenant in his own community. The road project which was abandoned for over six years before completion is still being used effectively by the people of Mbano community. The major reason for its adequate use was the fact that the road already existed before the new construction (Table 4).

Achieving Effective Rural Development through Combination of Indigenous And Modern (Exogenous) Media

While it is generally agreed that the best method for mobilizing people to participate in development programmes is through the indigenous media as can be seen from table 3 above, most of the participants at the focus group discussions agreed that to achieve effective development at present, there is need to use modern media to assist the indigenous media. According to them, most of the development patterns of today are themselves exogenous, that in some cases, the indigenous media may not have full explanation for them.

This view is supported by the data collected through in-depth interviews. Most of the interviewees agreed that it is necessary to allow both the indigenous and the exogenous media to complement each other. According to them, this is the only way to bring effective development in the present day reality. One of the interviewees, Nze Martin Nwachukwu puts it this way:

In the past, our fathers were doing their things their own ways using the town-crier, the gong, symbols and other things to carry out their own patterns of development. But development today has changed pattern. New things are coming in that we do not know before. So, for us to development and be like others, we must use the new communication media like radio and television. However, we will not abandon our own ways of communication. If we do, we will become strangers in our own land and those development programmes will also be strange development..... (laugh) it is better to have no development than to have strange development.

Generally, the people believed that the current trend demands the unification or blending of the indigenous and exogenous media to achieve effective development that will fit into the present generation. For instance, according to participants at one of the FGDs, if they announce fund-raising launch for building a town hall over the radio, it will extend the message to some of their youths who live in the cities. This will enable them to return home and participate in the fund-raising programme.

Enhancing Rural Development through Indigenous Communication

Table 5: Areas in which Indigenous Media Assist Rural Development

AREAS OF ASSISTANCE MEANS?	DOES INDIGENOUS MEDIA HELP DEVELOPMENT THROUGH		
	YES	NO	TOTAL
MOBILIZING PEOPLE TO PARTICIPATE	213	27	240
CREATING THE SPIRIT OF BELIEVABILITY	209	31	240
CONNECTING THE PEOPLE WITH DEVELOPMENT AGENCIES	51	189	240
ASSIST IN RAISING FUND FOR DEVELOPMENT	190	50	240
CREATING THE UNIFYING SPIRIT NECESSARY FOR DEVELOP.	226	14	240
PROVISION OF LAND & OTHER LOCAL MATERIALS	178	62	240
MAKING GOVERNMENT TO KNOW THE NEEDS OF THE PEOPLE	27	213	240

Source: Field work 2011

Table 5 shows that 213 respondents agreed that indigenous communication assists rural development by helping to mobilize the people for participation. Only 27 respondents disagreed with this point of view. It can also be seen that 209 out of 240 respondents believed that indigenous media enhance rural development by creating the spirit of believability among the people. In other words, indigenous media help to explain to the people the intention of government and/or development agencies. They also help to assure the people that the development effort will be of benefit to them. And it is only when this is achieved that real development can take place.

Only 51 subjects agreed that indigenous media can connect the rural people with development agencies. Majority of the respondents (189) disagreed with this view. Again, 190 respondents believed that indigenous communication can assist the people in raising fund for development projects. The other 50 persons disagreed with this view. It is also believed that unified spirit or solidarity is necessary for rural development. That is why 226 subjects in the sample believed that indigenous media go a long way in creating a unifying spirit among the people which is an important prerequisite for development. Only 14 persons in the sample disagreed with this view.

Out of the 240 respondents in the sample, 178 agreed that indigenous media help to convince the people to release their land and other local materials which may be needed in the development effort. The remaining 62 subjects disagreed with this point of view. On the other hand, only 27 respondents believed that indigenous media can enable government to know the need of the people. Majority of the respondents (213) believed that indigenous media cannot help to make the needs of the rural people known to government and its agencies. It can be seen that except in

the areas of connecting the rural people with development agencies and making their needs known to government, indigenous media can be used effectively in the other areas to enhance development of the rural areas. In fact, rural development is most times dependent in these areas to be effective.

Discussion

Communication in Mbano follows the opinion of James et al (1989), when they posit that human communication falls into two broad categories – verbal and non-verbal communication. The people of Mbano, like other normal human societies, use oral and written communication. Their oral communication may take the form of intrapersonal communication. This is more prominent when they experience perplexing situation or when they are contemplating on a serious plan. They also use interpersonal communication especially during discussions or at meetings.

It has been found that in line with the view of Adelugba (1996) and Foster (1969), the best form of development is one in which the beneficiaries participate actively from the inception of the programme till the evaluation stage. To achieve this, there is need to mobilize the people. As can be seen from table 2, indigenous media remain the best way to mobilize the rural people for participation in development programmes. This, to some extent, contradicts the views of modernization theorists that the best way to achieve development among the rural people is to copy the pattern of the developed nations. Data have shown that with effective use of the indigenous media to mobilize the rural people for development, true development can be achieved in the rural setting without necessarily copying the Western (developed) nations.

In the same vein, it is quite clear that the people of Mbano are knowledgeable about the application of indigenous media in development projects. This reflects the opinion of Ugboajah (1972:11) when he points out that the “most important thing about Africa’s traditional communication is that the audience has learnt to attach great significance to it”. It can be seen from table 4 that projects that involved indigenous media were completed on time without being abandoned and they were fully utilized by the people. This shows that it is only the rural people that can point out what they really want; and when you give them that, they will cherish it and even protect it.

However, in some cases, there may be need to involve the exogenous media (radio, television and newspapers). As can be seen from table 3, these exogenous media were effective for health care and education programmes. As a result and based on the data from FGDs, it becomes relevant to combine both the indigenous and exogenous media to achieve effective rural development. This is necessary because contrary to the views of social change theory that material aspects of indigenous media are likely to be eroded by the modern mass media, the indigenous media have continued to be relevant especially to the rural populace. And to achieve a better paradigm, it becomes pertinent to combine both the indigenous and the exogenous (modern mass) media in order to achieve a true rural development.

According to Carley and Derow (1980), social Impact Assessment model (SIA) focuses on studies in social and cultural impact of development. And to understand this, the beneficiaries of the development effort must be part of the chain for the distribution of development benefits. From table 5, it can be seen that for the impact of development to reach the rural people, there is need to use indigenous media to mobilize the people, create the spirit of believability about the benefits as well as establishing the much needed unifying spirit among the people which is a necessary ingredient for effective development.

Generally, indigenous communication is relevant to social and economic development especially in the rural communities. This is because development itself is a purposive change undertaken in a society to achieve what may be regarded as a different level of improvement.

Recommendations

From the foregoing therefore, to achieve sustainable development as directed by social change theory, there must be a social transformation. This should be based on the participation of the beneficiaries of development programmes in decision making about social or economic changes and the use of indigenous channels of communication and influence that exist in a community where change is desired. This is important bearing in mind that material culture changes faster than non-material culture.

To ensure effective participation of the people, it is important to mobilize, sensitize and seek the people's suggestions, input, involvement and so on, which can lead to a truly successful development programme. As earlier stated, this can best be done through indigenous channels. This is actually the position of Sifelani (2007) when he bemoaned the issue that environmental experts and journalists lack languages to explain indigenous environmental issues and that is why mass media sometimes drop environmental stories.

The relevance of indigenous media cannot be overemphasized. However, the best approach should be the integration of indigenous and exogenous media to form what can be called "indixogenous media". It will ensure that each strengthens the weaknesses of the other and also reinforces its strength. In other words, exogenous media can be used to promote indigenous knowledge while indigenous channels can be used to inculcate exogenous knowledge especially among rural communities.

Through this process, sustainable development can be achieved among the rural populace and the people stand a better chance of participating, cherishing, benefiting and protecting such development effort. It will also ensure that rural development programmes are properly targeted. This will definitely minimize if not eliminate failed or abandoned projects in rural communities.

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LANGUAGE AND IDENTITY: A CASE OF IGBO LANGUAGE, NIGERIA

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Abstract

Language is the most important information and communication characteristics of all the human beings. Language is power as well as a great instrument for cultural preservation. The world community is made up of many languages and each of these languages is being used to identify one speech community or race. Unfortunately, it has been observed that Igbo language is fast deteriorating as a means of communication among the Igbo. The Igbo have embraced foreign languages in place of their mother tongue (Igbo language). This paper is therefore aimed at highlighting the importance of Igbo language as a major form of Igbo identity. This study will immensely benefit students, researchers and Igbo society in general. A framework was formulated to direct research effort on the development and study of Igbo language, the relationship between Igbo language and culture, the importance of Igbo language as a major form of Igbo identity, the place of Igbo language in the minds of the present Igbo and factors militating against the growth of the language and finally recommendations were given.

Keywords: Language, Identity, Culture, Communication, Speech Communication

Introduction

Language is the most important information and communication characteristics of all human beings. Language is power as well as great weapon for cultural preservation. Only humans have spoken and written languages, and language is the key note of culture because without it, culture does not exist. It is the medium of language that conveys the socio-political, economic and religious thoughts from individual to individual, and from generation to generation. The world is an embodiment of languages, and each of these languages is being used to identify one language group or race. The importance of Igbo language in achieving Igbo identity cannot be over emphasized. In several societies of the world, political stability and projecting power beyond boundaries have been influenced and strengthened by the unity of language and culture. A clear instance is the language of the Jews (Hebrew), which has been the secret and root of the existence of the

Israelites, their power and influence at home and abroad. In Diaspora, a Jew remains a Jew, by the unity of language and culture which formed their identity. The Igbo can achieve same if they take their language seriously.

The Concept of Language

Language is power. Language is a weapon for cultural preservation. Only humans have spoken and written languages. Other animals can communicate through sounds, gestures, touch and smell, but the meanings of these signals are fixed, and their use is limited to the immediate environment and situation. Language on the other hand, does not consist of fixed signals. It consists of learned symbols or codes that represent something else. Gestures, facial expressions, drawings and numbers are symbols. Yet, the most useful and flexible symbols remain written or spoken words. These words express cultural values and norms. These words are power packs in decisions, policy, resolution and action. These words can be combined according to grammatical rules to express need, fear, vision, mission and security (Aja Akpuru-Aja, 2008:2)

Language is an important factor in human life. Bloch and Trager, describe language as "a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a group co-operates". Expanding the above citation, one can further say, that language is a system of structured arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which human beings make meaning and communicate with one another in a given community. Language is a system of rules in which sound, structure and meaning are integrated for communication.

Adebite (1992) as quoted in Udeze (2002: 114) sees language as "A human phenomenon that has form which can be described in terms of the units of sounds (Phonemes), words (morphemes), phrases, sentences and paragraphs... 'form' refers to the means by which sounds are connected with meaning in language".

Language has a context of meaning and shared experience within which it operates. It also has a context of situation because communication depends upon elements of shared experience between the parties communicating. The New Encyclopedia Britannica defines language as an arbitrary system of vocal symbols by means of which human kind as members of social group and participants in culture interact and communicate". The above stresses that language is a phenomenon that is produced by man's vocal system for communications.

Hornby (1999) defines language as "the system of communication in speech and writing that is used by people of a particular country". Emenanjo (1996: 12) made an essential and more embracing definition of language.

N'ihì na mmadu bu anumanu osuu na anumanu okwuu, o ziputara n'uzo dabaziri amaa na okwu putara asusu n'asusu ndi uwa bukwa okwu ahu gosiri ahu anumanu a na-akpo ire... ma o bu onu, ma o bu olu (Igbo). Ihe ire, onu na olu na-eziputa n'ebe o di ukwu, dikwa ebube, ma e chemie ya, bu na asusu bi ihe e ji ire, onu na olu asu.

Na mbu na mbu, asusu bu ihe a na-asu asu. A na-edekari asusu mana odide asusu bu obia ebe asusu ya bu nwadiala.

The key message in the above citation says that:

Language, in the Igbo denotation and connotation, basically means 'The spoken' (asusu), even when it is written. Language is more of the word in speech that points physically to "ire" (tongue), 'onu' (mouth) and 'olu' (voice). These are biological elements which when used in Igbo, simply equate to language in the general realm of expression and understanding. Language is written, but writing of language is important, while speaking of language is indigenous.

Spoken language is learned as early as during the time of breastfeeding, but written language is learnt in the school. Because language is basically spoken, most Igbo know how to speak the language, without knowing how to write it.

According to Obinna (2002: 124)

The Igbo language qualifies as any other in the world to express fully and wholly all concepts, precepts, phenomena and value systems embedded in the natural environment, philosophical, and socio-cultural existential localization. It is a living, growing and expanding medium of communication which is capable of doing what any other one does.

All people and races have language and that is the vehicle that carries their various visions and world views along. Igbo language is one of the numerous languages spoken all over the world today.

The Igbo and Igbo Language: A Brief

The Igbo are the speakers of Igbo language. They today occupy the south eastern region of Nigeria, which comprises the state of Imo, Abia, Anambra, Enugu, Ebonyi, parts of Rivers, Delta and Cross River States. The above mentioned areas are where the Igbo are predominantly found, but they can be found even in their large numbers in all parts of the world.

Obinna, (2003: 124) asserts:

The Igbo race, as dynamic and expansive as they are, should have made a greater and better advantage of their "Ubiquitous" disposition. Where is it you go to without seeing the Igbo, not just being present but well settled and established and institutionalized? As a highly ingenious people, the Igbo love exploration and believe that Igbo land is too small to enable them actualize their full potentials. This is why they are found all over the country, indeed all

over the world, so much so that it has been said, if men live in the moon, the Igbo are there...

Anozie (2003: 19) explains,

The most recent census of (2001/2002) placed the population of the Igbo to about 16 million. The Igbo are usually dark in complexion, stoutly built with thick lips. The Igbo are usually tall and they speak Igbo language. Industry is one of their characteristics. They exhibit love and hospitality for visitors. The Igbo believe in being their brothers' keeper, and quickly respond to the cries of their brothers.

One believes that the Igbo perform outstandingly in any of their chosen career. Apart from trading, farming and other field of endeavour, another remarkable characteristics of the Igbo is academic pursuit.

Mode of dressing is another distinctive feature of the Igbo. Men normally put on their jumper, while women put on two pieces of wrapper, blouse and head tie.

Igbo language, according to Greenberg (1966), as quoted in Ume et al, (1989) "belongs to "Kwa" group of the Niger Khordafian language. The importance of Igbo language to the Igbo cannot be over emphasized. Igbo language is the symbol of identity and a medium of communication. Most of the cherished norms and behaviours are preserved in the language among other uses. G.C.A. Olderndorp started the learning of Igbo language in 1766, at West Indies.

Schon, produced the first Igbo orthography in 1852, while the current Igbo orthography, which is currently in use, was produced by Onwu, in 1961 (Anozie, 2003:63)

Relationship between Igbo Language and Igbo Culture

The Igbo people are culturally homogenous. They form a group which interact in patterned ways, shared beliefs, values, goals and norms, and have a feeling of membership. The rich Igbo cultural heritage is reflected in their proverbs, songs, music, dance, drama, paintings, drawings, marriage ceremonies, festivals, title takings, etc. Through the use of language, all these aspects of culture which bind the Igbo people are meaningful, expressible and operational. The Igbo language is a unifying factor of the Igbo culture and has proved an efficient and useful tool for the dissemination of the Igbo culture from generation to generation (Omego, 2007:168).

One of the basic characteristics of language is that it reflects the culture of its speakers. Language provides man a means of not only expressing himself but also transmitting his cultural heritage from ages to ages. The ability of humans to transmit culture through the medium of language is frequently exploited, most of the time unconsciously by every user of language.

Adekunle (1999: 242) asserts: "in a mono-cultural and monolingual community, language devices so many ways to express the various dimensions and

intricate pattern of cultural realities". This citation upholds that the cultural background of a people is so intermingled with language that people cannot fully understand and appreciate themselves without the common knowledge of their language.

Elugbe (1991) as cited in Omego, (2004: 168) states: "...however language may have arisen, and however diversity may have arisen in the first place, it is obvious that language is part of the culture of every human society; language is a useful ingredient for a people's survival". What people know about their ancestors depends on the kind of language they preserved for them. Rich language vocabulary portrays rich culture.

Language is the prerequisite for the accumulation and transmission of other cultural trait. Language is not only a necessary condition for culture, it is itself part of culture. Language, thus constitutes the basis of a people's personality and a people renouncing the use of language is doomed to stagnation and even to retrogression and disappear completely as a people (Sekou, 1978:32).

Culture determines how members of a society think and feel. It directs their actions, outlook and language use. In Goertz's (1973: 89) assertion:

Culture is network (transmitted historically) of meanings embedded in symbols, a system of ideas inherited and expressed in the form of symbols which people communicate, perpetuate and stretch their knowledge concerning their attitude towards life. Through language, the people's culture is known.

The above citation reveals that there is a binding string between language, culture and society. As the society moves its course, it drags language along. It serves as a base for cultural identity.

Okeke (2000: 32) describes culture as:

The totality of values, habit and social behaviours, mode of life and belief system of a group of people, the language used by this people must possess these values. Language and culture share symbiotic relationship.

Language is as much a product of culture as culture is a product of language, for both are concerned with expression, communication and instruction within a given social structure. Each is a total reflection of the other. Language and culture are two sides of a coin and non is complete without the other. Their relationship, one to the other, and to the society to which they belong, is like that which exists between a tree and its roots and branches. The society is the tree; the roots are the cultural expressions, while the branches and foliage represent the language of that society. Without its foliage, all that remains of a tree are its stump and roots, and it

does not take long after a tree is deprived of foliage, for that tree to die an unnatural death (Acholonu, 2010:26).

Njemanze (2007: 26) opines:

Culture is about social behaviour, belief, values of a society. Culture is associated with language and customs of a particular group. Culture consists of the shared products of society, while society consists of peoples and their interaction within a community. A society could therefore not exist without culture while culture needs to be maintained by the society. Language and culture are used concurrently everywhere.

Language has societal relevance. It stands as the basis for social action, it facilitates interpersonal and their ethnic cooperation. This makes language part of man and culture. The foregoing buttresses the fact that language and culture are in constant interaction. Fundamentally, culture influences the structure and use of language, and in turn language can influence cultural interpretations of reality. Language is the communication tool, as well as the documentary confirmation of culture.

The Importance of Igbo Language as a Major Form of Igbo Identity

Identity means the characteristics, feelings or beliefs that distinguish people from others. Such common characteristics could be at the level of the individual, a group, a community or a nation. Igbo identity refers to those characteristics and beliefs which the Igbo have in common, and which bind them together as a people and distinguish them from others.

The world is a culturally plural entity, a political aggregate with a wide range of lifestyles in its midst. This plural society is characterized by the co-existence in variety of distinct cultures, each ethnic group having its own heritage, its own body of traditions, values and views. Under this prevailing circumstance, the Igbo, who have been described as "Ubiquitous" can only be identified by their language (Igbo language).

Having commented on the relationship between Igbo language and Igbo culture, and in view of the fact that the Igbo can also be identified by their food, clothing, and other behaviours peculiar to them, it is noteworthy that these forms of identity fall under culture of the Igbo, and their culture can only be expressed through Igbo language.

Igbo language is both a value system and a veritable identity of the people as evidenced in their culture and way of life. It is a great asset to the society and every single need of man in and outside the Igbo society depends on Igbo language. It is the vehicle for the transmission of Igbo culture, social norms nuances, value systems and institutions which can be shared by more than one group.

According to Obinna (2002: 125)

Without language, it is hardly conceivable how to make a clear difference between and among peoples, especially of the same geographical or racial configuration. What essentially makes the Igbo what they are (that is the Igbo), is definitely their language which expresses them and with which they express themselves. As we express ourselves through cultural manifestations, these cultural manifestations are expressed more clearly, vividly and permanently in the language mirror – vehicle (even if eminently orally).

The Igbo language, just like any other language serves as our own mirror and stamp of identity for the Igbo nation, Igbo language brings out the inner-most of the Igboness of the Igbo.

Okolo and Ezikeojiaku (1999: 48) assert,

Language permeates our lives from birth to death. It is the medium by which we establish and experience our most important human relationships. Language also serves as essential tool for conducting the most mundane transactions of our daily lives.

Language is one of the fundamental primordial expressions of cultural differences. A spoken language identifies and distinguishes a group of people that speak that language from other human races. Igbo language represents the culture of Igbo people as well as identify Igbo people.

In the words of Aja-Akpuru Aja (2008: 3)

Language gives humans a history, language provides humans policy and strategies of self presentation. In contest, when an animal dies, everything it has learned from experience perishes with it. For humans, language gives access to the social experience and accumulated knowledge of generations that have gone before, and projects into the future. Language is a strategic asset because, plans, whether blue prints, rolling plans, development plans, grand plans or national vision are both oral and written.

The above citation applies to Igbo language. It is through Igbo language that the Igbo become cultured and thus fully human. It is the Igbo language that provides meaning and process to culture, norms and values of the Igbo. Talking about the importance of language as a form of identity, Emeanjo (1996: 12) asserts:

Ewepu asusu mmadu na-asu, ibe ya ana-aghota ya ma na-amatakwu ya nke oma, o dighi nnukwu ihe ndiiche di n'etiti mmadu na anumanu ndi ozo... N'ezie, asusu bu otu njirimara kachasi ibe ya e ji ama mba, e ji eke ndi mmadu ji ekerisi uwa na ndi uwa niile.

Without language spoken by humans which is understood by fellow humans, there is no big difference between man and other animals. Truly, language is one of the most outstanding identifying factors, for which a tribe is recognized, used to divide people as well as separate people of the world.

The above citation also points to the fact that every language has where it is being spoken, the people that own it, as well as speak it as their mother-tongue. An Igbo is usually identified with speaking Igbo language as the first language. Akpaonye, (2007: 43) states that, "people are identified by the language they speak, and so people who lose their language are consequently lost and lost forever.

In several world societies, political stability and projection of power beyond national boundaries have been influenced and strengthened by the unity of language and culture. The common referent case is that of the Jews. The Hebrew language of the Jews remained the root and secret of the Israeli existence, power influence at home and abroad even in diaspora, a Jew remains a Jew by the unity of language and culture. The Israeli intelligence networks in coding and decoding information and intelligence data across the globe have exploited the apparent exclusiveness of the Hebrew language. The Jews are not separated by social distance or common trials and persecution, just as the Nazi Holocaust showed. Hebrew language works out advantages everywhere the Jews are found. It is so much so that Jews are found everywhere that matter in world politics such as in the USA, Russia, Pakistan, Europe and many Asian societies. They even influence not only the politics and foreign policies of the host states, but media networks, by broadcasting in Jewish language.

In the accounts of Aja-Akpuru Aja, (2008: 5)

One occasion that clearly identifies the power of spoken language was the 90 minutes rescue of the Jews held hostage at Entebbe in Uganda in 1976. The rescue operation authorized by the Israeli Prime Minister, Y. Rabin penetrated the rank and file of the Ugandan politics, intelligence and security. Having disguised as president Idi Amin and his escorts, the entry of hostage rescue team into hostage hall was described as historic and miraculous. On entry, they used the core Hebrew language and identified with the Jewish victims. By instructing that standing Jews should sit or lie down immediately, they were able to identify and arrest the standing hostage takers, and eventually made a heroic exit by the Herculean aircraft back to Israel. It was a success more of language power than military might.

The above cited story also applies to the power of Igbo language, as a surest means of identifying the Igbo. The researcher received information about an event that took place in 1980, when an official driver was instructed to convey a Ghana-must-go bag filled with money, to the head office of a company at Abuja. As a result

of long distant journey from Owerri to Abuja the journey stretched into the night and unfortunately, his car broke down near a police road block at Kogi State. When he approached the uniformed men and told them of his predicament, they discovered the bag containing money, and looked at themselves. They resorted to a language unknown to the traveler. This development induced tension on the traveler, who felt pressed. As he went near the bush to urinate, a passing vehicle flashed light on the uniformed man nearest to him, and there he discovered that his name tag bears an Igbo name. Then he approached him and said "Nwannaa, biko a bu m nwanne gi, ekwela ihe ojoo mee m. Ihe o bula mere m n'ebe a, obara m no gi n'isi. Meaning, my kinsman, please I am your brother; don't allow any evil to befall me, whatever happens to me, my blood is on your head". This statement torched the identified Igbo uniformed man, and he quickly signaled their superior, who is also an Igbo man, in their station, telling him, that if he doesn't intervene quickly, that his colleagues had planned to kill the passenger and carry his money. The superior officer didn't waste a second, and he appeared with a patrol van, and personally rescued the man, and towed his car to the station. The next day, he fixed his car and was given escort to his destination. Both officers of Igbo origin were duly rewarded for being their brother's keeper. This brief story is meant to highlight the power and advantage of Igbo language as a veritable means of identifying the Igbo. If the traveler didn't approach his kinsman in Igbo language, he would have been killed, and his money lost.

It is the writer's belief that there will be many similar stories of incidents where Igbo language played identifying and life saving roles on the Igbo. Having highlighted these invaluable roles of Igbo language as a primary source of Igbo identity, one is left with a worry: how do the Igbo regard their language?

The Place of Igbo Language in the Minds of the Present Igbo

It has been observed that Igbo language is fast deteriorating. In our schools, markets, public places, business sectors and most annoying at homes, no one seems to speak Igbo language anymore, oblivious of the fact that Igbo language is one of the major forms of Igbo identity. In the words of Obinna (2002: 30)

With a population that fluctuates between twenty and thirty million, and reaching out from Imo, Abia, Anambra, Enugu, Ebonyi States and beyond, added to their very mobile (nomadic) nature that takes them all around the world, it remains intriguing that Hausa and Yoruba languages continue to assume a larger than life frame within and outside their domain, while the Igbo language continues to mark time or even regress... The Igbo race poses a language problem vis-à-vis their own language, most Igbo are experts in Yoruba, Hausa, Efik, Ishan, and some other European languages. However, they can hardly express themselves in the simplest version of Igbo at home, in the market, in the church and elsewhere.

The writer shares the same views with the above citation, because majority of the Igbo are generally not (good) speakers of Igbo language, neither are they (good) writers of Igbo, nor (good) readers of Igbo, and of course, hardly do they listen to Igbo language programmes on radio, nor view same on television.

Nwadike (2002: 97) notes "The greatest problem that has faced Igbo from all times is the apathy of the Igbo man towards his language". Investigations made by Ejiofor, and Akponye, show that the Igbo people no longer speak their language freely, because of the influence of foreign language Schools in Igbo land sparsely use Igbo as spoken and written language; rather English is used to teach even at kindergarten level. In most schools, English and French Languages are made compulsory, while Igbo language is completely neglected. In the classroom, Igbo speaking is a taboo, pupils who speak Igbo in classes are made to pay fines, or punished. Igbo is already a lost language in most Igbo families as most parents no longer speak nor teach children the language. Instead they beat and scold their children for speaking Igbo. In most cases the Igbo hate or feel ashamed of speaking their mother tongue, whether in public or private places. Most of the Igbo cultural festivals are being moderated in English language. Igbo traditional rulers prefer speaking English language to visitors in their palaces.

The National Universities Commission (1999-2000: 34) placed Igbo as "the weakest of the three major languages in Nigeria, whether in usage or in the classroom among the higher institutions of learning, thus no university has a department of Igbo language in Nigeria".

Meanwhile, there are not less than fifteen universities in Igbo language speaking states of Nigeria.

Akponye (2007: 37) reveals

The United Nations Organization (UNO) has conducted a research on the languages being spoken around the world today in order to determine their longevity. Shockingly, Igbo is listed as one of the languages that will become extinct in the next twenty five years because it is losing vibrancy and dynamism.

All these instances, and more, (not mentioned in this paper) show the extent of neglect suffered by Igbo language in the hands of the Igbo.

Conclusion

The driving force behind this paper is to establish in practical terms that Igbo language is the major form of Igbo identity. There is also a remarkable synergy between language and culture, and other minor forms of Igbo identity, like clothing, food, names, etc are embedded in Igbo culture, but can only be expressed through Igbo language. Culture is language defined, because language is expressive of culture. The strength of a society is anchored on the unity of language.

Apathy on the side of the Igbo have been the major contributory factor to the imminent extinction of Igbo language. The Igbo have lost the value of Igbo language both in cultural ceremonies and political game in Nigeria. The Igbo language is secondary to English language. The loose link between Igbo language and culture is

compounded by their vested interest in reaching out to other ethnic groupings and nationalities, hence sacrificing their cultural identity (Igbo language) to other sub-cultural languages in order to become socially accepted and business relevant. On the contrary, other tribal groups who reside in Igbo land proudly hold their languages tenaciously, as an identity. The Igbo people play loser's game in Nigeria power struggle, because they do not value Igbo language as an Identity and as a unifying factor in the struggle for political power.

In the words of Governor Orji Uzor Kalu (2007:38)

Politically, Igbo land is in disarray. Of course, individually, Igbo men and women have attained political heights but have inflicted on themselves with a terrifying spectre of collapse of the elite consensus. With rupturing of a coherent language and culture, Igbo identity, social consciousness and political struggles would most likely be elusive until the Igbo rediscover that there is power and strength in the unity of language and culture. It is indeed the absence of language and cultural unity that has unwittingly robbed the Igbo people ideological and strategic intellectual substance in both Igbo pattern of politics and national politics too.

However, if the recommendations in this paper are duly considered and applied, Igbo language will stand tall among the various languages of the world. In view of the fact that the Igbo cannot exist without Igbo language, (because Igbo language identifies them) what can be done to rescue Igbo language from total obliteration?

Recommendations

It is a given fact that the continued decline of the Igbo language, if left unchecked, will lead to complete loss of the language which imaginably means loss of the people who own it. To that effect, the following recommendations should be considered and put into practice, as a way of safeguarding the main form of Igbo identity.

- Igbo parents and care-givers should use Igbo language in bringing up Igbo children, knowing full well that whatever training a child receives early in life carries the child throughout his lifetime.
- All the schools in Igbo speaking states should ensure that Igbo language is taught in their schools. They should provide adequate space for it in their time-table, while Igbo language teachers should shun shyness in their discipline, and teach the subject with utmost dedication. Teachers should desist from punishing those children who speak Igbo language in their classroom.
- Students on their own part should have interest in the speaking, reading, writing and study of Igbo language. They should stop making jest of those

who have interest in the study of the language. Those who intend choosing Igbo language as a course of study should do that with dedication, hoping to make something good out of it, and not just offering the course, just for formality sake or a matter of convenience.

- Igbo sons and daughters in both state and national assembly should help in making those legislations that will favour the growth of Igbo language. The state legislators should use Igbo language during the house sittings. Also their dressing, or attire, should depict Igboness, especially for those Igbo who are at the national assembly.
- Those at the head of government in Igbo speaking states should support the growth of Igbo language by offering scholarship for Igbo language students and teachers. They should form the habit of using Igbo language in making speeches especially in the gatherings dominated by the Igbo. Most importantly, they should consider a round peg in a round hole, while appointing officers that will head the government ministries or departments in charge of Igbo language and culture.
- Igbo traditional rulers are the mirror with which the Igbo and their culture are seen by the other world communities. To this end, Igbo traditional rulers (though literate), should imbibe the culture of speaking to their visitors in Igbo language. They should engage the services of Igbo language interpreters, in the case of when they host non Igbo visitors in their palaces. With the respect and regard which everybody has for them, Ndi Eze can influence the government of their various states on policy issues that will promote Igbo language and culture.
- Igbo religious leaders and priests should give their sermons in Igbo language, where their congregation is made up of Igbo speakers. Instead of speaking in English and interpreting in Igbo language, they should do their preaching in Igbo language, and interpret in English, assuming there is need for that.
- Media houses situated in Igbo speaking areas should create programmes in Igbo language, as well as give more time to those Igbo programmes. The music and video clips should be dominated by Igbo language. Programme presenters should take pride in appearing in Igbo cultural attire. News reporters as well as other journalists of Igbo origin should know how to speak and write Igbo language.
- Authors and publishers of Igbo origin should be patriotic enough to write and publish their books in Igbo language. They should go further by adapting books written in other languages into Igbo language.
- Igbo musicians and music producers should compose and produce music and movies more in Igbo language than other languages. It is the writer's view that those music and movies produced in Igbo language are more meaningful, as well as retain long-term values, than those produced out of the desire to imitate foreigners.

- The Igbo in general, should have a rethink concerning their careless attitude towards Igbo language. The Igbo should not support those political aspirants who cannot address their people in Igbo language. It is obvious that you can't give people any good representation, when you neither understand nor speak their language. It is shameful that most Igbo indigenes go into the rural communities during their political campaigns, only to blow English grammar to the rural dwellers when about 80% of them do not understand what they speak.
- Igbo in diaspora should imbibe the culture of speaking Igbo language to their family. They should also use Igbo language as a medium of communication in their social gatherings. They should instill the spirit of Igboness in their children; through the type of stories they will be told, as well as ensure that those children are once in a while allowed to visit their roots. The Igbo in diaspora should know that no matter how well they think they can speak foreign languages, there is no way they can speak like the original owners of the language, neither will such foreign language form their identity, rather they have placed themselves in place of the proverbial bat (xsb) who will neither be counted as a bird nor rodent.

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ECONOMIC ANALYSIS OF THE ROLE OF MICROFINANCE BANKS IN FUNDING AGRICULTURE IN RURAL AREAS OF KWARA STATE, NIGERIA

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Abstract

The quest to meet the credit need of the Nigerian farmers necessitated the focus of this study. Specifically, the study examined the contribution of microfinance banks (MFBs) towards agricultural development, analyzed and compared the loans given out by these banks to agricultural sector with those given to other investment activities in the study area, examined the repayment level of the various sectors and identified the constraints hindering efficient contribution of the banks to agricultural development in the study area. Data obtained from ten MFBs in Kwara State were used for the study. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used for data analysis. The study revealed that most of the banks' loan were granted to trade and commerce sector while the agricultural sector obtained just about one-fifth of loan disbursement annually. As regard loan recovery however, the agricultural sector compared more favourably than other sectors to which more loan was disbursed. The problems facing the MFBs in making more contribution to agricultural development in the study area include less saving habit of farmer clients, limited loan products, shortage of logistics in rural areas, less willingness of the commercial banks to lend MFBs, shortage of experienced human resources, inadequate capital to operate and lack of effective management information system. The study calls for more contribution to the agricultural sector by the banks and proffers solutions to the constraints limiting their role in agricultural development.

Keywords: Credit, role, microfinance banks, agricultural development, problems.

Introduction

In Nigeria, agricultural production is dominated by small-scale farmers who account for about 95% of the country's agricultural production (Mafimisebi et al, 2007). This system of farming is characterized by low asset base, low fixed capital, labour intensive production, small farm size, low investment and expenditure on farm inputs, crude tools and equipment and low productivity, among others (Ijere, 1986; Olayide and Heady, 1982, Mafimesebi et al, 2007). According to Verheya (2000), although increased agricultural production in Nigeria is constrained by a number of factors, such as non-availability of complementary inputs in the right quantity and quality, poor conditions of feeder roads and other transport facilities, inadequate technologies, youth apathy to agriculture and so on, credit is the most limiting factor among them. Consequently, this results in inability of the farmers to optimize potentials, food insecurity, and poverty at individual and national levels. Hence, boosting agricultural production through adequate finance becomes imperative.

Credit is an invaluable ingredient to agricultural development of any country. Berger (2002) argued that microfinance is an effective and efficient mechanism in poverty reduction all over the world. Micro-credit is also an effective means of improving quantity and quality of agricultural production (Abe, 1981; Osugiri et al. 2011). Availability of credit is also a major determinant of scale of agricultural production, adoption of modern technology, ability to purchase modern inputs and induce farmers to take risks (Adegeye and Ditto, 1982; Madaki, 1986).

In order to make Nigerian populace, including farmers, have access to credit facilities the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) set up the microfinance scheme as an instrument to access financial services when succour was not coming from the conventional financial institutions in the country. According to Olawuyi et al. (2010), microfinance banks (MFBs) believe in people and not collaterals solely, it recognizes the credibility of the people and trusts them. Haruna (2007) also noted that these banks use the approaches of collective appraisal to loan application, loan utilization; monitoring, peer pressure and cross guarantee to enforce repayment. The policy framework establishing MFBs in Nigeria saddles them with the responsibility of providing diversified, affordable and dependable financial services to the active poor in a timely and competitive manner. It is intended to enable the MFBs to undertake and develop long-term, sustainable entrepreneurial activities, mobilising savings for intermediation and creating employment opportunities, and increase the productivity of active poor in the country, thereby increasing their individual household income and uplifting their standard of living. In addition, it the duty of these institutions is to enhance organized, systematic and focused participation of the poor in the socio-economic development and resource allocation process, provide veritable avenues for the administration of micro credit programmes of government, and high net-worth individuals on a non-recourse case basis (Hope, 2009).

Therefore, this study examines the roles played by MFBs towards the funding of agriculture in Kwara State, Nigeria. Specifically, the study examines the contributions of microfinance banks towards agricultural development; analyzes and compares the loan given out by the banks to agricultural sector with the ones given

to other investment activities in the study area; examines the repayment level of the various sectors and identifies the constraints hindering efficient contribution of the microfinance banks to agricultural development in the study area.

Methodology

This study was carried out in Kwara state of Nigeria. The state lies between latitude 7°15' and 6°18' N of the equator. The state shares boundaries with Oyo, Osun, Ondo, Kogi, Ekiti, and Niger states. It shares an international boundary with the Republic of Benin. The state has a population of about 2.37million people and comprises sixteen Local Government Areas (LGAs) (NPC, 2006). A humid tropical climate prevails over the state and it has two distinct seasons - the rainy and dry seasons. The rainy season lasts between April and October and the dry season between November and March. The rainfall ranges between 50.8mm during the driest months to 2413.3mm in the wettest period. The mean annual rainfall is about 1500mm. The minimum average temperature throughout the state ranges between 21.1°C and 25.0°C while, maximum averages temperature ranges from 30°C to 35°C (Kwara State Ministry of Information, 2002). Agriculture is the mainstay of the state's economy and is practised mainly in the rural areas of the state (KWADP, 2010). As at the time of the study, there were 24 microfinance banks (MFBs) in the state located in seven LGAs of the state (CBN, 2011).

Purposive sampling technique was adopted for this study. This was based on the location of the MFBs in the state and information obtained from the state's Ministry of Agriculture that agricultural loan is mostly given by the MFBs in the rural area of the state. Thus, primary data were obtained from with the use of structured questionnaire administered to 10 MFBs in the rural areas of the state coupled with interview schedule with the bank officials. Information obtained covered a period of four years (2008 – 2011) of the banks' activities. Data obtained include the socio-economic characteristics of the farmers who had benefitted from the credit facilities of the banks, amount of loan granted over the period, loan repayment by the beneficiaries, other ways through which the banks assisted the agricultural sectors, and the constraints to the activities of the banks. Secondary data were also sourced from journals, CBN reports, the internet and grey literature.

Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used for this study. Descriptive statistics such as the use of mean, percentages and frequency distributions were employed to identify the contribution of the MFBs to agricultural sector and other investment activities (sectors) and constraints hindering the role of MFBs in the study area. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to measure variability in the loan given out to the different sectors and Duncan's multiple range test was used to test the significant difference between the loan repayment levels in the other sectors with the agricultural sector.

Results and Discussion

Demographic Characteristics of the MFBs' Beneficiaries

The demographic characteristics of the farmers who had benefitted from the credit facilities of the MFBs are presented in Table 1. Investigations revealed that 3,545 farmers benefitted from the banks within the period under survey. A higher proportion (62.9%) of the beneficiaries were male. Most (77.3%) of the farmers were married.

Ninety-two percent of the farmers had formal education. This is in consonance with Olagunju and Adeyemo (2008) who opined that farmers who have formal education readily respond to innovations that would enhance better returns from farm investment. Oladeebo and Oladeebo (2008) also shared this view, that literate farmers repay more of the loans obtained than illiterate farmers having understood the benefits of credit to farm production hence have more propensity to access credit for agricultural operations.

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of the Beneficiaries (Farmers) of the MFBs

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Sex		
Male	2,231	62.9
Female	1,314	37.1
Total	3,545	100
Marital Status		
Single	596	16.8
Married	2,740	77.3
Divorced	209	5.9
Total	3,545	100
Educational Level		
No formal	29	0.8
Primary education	598	16.9
Secondary education	1,076	30.4
Tertiary education	1,842	51.9
Total	3,545	100

Source: Field Survey, 2012

Contribution of the Microfinance Banks to Agricultural Development

Table 2 shows the various means by which MFBs contribute to agricultural development in the study area. Most (60%) of the microfinance banks provided advisory services to the farmers (clients). Survey revealed that the services ranged

from provision of guidelines on sales practices, proper and judicious use of fund for the intended purposes. Also, 10% of the banks pointed human capacity development, establishment of loan utilization policy, provision of storage facilities and farm input subsidization as ways through which they contribute to agricultural development.

The period of time it takes to process loan from the MFBs varied. Based on investigations, the variation was due to difference in the administrative processes and the amount of loan involved. Analysis of the duration of loan processing of microfinance banks under study shows that 40% of the microfinance banks process their loan within one month, while 20% of them process within one week. The result also shows that it takes only 48hours for 40% of the banks to process loans to various sectors. According to the respondents, that was done for their regular customers as compensation for frequent patronage. Overall, processing of loan takes 2 – 30 days by the clients (farmers).

Continuous guarantee, salary and landed property were the collateral required for securing loan by the farmers. Sixty percent of the MFBs disbursed loan on the basis of continuous guarantee while the remaining 40% employed the use of salary and other assets such as buildings and landed property. For loans involving agriculture, the microfinance banks preferred visiting the farm and comparing its worth with the loan the farmer applied for. If the client were a salary earner however, the loan was deducted from the client's salary on monthly basis.

Table 2: Contributions of MFBs to Agricultural Development in the Study Area

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Methods of contribution		
Advisory services	6	60
Human capacity development	1	10
Storage facilities	1	10
Establishment of loan utilization policy	1	10
Farm input subsidization	1	10
Total	10	100
Duration of loan processing by the clients		
2 days	4	40
1 week	2	20
1 month	4	40
Total	10	100
Required Collateral for Securing Loan		
Continuous guarantee	6	60
Salary and other assets	4	40
Total	10	100

Source: Field Survey, 2012

Loans Disbursement by the Microfinance Banks**Table 3: Loan given out by the Microfinance Banks (2008 – 2011)(₦'000)**

	SECTORS					
*MFBs	AGRIC.	MANUFACTURING	COMMERCE	TRANSPORT	R/ESTATE	OTHERS
A	264,968	0	133,062	0	0	9,250
B	72,829	7,729	417,945	4,375	4,073	0
C	17,000	4,305	17,256	3,300	7.0	0
D	55,000	30,000	166,000	9,000	2,000	14,341
E	8,809	0	22,224	5,852	0	7,692
F	19,123	7,542	28,100	8,574	0	6,518
G	80,490	23,550	24,500	16,000	9,000	0
H	0	9,500	696,000	4,677	3,000	40,000
I	2,851	0	115,851	0	0	0
J	8,800	0	130,209	4,550	0	8,280
Total	529,870	82,626	1,751,147	56,328	18,773	86,081
Ranking	2	4	1	5	6	3

Note: * A to J are the selected Microfinance Banks in the State
Field survey, 2012

Table 3 and Figure 1 present the amount the loan granted by the MFBs. The Table shows that a sum of ₦2,188,473,000 was given out as loans by the ten selected Microfinance Banks in 2008 – 2011. Trade and commerce sectors received the highest amount of loan (₦1,751,147,000) while the agricultural sector received a sum of ₦529,870,000 and it was ranked second. This was followed by 'other sectors' which include health, education, housing and consumer sectors which received a sum total of ₦86,081,000 and followed by manufacturing sector, transport sector and real estates which received ₦82,626,000, ₦56,328,000 and ₦18,773,000 respectively. The results show that Bank A gave the highest loan to Agricultural sector.

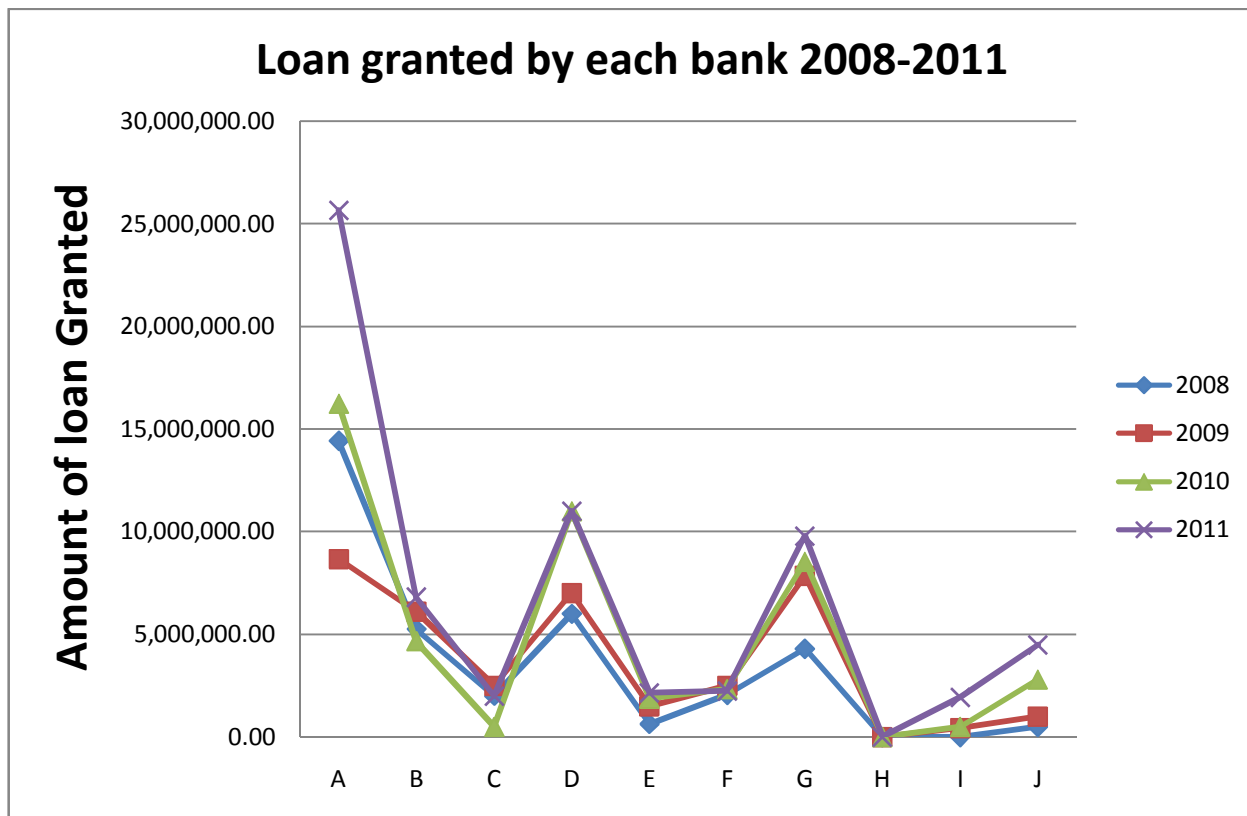


Fig .1: Graphical representation of the loans granted by each Microfinance Bank

Table 4 and Figure 2 compare the amount of loan of loan granted to all the sectors by the MFBs. From the results, a total of about ₦232,680,000 loans were granted to the nine sectors in 2008. Trading and commerce sector received the lion share of the amount granted. This represented about 63.8% of the total loan given out. Next to the share of trading and commerce was the share of agriculture, which represented about 16 % of the total loan granted to all the sectors. The least share of the loan granted by the microfinance bank in the study area in 2008 went to the consumer sector which comprises the people that collected loan for consumption.

Table 4: Amount of loan granted to each sector per annum (N'000)

YEAR	AGRIC	MANUFACT- URING	TRADE & COMMERCE	TRANSPORT	REAL ESTATE	HEALTH	HOUSING	EDUCATION	CONSUMER	TOTAL
2008	40,000	18,437	140,484	10,000	4,037	9,912	9,040	481	294	232,685
	16.0%	8.4%	63.8%	4.7%	1.8%	4.5%	4%	0.2%	0.1%	100%
2009	375,353	22,085	1,122,712	12,101	3,648	15,715	362	608	169	1,216,939
	3.1%	1.8%	92.4%	1.0%	0.3%	1.3%	0.03%	0.1%	0.01%	100%
2010	48,439	19,408	246,431	12,187	5,362	20,608	808	811	121	353,634
	13.7%	5.5%	69.7%	3.4%	1.5%	5.7%	0.2%	0.2%	0.03%	100%
2011	66,078	22,696	241,520	22,040	5,724	24,909	496	753	994	385,215
	17.25	5.9%	62.7%	5.7%	1.5%	6.5%	0.1%	0.2%	0.3%	100%
AVERAGE	132,467	20,656.5	437,786.7	14,082	4,692	17,786	2,676.5	663.25	394.5	547,118.25

Field survey, 2012

A similar case was recorded in 2009. Trade and commerce sector received the biggest share of about 92.4% leaving only about 7.6% of the total loan of N1,216,939,000 granted by the microfinance banks under study to other eight sectors. The proportion of loan received by agricultural sector to the total loan granted in the year was about 3.1%. The manufacturing sector rated third with a loan proportion of about N22,085,000 in the year. The consumer sector again received the least percentage of the total loan granted by the microfinance banks under study in 2009.

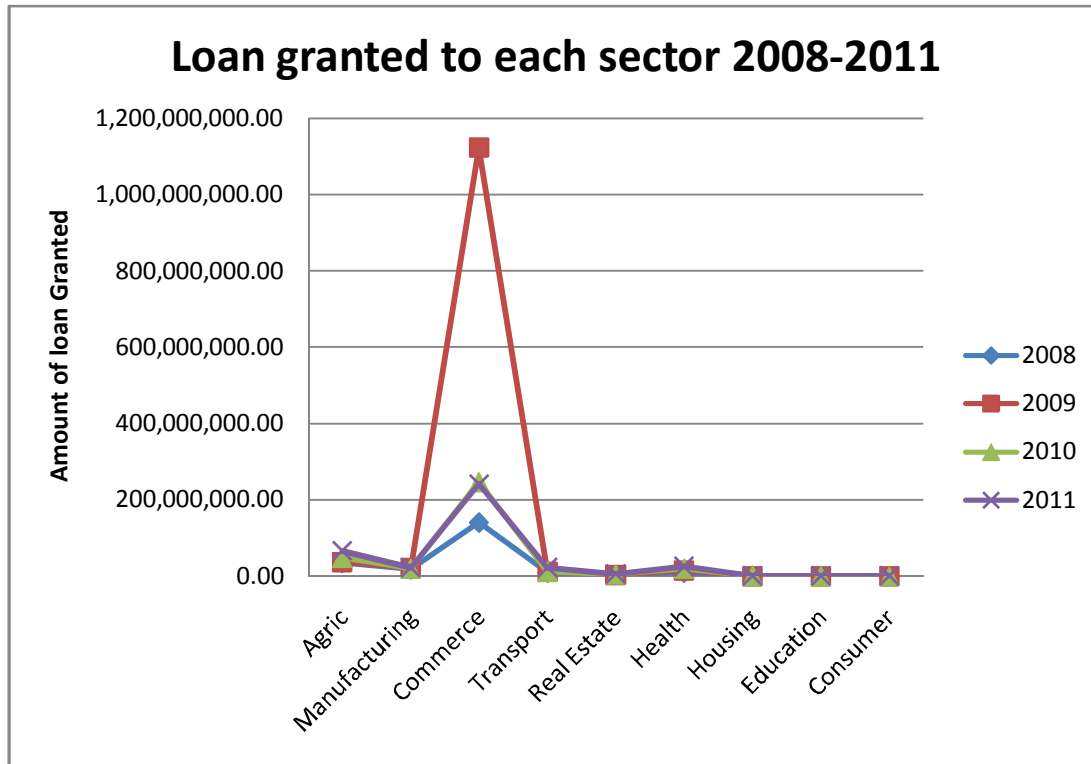


Figure 2: Graphic representation of loans granted by sector (2008-2011)

Analysis of loan granted to the various sectors under study by the MFBs in the state in 2010 revealed that pattern of the share of loan received by different sectors corresponds to those of previous years. Trading and commerce sector also received the highest loan share of about ₦246,431,000 representing about 69.7% of the total loan granted that year. Agricultural sector followed with 13.7% (₦48,439,000) of the total loan granted by the MFBs in the year 2010. Manufacturing sector also placed third with total loan of ₦19,408,000 which was 5.5% of the total loan and consumer sector also received the least loan.

2011 analysis of the amount of loan granted to various sectors by the surveyed MFBs in peri-urban and rural areas of Kwara State reported a total loan amount of about ₦385,215,000. Agricultural sector received about 17.2% of the total amount while trading and commerce was still ranked highest in terms of the amount of loan granted to the sector. These analyses show that the MFBs preferred given loan to trading and commerce than other sectors.

Table 5 shows the results of the Duncan Multiple Test carried out to ascertain the statistical significance of the observed differences in the amount of loan granted to various sectors under study. In each of the year under analysis, the amount of loan granted to trade and commerce sector was significantly different from that

granted to other sectors. However, the amount of loan granted to agriculture was not significantly different from all other sectors with the exception of the trade and commerce sector. This could be deducted from the analysis that the credit facilities of the MFBs was mostly concentrated on trade and commerce activities (see Table 4 and Figure 2). These results imply that there were no much changes in the loan given to trade and commerce for the four years under observation.

Table 5: Duncan Multiple Range Test

Sectors	Years			
	2008	2009	2010	2011
Agriculture	3,516.4 ^a	3,753.5 ^a	4,844.0 ^a	6,607.9 ^a
Manufacturing	1,843.7 ^a	2,208.6 ^a	1,940.6 ^a	2,269.6 ^a
Trade and Commerce	14,048 ^b	11,22.7 ^b	26,644 ^b	24,152 ^b
Transport	1,042.3 ^a	1,2102 ^a	1,218.7 ^a	2,204.1 ^a
Real estate	403.8 ^a	364.9 ^a	536.2 ^a	572.5 ^a
Health	991.2 ^a	1,571.6 ^a	2,006.1 ^a	2,490.9 ^a
Housing	90.4 ^a	36.20 ^a	80.8 ^a	49.6 ^a
Education	48.1 ^a	60.9 ^a	81.1 ^a	75.4 ^a
Consumer	29.4 ^a	16.9 ^a	12.2 ^a	99.4 ^a

Note: Mean with the same alphabet are not significantly different

Source: Field Survey, 2012

Loan Repayment by Sectors

Table 6 shows analysis of loan repayment by the various sectors under study. The Table revealed that in 2008, trading and commerce sector ranked first, as 89.12% of the loan given by the banks was recovered and agricultural sector ranked third (82% loan recovery) while transport sector ranked last with 35.2% of the loan been paid back. In 2009, trading and commerce sector was ranked first because 93.91% of the loan was recovered and agricultural sector was ranked fifth with a loan repayment of 76.82%. In 2010 and 2011, commerce and agricultural sectors ranked first and second respectively. Investigations were further made on the frequency of loan recovery

Table 6: Analysis of Repayment Level by Various Sectors (N'000)

SECTORS	2008 AMOUNT	%	RANK	2009 AMOUNT	%	RANK	2010 AMOUNT	%	RANK	2011 AMOUNT	%	RANK
CONSUMER	200	68.02	8	90.5	53.55	8	98.2	81.16	8	895	90.04	4
HOUSING	7,100	78.53	6	320.1	88.92	2	760	86.63	6	390	78.63	9
EDUCATION	380.6	79.13	5	500	82.24	4	681.1	83.98	7	612	81.27	7
REAL ESTATE	3,137.5	77.72	7	1,948	53.40	9	4,000.98	74.62	9	4,724	82.53	5
HEALTH	7,912	79.82	4	12,000	76.36	6	17,894	86.83	5	19,905	79.91	8
MANUFACTURING	15,693	85.12	2	18,936	85.74	3	17,890	92.18	3	21,120	93.0	3
AGRICULTURE	32,800	82.0	3	288,353	76.82	5	44,752	92.39	2	61,701	93.38	2
TRANSPORT	3,520.53	35.2	9	7,610.23	62.89	7	19,540	88.66	4	10,000	82.05	6
COMMERCE	125,204	89.12	1	1,054,300	93.91	1	233,260	96.58	1	230,060	95.25	1

Source: Field Survey, 2012

from the sectors. Forty percent of the MFBs reported that agricultural sector paid back loan more often while 50% of them pointed that trading and commerce sector pay back loan more often and 10% of the banks said it was the educational sector. These results imply that level of loan recovery from agricultural sector is encouraging, compared to some other sectors to which more loan is disbursed.

Problems facing the Contribution of the MFBs to Agricultural Development

The problems facing the MFBs in meeting the needs of the agricultural sector are presented in Table 7. Seventy percent of the MFBs reported less savings habit of the clients and limited loan products to be problems that limit their contribution agriculture while 60% of them pointed shortage of logistics in rural areas as the constraint hindering their effectiveness. Fifty percent of the banks identified less willingness of the commercial banks to lend to MFBs and shortage of experienced human resources. Other problems facing the contribution of the MFBs to agricultural development in the study area were lack of effective management information system, inadequate capital to operate the banks and inability of the farmers to provide collateral security.

Table 7: Constraints to Contribution of the Microfinance Banks to Agriculture

*Problems	Frequency	Percent (%)
Less saving habit of the clients	7	70
Less willingness of the commercial banks to lend to MFBs	5	50
Shortage of experienced human resources	5	50
Limited loan products	7	70
Shortage of logistics in rural areas	6	60
Lack of effective management information system	2	20
Inability to provide collateral security	1	10
Inadequate capital to operate	2	20

Note: * multiple response Field survey, 2012

Conclusion

This study examined the role of MFBs in agricultural development in Kwara State Nigeria. This study showed that most MFBs disbursed loan to male married well educated farmer clients. It can also be inferred that most of the banks render advisory services to the farmer clients while just few assisted the farmers through farm input subsidization, storage facilities, human capacity building and establishment of loan utilization policy. The study also revealed that most of the banks' loan were granted to trade and commerce sector while the agricultural sector obtained just about one-fifth of loan disbursement annually. As regard loan recovery

however, the agricultural sector compared more favourably than other sector to which more loan was disbursed. The problems facing the MFBs in making more contribution to agricultural development in the study area include less saving habit of farmer clients, limited loan products, shortage of logistics in rural areas, less willingness of the commercial banks to lend MFBs, shortage of experienced human resources, inadequate capital to operate and lack of effective management information system.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, it is recommended that more loan should be provided by the banks to the agricultural sector. Besides, effort should be made by MFBs in the area of human capacity development, provision of storage facilities, farm input subsidization and establishment of loan utilization policy. This will not only enhance their contribution to agricultural development but also improve agricultural production in the country.

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MONETARY MODELS AND EXCHANGE RATE DETERMINATION: THE NIGERIAN EVIDENCE

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Abstract

This paper estimates three different monetary models of exchange rate determination for the Nigerian economy using time series data. These include the Monetary Flex-Price Model, Sticky Price Model and the Hybrid [Flex-Sticky Price] models. Our estimates reveal that the Monetary Flex-Price Model dominates other models in the determination of exchange rate in Nigeria. The model shows that relative money supplies, income levels and real interest rate differentials provide better forecasts of the naira-US dollar exchange rate. The empirical validity of our MFPM estimates is buttressed by the fact that the coefficient of the difference between the domestic and foreign money supply is close to unity. Thus, a one percent increase in the amount of currency supplied in the country stimulates 1.242 percent increase in the nominal exchange rate (depreciation). The empirics of the results are straight forward; a domestic economy that inflates her money supply at a faster rate than does her trading partner can expect to suffer depreciation in the external value of her currency. Consequently, any change in the money supply has as a proportionate effect on the exchange rate and hence on the price level. Thus, the money supply process should be stable; otherwise, the exchange rate system in the country will be unstable. The policy significance in this regard is that monetary policy should be positively predicted.

Keyword: Flex-Price Model, Sticky-Price Model, Hybrid Model, Monetary Models, Exchange Rate,

Background and Problem Statement

Monetary models to exchange rate determination are basically stock models that derived from the IS/LM/Phillip Curve model. So, monetary approach maintains that exchange rate is determined predominantly by shifts in the demand for and supply of money. Essentially, the models are based on finding the exchange rate which the available amount of currency supply is equal to the demand to hold the

currency [Macdonald and Taylor (1992), Adjaoute (1995), Reifscheider, Stockton and Wilcox (1997) and Hoontrakul (1999)]. For an inflationary economy, the models explain why a foreign exchange rate market may be characterized by a self-fulfilling prediction [Edwards and Losada (1994)]. While flow theories like the Purchasing Power Parity [PPP] based on the law of one price asserts that the change in the exchange rate between any two currencies is determined by the change in the relative price levels of the countries involved, the monetary theory of exchange rate determination is entrenched on three building blocks, namely, a stable money demand function in the domestic and foreign countries, the money supply processes in both countries and the equilibrium condition in the money market [Frenkel (1978, 1999), Frenkel and Froot (1989), Vries (1994), Backetti et al. (1995)].

In monetary text, a number of researchers have argued the theory of rational speculative flexible price otherwise known as the rational speculative bubble as a useful means of explaining the volatility in the exchange rates [Meese (1986), Evans (1986) and Macdonald and Taylor (1993)]. This is because speculative bubbles prominently characterize the floating exchange rate regime in the world over. Accordingly, the stochastic nature of money supply induces rational expectations into the dynamic analysis of exchange rate knowing that individuals possess perfect information. In effect, if individuals can distinguish between shocks to levels of money supply and shocks to monetary growth targets, then the changes in the exchange rate would be a one-time response. However, if the market information is imperfect, then the exchange rate feedback movements will reflect a superlative effect each time the market is unable to positively exclude the possibility of a deliberate change of monetary policy by the authorities [Sergeant and Wallace (1975), Cumby and Obstfeld (1981, 1984), Fama (1984) and Hoontrakul, (1999)].

Exchange rate is a price variable that is very germane in every economy as it performs the dual role of maintaining international competitiveness and serving as nominal anchor for domestic prices in the economy [Sercu, Raman and Hulle (1995)]. Indeed, exchange rate is a very sensitive variable, the variation of which determines the pace of economic activities. Apart from being a potent instrument of international exchange, its stability dictates the growth in investment and output of every economy. The determination of the naira-US dollar exchange rate is therefore an issue to be methodically explored. This is the motivation that drives the paper.

The paper therefore estimates econometrically three monetary models of exchange rate determination namely, flex-price model, sticky price model and hybrid, that is, flex-sticky model in order to find the model that is more feasible for exchange rate determination in Nigeria. The significance of the study lies on the fact that it affords the opportunity to do a comparative check of the different monetary models of exchange rates determination in Nigeria.

The motivation of the present research is as well justified given that its empirical measurement covers beyond the age of structural policy break that co-existed in the country as at 1986 with the implementation of the floating or flexible exchange rate through the Second tier Foreign Exchange Market [SFEM]. Also, some

researchers have explored the relevance of the flex model within the Nigerian context without an empirical consideration of other forms of monetary models of exchange rate determination. Above all, in spite of the known fact that some researchers have explored the applicability of the flex model, their coverage is limited since their data points are not elongated to 2011. These facts put together are capable of generating a lacuna between theory and evidence as regards the subject matter and most of all in rapid contrast to the present motivation and research objective which is explored in recent times to wrap both the pre and post deregulation years. The rest of the paper is organized into six sections. Section two gives the trends in money supply and exchange rate management in Nigeria. Section three provides an explicit review of the monetary models of exchange rate determination as well as the prior empirical evidence on the monetary models in the determination of exchange rates. In section four, we focused largely on the derivation of the flexible and sticky price models required for econometric estimation of the monetary approach to exchange rate determination. The econometric methodology, data measurement and sources are also espoused in section four. Section five analyzes the regression results. Model stability test and robustness checks are contained in section six. Lastly, section seven concludes the paper.

2. Trends in Money Supply and Exchange Rate Management in Nigeria

Monetary Developments in Nigeria

Recently, the Central Bank of Nigeria [CBN] predicted a 24.64 percent growth in broad money supply for 2012 [CBN (2012)]. The CBN, in a report on Monetary, Credit, Foreign Trade and Exchange Policy Guidelines for fiscal years 2012/2013, added that the money supply would also grow by 18.38 percent in 2013. In 2011, broad money [M_2] grew by 8.55 percent in the eight months [CBN (2011)], which annualized to a growth rate of 12.82 percent. When the CBN changes the level of money supply, it does so through the control of the base¹ money. When money supply exceeds the level the economy can efficiently absorb, it dislodges the stability of the price system, leading to inflation or higher prices of goods. Once it is perceived by the CBN that there is too much money in circulation and prices are rising or there is potential pressure for prices to rise, it may reduce money supply by reducing the base money. To reduce the base money, the central bank sells financial securities to commercial banks and the non-bank public so as to reduce the ability of deposit money banks to create new money.

Besides, the CBN can reduce the money supply by raising the cash reserve deposits that banks are required to hold with the central bank. The larger the deposit balances on bank balance sheets, the higher their ability to create more money. The

¹ Base money is made up of currency and coins outside the banking system plus the deposits of banks with the central bank. There is excess money supply when the amount of money in circulation is higher than the level of total output of the economy.

CBN's monetary policy, therefore, targets the growth in those deposit balances so as to control the expansion in money supply which could precipitate price distortions. A reduction in money supply affects the ability of commercial banks to create new money through giving loans to their customers. In effect, the CBN could be said to be implementing a contractionary monetary policy. When investors cannot get new loans to expand their investments, it reduces the level of aggregate output in the economy.

Exchange Rate Management in Nigeria

Exchange rate management is a core macroeconomic policy function of the central monetary authority, for example the CBN. The CBN has over the years experimented with the fixed and the market based exchange rate regimes. The overriding policy objective is to achieve a realistic² and stable exchange rate consistent with internal and external balance. In fact, the significance of foreign exchange in international economic transactions has made it vitally evident that the management of scarce foreign exchange is a considerable component of national economic management. During the 1970-1985 period of economic management, Nigeria operated a controlled exchange rate regime where exchange rate of the naira was pegged to the dollar. The second phase of exchange rate management in Nigeria began in 1986. This followed the oil glut of early 80s, where it became evident that the Nigerian economy which depends exclusively on oil revenues was not able to sustain the fixed exchange regime in the sense that the country's foreign reserves got exhausted in addition to enormous foreign debt stock. As an essential element of the Structural Adjustment Programme [SAP] introduced in 1986, the country adopted a flexible exchange rate through the Second tier Foreign Exchange Market [SFEM]. A decisive assessment of the exchange rate regimes from 1986 highlights a propensity towards incessant exchange rate depreciation or put differently, exchange rate volatility which is unfavorable to monetary stability. Despite the adjustment from one regime to another, a consensus on the determination of naira-dollar exchange rates is yet to be reached.

Literature Review

Theoretical Review of Monetary Models of Exchange Rate Determination

There are copious models of the monetary approach to the determination of exchange rate. These include the Monetarist Flex-Price Model [MFPM], Sticky Price Model [SPM] and Mundell-Fleming Model [MFM]. The thrust of the monetarist flex-price model is that the exchange rate level is perfectly correlated with the level of the relative money supply in long run. In the flexible price monetarist view, the asset market equilibrium lies at the center of analysis and the asset in question is money. The demand for money function is stable and the supply is determined by the

²A realistic exchange rate ensures efficient allocation of foreign exchange resources and paves way for a non-inflationary growth.

monetary authorities. The model is indeed, an extension of the PPP theory as it essentially appends a theory of price level determination to a PPP equation in order to explain the rate of exchange [Fischer (1984), Ghosh et al. (1995)]. The analysis of the model is that changes in money supply under the floating exchange rate system determines changes in exchange rate depreciation. The extent of the depreciation depends on how domestic money supply exceeds foreign money supply. Theoretically, when money supply rises, the domestic price level rises as well for a given foreign price level and the exchange rate will have to rise based on the PPP hypothesis [Pippenger (1993)].

Due to Dornbusch (1976), the sticky price model provides an explanation why the exchange rate under the floating system is volatile, overshooting above the long-run equilibrium. This is a spill off from the monetarist model in which employment is full and goods prices become sticky rather than flexible. That is to say the price of 'non-traded' goods changes to their new equilibrium after a disturbance, while 'traded' goods prices increase in proportion to the money supply [Dornbusch (1995, 1988), Dornbusch, Fischer and Samuelson (1977)]. Hence, the overall price level increases less than the money supply, leaving the demand for money lower than the supply. In these circumstances, the exchange would go beyond its new equilibrium before returning to it. Eventually, the excess supply of money is eliminated via rising non-traded goods prices. The basic tenet of the sticky price model is that when currency is devalued and the price of goods remains fixed for short-run, the currency value may 'overshoot'.

The overshooting in the exchange rate refers to a temporary overreaction of the nominal exchange rate before moving back toward the equilibrium value in the long run. According to Frenkel (1976), the exchange rate may temporarily overshoot its long run equilibrium value for at least three reasons. First, the exchange rate overshoots due to imperfect information on the shock of money supply levels. The currency may overshoot after it has been floated as a result of the 'sticky price' effect of the goods markets combined with instantaneous adjustment in asset market.

Third, the lack of credibility, sustainability and confidence in government after periods of high inflation causes the political support to inevitably fall off. Thus, the currency chaos can be resulted in self-fulfilling perpetual currency depreciation belief resulting in hyperinflation period. Nevertheless, Dornbusch (1995) posits that currency speculation attack by itself is not the cause of the currency crisis. It is the economic fundamental underlining the currency that causes the currency to depreciate or appreciate. Speculation is just an accelerator to the currency realignment at the faster rate to reach its fundamental equilibrium value. The problem is thus, that of vulnerability. This leads to full scale financial crisis and forced 'de facto' devaluation by changing currency regime from fixed to float. One lesson from this episode is to avoid vulnerability in the first place. This can only be done by having good macroeconomics management including financial deregulation and supervision, avoiding overvalue real exchange rate to achieve disinflation, lengthening the foreign capital maturity and plenty of transparency.

Mundell (1963) and Fleming (1962) opine that goods prices are sticky; asset markets including the foreign exchange markets are persistently in equilibrium with long-run money neutrality. The model provides predictions regarding the international transmission of domestic shocks and co-movements of macroeconomic variables at home and abroad. Unlike Keynes who overlooks linkage between assets and money markets [Keynes (1923, 1930)], the monetarist considers all three markets: money, assets and goods markets. And all three markets must be clearly in equilibrium under perfect price flexibility in long run. The monetarist exchange rate model contemplates flexible prices which keep the goods markets in permanent equilibrium since employment is not fully utilized. Furthermore, the model assumes zero exchange risk premium, UCIRP holds, PPP holds and there is perfect mobility of capital in a risk neutral world. Still the money has no substitutability. The theory underlying the Mundell-Fleming model is that devaluation could further exacerbate devaluation due to fiscal irresponsibility or indiscipline, excessive inflation and balance of payments deficits [Kouri (1976), Krugman (1979)].

Empirical Evidence on Monetary Models of Exchange Rate Determination

The empirical evidence on the monetary models, namely, MFPM, SPM and MFM to exchange rate determination is vast. However, researchers have focused mainly on the MFPM and the SPM. MacDonald and Taylor (1991c) demonstrated that the null hypothesis of non-co-integration between the variables in the monetary models of exchange rate determination can be rejected for the bilateral US dollar rates of the UK pounds, German mark and the Japanese yen over the sample period (1976-1990). As a matter of empirical finding, MacDonald and Taylor (1991c) econometrically explored that the restrictions of the MFPM cannot be rejected for the mark-dollar exchange rate. Such strong empirical long-run finding motivated MacDonald and Taylor (1993)'s modelling of the short-run exchange rates dynamics of the US dollar-deutschmark exchange rates. These authors demonstrated that the effectiveness of the monetary models to surpass the simple random-walk model of exchange rate determination in an out-of-sample forecasting framework. This surpassing tendency of the monetary models over the random-walk has furthermore been substantiated by the time-varying parameter models of Wolff (1987) and Schinasi and Swamy (1987).

Several researchers including Hoffman and Schlagenhauf (1983), Woo (1985), Kearney and MacDonald (1990), Nessen (1994), Sercu, Raman and VanHulle (1995) and Deverux and Engel (1998) have all modeled and estimated the complete future path of expected inflation. The results of their empirical estimation show that the rational expectation hypothesis underlying the augmented MFPM is valid. In addition, Huang (1981) found empirical evidence that is supportive of the existence of speculative bubbles. Having employed the MFPM as his exchange rate model of economic fundamentals, Huang (1981), in particular, finds evidence of excess volatility of the current exchange rate for the US dollar-mark, US dollar-UK pound and UK pound-mark exchange rates relative to its perfect foresight value. Using the

SPM as a model of economic fundamentals, Wadhvani (1984) also reported empirical evidence of excess volatility for the dollar-sterling rate.

Hodrick (1978), Bilson (1978) and Putnam and Woodbury (1980) have all estimated the MFPM for the deutschmark-US dollar and the UK pound-US dollar respectively using the floating exchange rate data. Hodrick (1978) found the coefficients on the German and US money stock to be significantly equal to unity as predicted by the model. The estimates obtained by Bilson (1978) and Putnam and Woodbury (1980) were poor. The empirical evidence on the SPM is sparse. However, in his empirical investigation of the exchange rate dynamics, Driskell (1981) regression estimates of the SPM for the US economy could not also stand the test of time. Smith and Wicks (1990) have used the SPM to assess the extent of monetary shocks and exchange rate variation for the UK. The econometric fit of UK data to SPM was poor as the coefficient estimates failed to conform to the model predictions. Boughton (1988), MacDonald (1988b) and MacDonald and Taylor (1989e, 1992) have all offered a variety of rationalizations for the poor performance of the MFPM and SPM. Further, Kempa (2005) had recently observed that the SPM is characterized with the problem that it does not allow for a distinction to be drawn between the short-run and long-run changes in the determinants of the real exchange rate. Others have recognized its static nature and hence may perhaps not be well suited for explaining the short-run behaviour of exchange rates.

Frankel (1979a) however, adopted a reduced form sticky price exchange rate model and obtains estimates of exchange rate overshooting for the German economy. The sticky-price model effect according to Frankel (1979a) is simply an estimate of how much the mark-dollar exchange rate would have to depreciate for a once-and-for-all increase in the US money supply of one percentage point (Hallwood and MacDonald, 1996). In particular, the calculated decline in the real interest rate differential gives a current exchange rate overshoot of about 1.23%. Frankel (1979a) further estimates that if the expected inflation rate is raised by one percentage point annually, this will induce a short-run exchange rate overshoot of exactly 1.58%. According to Hallwood and MacDonald (1996), if the monetary expansion signals to investors a new higher target for monetary growth, the initial overshooting will be greater. The general consensus which has been developed on the basis of the hybrid monetary model (Frankel, 1979a) in the empirical literature is that in the long-run, the nominal exchange rate is determined by the MFPM but that in the short-run, the exchange rate deviates by an amount determined by the real interest rate differential between the home and foreign countries.

The Monetary Models of Exchange Rate Determination

There are many versions of monetary models of exchange rate determination [Rosenberg (1996)]. These include the flex-price model [Frenkel (1976) and Bilson (1978)], sticky-price model [Dornbusch (1976)], real interest rate-differential model or the hybrid monetary model [Frankel (1979)] and equilibrium real exchange-rate model [Hooper-Morton (1982)]. For the sake of this paper, focus is given to the

flexible, sticky price and hybrid models in the econometric modeling and estimation of the monetary approach to exchange rate determination. This is the approach that researchers like Hodrick (1978) and Frankel (1979a) have in the past adopted.

Monetarist Flex-Price Model [MFPM]

The basic building blocks of the model are the goods, money and asset markets. Given that the asset in question is money, the money market is made up of stable money demand and supply functions in the domestic and foreign countries:

$$\begin{aligned} M_t - P_t &= \beta_1 Y_t - \beta_2 R_t \\ M_t^f - P_t^f &= \beta_1^f Y_t^f - \beta_2^f R_t^f \end{aligned} \quad [4.1]$$

Where M_t, M_t^f are the domestic and foreign money supplies, P_t, P_t^f are the domestic and foreign price levels, Y_t, Y_t^f are the domestic and foreign national output [income] levels, R_t, R_t^f are the domestic and foreign interest rates and f 's indicate variables pertaining to the foreign economy. Solving for the relative price levels in the home and foreign countries, we have that:

$$\begin{aligned} P_t &= M_t - \beta_1 Y_t + \beta_2 R_t \\ P_t^f &= M_t^f - \beta_1^f Y_t^f + \beta_2^f R_t^f \end{aligned} \quad [4.2]$$

Price level and exchange rate are related through the purchasing power parity [PPP] identity such that:

$$E_t^n = P_t - P_t^f \quad [4.3]$$

Where e_t^n is the nominal exchange rate. On the assumption that capital is perfectly mobile and as such asset-holders can adjust their portfolios instantly when there is a disturbance, uncovered interest rate parity should of course then hold:

$$\Delta E_{t+1}^{nE} = (R - R^f)_t \quad [4.4]$$

Where Δe_{t+1}^{nE} denotes the logarithmic value of the expected change in the nominal exchange rate, one-period ahead. By substituting [4.2] into [4.3], the reduced-form equation for the MFPM is thus derived:

$$E_t^n = (M_t - M_t^f) - \beta_1 Y_t + \beta_1^f Y_t^f + \beta_2 R_t - \beta_2^f R_t^f \quad [4.5]$$

Equation [4.5] can be written as in equation [4.7] based on the Fisher parity relationship that:

$$R = i_t + \pi_{t+1}^e \equiv R^f = i_t^f + \pi_{t+1}^{ef}$$

Where i_t, i_t^f are the real interest rates for the domestic and foreign countries and $\pi_{t+1}^e, \pi_{t+1}^{ef}$ are the expected inflation rates, home and abroad. Assuming the law of one-price in the asset (money) market such that the domestic real rate of interest is tied to the foreign rate, that is, real interest rates are equalized across the world as reflected in the equation:

$$i_t = i_t^f$$

[4.6]

The econometrically estimable MFPM of exchange rate determination is obtained by adding a disturbance term to equation [4.5]:

$$E_t^n = \beta_0 + \beta_1[M_t - M_t^f] - \beta_2[Y - Y^f]_t + \beta_3[\pi^e - \pi^{ef}]_{t+1} + u_t$$

[4.7]

The theoretical expectations for the MFPM are $\beta_1 = 1, \beta_2 < 0, \beta_3 > 0$. According to Laider (1992), for reliable estimates of the MFPM, β_2 and β_3 should take on values close, in absolute terms, to the estimated income elasticity and interest semi-elasticity from an estimated money demand model in the range of 0.5 to 1 depending on the definition of the money stock.

Sticky Price Model [SPM]

Price stickiness indicates that the goods market do not clear in the short-run but does in the long-run. Hence, the PPP hypothesis does not hold in the short-run. Given that price level is sticky, equation [4.3] then holds as a long-run trend such that:

$$\bar{E}^n = \bar{P} - \bar{P}^f$$

[4.8]

The expected change in the exchange rate is thus governed by a regressive expectations component:

$$\Delta E_{t+1}^n = \phi(\bar{E}^n - E_t^n), \quad [0 < \phi < 1]$$

[4.9]

For the fact that the PPP holds in the long-run, there is therefore an evolution of the price level from the short to the long-run equilibrium. By assumption therefore, the price level adjusts in proportion to excess aggregate demand:

$$\Delta P_{t+1} = \delta(Y^d - \bar{Y})$$

[4.10]

Where Δp_{t+1} is the change in the price level, one-period ahead, δ is the speed of adjustment, $Y^d, \bar{Y}$ are the aggregate demand and the full employment equilibrium

national output respectively. Thus, the aggregate demand function takes the Mundell-Fleming form:

$$Y^d = \beta_5 g - \beta_1 R + \beta_2 (E_t^n - P_t) + \beta_3 \bar{Y} \quad [4.11]$$

Where β_5 is the shift parameter which captures government spending effect, β_1 captures the interest rate effect on domestic absorption, β_2 is the real exchange rate effect and β_3 is the income effect on expenditure growth. Putting [4.11] into [4.10], the change in price level is obtained as:

$$\Delta P_{t+1} = \delta [\beta_0 g + \beta_2 (E_t^n - P_t) + (\beta_3 - 1) \bar{Y} - \beta_1 R] \quad [4.12]$$

Following same procedures as outlined under the MFPM, the econometrically estimable SPM is derived as:

$$E_t^n = \beta_0 + \beta_1 [M_t - M^f]_t - \beta_2 [Y - Y^f]_t + \beta_3 [(R_t - \pi_{t+1}^e) - (R_t^f - \pi_{t+1}^{ef})] + \mu_t, \quad [\beta_3 = 1/\phi] \quad [4.13]$$

Theoretical expectations for the sticky price Dornbusch model are $\beta_1 = 1, \beta_2 < 0, \beta_3 < 0$, β_3 is the measure of exchange rate overshoot and μ is the stochastic disturbance.

Flex-Sticky Price Monetary Model: The Hybrid Model [HM]

As in the MFPM and SPM, the expected change in the exchange rate is governed by a regressive expectations component and the expected inflation differential:

$$\Delta E_{t+1}^{nE} = \phi (\bar{E}^n - E^n)_t + (\pi^e - \pi^{ef})_{t+1}, \quad [0 < \phi < 1] \quad [4.14]$$

In the long-run, $e_t^n = \bar{e}_t^n$. Thus, the exchange rate is expected to change by an amount that is equal to the long-run inflation differential. So, substituting equation [4.14] into equation [4.4] yields:

$$E_t^n = \bar{E}_t^n \frac{1}{\phi} [(R_t - \pi_{t+1}^e) - (R_t^f - \pi_{t+1}^{ef})] \quad [4.15]$$

Equating [4.15] to [4.7] and solving for the equilibrium nominal rate of exchange using the assumption that equilibrium values are given by their current actual values, the estimable hybrid monetary exchange rate model is derived:

$$\begin{aligned}
 E_t^n = & \beta_1[M_t - M^f]_t - \beta_2[Y - Y^f]_t + \\
 & \beta_3[\pi_t^e - \pi_t^{ef}]_{t+1} + \\
 & \beta_4[(r_t - \pi_{t+1}^e) - (r_t^f - \pi_{t+1}^{ef})] + \\
 & \varphi_t, (\beta_4 = 1/\phi)
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{4.16}$$

Theoretical expectations for the hybrid model are $\beta_1=1, \beta_2 < 0, \beta_3 > 0, \beta_4 < 0$. The logarithmic representation of the error correction versions of our MFPM, SPM and HM models are specified as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Delta \ln E_t^n = & \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_{1i} \Delta \ln[M_t - M_t^f] - \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_{2i} \Delta \ln[Y - Y^f]_t + \\
 & \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_{3i} \Delta \ln[\pi^e - \pi^{ef}]_{t+1} + \delta ECM_{t+1} + v_t \\
 \Delta \ln E_t^n = & \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_{1i} \Delta \ln[M_t - M^f]_t - \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_{2i} \Delta \ln[Y - Y^f]_t + \\
 & \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_{3i} \Delta [(R_t - \pi_{t+1}^e) - (R_t^f - \pi_{t+1}^{ef})] + \sigma ECM_{t+1} + \mu_t \\
 \Delta \ln E_t^n = & \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_{1i} \Delta \ln[M_t - M^f]_t - \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_{2i} \Delta \ln[Y - Y^f]_t + \\
 & \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_{3i} \Delta \ln[\pi_t^e - \pi_t^{ef}]_{t+1} + \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_{4i} \Delta [(R_t - \pi_{t+1}^e) - (R_t^f - \pi_{t+1}^{ef})] + \gamma ECM_{t+1} + \varphi_t
 \end{aligned}$$

Methodological Framework and Data Measurement with Sources

The study utilized the Johansen and Juselius (1990, 1992) co-integration methodology and the dynamic general-to-specific econometric modeling [Hendry (2005)]. By way of contribution, we went beyond the single equation co-integration procedures of Engle and Granger (1987). This is unlike Boothe and Glassman (1987), Meese (1986) and Kearney and MacDonald (1990) who have in the past adopted the said Engle and Granger (1987) Two-Step co-integration procedure to estimate the MFPM. The econometric advantage of our methodology in comparison to the single co-integration procedures is the fact that the multivariate long-run relationship between the variables in our respective models is established simultaneously. We resolved to time series estimations in order to measure the short-run dynamic

relationship between exchange rate and monetary variables under the Monetary Flex-Price, Sticky Price and Hybrid [Flex-Sticky Price] models of exchange rate determination.

Data on nominal exchange rate, real interest rates, relative money supplies, national income levels and expected inflation rates for the home (Nigeria) and foreign (US) countries were compiled from the IMF's International Financial Statistics Yearbook and the World Bank [World Development Indicator], 2010 edition. Given the time scope of the study, 1975 through to 2010 and the annual frequency of the data, all variables have 35 data points. The inflation utilized is the annual percentage growth rate of CPI. We adopt the Dhakal et al (1993) approach of using the first difference of the log of the current price level generating data for expected inflation data. This approach of computing expected inflation is desirable on the ground that it is consistent with both the rational and adaptive expectation hypotheses. This is in addition to the fact that inflation cannot be filtered to generate expected inflation as in the case of the use of the Hodrick-Prescott filter in generating potential output.

Empirical Analysis

Unit Root Test Analysis

Fundamentally, all variables were tested for stationarity in order to investigate the time series characteristics of our data and hence ensure consistency in succeeding regression estimations. In addition, the unit root test was conducted to determine the order of integration as it is both a necessary and sufficient condition for the possible existence of co-integrating relations [Libanio (2005)]. We utilized the Augmented Dickey-Fuller [ADF], Phillips-Peron [PP] and Kwiatkowski [KPSS] tests to determine the order of integration. While the ADF test the null hypothesis of a unit root, the PP and KPSS test the null that the series are stationary. Thus, a rejection of the null under the ADF is indicative of the absence of unit root and similar rejection of the null under the PP and KPSS is evident of non-stationarity. For the PP test, we utilized the Bartlett Kernel for the spectral estimation. For the ADF test, the lag order was determined by the Schwarz Information Criterion [SIC] given by $2L/N + k \log N$, where L is the log likelihood, N is the number of observations and k is the number of coefficients in the auxiliary regression.

The test results are as reported in Appendix 1. A critical assessment of the results show explicitly that all the variables in the study only gained stationarity at first difference. By implication, all the variables (nominal exchange rate, domestic money stock, foreign money stock, domestic national income, foreign income level, domestic real rate of interest, foreign real interest rate, and expected inflation rates) trended at levels. This is made evident on the ground that for the ADF and PP, the test statistic(s) in absolute value(s) are greater than the 5 percent critical values of (-3.56) and (-4.57) respectively, while for the KPSS, stationarity was made evident on the ground that the test statistics are smaller than the 5 percent critical value of

(0.226). The robustness of the unit root test results lies in the fact that the test equations include an intercept and a linear trend.

Co-integration Test Results

In the Johansen Maximum Likelihood co-integration procedure, a test for the optimal lag length of the related Vector Auto Regression [VAR] was conducted. This was necessitated because the Johansen's co-integration test is highly sensitive to the appropriate lag length. In such a consideration, the Akaike Information Criterion [AIC], Final Prediction Error [FPE], Likelihood Ratio [LR], Schwartz Information Criterion [SIC] and Hannan Quin [HQ] selection criteria were utilized in choosing the appropriate lag length. The AIC and the SBC in evenhandedness generated the optimal lag order of 2 required for the co-integration test. The Johansen's co-integration results are reported in Appendix 2. Evident from both the trace and the max eigen statistic(s), the hypothesis of non co-integrating relationship amongst the variables in the respective models is rejectable with the conclusion that at least one co-integrating relation exists.

At the 5 percent level, the trace test validates the null hypothesis of at most **3, 2 and 4** co-integrating relations for the Flex-Price [FPM], Sticky Price Model [SPM] and Hybrid [Flex-Sticky Price] Model respectively. On the other hand, the maximum eigen statistics validates the null of at most **2, 1 and 4** co-integrating vectors at the 5 percent significance level for the respective models. In all, the results indicate an overwhelming evidence of the existence of a long-run relationship between exchange rate of the naira vis-à-vis the US dollar, relative money supplies, income levels, interest rate and expected rates of inflation in the respective models. The validity of the alternative hypothesis of co-integration of our variables in the monetary models is supported by those of MacDonald and Taylor (1991c), unlike the non-co-integration results obtained by Boothe and Glassman (1987), Meese (1986) and Kearney and MacDonald (1990).

Empirical Analysis of Error Correction Results

The error correction estimates of the model are presented in Appendix 3 below. The dynamic short run ECM coefficients are based on the Schwartz Bayesian Criterion for selecting the appropriate ARDL representation. For the MFPM, all the variables namely, relative money supplies, income levels and expected inflation rates are correctly signed and all statistically significant at the 95 percent and 99 percent levels. Our estimated coefficients of the relative money supplies are not statistically different from unity as predicted by the MFPM. Thus, a one percent increase in the amount of money supplied in the country stimulates 1.242 percent increase in the nominal exchange rate (depreciation). The empirics of the results are straight forward; a domestic economy that inflates her money supply at a faster rate than does her trading partner can expect to suffer depreciation in the external value of her currency. The estimated coefficient for the domestic income level is negative and that of the US is positive just as theoretically predicted by the MFPM. Thus, a one-

percentage point increase in the home national income level will make the nominal exchange rate to appreciate by 1.328 percent. A similar increase in the foreign national income level will induce 0.044 percent depreciation in the naira-dollar exchange rates on the platform of a floating exchange rate system.

The estimation results of the SPM are in general not overwhelming in terms of statistical robustness. This can easily be seen in the low determination coefficient of 42.5 percent which is indicative of the fact that the estimated SPM is not remarkably successful in explaining the exchange rate in the sample. Moreover, some of the coefficient signs do not conform to the theoretical expectations of the SPM. However, our sticky-price model effect as measured by the real interest rate differential is imperceptibly significant. In particular, the results show that a ten percent fall in the real interest differential between Nigeria and the US gives a nominal exchange rate overshoot of about 15.69 percent. This coefficient does not differ from that estimated for the HM. Indeed, both the SPM and the HM cannot be distinguished with respect to the coefficients of the real interest rate differential. The estimated results for the HM shows that if the expected inflation rate of economic agents is raised by ten percent, it leads to a short-run exchange rate overshoot of 11.88 percent. Thus, we agreed with Hallwood and MacDonald (1996) that an ignorance of the expected inflation effect downwardly biases estimates of the short-run exchange rate overshoot. By implication, erroneous expectations in the short-run would trigger an initial nominal exchange rate movement in the expected direction. Such expected direction is actually a wrong direction and hence it make the nominal exchange rate to over-react temporary but however, magnified by the effect of perfectly flexible goods market as a result of the Fisher effect [Hoontrakul (1999)]. Nevertheless, when such expectations are corrected over the long-run period, the exchange rate would return to equilibrium rate. Consequently, government intervention in the foreign exchange market is desirable in this scenario.

The speed of adjustment of the nominal exchange rate from its short-run to its long-run equilibrium value in relation to disturbances arising from relative money supplies, income levels, interest rate and expected inflation rates are 82.8 percent, 53.5 percent and 69.9 percent for the MFPM, SPM and HM respectively. The model's diagnostic tests for serial correlation, functional form, normality of residuals and heteroskedasticity do not indicate any concern for econometric problems. Indeed, the adequacy of the overall regression results is ascertained on the basis of significant F-statistic(s) of 38.2, 22.2 and 50.2 for the three models respectively. This goes a long extent to indicate the existence of a significant linear relationship between the naira-dollar exchange rates and monetary variables in Nigeria. Also, the goodness-of-fit of the regression estimates is instituted on the basis of a significant explanatory power as measured by the adjusted and unadjusted coefficients of model determination. Having adjusted for degrees of freedom, 86.2 percent, 42.5 percent and 80.2 percent of the total variations in the nominal exchange rate are explained by the MFPM, SPM and HM respectively. Evidently, the results reveal that the best fit of the data is obtained for the MFPM. In the main, the probability values

of the Breusch-Godfrey LM statistic reported discloses no traces of serial correction in the error component of the estimated monetary models. The Box-Pierce's (Q) statistic also shows that the residuals are white noise. These further lend credence to the adequacy of the specification of our models. On the basis of the diagnostic statistical checks, the error correction results are adjudged to be statistically fit and robust.

Synthesis of Our Results with other Empirical Results

In econometrically testing the monetary model of exchange rate determination, we estimated the Flex-Price Model [FPM], the Sticky Price Model [SPM] and the Frankel's Hybrid Monetary Model [HM]. Our regression results provide robust empirical support for the Monetarist Flex-Price Model, than the Sticky Price and Frankel's Hybrid versions. The empirical validity of our MFPM estimates is buttressed by the fact that the coefficient of the difference between the domestic and foreign money supplies is close to unity. These results conformed to the empirical results obtained by Hodrick (1978), Wolff (1987), Schinasa and Swamy (1987), Woo (1985), Finn (1986), Hoffman and Schlagenhauf (1983), MacDonald and Taylor (1991c), MacDonald and Taylor (1993). The validity of the co-integrating relationship of the identified variables in our models corroborates those of MacDonald (1990) as against the non-co-integration results obtained by Boothe and Glassman (1987), Meese (1986), Kearney and MacDonald (1990). As regard the SPM, our empirical estimates and findings are not enormously robust and hence failed to lend significant weight to Frankel's (1979a) sticky-price model effect as measured by the real interest rate differentials, but rather uphold the empirical results earlier obtained by Bilson (1978), Putnam and Woodbury (1980), Driskell (1981) and Smith and Wckens (1990) that estimation of the SPM in recent times will break down.

Model Stability and Robustness Checks

Model stability is established in this study on the basis of the cumulative sum of residuals [CUSUM], cumulative sum of squares of recursive residuals [CUSUMSQ] and the prediction error of the estimated monetary models. The results of the prediction error are provided in Figure 4. Empirically, the recursive residuals in the regressions persistently drift within the standard error bounds of plus-minus two [± 2]. This facilitated the adaptive configuration of the CUSUM test parameters thereby correcting any trace of structural instability. Thus, the n^{th} recursive residuals were generated as the ex post prediction errors for exchange rate. The CUSUM and the CUSUMSQ tests utilize the cumulative sum of the recursive residuals and the squares of recursive residuals based on the first set of observations. This was recursively updated and hence plotted against break points [Brown, Durbin and Evans (1975)]. The results of the stability test are provided in Figure 5. Evidently, stability is easily inferred for the period under analysis. The source of the stability inference derived from the fact that neither the CUSUM nor CUSUMSQ plots cross the critical bounds as

represented by the straight lines drawn at the 5% significance level. This in effect indicates absence of significant structural instability over the study period. This indeed, provides empirical evidence in support of the validity of the null hypothesis of parameter constancy at the 5% level for the estimated coefficients of our error correction representations.

Summary

In econometrically testing the applicability of the monetary models of exchange rate determination for the Nigerian economy, we estimated the Flex-Price Model [MFPM], Sticky Price Model [SPM] and Hybrid Model [HM]. Though, our sticky-price model effect as measured by the real interest rate differential is imperceptibly significant, the estimated set of regressions provide robust empirical support for the Monetarist Flex-Price Model, than the Sticky Price and the Hybrid [Flex-Sticky Price] models. The MFPM shows that relative money supplies and income levels provide better forecasts of the naira-US dollar exchange rate. Thus, the Monetarist Flex-Price Model is the best for modeling the exchange rate in Nigeria. It is therefore an essential device for exchange rate determination policy in the country. The empirical validity of our MFPM estimates is buttressed by the fact that the coefficient of the difference between the domestic and foreign money supply is close to unity. The empirics of the results are straight forward; a domestic economy that inflates her money supply at a faster rate than does her trading partner can expect to suffer depreciation in the external value of her currency. Consequently, any change in the money supply has as a proportionate effect on the exchange rate and hence on the price level. Thus, the money supply process should be stable; otherwise, the exchange rate system in the country will be unstable. The policy significance in this regard is that monetary policy should be positively predicted.

Conclusion

Further empirical finding is the fact that inflation expectations of economic agents are significant determinant of exchange rate volatility. This indeed, makes it prominent for us to agree with Hallwood and MacDonald (1996) that an ignorance of the expected inflation effect downwardly biases estimates of the short-run exchange rate overshoot. By implication, an erroneous expectation in the short-run would trigger an initial nominal exchange rate movement in the expected direction. Such expected direction is actually a wrong direction and hence it makes the nominal exchange rate to overshoot temporary but however, magnified by the effect of perfectly flexible goods market as a result of the Fisher effect. Nevertheless, when such expectations are corrected over the long-run period, the exchange rate would return to equilibrium rate. To put inflationary expectations under control, the implementation of monetary policy should be transparent. Consequently, government intervention in the foreign exchange market is desirable in this scenario. However, the involvement of the government must be such that regularly align with monetary policy framework of implementation.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Unit Root Test/Sationarity Results in Difference based ADF, PP and KPSS

Variable(s)	Test Statistic(s)			Integration Order	Statistical Inference
	ADF	PP	KPSS		
	Drift and Trend	Drift and Trend	Drift and Trend		
ΔLnM_t	-5.472*	-8.222*	0.028*	$I [1]$	Stationary
ΔLnM_t^f	-5.255*	-6.545*	0.026*		Stationary
ΔLnY_t	-4.682*	-10.426*	0.088*		Stationary
ΔLnY_t^f	-6.225*	-18.226*	0.152*		Stationary
$\Delta Ln\pi_t^e$	-4.992*	-24.464*	0.204*		Stationary
$\Delta Ln\pi_t^{ef}$	-3.926*	-10.669*	0.220*		Stationary
ΔLne_t^n	-40.822*	-6.644*	0.165*		Stationary
$\Delta \left(i_t - i_t^f \right)$	-5.666*	-12.688*	0.589*		Stationary
Critical Value(s)	-3.68	-4.57	0.226		
Note: * indicates first-difference stationary of the series @ the 5% level					

Appendix 2: Co-integration Test Results Based on Johansen's Maximum Likelihood

Approach

Monetarist Flex-Price Model (MFPM)					
Null hypothesis	Optimal VAR Lag Length	Trace Statistic	5% Critical Value	Maxeigenvalue	5% Critical Value
$H_0 : r = 0$	2	182.6*	140.8	142.4*	128.2
$H_0 : r \leq 1$	2	180.2*	138.8	145.2*	122.3
$H_0 : r \leq 2$	2	122.8	132.6	126.6*	124.8
$H_0 : r \leq 3$	2	120.5	105.2	120.8	122.6
$H_0 : r \leq 4$	2	128.5	102.5	108.8	112.2
Sticky Price Model (SPM)					
$H_0 : r = 0$	2	172.2*	138.8	168.5*	152.2
$H_0 : r \leq 1$	2	162.9*	134.8	162.3*	146.6
$H_0 : r \leq 2$	2	150.3*	128.6	140.9	146.2

$H_0: r \leq 3$	2	120.6	124.5	126.6	130.2
Umoru, D.: Monetary Models and Exchange Rate Determination: The Nigerian Evidence					
Flex-Sticky Price Model: Hybrid Model (HM)					
$H_0: r = 0$	2	242.2*	132.2	132.8*	123.5
$H_0: r \leq 1$	2	188.2*	122.5	126.8*	124.6
$H_0: r \leq 2$	2	132.6*	102.6	125.6*	120.4
$H_0: r \leq 3$	2	166.3*	128.0	122.3*	112.4
$H_0: r \leq 4$	2	146.5*	144.2	120.2*	112.2
Notes: r denotes the number of co-integrating vectors; * indicates statistical significance @ 5% level					

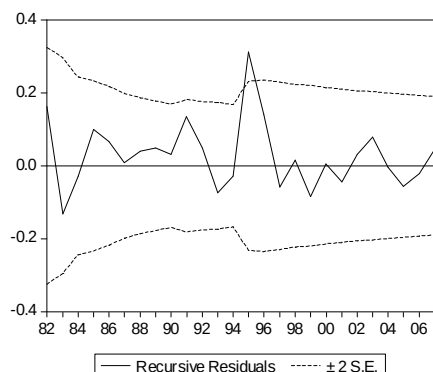
Appendix 3: Error Correction Results of the Monetary Approach to the Theory of Exchange Rate Determination in Nigeria

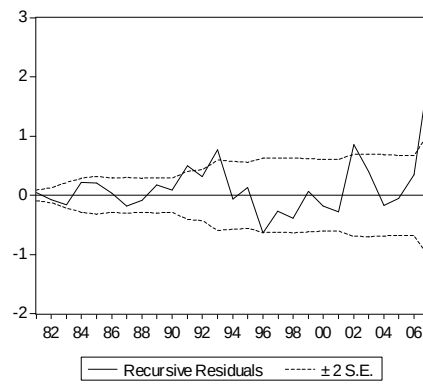
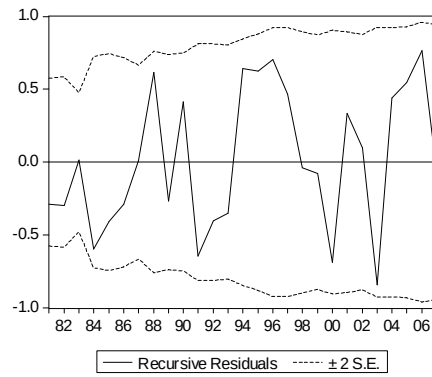
Selected ARDL Model ARDL (1, 0, 0, 0) selected based on Schwarz Bayesian Criterion

Dependent Variable is the Nominal Exchange Rate ($\Delta \ln E_t^n$)			
Variables	MFPM	SPM	HM
$\Delta \ln M_t$	1.242 (0.103) (12.058)*	-2.452 (1.472) (-1.666)	-1.226 (0.405) (-3.026)*
$\Delta \ln M_t^f$	0.268 (0.092) (2.913)**	0.422 (0.098) (4.306)*	1.458 (1.642) (0.279)
$\Delta \ln Y_t$	-1.328 (0.555) (-2.392)**	1.028 (0.557) (1.846)	-1.032 (0.658) (-1.568)
$\Delta \ln Y_t^f$	0.044 (1.022) (2.499)**	2.428 (0.846) (2.222)**	2.822 (1.246) (0.006)
$\Delta(i_t - i_t^f)$		-1.569 (0.790) (-1.986)***	-1.528 (0.819) (-1.866)***
$\Delta \ln(\pi_t^e - \pi_t^{ef})$	0.628 (0.305) (2.059)**		-1.188 (0.158) (-7.52)*
Constant	2.622 (0.226) (11.555)*	-16.629 (5.878) (-2.829)**	5.422 (0.233) (23.270)*

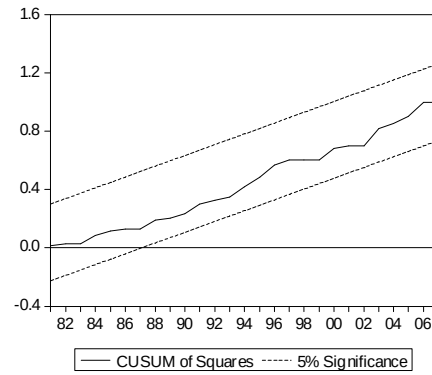
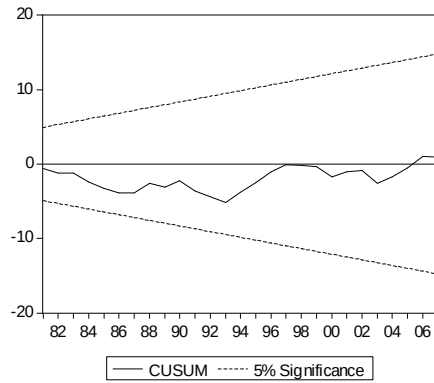
Dynamic Error Correction Term			
ECM _[t-1]	-0.828 (0.252) (-3.285)**	-0.535 (0.220) (-2.424)*	-0.699 (0.102) (-6.852)*
Model Adequacy / Goodness-of-Fit Test Statistic(s)			
R ² (Adj. R ²), F-statistic	89.6%(86.2%), 38.20	52.3% (42.5%), 22.20	82.2% (80.2%), 50.20
Model Diagnostic Statistical Check(s)			
Jarque-Bera Test	0.799(0.0331)	0.886(0.0234)	0.762(0.0445)
Durbin-h statistic	1.22	1.60	1.62
B-G <i>LM</i> statistic	1.056(0.5068)	0.201(0.3002)	0.022 (0.6501)
Box-Pierce's (Q) statistic			
ARCH-Test Statistic	0.045(0.0222)	0.121(0.0123)	1.087(0.0131)
Ramsey-RESET statistic	1.981(0.0451)	1.785(0.0342)	1.966(0.0223)
*(**)(***) indicates variable significance @ 1 %(5%) (10%) levels respectively. Standard errors and t-values are reported in parenthesis below each estimated coefficient.			

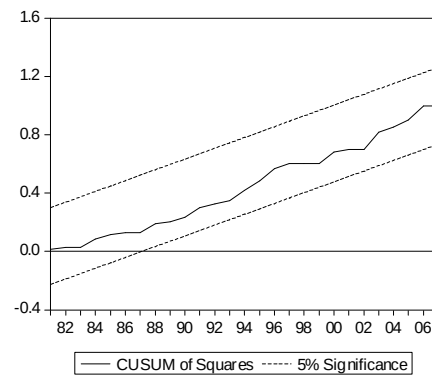
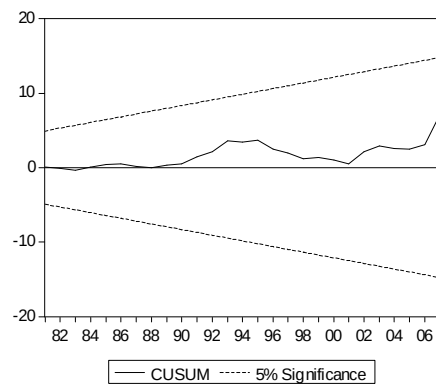
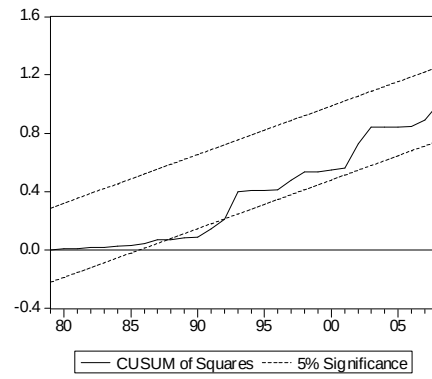
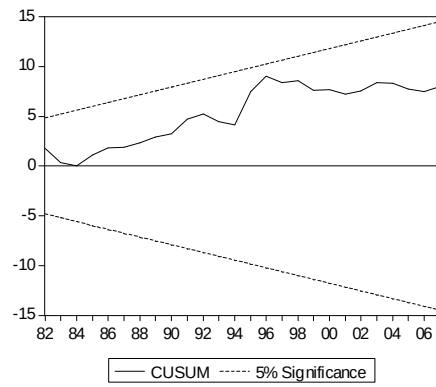
Appendix 4: Plot of Prediction Errors of the Estimated Models





Appendix 5: Plot of CUSUM, CUSUMSQ of the Estimated Models





IMPACTS OF TRANSPORTATION ON THE PROFITABILITY OF SWEET POTATO PRODUCTION IN SELECTED LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREAS OF KWARA STATE, NIGERIA

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Abstract

Transportation is an essential aspect of agricultural production. However, in many parts of Nigeria, bad transport system is still a problem of rural farmers. Therefore, this study seeks to examine the impacts of transportation on the profitability of sweet potato production in Kwara State. The sampling techniques involved the purposive selection of two local government areas (LGAs). Two communities were randomly selected from each of the two LGAs. Then, twenty six sweet potato farmers were finally selected from each of the four communities giving a total of 120 respondents. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, multinomial logit model and gross margin. The study showed that head portorage, motor cycle, motor vehicle and pick up van of less than 3 tons were the most prominent means of transporting sweet potato in the study area. Also, the size of the farm, cost of transportation, quantity of sweet potato produced, and average distance from the farm to the market are the factors that significantly affected the choice of transportation means used by the farmers in the study area. The results also showed that the farmers who sell their produce at the market earn more profit than those that sell at the farm gate. Therefore, in order to encourage the farmers to produce more sweet potatoes it is recommended that adequate transportation system be provided.

Keywords: Sweet Potatoes, Transportation, Logit, Profitability, Impact

Introduction

Agricultural production is very important to the economy of developing nations, Nigeria in particular. This is because it contributes about 43.64% of the total Gross Domestic Product to the economy of Nigeria. It provides food for people, raw materials for the agro-allied industries and earns foreign exchange for the economy. Also, 51.7 % of Nigerians live in the rural sector (Falola and Heaton, 2008) and are

mostly engaged in agriculture either directly or indirectly. They are small scale subsistence farmers who are responsible for over 70% of the food that is made available to consumers.

Moreover, Nigeria has an expanding urban population which is making greater demands on agricultural production and marketing system. The expansion of urban demand for food stuffs has stimulated the direct sales to urban consumers by some rural producers. Nigerian urban inhabitants, as large as they are, and like their counterparts in many places depend mostly, if not entirely, on farmers in the rural areas for their requirements of agricultural food products. The towns therefore constitute best-price markets for rural agricultural products and the farmers are keen to benefit from the situation.

Fatulu (2007), Tunde (2007) and Yahaya (2009) indicated that transportation, poor credit accessibility, insecurity and high cost of human labour represent the most serious constraints to agricultural development in Nigeria and with the ever growing population, food scarcity was not farfetched. Aloba (2004) said that the rural areas (production centers) are not well linked with the marketing centers and as such severe constraints are imposed on the market of farm produce, which results in unpleasant consequence of wastage, low productivity and high production and market cost. Hence, if food production is to keep pace with rapid population growth and demand for food, a new and creative approach to agricultural development must be developed. In a country like Nigeria where millions of people are not adequately fed, unexploited food resources must be unearthed and utilized.

Sweet potato (*Ipomea batata* L) is widely grown as a staple food in many parts of the tropic and subtropics, which includes many developing countries where it accounts for about 107 million/tons in production per year. It is extensively grown in the tropical zone, accounting for about 81% of total world production (Chandra, 1974). Also, sweet potato is one of the important root crops in Nigeria that could also be developed as a food security crop (i.e. food crop, which the farm household can eat as food and also sell to get cash income to meet other needs (Tewe et al., 2003). Sweet potato like other agricultural produce has a significant role to play in the economy of a developing country like Nigeria. Its production, transportation and marketing offer job opportunity for the farmers, transporters as well as the marketers thus raising their income.

Sweet potato is an important food security crop in Nigeria (Odebode, 2004). It is a short-term crop consumed boiled and mashed. It is mono-cropped or intercropped or intercropped in complex cropping systems with some staple crops such as yam and maize. It has also been identified as the least expensive, year round source of dietary, vitamin A, especially the orange-fleshed type (Low et al, 1997). The crop is cheap, can be purchased in affordable units and is easily cultivated, yet it is facing a lot of production and post harvest challenges.

In Nigeria, sweet potato production, marketing and utilisation have expanded beyond the traditional areas of the central and riverine zones to the humid, sub-humid and semi-arid regions in the last two-and-a-half decades (Tewe et al, 2003).

Therefore, the poor accessibility in the rural areas perpetuates the deprivation trap by denying communities access to their most basic needs. In the past the exact nature of rural people's transport needs were not fully understood and, as a result, transport interventions were mainly in the form of new road building. There is now considerable doubt as to whether new road building necessarily stimulates economic growth and, if it does, do the benefits "trickle down" to the poorest members of the community. As a result, some transport planners are now taking a basic needs approach to development and the provision of transport services.

In many parts of Nigeria today, bad transport system is still a problem of rural farmers. This has exposed the farmers to various types of exploitation especially by middlemen who end up claiming a greater share of the consumers' expenditure and leaving the farmer and his household in abject poverty. The poor state of transportation has hindered the exploitation of the optimum production potential of the rural areas in Nigeria. This is because often times, farmers are compelled to sell their products at very low prices due to some of the following factors: inelastic demand, danger of bad weather, pest and disease, long distance from the farm to market and seasonality of the products. In order to reduce these losses and exploitation by middlemen, effective transportation and marketing structure must be employed.

In view of the foregoing, the study tends to determine the impacts of transportation on the profitability of sweet potato farmers in Kwara State and the specific objectives are:

1. To identify the available transportation means or facilities in the study area;
2. To determine the factors affecting the choice of transportation means used by sweet potato farmers in the study area; and,
3. To evaluate the costs and return to sweet potato farmers in the study area.

Methodology

This study was carried out in Kwara state in the north central zone of Nigeria. More than 90 percent of the rural population in Kwara State are involved in farming. The main stay of the state's economy is agriculture (Kwara State Diary, 2004). Two local government areas namely, Offa and Oyun local government areas were selected purposively for the study. These local government areas were selected based on the fact that they are the major producers and together, they account for over 80% of the output of sweet potato in the state (KWADP, 1996).

Road transport is the most predominant mode of transportation in Offa and Oyun LGAs. This is a confirmation of the crucial role transport plays in the socio-economic development of a nation, be it developed or developing, rural and urban especially in the movement of people, goods and services. The main crops grown are sweet potato, sorghum, maize, yam, cassava, groundnut and rice.

The sources of data for this study were both primary and secondary sources. The primary data were collected through the use of questionnaires which were employed

to solicit response from sweet potato farmers in Offa and Oyun Local Government of Kwara State, Nigeria. The secondary data were obtained from textbooks, journals, and the internet.

Offa and Oyun Local Government Areas were purposively selected because they are the major sweet potato producing areas in Kwara state accounting for over 80% of the output (KWADP, 1996). A two stage random sampling technique was then used for the study. Two communities were randomly selected from each of the two local government areas. Then, twenty six sweet potato farmers were finally selected from each of the four communities giving a total of 120 respondents. However, 104 questionnaires were found useful.

Descriptive statistical tools such as mean, mode, frequency distribution, and coefficient of variation were used to examine the socio economic characteristics of the sweet potato farmers and to determine the available transportation means used for sweet potato production in the study area. The multinomial logit model was used to determine the factors that influence the choice of transportation means used by the sweet potato farmers. Based on the survey results that revealed that the choice of transport means (dependent variable) used by the farmer was a categorical variable which can take four categories or level. These categories were assigned thus:

0 = Head portorage; 1 = Motor cycle; 2 = Motor vehicle and 3 = Pick up van < 3 tons

The farmers that used head portorage as their means of transport were taken as the reference group. The multinomial logit model was therefore used to identify the variables that make farmers belong to any of these categories as follows;

The probability that the i th sweet potato farmer belongs to the j th transport means group P_{ij} reduces. The model makes the choice of probabilities on individual characteristics of agents. Following Maddala (1990) and Babcock et al (1995), The basic model is written as;

$$Pr ob(Y_{i=j}) = \sum^2 \frac{e^{\beta_j X_i}}{e^{\beta_k N_i}} \quad k = 0 \text{ or } 1$$

Where $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ variables; $k = 0, 1, \dots, j$ groups and β_j is vector of parameters that relates x_i to the probability of being in group j where there are $j + 1$ groups.

For this study, the X_i variables range from X_1 – X_6 where:

X_1 = Family size; X_2 = Farm size (ha); X_3 = Transportation cost (₦); X_4 = Quantity produced (kg); X_5 = Income from farming (₦) and X_6 = Average distance from farm to market (km)

The gross margin analysis was carried out to determine cost and returns to the cropping system. The model which captures objective 3 of the study is outlined thus;

$$GM = TR - TVC$$

Where, GM= Gross Margin per hectare, TR= Total Revenue (₦) and TVC= Total Variable Costs (₦).

The value of family labour was obtained by assuming its opportunity cost as equal to the prevailing wage rate since family labour and hired labour were assumed to be perfect substitutes. In this regard, family labour is imputed as if it was hired out in order to know the return to family labour.

Result and Discussion

Table 1 shows the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents

Table 1: Socio Economic Characteristics of the Respondents

Variables	Frequency	Percentage
Age		
≤ 30 years	6	5.8
31 -40 years	12	11.5
41 - 50 years	45	43.3
≥ 51 years	41	39.4
Total	104	100
Sex		
Male	99	95.2
Female	5	4.8
Total	104	100
Marital status		
Married	94	90.4
Single	3	2.9
Widowed	7	6.7
Total	104	100
Major occupation		
Farming	95	91.3
Civil servant	9	8.7
Total	104	100
Educational status of the respondents		
Non formal education	9	8.7
Primary education	57	54.8
Secondary education	20	19.2
Tertiary education	3	2.9
Adult education	15	14.4

Total	104	100
Respondents Farming Experience		
1-10 years	12	11.5
11-20 years	32	30.8
21 - 30 years	50	48.1
>30 years	10	9.6
Total	104	100
Mode of land acquisition		
Inheritance	90	86.5
Purchased	3	2.9
Leased	11	10.6
Total	104	100
Farm size of respondents (ha)		
< 1.0	48	46.2
1 – 1.9	46	44.2
2.0 – 2.9	8	7.7
≥ 3.0	2	1.9
Total	104	100
Cropping pattern		
Mixed	71	68.3
Mono	33	31.7
Total	104	100
Crop planted with sweet potatoes		
Cassava	68	65.4
Maize	3	2.9
Not applicable	33	31.7
Total	104	100
Reasons for cultivating sweet potatoes		
Commercial purpose	3	2.9
Commercial and consumption	101	97.1
Total	104	100
Primary source of fund		
Personal savings	86	82.7

Cooperative society	13	12.5
Friends and relatives	5	4.8
Total	104	100
Means of transporting inputs		
Head Porterage	25	24
Motorcycle	47	45.2
Motor vehicle	32	30.8
Total	104	100
Means of transport from farm to farm		
Head Porterage	35	33.7
Not applicable	69	66.3
Total	104	100
Mean of transport from farmstead to village		
Head Porterage	23	22.1
Motor cycle	45	43.3
Motor vehicle	33	31.7
Not applicable	3	2.9
Total	104	100
Means of transport: farmstead to market		
Motor cycle	20	19.2
Motor vehicle (panel van, bus)	56	53.8
Pick up <3tons	9	8.7
Not applicable	19	18.3
Total	104	100
Farm to village distance		
< 1km	12	11.6
1 – 4km	52	50
5 – 7km	33	31.7
≥ 7km	7	6.7
Total	104	100
Farm to motorable road distance		
< 1km	41	39.4
1 – 2km	54	51.9

3 – 4km	9	8.7
Total	104	100
Farm to market distance		
1 - 2km	14	13.5
3 – 6km	78	75
≥ 7km	12	11.5
Total	104	100
Output market		
Farm gate	45	43.3
Village market	25	24
Urban market	34	32.7
Total	104	100
Benefits of improvement on road to farmers		
Easier access to farm	15	14.4
Easier access to market	48	46.2
Reduction in spoilage of crops	3	2.9
Product to attract higher price	20	19.2
All of the above	18	17.3
Total	104	100

Source: Field Survey 2012

The modal age group for the sweet potato farmers in the study area was 41-50 years with a mean age of 49 years. About 82.7% of the farmers are between 41 and above years of age while the remaining 17.3% are below 40 years. This means that majority of the young adult are not involved actively in sweet potato production. Also, sweet potato production in the study area is mainly carried out by males. This is due to the fact that the men were actually the farm owners and heads of households and are involved in more strenuous operation such as cultivation and weeding etc while their female counterparts are involved in activities like fertilizer application and transportation of harvested sweet potatoes from farm to the road sides.

It was also observed that about 90.4% of the farmers were married while 2.9% and 6.7% were single and widowed respectively. Sweet potato production cuts across different occupational background. Thus, high percentage of the respondents (91.3%) had farming as their major occupation. The proportions of the farmers with secondary and tertiary education were 19.2% and 2.9% respectively. The average years of farming experience of the farmers was 27 years. It was observed that over 80% of the respondents have been planting sweet potato for the past 11 years and

above. This shows that majority of the sweet potato farmers had spent quite long years in sweet potato production and as such had gained good level of expertise in sweet potato production and better means of transporting sweet potato inputs and outputs.

Furthermore, access to land is not a constraint in the study area, as the respondents claimed not having problems with acquiring land for sweet potato production. Hence majority of the farmers acquire their land through inheritance (86.5%). Also, about 46.2% of the farmers cultivate less than 1.0ha of land. This implies that they grow sweet potato on a small scale basis and the result of this could be low output. Typically, most of the farmers (68.3%) adopt mixed cropping pattern. This is to ensure food security and guard against crop failure. The purpose of going into sweet potato cultivation among the farmers ranges from personal consumption to commercial production as about 18.3% of the farmers cultivate sweet potato solely for commercial purpose, while the rest 81.7% cultivate sweet potato both for personal consumption and commercial purpose.

About 82.7% of the farmers sourced funds invested in agriculture from personal savings while the rest 12.5% sourced their funds from cooperative societies and 4.8% claimed that they obtained their capital from friends and relatives. Analysis of the means of transporting input used for sweet potatoes production shows that about 24.0% of the farmers used head portorage for transporting input used in sweet potatoes production while 45.2% and 30.8% of the farmers used motor cycle and motor vehicle respectively. Of great importance to this study is the various means of transportation used by the sweet potatoes farmers in the study area. The only means of transportation used by the farmers to transport sweet potatoes from one farm to another was head portorage. About 33.7% of the farmers used this means on their farm while about 66.3% of the farmers do not transport their produce from one farm to another farm. Also, for the means of transportation of sweet potatoes used from the farmstead to the village, 22.1% of the respondents used head portorage, while about 43.3% use motor cycle to transport sweet potatoes from farmstead to the village. Moreover about 31.7% used motor vehicle (panel van, bus). The remaining 2.9% of the farmers do not transport their produce from farmstead to the village.

Table 1 also showed the respondents that transport their produce to the market before selling; about 53.8% of them used motor vehicle (bus, panel van). Also, 61.6% of the farmers have their farms within the radius of 0 – 4km. This may be due to the fact that by the time they trekked to their various farms, they would have become exhausted as explained by the respondents while more precious time and energy are wasted and lost which could have been used for meaningful activities. For the various points of sale of the sweet potatoes produced by the farmers, about 43.3% of the respondents said they sell through the middlemen that come around and visit the farmers at their farms and homes. The farmers gave their opinion on the issue that inadequate transportation facilities have a negative effect on the production and price charged on sweet potato. Some 72% of the respondents

believed that an improvement on the road condition among other factors can motivate them to grow more sweet potatoes and this in essence will mean more improvement in transport services and will also attract more buyers into the region as well as possible higher profit margins for the sweet potato produce.

Table 2 shows the parameter estimates of the determinant of the choice of transportation means

Table 2: Parameter Estimates

Means of transport	B	Std Error	Wald	Df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Pick up van < 3ton						
Intercept	-0.28	0.051	5.519	1	0.019	
Family size	-0.224	0.317	0.502	1	0.479	0.799
Farm size	0.398	0.091	4.369	1	0.04	0.247
Cost of transportation	-0.497	0.099	5.026	1	0.025	1
Income from farming	0	0	1.368	1	0.242	1
Quantity produced	0.045	0.001	4.5	1	0.034	1
Average distance	0.519	0.11	4.713	1	0.03	4.569
Motor vehicle , panel van, bus						
Family size	0.064	0.107	0.363	1	0.547	1.067
Farm size	0.026	0.006	4.434	1	0.035	0.358
Cost of transportation	-0.216	0.057	3.797	1	0.051	1
Income from farming	0	0	0.508	1	0.476	1
Quantity produced	0.372	0.091	4.088	1	0.038	1
Average distance	0.625	0.343	3.324	1	0.068	1.868
Motor cycle						
Intercept	-130.196	0	.	1	.	.
Family size	6.851	15224.7	0	1	1	721.296
Farm size	62.909	45193.6	0	1	0.999	2.09E+27
Cost of transportation	-0.003	7.947	0	1	1	0.997
Income from farming	0	0.562	0	1	0.999	0.999
Quantity produced	0.012	7.149	0	1	0.999	1.012
Average distance	27.487	31994.9	0	1	0.999	1.16E-12

Source: Field Survey 2012

The reference category is: Head portorage, Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.733$

Table 2 summarizes the effect of each predictor. The ratio of the coefficient to its standard error, squared, equals the Wald statistic. If the significance level of the Wald statistic is small (less than 0.05) then the parameter is different from 0. Parameters with significant negative coefficients decrease the likelihood of that response category with respect to the reference category; while the parameters with positive coefficients increase the likelihood of that response category.

The choice of pick up van < 3tons over the use of head portorage were significantly affected by farm size under sweet potato cultivation, cost of transportation, quantity produced, and average distance from farm to market. If the farm size under sweet potato cultivation increased by 1ha, the likelihood of choosing pick up van over head portorage would increase by about 39.8% at 5% level of significance, while the likelihood would increase by 4.5% and 51.9% if the quantity produced increased by 1kg and average distance increase by 1km respectively. On the other hand, the likelihood that a farmer would choose pick up van over head portorage would decrease by about 49.7% if the cost of transportation increases.

The size of farm under sweet potato cultivation has positive significant effect on the choice of motor vehicle over head portorage as shown in table 2. This implies that increase in the farm size by 1ha will increase the likelihood of choosing panel van or bus over head portorage by about 2.6% for transporting sweet potato. This could be due to the fact that an increase in farm size correlate with increase in output. Therefore, a large production cannot be transported with head portorage for a very long distance.

This is further supported by the positive significant coefficient of the quantity produced. This shows that the likelihood that a farmer would use motor vehicle (panel van or bus) instead of head portorage for transporting sweet potato would increase by about 37.2% if the quantity produced increased by 1kg. Two other variables that are likely to affect the choice of motor vehicle over head portorage for transporting sweet potato are cost of transportation and average distance from farm to market (in km). At 10%, the cost of transportation has a negative significant effect on the choice of transportation used. This implies that as the cost of transportation increases the farmer's likelihood of choosing motor vehicle over head portorage would decrease by about 21.6% while the choice is likely to increase by 62.5% if the average distance from farm to market increased by 1km.

None of the independent variables have significant effect on the choice of motor cycle over head portorage. However, the negative value of the coefficient for transportation cost shows that an increase in the transportation cost would reduce the likelihood of choosing motor cycle over head portorage by about 0.3%.

Table 3 shows the costs and returns to the farmers based on the choice of the means of transportation.

Table 3: Costs and Return Analysis/ha

	Value (₦/ha)
Head Portorage	
Gross income	80,368.49
Less Variable Cost	
Cost of fertilizer/ha	9,049.28
Cost of stem cutting /ha	3,637.71
Cost of herbicides/ha	4,226.00
Cost of hired labour	27,417.41
Imputed cost of family labour	12,325.20
Total Variable Cost	56,655.60
Gross Margin	23,712.89
Motor Cycle	
Gross income	82,250.43
Less Variable Cost	
Cost of fertilizer/ha	9050.28
Cost of stem cutting /ha	3,426.32
Cost of herbicides/ha	4,225.02
Cost of hired labour	27,102.23
Imputed cost of family labour	12,526.21
Cost of transportation	1,650.27
Total Variable Cost	57,980.33
Gross Margin	24,270.10
Motor Vehicle	
Gross income	91,247.35
Less Variable Cost	
Cost of fertilizer/ha	9049.25
Cost of stem cutting /ha	4037.29
Cost of herbicides/ha	4212.45
Cost of hired labour	27,256.23
Imputed cost of family labour	12,324.00
Cost of transportation	8,461.72
Total Variable Cost	65,340.94
Gross Margin	25,906.41
Pick up< 3tons	
Average income from sweet potato/ha	94,426.88
Gross income	94,426.88
Less Variable Cost	
Cost of fertilizer/ha	9,108.35

Cost of stem cutting /ha	3,940.22
Cost of herbicides/ha	4,420.63
Cost of hired labour	27,820.00
Imputed cost of family labour	12,480.68
Cost of transportation	10,204.72
Total Variable Cost	67,974.60
Gross Margin	26,452.28

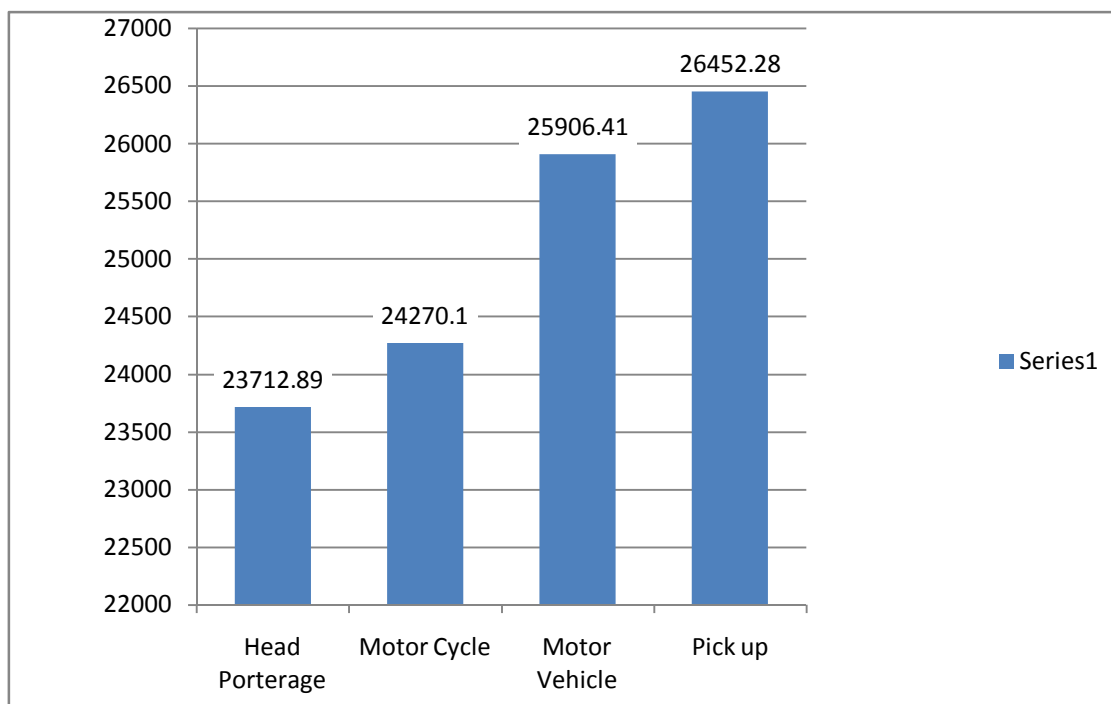
Source: Field Survey 2012

The average income received from sweet potatoes cultivation was estimated at ₦80,368.49 for farmers who used head portorage for their produce. This is the average revenue expected per farmer per cropping season. The analysis of variable cost incurred by the farmers in sweet potato production showed that the average cost of herbicides was ₦4, 226.00. The average cost of fertilizer was ₦9, 094.28 while about ₦3, ₦637.71 was spent on stem cuttings used for planting. Labour cost was the single highest cost among the various costs. On the average, ₦27,417.41 was spent on hired labour. The opportunity cost of family labour was imputed at ₦12,325.20 based on the current market wage rate. The total variable cost was put at ₦ 56,655.60. The analysis of gross margin showed that an average of ₦23,712.89 was realized above the variable cost by the sweet potato farmers.

The average income received from sweet potatoes cultivation was estimated as ₦82,250.43 for farmers who used motor cycle for their produce with a gross margin of ₦24270.10. The average income received from sweet potatoes cultivation was estimated at ₦91247.35 and a total variable cost was put at ₦65340.94. Also, the analysis of gross margin showed that an average of ₦25906.41 was realized above the variable cost by the sweet potato farmers. The average income received from sweet potatoes cultivation was estimated at ₦94,426.88 for farmers who used pick up van with a gross margin of ₦26452.28 was realized above the variable cost by the sweet potato farmers.

Figure 1 shows the graphical representation of the gross margin of the farmers based on the means of transportation.

Figure 1: Distribution of Gross Margin based on Means of Transportation



Source: Field Survey 2012

Figure 1 shows that the farmers who use pick up van as a means of transportation earned the highest profit. This probably may be because of the higher price that the produce gain at the urban market compared to the price at the local or village market. However, on the average the return to sweet potato production per hectare is ₦25085.42.

Conclusion

Transport plays a significant role in the structure of food production and marketing and that easy transport to market can make all the difference in the level of rural incomes. From the analysis, it could be deduced that an improved transportation will encourage farmers to work harder in the rural areas for increased production, add value to their products, reduce spoilage and wastage, empower the farmers as well as having positive impact on the productivity, income, employment level and reduce poverty level in the rural areas. The study therefore emphasizes need to improve transport scheme in order to reduce output wastage or spoilage, reduce the exploitative tendency of the middle men who claimed greater percentage of the farmers produce at the farm gate and also raise their profit.

Recommendations

The government should provide adequate road network in the study area so as to encourage the farmers to increase sweet potato production. Farmers should also be provided with adequate information on the use of agro chemicals, fertilizer, improved varieties of stem cutting and available markets. The rural areas should also be provided with the necessary infrastructure and utilities to discourage rural urban migration. This can help to retain young people including extension agents in the rural places where they are mostly needed.

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RECORD MANAGEMENT IN THE NIGERIAN PUBLIC SECTOR AND FREEDOM OF INFORMATION ACT: THE HORN OF DILEMMA

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Abstract

The importance of records and information management in the fight against corruption and promotion of good governance, transparency and accountability cannot be overstated; the three cannot be achieved without available, accurate and accessible records and information. To demonstrate transparency and accountability to its citizens, government relies upon policy documents, budget papers, procurement records, property and fixed assets, registers, accounting records etc. With the use of public management theory, the paper analyzed issues of records and information management and the role it can play in administrative efficiency and success of Freedom of Information Act 2011. Drawing experience from the developed and developing countries in this globalized era, it concludes that the Nigerian Freedom of Information Act cannot successfully address the challenges of corruption in high places, bad governance, lack of transparency and accountability, unless public servants embrace and cultivate global best practices in records and information management as x-rayed in the paper.

Keywords: Management, Records, Accountability, Efficiency, Effectiveness

Introduction

All over the world government institutions are established to provide specialized functions and services to its citizens and international communities so as to satisfy their basic needs. According to Leach, Stewart and Walsh (1994:5), government institutions are service providers who aim to meet the demands, needs and aspirations of those for whom the service is provided. As human organizations, government agencies function through the Personnel/Human Resource Department, which is the custodian of rules, regulations, records and extra-ministerial circulars.

The ability of any institution be it public or private to carry out its mandate effectively depends on the availability of necessary and sufficient resources. Although it is always underestimated, information is one of the key resources in enabling the accomplishment of organisational goals. According to Van der Walddt, Van Niekerk,

Doyle, Knipe and Du Toit (2002:129), information is a fundamental resource to both government and the private sector alike. Van der Walddt et al (2002:129) further state that information can be maintained and enhanced through appropriate records management. Yet, effective records management is fundamental for good governance, effective and efficient administration. It forms the basis for formulating policies, managing resources and service delivery. It enables an organisation to find information easily and orderly efficient flow of information enables an organisation to perform its functions successfully and efficiently.

Corroborating the above submission, Dearstyne (1985), posits that records are essential to the administration of government institutions. Records contain the information that keeps government programmes functioning; they give government officials basis for making decisions, administering programmes and providing administrative continuity with past operations. Records increase accountability of government and its officials. It is therefore imperative that for the purpose of transparency and accountability, governmental institutions should create and maintain authentic, reliable and usable records.

The significance of records and information management cannot be over emphasized. Records play important role at any given stage in the life cycle of an organization. These include recruitment, training and development, promotion, transfer, implementation, monitoring, appraisal, separation, pension, organizational development etc, and they are therefore an essential informational resource. Records or information management is anchored on the premise that records require managing, in a like manner that other government resources need managing. Information should be regarded and managed as fully important as other administrative functions since records are at the center of governmental operations. For example, transparency and accountability can be achieved by giving the public the right of access to information and this can only be achieved through accessible and sound records management. Thus, effective information and records management is the key and foundation any responsible government needs to provide public goods and services, fulfill its obligation of transparency and accountability towards its citizens and protect their human rights and dignity.

Low productivity in the Nigerian public sector has been in the front burner for decades. Red-tapism, secrecy, inefficiency and ineffectiveness are all common features of the public sector in Nigeria. To give credibility to the fight on corruption, other social vices and unveil the secretive nature of government bureaucracy in line with global best practices, the National Assembly in 2011 passed the controversial "Freedom of Information Bill" subsequently signed into law by the President. However, it is highly regrettable that new a problem has since emerged in the area of poor records and information management in the public sector. Most public administrators are ill-trained. As a result, they lack in-dept modern managerial skills and approaches to public sector records and information management. Yet, information and records are not regarded as an important resource that could influence the efficiency of the organization as well as aid the success of freedom of

information Act. Inadequate records of personnel profile, materials and transactions are alarming despite the use of ICT. Although rules and regulation regulating the management of records exist, there is ignorance or total neglect on the part of certain public officials, and this could have adverse effects on the objectives of Freedom of Information Act and ultimately on public service delivery in general.

The ongoing probe in the Nigerian oil sector reveals that Austin Oniwo, the immediate sacked Group Managing Director of Nigeria National Petroleum Corporation (NNPC) has no idea of the daily production capacity of the existing functional refineries. Yet, the discrepancies in the documents presented by Petroleum Pricing Regulating Agency (PPRA) officials and that of the independent oil marketers over the fraudulent claims of oil subsidy, the pension scam, Nigerian judiciary and police are synonymous with missing case file while missing scripts and results are common features of the tertiary institutions in Nigeria etc. These are all manifestations of poor record management. This paper therefore examines the role of record management in the success of Freedom of Information Act and administrative efficiency in Nigeria.

Objectives of the Paper

The broader objective of the paper is to examine the impact of record management on effective administration of Freedom of Information Act in Nigeria with the view to create and enhance awareness and sensitize government and non-governmental officials on the fundamental role played by sound records and information management in achieving organizational goals. Other specific objectives include: To examine the relationship between record management and public service delivery; to examine whether the management of records, as one of the valuable resources for the success of Freedom of Information Act receives the attention it deserves in public sector; to create awareness and sensitize government officials on the contribution of effective records management towards the achievement of organizational mandate; to identify the challenges facing record management in the public sector; and to suggest the way forward within the context of the identified problems.

Conceptual and Theoretical Clarifications

In most social and management sciences research, in order to avoid ambiguity in the interpretation and understanding of certain terms, it is imperative that concepts used in the study should be clearly defined for a better understanding of the issue under interrogation; relying on the views of various authors, scholars and commentators as well as the way in which one's research is integrated into the body of existing theory and research. The key concepts used in this paper are defined as follows:

Although there are dearth of literature on the concept of record management; however, Shepherd (2006:6) defines a record as a recorded evidence of an activity that is of an action undertaken by an individual or a work group in the course of their

business, which results in a definable outcome. According to Agere, Lemieux and Mazikana (1999:16), a record is any medium in or on which information is recorded. Medium includes paper, magnetic tape and disc, microfilm, audio-tape, film, slide and photograph. Also, Cox (2001:2) defines records as an extension of human memory, purposefully created to record information, document transactions, communicate thoughts, substantiate claims, advance explanations, offer justifications and provide lasting evidence of events.

Makhura (2005) argue that the correlation between proper records management and improved performance of an organisation is to ensure competitive survival. He further argues that records constitute the most vital resource and are essential for the operation of organisations. Cloete (1998:285) refers to record-keeping as one of the auxiliary activities that are performed to improve the effectiveness and efficiency with which the other functions are performed or to make the performance of the other functions possible. This implies that by neglecting its auxiliary activities, an organisation may not be able to deliver on its core mandate effectively and efficiently. In view of this, records management should be given an equal status as other auxiliary functions because there is no organisation that can operate effectively and successfully without records.

According to Shepherd (2006:6), organisations use records to support accountability, when they need to prove that they have met their obligations or complied with the best practice or established policies. Transparency and accountability is a crucial aspect in enhancing service delivery. Records support more effective and efficient business, underpin e-government and service delivery, help to demonstrate accountability, transparency and corporate governance, and are the source of information for citizens in the context of open government and freedom of information (McLeod and Childs, 2007:216). Harries (2009:19) argues that achieving overall success is more than the sum of individual parts. It depends, very often, on a successful sharing of meaningful information between parts. Harries went further to state that a breakdown in the sharing of information between parts leads to a breakdown in service delivery. From these statements, it can be deduced that effective records management has a direct bearing on service delivery, and effective information and records management is a collective effort (Harries, 2009:19)

Harries citing Lemark's Training Manual on Records Management (2005:13), classified public records into four (4) major classes namely vital records, important records, useful records and non-essential records. Vital Records – This may include items like legal documents of an organization, title deeds, major contracts, property plans, minutes of certain meetings, insurance policies etc. These records should never be destroyed as they are essential to an organisation's existence and are often irreplaceable. Important records refer to those records that facilitate administrative and executive operations and may only be replaceable at huge cost and much delay. Examples are invoices, received accounts, quotations, financial statements, and others. Useful records – are those records that are required for short-term usage such as memorandums and bank statements. Non-essential records – include routine

enquiries, announcements and acknowledgements, draft notes from telephone conversations, and others. These records have a temporary value and may be destroyed after a short period.

Agere et al (1999:16) in their contribution classified record management into three (3) types, namely current records, semi-current records and non-current records. Current records are records which are in active use; Semi-current records are records whose use have declined and are used only from time to time. In other words they are semi-active. Non-current records are records which are no longer in active use and are being kept in order to fulfill other secondary uses such as legal and audit requirements or for research value.

According to Dearstyne (1985:14) records are created for some purpose and can have either a short term or enduring (archival) value. The value can be, inter alia, administrative, fiscal, legal and informational. Records with an enduring value should be preserved because they provide a framework for an understanding of the past. In a nutshell, the concept "record" can be defined as the information captured for re-use at a later stage as evidence of an activity or action undertaken, and a basis on which future decisions are made. Records are important and it is difficult to imagine life without them, particularly in the running of an organisation.

A public record includes practically any type of information received or created during the process of official government business. This refers to paper documents such as correspondence, memos, ledgers, agendas and minutes, and deed books, as well as information recorded in newer forms such as sound or video recordings, microfilm, and computer disks or tapes. Other examples of important public records are gazettes, regulations, policies and procedures, reports including audit reports, strategic plans and many more (Dearstyne, 1985:13).

Dearstyne (1985:4) went further to state that public records are public property owned by the people in the same sense that the citizens own their courthouse or town hall, and funds in the treasury. Public records are held in trust for the citizens by custodians, usually the heads of departments in which the records have been accumulated, but sometimes by other officers to whom custody has been officially transferred by the governing authority. Public records may not be sold, given away, destroyed, or alienated from custody except through an official act of the governing authority in accordance with provisions of any state law relating to their care and disposition.

In essence, public records are as important as other public resources such as assets and finances, and should thus be awarded the same status as other public resources. What distinguishes public records from other public resources is that public records are not easily replaceable; hence proper care should be exercised on them.

The above analysis of a public record shows that governments would come to a standstill without records which are, in effect, its institutional memory. All government officials depend on records from their own files for the information needed for day to day performance of their work.

Having examined various classes into which records are categorized, it becomes imperative to state that the values of records differ, from one record to another. The determination of the retention period of a record will therefore be informed by the value of that particular record. For example, a vital record should be retained for a longer period than a non-essential record.

As mentioned earlier, individuals or organisations create records to support the activities that they carry out. However, if these records are not managed properly, they will not provide the necessary support and information might be lost causing problems for the organisation. To provide an efficient and effective administration that ensures government business runs as smoothly as possible, there should be proper management of records.

Records management is increasingly becoming an important instrument for good management; it helps any organisation to deal more effectively with information. Agere et al (1999:1) define records management as a term used to refer to the way official records (correspondence, files, information) are organized in such a way that they have meaning and can be used continuously by the users such as managers, records professionals, educational institutions, legal authorities and any other interested parties.

Records management is the systematic and confident control of all records throughout their life cycle (World Bank, 2009). According to Dearstyne (1985:6), records management is about overseeing the creation and use of forms, correspondence, and other records, setting up filing and indexing systems and other means of ensuring easy, rapid access to the information in records; adopting and using modern technology in information creation, storage, and manipulation, particularly micro-film and automated data processing systems; microfilming of selected paper records for security, ease of access, disposition of the bulk paper records after microfilming, and long-term preservation of important information, and systematically disposing of records.

Notwithstanding the different definitions of the term "records management", the meaning underlying them is the same. Records management is a way of looking at how records are created, used, maintained and ultimately disposed of. The objectives in managing public records are to make the records serve the purpose for which they were created as cheaply and effectively as possible, and to make a proper disposition of them after they have served those purposes.

To scientifically and theoretically examine the issues raised in the paper, we situate our discussion within the ambit of public management theory because of its advantages in analyzing the subject of the paper. Public management theory is the transition from traditional public administration theories to an arrangement that is workable, practicable and result oriented. It places emphasis on good governance, technological innovation and democratization. Public management theory is a relentless effort in the direction of greater transparency and accountability in resource allocation and performance management through the quality of service (Pollit, 1996). Public management theory therefore, captures the basis of institutional

and organization restructuring as an attempt to raise its performance by improving the quality of service delivery. It is result focused rather than the process of result. Public management theory came up with different concepts for performance and principles to achieve it (Hood, 1991). Consequently, Hood identified the principles as 'accountability and efficiency; reduction of public sector expenditure; improvement in resource use through labour discipline; flexibility in decision making; competition in the public sector through decentralization and emphasis on result and not procedure.

Public management theory centre's on accountability, transparency, democratization and citizens' participation. Public management theory is an effort to improve government service delivery to the citizenry because of the expectations of the people. The main thrust of public management literature is not with what to do but how to do it better. The emerging trend on client orientation and results-based accountability is encouraging public sector organizations to innovate in many parts of the world. As a deviation from the principles of new public management, the civil service abysmal performance in Nigeria can be viewed and understood as a carryover effect of this deviation.

Advantages of Effective Records Management

Dearstyne (1985:10), identified the benefits of records management include the following: Records management saves money by discouraging the creation of records that really aren't needed in the first place. Records management reduces future costs by ensuring that expensive new equipment, such as microfilm cameras and computers, are not purchased unless these tools will help organisations manage their information much better. Records management saves space by removing inactive records from busy, crowded offices where space is at a premium, and sending them to storage, and by ensuring the timely destruction of records that are no longer needed. Records management saves time by ensuring that records are well organized and maintained. Records management promotes good governance by making it easy for programme administrators to locate and use information needed to monitor programmes, ensure administrative continuity, and make informed policy decisions. Records management protects the government by ensuring that contracts, agreements, and other records of the government's legal rights and responsibilities are securely protected, well organized, and easily located when needed. Records management serves the cause of history by identifying and preserving important research records.

Corroborating the above submission of Dearstyne (1985), Shepherd (2006:10) states that records which are managed as part of an appropriate records management programme will help the organisation to conduct business in an efficient, accountable manner, deliver services consistently, support managerial decision making and transparent policy formation and ensure continuity in policy execution, management and administration. In summary, an effective records management will ensure that records are available for use when needed, that privacy

and confidentiality are maintained, that redundant records are destroyed and that records ultimately contribute towards sustaining service delivery.

The Interface between Record Management and Freedom of Information Act

Globally, public management stresses the business management perspective in the working of government institutions. The thinking behind this view is that the established principles used in the private sector, have accounted for the success recorded in the sector, therefore such management principles, skills and techniques could equally be appropriated and applied for activities and actions in public administration. Hence, the pursuit of efficiency and effectiveness in record management should equally be fit for public organization.

Sound record management supports democratic transparency and accountability. Lawton and Rose (1994:19) define transparency and accountability as a process where a person or groups of people are required to present an account of his or their activities and the way in which they have or have not discharged their duties. Transparency and accountability can be linked to the concept of responsibility as one cannot be transparent or accountable to anyone unless one has responsibility for doing something. Lawton and Rose (1994:19) further indicate that transparency and accountability can be achieved by compliance with the law and internal and external regulations; fulfilling auditing requirements; and response to challenges.

Records are clearly a key element in supporting democratic transparency and accountability. Yet, effective information and records management underpins many of the vital aspects of corporate governance. Management of records enables government and its institutions to operate in a transparent manner and being able to account to the public who brought it into power (Orr, 2008:165). In the words of Shepherd (2006:6), one of the major reasons for keeping records is that organisations use records to support transparency and accountability when they need to prove that they have met their obligations or complied with best practices of established policies.

It is in support of the above views that Agere et al (1999:7) argue that for the instrument of governance to be effective, it must have records and information available for the users to assess for themselves the extent to which the state is being transparent and accountable to society. One of the pillars of transparency and accountability in a democratic state is the extent to which people have access to information to assist them in evaluating whether the government is transparent or not. Hence, the promulgation of Freedom of Information Act of 2011, which gives the public the right of access to public records. The Act is an assurance by government to reflect and protect the will of the people.

Cox and Wallace (2002:67) express a similar view by stating that transparency and accountability cannot be achieved in an environment where information is not available. Records management underpins transparency and accountability. Good

record keeping ensures open government which, in turn, promotes more confidence in public officials and more accountability in the use of public funds (Dearstyne, 1985). Information flow is meant to keep the public informed on government activities and processes as well as a measure of its responsibility to the people who brought it to power.

From the above discussion, it is evident that information is at the centre of the relationship between government and the public. Without the availability of information, the public cannot understand how and why decisions are made on their behalf. Records are therefore reflective of the activities undertaken and the processes that have or are being initiated on behalf of the public; hence information and records should be properly managed.

Yet, promoting good governance has been emphasized. Governments all over the world are often praised for good governance or rebuked for bad governance. A typical example is the good governance tour organized and embarked upon by the Nigeria Federal Ministry Information under President Goodluck Jonathan's administration. For an organisation to be praised for good governance, there are many contributing factors, of which availability of records and its effective management thereof is one of the critical elements. It has been argued that good governance is predicated on the adoption of functional records management and the enactment of Freedom of Information Act by government (Sebina, 2004:45). Transparency is another major feature of good governance. Transparency means that information is freely available and accessible to those who will be affected by such decisions and their endorsement means that enough information is provided and that it is provided in easy forms and media. Good governance can only be achieved where records management is operational. Indeed, for good governance to exist citizens must be empowered to participate meaningful in decision-making process as well as right to information. For good governance to be sustained, good records management programmes need to be introduced and practiced. Information is crucial to good governance as it reflects and captures government's activities and processes. Open, transparent and accessible government is an essential requirement for good governance. For this to happen there must be a free flow of information, accurate and reliable records.

Keeping of records and storing of information in an organisation has in recent years become critical not only for historical purposes but more importantly, for current and future managerial and policy development (Agere et al, 1999:1). Records are being used as tools and instruments with which to understand organisations and as a basis for improvement. They went further to state that in reviewing the performance of the entire public sector machinery, it has always been necessary to review the objectives, functions, rules and regulations, procedures and practices (Agere et al, 1999:4). The overall outcome of these reviews would be the development of organisational manuals, policies and procedures which would guide staff towards best practices and ways of doing things. These outcomes are to be

underpinned by recorded information which is properly stored with potentials of being retrieved easily.

Contributing, Dearstyne (1988:5) posits that records document the origin, evolution, and operation of government and show how it responds to citizens' needs and service delivery. Effective officials routinely consult records in order to plan, to analyze and track programmes. Sound records provide officials with the right information for decision making. Records have an impact on the administration and management of government departments. The forms and stages of policy formulation are based on the records that are available and retrievable. All policy processes, practices and procedures rely heavily on well-organized and managed information and records which can easily be retrieved for further use. Therefore, for good governance to be sustained, good record management programmes need to be introduced and practiced. For example, good management of procurement records, financial records and other records demonstrate government's commitment to promotion of good governance.

Also, the relationship between record and information management and continuing service delivery has been established. The effectiveness and efficiency of government functions generally depends upon the availability of and access to information held in records (World Bank, 2000:3). For instance, development projects are often difficult to implement and sustain effectively in the absence of well managed information and records. Records document past policies, decisions and alternatives. By consulting records, officials do not waste time and resources when they encounter similar issues and challenges meaning that when records are readily available and accessible, delays in decision-making affecting service delivery can be avoided.

A well designed records management system helps protect an organisation legally. Records are one of the basic litigation support tools, without them there can be no litigation as they provide information through which evidence is derived and decisions are made. Almost all organisations, including governmental departments, will experience some type of litigation during their lifetime. It is therefore imperative for organisations to devise mechanisms of ensuring their preparedness should a need to protect themselves in a court of law arise as witness in the oil subsidy scam between some oil importers and government regulatory agencies in Nigeria. Effective record keeping is among the many strategies that can be used by organisations to ensure preparedness for litigation.

If records such as contracts and agreements, essential for documenting the government's legal obligations to pay or receive monies are well organized and protected, they can be referred to as and when needed (Dearstyne, 1985:8). Keeping accurate and accessible records is therefore imperative to enable organisations to legally defend themselves where and when the need arises. Without information and relevant documents, government and anti corruption agencies such as Economic and Financial Crime Commission (EFCC), and Independent Corrupt Practices and Related Offences Commission (ICPC) will continue to be defeated in

courts of law thereby wasting money that ought to have been channeled into service delivery in fruitless court cases.

Corruption in Nigeria is a serious problem, especially in the public sector. It drains the country's resources and weakens the government's capacity to provide infrastructural development that could guarantee its mandate of service delivering to the public. The number of ghost positions and workers in government organisations cannot be ascertained and the exact expenditure cannot be traced if there are no proper, accurate and accessible records. This statement indicates that corruption will continue to thrive as a result of 'inter alia', a lack of proper record keeping. Effective records management practices are essential to ensure that there are no loopholes in the system.

Procurement is one component of financial management where corruption thrives, this can be attributed to the fact that most expenditure occurs here. It is against this backdrop that Visser and Erasmus (2002:169) argue that one important aspect of procurement is that accurate records of all state store purchases and issues must be kept. Keeping of procurement related records is not only important for store purchases, but for day to day procurement and procurement through bid processes as well. The importance of maintaining procurement records is central to avoiding corrupt deals and practices.

Palmer (2000:65) states that the role of a records management system is that it acts as a control system that reinforces other control systems such as internal and external auditing. The records themselves can serve to detect fraud and recover the loss. For example, discrepancies can be detected mostly in the process of scrutinizing records. Since corruption creates an environment that allows opportunities to commit fraud, once fraud is detected, records can provide a trail for investigations to track the root of corruption. However, for records to be useful in this capacity, they must be well managed and accessible.

Where public figures or civil servants are under scrutiny for breaches of systems or regulations or even corruption, much of the evidence will be provided by records. According to Palmer (2000:65), authentic and reliable records can serve as evidence to identify abuse, misuse and non-compliance with financial institutions and other laws and regulations. The value of state records derives among others, from the information they contain and evidence they provide. Records provide verifiable evidence to fraud that can lead investigators to the root cause of corruption. State records not only document past decisions, they often establish and protect the current rights and responsibilities of both the government and the governed. Yet, records document the fundamental rights of communities and obligations of government (World Bank, 2009).

Finance and audit laws generally require ministries and departments to ensure that financial and accounting records are adequately kept and managed and to empower the audit body to obtain access to all financial records (World Bank, 2009). An effective records management system is a critical element in the preparation of an institution's financial statements. It will allow for verification of the completeness

and accuracy of data reported in financial statements and assist in the compilation of the audit process.

An effective records management system should ensure that financial records are maintained throughout the life cycle in a consistent and structured manner, that the audit function and external accountability of the organisation is supported, that the organisation is able to meet its obligations under law and to access records for fiscal policy and planning purposes, that the integrity and accuracy of the records are protected and that the records can be retrieved.

It is now widely recognized that improvements in the management of government finance are essential to bring a halt to the global escalation of corruption. Yet, unless the records resulting from the conduct of financial management activities are managed effectively, this goal cannot be achieved. The World Bank (2000:6) states that poor record keeping affects the entire accounting function, with the result that reporting and auditing may become virtually impossible. Fraud becomes difficult to detect and debt management also suffers. Good records management systems are therefore essential to support financial management. Public sector information and record management in Nigeria is faced with a number of constraints, the section below examines some of them.

Challenges facing Record Management in the Nigerian Public Sector

Effective record management, whether in the public or private sector, involves creation, storage, retrieval, maintenance, disposition and the use of compact and other manual or electronic means.

However, most of the roles envisioned for record or managers have not been performed effectively in Nigeria. This could make the realization of freedom of information Act 2011 objectives difficult or if not impossible. A number of reasons could be responsible for this state of affairs; however, some of them are discussed below in this section.

Inadequate record keeping policy is a major constraint in information and record management in Nigeria. It has been established in literature that there is a significant correlation between poor records keeping practices and corruption. People always look for loopholes in policies and the systems when they want to commit fraud. Among other root causes of corruption is the lack of good records keeping practices and failure by government to initiate measures that could ensure that information and records are well managed

In its efforts to combat corruption, Nigerian government established a number of anti corruption agencies. These agencies are assigned with the responsibility of detecting, investigating and fighting corruption, as well as promoting ethics. Government and the civil society's efforts are often directed towards strengthening these agencies such as the newly enacted Freedom of Information Act 2011. Surprisingly, little or no attention is being paid to the fact that the success of these

laws, measures and agencies depends on the accessibility to complete, reliable and accurate records.

As overwhelmingly and complex as these constraints may appear, they are not insurmountable. Indeed, they can be managed and possibly be ameliorated. In the following section, we turn our attention to how this can be achieved.

Public Sector Record and Information Management: The Way Forward

The poor state of records in Nigerian public sector has proved to be a major hindrance in the prosecution of corruption offences due to a lack of tangible reliable evidence. In Nigeria, it is known fact that corrupt officials often arrange for files to disappear to avoid prosecution but where there are stringent records management practices and integrity, disappearance or total loss of important documents could be prevented. An effective records management system is fundamental and crucial in combating corruption. Hence anti-corruption measures and agencies should be redesign to checkmate, detect and prevent corrupt activities by public officials rather than prosecution.

World Bank (2000:5), claim that well managed records provide a cost effective deterrent to fraud and corruption. It can be deduced that the establishment of effective records management system is an important tool in combating corruption. To minimize corruption, government should redirect its efforts to promoting good records management practices as one of the corruption prevention strategies, instead of pumping public funds on investigating and prosecuting corruption with little or no result achieved. Thus, when records are well managed, it will reduce the number of corruption cases to investigate. This is supported by the maxim 'prevention is better than cure and much cheaper than prosecution'.

Heads of government institutions should designate a member of staff within the rank of management cadre as records managers to whom they can delegate the responsibility of ensuring that effective records management practices are implemented and maintained. Also, the records managers should develop and implement records management policies, which are endorsed by the head of the government institution and their top management teams, in line with National Archives and Records Service. Adherence to these policies should be continuously monitored and the policies should be reviewed on an annual basis.

There should be a classification of records into file Plan – which is a plan by which documentation is arranged and stored to facilitate efficient retrieval and disposal. It also guides officials on how to allocate file numbers. Secondly, schedule for records other than correspondence files – which enables government institutions to manage records other than correspondence, for example, plans, agendas and minutes, microfilms, diagram's, CDs, and others.

The public sector should adopt records control mechanisms such as: Register of files opened – which contains a description and opening dates of all files that were actually opened according to the subject provisions in the filing system; register of disposal authorities – which contains copies of all disposal authorities issued by the

National Archives, to specific such government institution; and destruction register – which contains information on the year in which non-archival records (short term records) are due for destruction. Records managers should determine retention periods for all records in line with National Archives rules. Excessive retention of records could cause difficulties in retrieving records when needed and may result in space problems.

Records managers and records office staff should be equipped with the necessary skills to enable them perform their functions optimally. It is still difficult for some public sector workers to change from their old ways of doing things as they believe in status quo. Yet, the world today is dynamic and civil servants must move with the speed of the time because for public servants to cope, they must be well equipped with modern management techniques which can only be acquired through training and retraining. This is rightly supported by Igbokwe-Ibeto (2012) quoting Adeleke, that “training is the means and process of imparting special skills which equip individual to perform specific jobs. Although it is a supplement to education, it can be acquired concurrently. Introduction of records management as part of induction course for newly recruited staff will be of help. Management should ensure that all staff members of the organization are conversant with proper registry procedures and documentation so as to able to read the filing system and allocate file numbers.

Conclusion

It can be deduced from the above discussions that records are inextricably entwined with increased transparency, accountability and good governance. It also became apparent that fraud cannot be proven, meaningful audits cannot be carried out and government actions are not open to review when records are not properly managed. Records provide verifiable evidence of fraud and can lead investigators to the root cause of corruption. Effective information and records management are therefore at the heart of increased transparency and accountability and good governance, it is one of the major weapons in fighting corruption, it will play a crucial role in the application and success of Freedom of Information Act in Nigeria and advancement of human rights as well as ensuring sound financial management.

Therefore, records management should be given priority and be considered as important as other organisational resources, such as finance, materials and staff. This paper argues that effective records management is not a matter of choice, but compulsory if Nigeria is to successfully lunch herself into club of world developed economy. Advocating effective record management as an organisational and societal benefit is therefore not an activity to be taken for granted. Ignorance on records management can have adverse effects to the realization of governmental objectives and can drain financial resources which will invariably affect service delivery.

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ENHANCED DIGITAL LIBRARY SYSTEM THAT SUPPORTS SUSTAINABLE KNOWLEDGE: A FOCUS ON UNIVERSITY LIBRARY SYSTEM IN NIGERIA

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Abstract

The essence of this research is to design a digital library which runs on internet platform. It is all about the provision of digital collections, services and infrastructure to support continuous learning, research, scholarly communication as well as preservation and conservation of recorded knowledge accessible anywhere and anytime. The motivation behind this idea is to tackle some itching problems on ground such as location of the users relative to the physical location of the library, cost, lack of timely availability and accessibility of information and lack of comfortability of the user. This research work provides a Web-Based University library, ability to access the library anywhere and anytime with ease, read books in a Portable Document Format (PDF), allows subscribers access, read, comment and publish articles on the browser instantly with a nice pagination links for swapping in-between pages, restricts access from unauthorized users with the login details, in order to avoid over congestion in the network. It uses autosuggestion to avoid delay from page reload associated with dial-up connections and generates pins to authorize bonafide students and staff of the University.

Keywords: Enhanced, Digital library, Sustainable knowledge

Introduction

It is rooted in the recent year's expression, "learn anywhere and anytime". Libraries of all types and sizes are embracing digital collection. This is the age of information explosion. The most challenging task for information professionals and the information centers all over the world is to manage and supervise the huge information that is being provided and developed in the world. No library however big it may be is able to satisfy the needs of its users due to various constraints. It is because of this deficiency that the concept of electronic library has developed. It is impossible for a single library to monitor all the explosions of knowledge in all fields and accumulate same for users. With the emergence of internet in particular, the World Wide Web as a new medium of information storage and delivery in the 21st century makes this concept come into sight than earlier. In recent years, the

availability of information resources in digital or electronic medium has further facilitated the exchange of information resource among libraries thus creating favorable condition for increased resource sharing. The emergence of electronic libraries is a very promising development in this direction.

Digital libraries are well known for sharing resources all over the world. Several libraries in the world have formed consortia to their human and electronic resource. It refers to co-operation, co-ordination and collaboration between and amongst libraries for the purpose of sharing information.

The aim of this digital library is to weaken, if not silence, the difficulty encountered in the physical or traditional library mode of operation. Due to the new technology, storage media and the new channels for transmitting information, electronic library complete the information of libraries. Library is reshaping its service. We speak about electronic references, full text data access, web resources that are the integral part of the University education.

Background to the Study

The access to information is now considered more important than the collection of buildings. The need for the library is to get the benefit of wider access to electronic resources at an affordable cost and at user's convenience. Such a library with the strength of electronic resource available in it, is in a better position to resolve the problem of managing, organizing and, archiving the electronic resources. The phenomenon of information revolution has posed several problems and this has far reaching implications in the society. The nation, institution or society which possesses more information will lead the world. This is also true in the case of individuals. The person with more information will guide a group or society and he will be superior to others. This power of information has induced people to acquire and control large quantity of information. Nowadays, some poor nations, society, individuals or institutions appear to be backward compared to others. This has created a big gulf in the availability and use of information. The electronic library can be an ideal solution in this context. Perhaps the most important thing about an electronic library would be its enhanced ability to serve the society by giving a better library solution at a distance and at a convenience

(www.cs.mdx.ac.uk/ridl/UET/TR5Usingclaims.pdf).

Major Problems of This Study

This study is faced with several acute problems that attracted the attention of the researcher to analyze and make some recommendations. The problems include, high cost of establishing library systems in different parts of the country Nigeria to satisfy people's need, difficulty in accessing these libraries in terms of distance, difficulty in sharing the archival resources, cost to operate and maintain conventional library is high and difficult, difficulty in accessing large collection of information by the user and finally there is delay to have international books, periodicals, articles and scientific journals.

The Aims of the Research

The general objective of this study is to examine the existing situation of the library in universities in Nigeria and find the most secure approach to building a Web based University library. The specific objectives of the study are as follows:

1. To investigate the possibility of accessing the library anywhere and anytime with convenience
2. To explore the possibility of reading books in a Portable Document Format (PDF)
3. To enable subscribers to access, read, comment and, publish articles on the browser instantly with a nice pagination links for swapping in-between pages
4. To restrict access from unauthorized users with the login details in order to avoid over congestions in the network.
5. To provide autosuggestion chances to avoid delay from page reload associated with dial-up connections
6. To generate of pins used in identifying student who has paid his school fees

Boundaries of the Research

This research survey is aimed at investigating existing Library Systems framework, reference model and current Library System in Federal University of Technology, Owerri and to make some recommendations for the University.

Why the Research is Very Important

The need for electronic library may be summarized as follows:

1. The need to leverage resource by sharing existing resources or collection through virtual union catalogues and online sharing of information
2. The need for sharing the archiving of resources
3. The need to provide electronic resources such as creation of digital collection as portable documents files or format.
4. There is the need to reduce the cost of library operation by obtaining a group of purchased price for information products.
5. There is the need to challenge providers especially publishers to reduce the rate of rise in the cost of purchasing information.
6. To enable users have great access to larger collection by sharing catalogues.
7. There is the need to enable the users to initiate their own search for remote catalogues and make request for information.
8. There is the need to enable users read books, periodicals, articles and scientific journals, which are not available locally.

Review of Related Works

Digital libraries are relatively new, evolving increasingly with the phenomenal success of the internet. This has opened up the idea that digital collections can be made available to a wide variety of users, over an international platform. With this

innovation comes a limitless set of problems to be overcome through research. In this review, the broad outline of the types of problems facing digital library development will be discussed resulting in particular focus on usability. This vast area of research has been narrowed down to techniques for evaluating the usability of digital libraries and the shortcomings of these standard techniques that work well on the internet platform, but not for the digital library domain. Ultimately, these shortcomings are investigated through discussion of research into proposed frameworks for evaluating multiple digital libraries attribute by attribute in order to begin to create some standards for digital library development. This was evaluated by Stacey (2006) in a report he submitted to the University of Wolverhampton.

A **digital library** is a library in which collections are stored in digital formats (as opposed to print, microform, or other media) and accessible via computers. The digital content may be stored locally, or accessed remotely via computer networks. A digital library is a type of information retrieval system (Candela, et al, 2011).

The web based nature of digital libraries means research into internet. Www based topics are relevant to digital libraries. Examples are in the areas of accessibility, usability, information retrieval, automation, xml, metadata. However, whilst this research provides a ground for digital libraries, their diversity brings about a sub set of research areas that can only be relevant to their domain. In addition, there are areas of research relevant to the information science aspect of digital libraries, where traditional library ideals are being transferred onto a technical platform for international audiences. One of the greatest problems for digital library development is fulfilling the requirements of Computer Scientists, Information Scientists and the myriad of users that will access the collections.

There are countless different types of digital library e.g. music, video as well as academic collections, which will have their own set of requirements for research. There are some general areas that are relevant to all libraries regardless of genre. Classification of digital libraries is one area of research that has implications for other research areas such as usability and information retrieval, in that it allows for digital libraries to be compared to each other. This is not only helpful in searching for collections but also in evaluating their usability. One key way of classifying digital libraries are to produce metadata, which are used to index all of the content in the library; it provides information about each item in the form of keywords and abstract descriptions that can be searched. The metadata can be produced manually, but research into automating its creation is being conducted. By automating the digital library, the metadata can easily be entered by a "librarian" and a new item added to the library.

Further research in this area includes algorithm designs to automatically capture the metadata out of scientific journals and conference papers in order to categorize them. More research areas include using xml to do this, which crosses over into research for information retrieval. This is a well-established research area for the internet, Researchers are currently experimenting with ways of transferring some of the new developments for web searches such as clustering, and topic based

searching to retrieve information from digital libraries more quickly and accurately in line with user's information needs.

Research areas which cross over between computer and information science are Obtaining Information, Preservation and Quality of Service. Problems can arise if institutions are not willing to freely share their resources. Depending on the type of library, information may need to be digitized, or converted to more recent technologies. There may also be issues of trust, whereby owners of the collections may not fully understand internet technology or dislike the lack of control they have over access to their collections. Preservation of information has been a concern for traditional librarians since their creation and while many techniques exist, more research is needed into ensuring that the data in the digital library will be accessible in the future when technologies change. When designing a digital library, the system needs to be able to adapt to changing technologies. In the past inventors/scientists/authors/philosophers kept notebooks that have been preserved and contained background to some of their major works and theories.

Nowadays, these notebooks exist not physically on paper but as attachments in email or in emails themselves, or maybe as blogs. The question of how all this information is captured and preserved for future generations to be able to be read is an important research area of digital library development. Quality of service exists as a research area generally for distribution of digital content across the internet and so is of importance in digital library development. Ensuring the quality of information inside the library includes checking the validity of the research when creating a digital library of academic/scientific research papers. File quality is important in video and music libraries. For images, the quality of the image includes optimization that it is not skewed. This crosses over into usability and accessibility principles in that the content must be of good quality and easy to read by the majority of users. A research area relevant to information science is in the area of Intellectual Property Rights and Copyright Laws. There is contrasting opinion toward restricting open access to information versus freely sharing information, which the internet was created for. Research areas include how intellectual property rights and copyright laws are adhered to whilst still being able to freely share information (McCray and Gallagher, 2001). How can the information be protected against misuse e.g. plagiarism, misquoting? This area is of particular importance with music and video libraries where it is vital that permission is granted by the artist/publisher and in most cases, the correct fees paid.

A digital library is an informal collection of information, stored in digital format and accessible over a network, together with associated service according to Arms (2000). Research on digital library flourished in the mid-1990s with the advent of internet coupled with the need to make information open and accessible (Lagoze and Fielding, 2010). From Arms, Blanchi, and Overly (1997) concept, the role of digital library is essential to collect, manage, preserve and make accessible digital object. To this effect, at a minimum, the core service expected of a Digital Library System include: a repository service for storing and managing digital object, a search service

to facilitate information discovery; and a user interface through which end users interact with digital object.

The cost involved in the acquisition and initial set up of open source software for managing digital collection might be minimal; the initial cost incurred when setting up digital collection and archive is only a fraction of the ongoing maintenance cost. Lawrence and Connaway (2011) showed, using statistical data collected by the Association of Research Libraries, that the median life cycle cost of maintaining media was order of magnitude higher than the initial cost of setting them up. This is especially higher for manuscript and other historical archives due to their long expected physical life.

Usability and Accessibility

McCray and Gallagher (2001) gave an overview of issues concerning HCI Usability and Accessibility of digital libraries. The system must be accessible to the vast majority of users regardless of disability, language or cultural differences. The information should be easy to find using keyword searching. The interface should be intuitive with the keyword search that is easy to find as well as the ability to browse topics. Information should be optimized so that the retrieval of information is quick. Good indexing is vital so that the search terms can be well matched in results and results found quickly. Further research areas exist within the usability area for accessing digital library collections on small screen hand held devices, in measuring the user's experience when interacting with a digital library which is linked to research into emotive design, and in cross-cultural usability (www.ucl.ac.uk/annb/DLUsability/JCDL02.html).

Usability Problem

Several usability studies of digital libraries exist namely, Alexandria Digital Library, Greenstone Digital library, Perseus Digital library and Networked Computer Science Technical Reference Library (NCSTRL). The latter was evaluated using usability inspection methods. According to Hartson et al, (2004), the analysis of the evaluation raised numerous problems found in evaluating digital libraries. A lack of research was highlighted in techniques to effectively evaluate digital libraries along with the issue that they, as usability specialists, do not have extensive knowledge and experience with digital libraries and can only evaluate using general guidelines established for systems; highlighting the research requirement for a usability evaluation technique specific to digital library evaluation. I can agree that although research exists into usability evaluation for digital libraries, it is not extensive which is surprising as usability is of vital importance in development of any system.

Saracevic and Covi (2000) make an interesting argument that defines a usability problem for digital libraries. Traditional libraries are all organised in a similar way and if you can use one library you can use another regardless of geographical location (language barriers aside). This highlights the need for standards to be developed in the design of digital libraries to gain "uniformity for access and use".

They suggest that through the creation of an evaluation framework like their conceptual framework it may be possible to highlight common usability problems, in fixing them some standards will be established. A major problem in developing any evaluation framework is in how to model user behaviour. This problem is highlighted by many researchers and will be discussed throughout in later sections of this review. There has been research conducted that concentrates predominantly on understanding users of digital libraries. Adams et al. (2005) discuss users different information needs of different libraries and the "user's journey" in finding that information. They draw attention to the fact that "No sooner has users' needs been identified and supported than they change." Users' needs are very hard to model, causing a problem for usability design. There are different types of users with different information needs. Another problem is whether they enter what they want to search for into keywords, they may not have enough knowledge on the subject they are searching to enter correct search terms to retrieve the best results for their desired information need. Adams et al. (2005) also highlight the problem that different users interact with a system differently depending on their profession or subject interest areas. In their research, they used users from academic and health care backgrounds and evaluated their comments on interactions with different libraries that highlighted the differences between users from different backgrounds and how hard it is to model these differences. This is a massive research area and it is beyond the scope of this literature review.

Users' priority regardless of discipline is how easily they can interact with a system, how quickly they can receive results to their query and how relevant the results are to their query. This is the same for any information retrieval task. They also identify a problem when assessing the usability of multiple digital libraries. A good digital library means something different to different users depending upon their information need and background. How can a library dedicated to humanities research be compared to a medical science library? Equally, how can the users' needs for each be modeled when the designers and developers do not have sufficient knowledge of the content? Fuhr et al. (2001), Tsakanos et al. (2004) and Sandusky (2002) also discuss this problem.

Different Types of Library

There are different types of libraries, namely:

Academic Library Is made up of school libraries at the primary and secondary levels, college libraries, and university libraries. The aim of this type of library is to satisfy the academic needs of the particular institution for which it is designed to serve.

Public Library This type of library is often referred to as peoples' library. University in a democratic society that reserves and organizes human knowledge, freely

focused in the service of the community without any bias in occupation, creed, class, religion or ethnicity.

Special Library: This type of library specializes in literature of particular subject or group of subjects in an institution that is designed to take care of the needs of some working organization, a company, a research association or a government department. The latest type of library is the Visual Library.

Digital Libraries Reference Model and Frameworks

A reference model is an abstract framework that provides basic concept used to understand the relationship among items in an environment. The Organization for the Advancement of Structured Information Standards (OASIS) by MacKenzie (2006), states that a reference model consists of a minimal set of unifying concepts, axioms and relationships within a particular problem domain, and is independent of specific standards, technologies or other concrete details. A number of digital library systems have been suggested; discussion of three popular one now follow:

Delos Digital Library Reference Model

The Delos Digital Library reference model was initiated on the premise that the digital library universe was a complex domain that could not be captured using the single definition (Candela, 2007). The reference level identified three different systems operating within the Digital Library universe: first, a Digital Library (DL) recognizing that collects, manages and preserves digital content, Secondly a Digital Library Systems (DLS) for implementing a DL facility, Finally a Digital Library Management Systems (DLMS) comprising of tools for administering the Digital Library System.

The Delos introduces a specialized domain into the Digital Library Universe. They together help to model generic information systems thus:

Content This domain comprises the digital objects that are made available to end users systems.

User the domain represents actor (end user or automated systems) who interacts with the system.

Functionality This represents the subset of services that are supported by the system.

Policy The policy domain comprises the role and the conditions that govern the operation of the systems. This may include digital right associated with the content hosted by the system.

Quality This represents all aspects needed to access the quality of the systems.

A digital library is an informal collection of information, stored in digital format and accessible over a network, together with associated service according to Arms, (2000). Research on digital library flourished in the mid-1990s with the advent of internet coupled with the need to make information open and accessible, From Arms, (1997), C. Blanchi, and Overly, (1997), concept, the role of digital library is essential to collect, manage, preserve and make accessible digital object. To this effect, at a minimum, the core service expected of a Digital Library System include: a repository service for storing and managing digital object, a search service to facilitate information discovery; and a user interface through which end users interact with digital object. This literature survey is aimed at investigating existing Digital Library Systems framework, reference model and open Digital Library System. The review is focused on design consideration of Digital Library System for FUTO library System.

The cost involved in the acquisition and initial set up of open source software for managing digital collection might be minimal; the initial cost incurred when setting up digital collection and archive is only a fraction of the ongoing maintenance cost. Lawrence and Connaway (2001), showed, using statistical data collected by the Association of Research Libraries, that the median life cycle cost of maintaining media was in the order of magnitude higher than the initial cost of setting them up. This is especially higher for manuscript and other historical archives due their long expected physical life.

Library Development in Nigeria University

The main purpose of a university library is to support the university in areas of learning, teaching and research. The library is regarded as the "heart" of any academic institution, particularly, the university. Hence, to a large extent, the quality of a university is measured by the services provided by the library because of its unique contributions in the over-all goals of the university. For a university to perform its myriad of functions, its library collection must not only have quality and current books or journals but also modern information sources in electronic formats, such as e-books, e-journals and, internet etc. Besides available information sources in a university library must be accessed at convenience by potential users. Consequently, the demand for effective use of library resources calls for the need to ensure that students have effective and efficient access to the library resources. The questions that ensure are: how can Nigeria University Library ensure that students know how to use the library resources effectively? How can students' expectations change with the advent of the modern information technologies? Furthermore, do students know how to search, identify, locate and select, and use library resources relevant to their learning? In providing library /information service to students, it is imperative for the Librarians to know information needs and seeking behaviour of students, their search skill and satisfactory levels using library resources. Osundina (1973) urges that information is a key resource that can bring about change and improvement in their society.

The need for thorough user education programme according to Edoka (2000) is for effective use of the library resource because of exponential growth of published materials in various fields of academic studies. The growth in published materials (particularly in the science and technology) requires that scattered information in various forms be properly disseminated through users' instruction. This involves teaching the student in search strategy. A search strategy is the general plan for finding the needed information for learning, teaching and research (Ajayi, 2000). This can take many forms such as, use of card/online catalogues and, reading of books from the library and also through the use of computer, internet and different search engines. All these forms of search strategies could be properly achieved through "user education programme".

In Nigeria, Elaturoti, Shyllon and Udoh (2003) examine the under-graduates' library orientation at the University of Ibadan Library and recommended that librarians should work out among themselves a co-operative means of tracking the problem of library orientation and instruction along the lines similar to the LOEX scheme in America. They recommended that Committee of University Librarians in Nigerian Universities (CULNU), should work through the Committee of Vice Chancellors (CVC), and make the establishment of General Studies (GS) programme which will incorporate "use of the library" formal, compulsory, credit-earning and examinable courses in the library instruction and orientation in Nigeria Universities. Edem and Lawal (1996) in their studies postulate an aggressive user education to enhance students' greater utilization of the information sources that are available in the library. In a study on user education in academic libraries in Southern Africa, Mohammed (1996) posits that users' education programmes should be aimed at sensitizing users to the value of online public access catalogue (OPAC) and CD-ROMS so that they can learn to appreciate and use the online systems. He further explained that instructions in the use of OPAC forms a basic step to searching a computerized database, which might lead to more supplicated searches like searching other databases thus being exposed to more information.

Aguolu (1996) reveals that the Nigeria University Librarians seem to be preoccupied with basic library duties like acquisition, processing and preservation without giving the proper service on how to use the library by the students for their learning research. Katunmoya (1992) explores the problems facing users' education to include: scarcity of funds, lack of professional librarians, lack of faculty cooperation, students' inability to use the resources of the library, over emphasis on bibliographical instruction and poor integration of user education course period. These problems if attended to may probably meet the students' expectations which will help them to become more effective in using the library resources for their successful university education.

The Role of Library in Education and National Development

Libraries are viewed as one of the key elements for open access information relevant to democratic information society development (Mirja Ryynanen, 1999). Libraries are very relevant nowadays when the entire idea of education is stressing extensively on independent learning and acting. Everybody is expected to discover and apply information on daily basis; therefore, access points to information and important documents must be made available to eliminate certain problems and confusions.

Culture must be pointed out especially because it has an important and unique role in mobilizing resources of human beings. Again, culture to some extent makes its influence felt more indirectly than knowledge, but it is impossible to imagine how people's creative powers could be fully activated without the impact of culture, which extends into the depths of minds (Mirja Ryynanen, 1999).

Education Development

A web definition of Education Development (ED) is the process of improving the effectiveness of educational provision through an ongoing review of relevant factors at all levels from teaching methods and materials to institutional structures and policies, and the provision of mechanisms for progressive change. Role of libraries in education development is a complex of social processes of acquiring knowledge and experience, formally or otherwise. According to (Ogunsheye, 1981), library involves the apparatus used for the development of the individual. It permits the individual to acquire spiritual, inspirational, and recreational activity through reading, and therefore the opportunity of interacting with society's wealth accumulated knowledge (Omojuwa, 1993). Library services are needed to keep the skills that have been acquired through literacy classes-alive by the provision of good literature. Education facilitators should include librarians in planning education programmes and learners should be given library instruction. 'Education' and 'Library' work together because they are basically and synchronically related to and co-existent with each other. Attempt to separate them might lead to confusion and collapse of either of them. Hence, education cannot exist alone in the absence of library and library has no meaning, if it cannot impact education. Standard library improves people in a particular community (academic and non-academic community). For instance, a school, a club, and enterprises of a society can never alone impact education; each of them is dependent upon a library. The concept of education for sustainable development and its relationship with Education for All (EFA) is a new vision of sustainable development programme by UNESCO. In December 2002, resolution 57/254 on the United Nations Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (2005 – 2014) was adopted by the United Nations (UN) General Assembly and UNESCO was appointed lead agency for the promotion of the decade. A prerequisite for education for sustainable development at all levels and in all modalities of education is the establishment of the concept on education for sustainable development and its relationship with Education for All (EFA), the United

Nations Literacy Decade (UNLD) and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) shown through quality education. The educational policies and plans of UNESCO in the role of education and its development, poverty alleviation, the promotion of universal human rights, values and tolerance, and challenges of new ICTs (Library in particular).

Challenges of Electronic University Library System in Nigeria

Computerization is an expensive but a necessary project. The implementation of an online library management system implies that libraries will spend more on computer hardware and software, licensing, training of librarians in new technology especially in the area of texts selection, scanning, verification and indexing of the materials to be digitized as well as employment with web technologies skills to support and manage them. Copyright holders have to be contacted and rights obtained. Money is needed to translate content into digital form and to access the resources. A powerful service is required, supported by specialized software and personnel. The server must operate all day, and new materials should constantly be added. Building and sustaining an online library management system requires proper technology infrastructure which include telecommunication, servers, application platforms and software application (Gbaje, 2007). There is the need to have good telecommunication infrastructure in place for the implementation of an online library management system.

There is the problem of inadequate web technology skill needed to maintain web servers that locally host digitized materials and other resources hosted remotely as well as maintaining proxy access to restricted resources. Ashcroft and Watts (2004) observed that Nigeria has an acute shortage of digital systems librarians, information and web technology literate staff and librarians to install and manage technology networks.

The erratic nature of electric power in Nigeria is a major problem. There should be no power outage in order to maintain Online Library Management System. Again, distinct user interface of every product is another challenge; Users therefore, need to remember different passwords for different products. The scope of coverage and available archives are often limited. At times, difficulties are encountered while downloading or printing; there is no cost savings, especially when both the virtual and print products are maintained. Everything is not available in digital format. There are restrictions, which vary from vendor, on how the product can be used. The online library management system relies on power and computer networks in order to be available for use. Users cannot spread everything in front of them and use them all at once. Users are most comfortable using books.

Conclusion

Digital library system operates in web platform which makes use of internet. It sustains knowledge by ensuring that users access it at any time and in anywhere with convenience unlike the traditional approach whose accessibility is limited to the opening hours. The user uses the personal computer to connect the internet to access the materials readable in a Portable Document Format (PDF) or other formats with the help of the browser, with a nice pagination links for swapping in-between pages. The personal computer must have the following specification, VGA Monitor, Pentium III Microprocessor, 128MB of RAM, Free hard disk space of 1GB, Window 2000, XP or higher versions of operating System, Wampserver and recent and functional Web Browser (e.g. Mozilla Firefox 3.x or Opera 9 and Google Chrome). This particular digital library system, restrictions from unauthorized users without the login details were imposed to avoid over congestions in the network. Autosuggestion option was introduced to avoid delay from page reload associated with dial-up connections. Every authentic user has a pin to enable him have access to the digital library. Digital library supports remote access which refers to connection to a data-processing system from a remote location, for example through a virtual private network. Remote access involves download and upload of materials. **Download** means to receive data to a local system from a remote system, or to initiate such a data transfer. **Uploading** refers to the sending of data from a local system to a remote system such as a server or another client with the intent that the remote system should store a copy of the data being transferred, or the initiation of such a process. The Electronic Library System has contributed immensely in reducing the time spent for each task in the library. This has made the tedious work done by librarians more straightforward and the effort of making a physical presence in the library minimal. In some cases where the librarians might not have expertise knowledge, they can still use the application to manage the library though without maximum result.

Recommendations

The issue of serving the public effectively has been of great concern to the management and staff of most libraries in Nigeria. It is therefore highly recommended that Electronic/digital Library Systems should be introduced to institutions' libraries that are yet to be digitalized. I also recommend that the new system and the old system should run concurrently so as to have a more reliable result. Staff should be trained towards effective use of the enhanced operations, devices and software

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**DISPARITIES IN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE PRE-PRIMARY AND PRIMARY
SCHOOLS' ENROLMENTS, CLASSROOMS AND TEACHERS IN NIGERIA:
IMPLICATIONS FOR ACCESS AND EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT**

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Abstract

School enrolment figures, number of classrooms and teachers are important statistical data essential for educational planning; their disparities in public and private pre-primary and primary schools should be equally reflected in the plan. Moreover, experience of educational sector and operational planning just concluded in Bauchi, Jigawa and Niger states of Nigeria with 2005/2006 as baseline academic year gave impetus to the study. Three research questions guided the study. A pool of secondary source data from the Federal Ministry of Education (FME) was organized and analyzed using descriptive statistics. Among other things, the private sector contributed 7.71% of total enrolments for pre-primary and primary schools; gender disparity in enrolments between public and private schools was not so pronounced at both levels; pupil class ratio (pcr) was 112.50 for public schools and 43.27 for private schools; there was not much disparity between number of male and female teachers in public schools (52.20% male and 47.80 female); but there was wide disparity between number of male and female teachers in private schools (35.19% male and 64.81% female). It was recommended that the private sector be encouraged to establish more schools to increase access to education; more incentives to be provided for school age girls especially in the North to increase their enrolments; more classroom blocks should be built

in public schools to reduce the high pcr, and male teachers to be encouraged to take up teaching as a career especially in the private schools where they constitute only 35. 19% of the teaching force.

Keywords: Public, Private, Schools, Disparities, Enrolment, Teachers.

Introduction

There was a total number of 60, 189 pre-primary and primary schools in Nigeria by 2005. Of this number, 50,871 were public, and 9,318 privately owned and managed (Federal Ministry of Education (FME), 2006). The year 2005 was selected for the latitudinal study because it was the baseline year (2005/2006 academic year) for the 10 year Education Sector Operational Plan (ESOP) of Bauchi, Jigawa and Nigeria States which was finalized by November 2008 preparatory for the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Moreover, the difficulties encountered in course of trying to obtain credible and reliable data gave an impetus to investigate disparities in public and private pre- primary and primary schools enrolments, classrooms and teachers in Nigeria as these have implications for access and educational management.

During the education sector planning of the three states, the private sector school proprietors could not quickly respond to the invitation to make their contribution in terms of the appropriate statistics of their schools with respect to enrolment figures, number of classrooms, and number of teachers disaggregated by gender. Perhaps their fear and suspicion was that the government would use the information as a basis for an upward review of their tax. Moreover, many of the private schools were established and managed illegally as they were not dully registered. Although the situation varied from state to state, it was considered necessary to have an overview of the national enrolment figures, number of classrooms, and number of teachers disaggregated in both public and private schools at this level and their disparities thereof as this would serve as a guide in determining the situation in each of the 36 states of the Nigerian Federation plus the Federal Capital Territory (FTC), Abuja.

Statement of the Problem

The responses of stakeholders in education in Bauchi, Jigawa and Niger states where Education Sector Planning (ESP) and ESOP have just been completed suggest that although the private sector is known to have been contributing to educational development, the status of their enrolments, classrooms and teachers is doubtful. If this uncertainty is not resolved in Nigeria as a whole it would question the reliability of subsequent education sector plans in the rest of the states. It therefore becomes pertinent to place in proper perspective the disparities in enrolments, classrooms and teachers by gender, between public and private pre-primary and primary schools in Nigeria through this investigation

Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study

1. What enrolment disparities exist between public and private pre-primary and primary schools?
2. How does classroom accommodation in pre-primary and primary schools compare with their private counterparts?
3. What gender disparities exist in the teaching staff of public and private pre-primary and primary schools?

Objectives of the Study

The purpose of the study is to examine, so as to place in proper perspective, the disparities in enrolments, classrooms and teachers between public and private pre-primary and primary schools in Nigeria as a basis for discussion on access and management of education.

The specific objectives of the study are:

1. To investigate the enrolment disparities existing between public and private pre-primary and primary schools.
2. To investigate how classroom accommodation in public pre-primary and primary schools compare with their private counterparts.
3. To investigate the gender disparities existing in the teaching staff of public and private pre-primary and primary schools

Methodology

The descriptive research methodology was adopted in the study. Relevant data were extracted from a pool of secondary source data obtained from Basic and Senior Secondary Education Statistics in Nigeria 2004 and 2005 of the Federal Ministry of Education (FMOE) (2006). The methodology employed latitudinal approach using 2005 as the baseline year. This cuts across all the 36 states of the federation plus the Federal Capital Territory (FCT), Abuja.

The baseline year, 2005 was chosen for the fact that frontline states in the MDG long term education sector plan namely Bauchi, Jigawa, and Niger states, adopted 2005/2006 academic year as their baseline. The 10 year plan will therefore end by 2015. The same is likely to apply to other states joining them. The findings of the study would guide the determination of policy objectives in their education sector planning.

The population of the study was made up of all the 60,189 pre-primary and primary schools in the 36 states of the federation plus Abuja. Worthy of note is the fact that public pre-primary and primary schools are not separated as different schools. Rather a new policy of establishing pre-primary section in public primary schools which was implemented to increase primary school enrolment made them answer pre-primary and primary schools. They have the same administration and teaching staff but different enrolment records.

Relevant data (as already indicated) extracted from the pool of secondary source data in respect of enrolments, classrooms, and teachers from both public and private schools were organized and analyzed in respect of the research questions. Descriptive statistics using figures, percentages and ratios were employed in the analysis which was tabulated.

Literature Review

According to the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Government of Nigeria, access to quality education is the right of every Nigerian child (whether in public or private schools). Nigerian children are both in public and private schools with curricula guidelines provided by the Ministry of Education. However, their management could influence the disparities being investigated in respect of enrolments, classrooms and teachers. The private sector is known to have been contributing immensely to the development of education in the country and should be considered in education sector planning for the MDGs to be attained.

Gender disparity which touches on the first target set for Education For All (EFA) (Federal Ministry OF Education, 2005) is an aspect of the investigation. To promote gender equity and empowerment of women which is the third MDG goal would require, at least, 50% estimated education sector contribution (Obanya, 2007). This expert view informs addressing gender disparities both in enrolment and teaching force starting from pre-primary and primary levels both in public and private schools as fundamental. To this end, Zhawa (2007), in respect of National Policy on Gender in Basic Education observes that the attainment of equality in gender is not only seen as an end in itself, being a human rights issue, but is also a pre-requisite for the achievement of national and international development goals - Education for All and MDGs targeted by the year 2015. Therefore establishing the disparities in enrolments, classrooms and teachers in public and private pre-primary and primary schools is very essential.

Disparity in pupil-teacher ratio (ptr) is also an aspect of the investigation. Given the widening scope of the curriculum in the era of globalization, the teacher has more work to do. This idea wins support from Edozie (2005) citing Maduewesi's (2001) view that the curriculum content is continually expanding and becoming overloaded as a result of additions and/ or integration of new materials and of global issues and concerns. Therefore it stands to reason to ascertain the teacher-pupil ratio in public and private pre-primary and primary schools with a view to making provision for such in educational planning and management. If teachers are in short supply resulting to high pupil- teacher ratio, this grossly affects content coverage and the overall attainment of curriculum objectives.

Pupil-class ratio (pcr) is related to pupil-teacher ratio (ptr). Although there may be a balance in pupil-teacher ratio, if there is not enough classroom accommodation, classrooms will be overcrowded. Even where there may be more than one teacher in the overcrowded classroom the situation would rub off on access to quality education as access does not stop at the level of a child getting to the

school and entering a classroom not minding the nature of the classroom. Therefore, knowledge of the pcr would inform arrangements for provision of more classrooms if and when the need arises.

Research Question 1

What enrolment disparities exist between public and private pre-primary and primary schools?

Table 1: Number of Schools and Percentage Enrolment by Gender in Pre-primary and Primary Schools.

TYPE OF SCHOOL	NO OF SCHOOLS	ENROLMENT						TOTAL
		PRE PRIMARY (PP)			PRIMARY(P)			
		MALE (M)	FEMALE (F)	TOTAL	MALE (M)	FEMALE (F)	TOTAL	
PUBLIC	50,871 (84.52%)	533,034 (51.49%)	502,144 (48.51%)	1,035,178	11,458,353 (55.38%)	9,230,419 (44.62%)	20,688,772	21,723,950
PRIVATE	9,318 (15.48%)	423,441 (51.32%)	401,625 (48.68%)	825,093	814,693 (51.61%)	763,942 (48.39%)	1,578,635	2,463,728
TOTAL	60,189	956,475 (51.44%)	903,796 (48.58%)	1,860,271 (7.7%)	12,273,046 (55.17)	9,994,361 (44.88%)	22,267,407 (92.29%)	24,127,678

Source (Adapted): Federal Ministry of Education (2006). Basic and Senior Secondary Education Statistics in Nigeria 2004 and 2005.

From table one, total enrolment figures for public and private schools stood at 24,126,78. Of this figures, public schools recorded as high as 21,723,950 while private schools had as low as 2,463,738 representing 92.29% and 7.71% respectively.

Gender disparity in enrolment was not so pronounced - almost imperceptible both within the school types (public or private) and between them, especially at the pre-primary level. For public pre-primary, while male enrolment was 533,034 (51.49%), that of female was 502,144 (48.51%). It followed a similar trend in private primary with 423,441 (51.32%) and 401,652 (48.68%) male and female respectively. A some worth similar trend was observed at the primary level where male and female enrolments were 11,458,353 (55.38%) and 9,230,419 (44.62%) respectively for public schools; and 814,693 (51.61%) and 763,942 (48.39%) male and female respectively for private schools.

Research Question 2

How does classroom accommodation in public pre-primary and primary schools compare with their private counterparts?

Table 2: Number of Schools, Classrooms, Enrolment and Pcr in Public and Private Schools.

TYPE OF SCHOOL	NO OF SCHOOLS.	NO OF CLASSROOMS	ENROLMENT IN PRE-PRIMARY (PP)	ENROLMENT IN PRIMARY (PP)	TOTAL ENROLMENT (PP+P)	PCR
PUBLIC	50,871	193,096	1,035,178	20,688,772	21,723,950	112.50
PRIVATE	9,318	61,223 (24.07%)	825,093	1,578,635	2,403,728	43.27
TOTAL	60,189	254,319	1,860,271	22,267,407	24,127,678	94.87

Source (Adapted): Federal Ministry of Education (2006). Basic and Senior Secondary Education Statistics in Nigeria 2004 and 2005.

From table two, a total number of 254,319 classrooms existed in the 60,189 public and private pre-primary and primary schools. For the public schools, there were 193,096 classrooms for their 50,871 schools with 21,723,950 enrolment figures representing 75.93% of the total number while the private schools had 61,223 classrooms for their 93,184 schools representing 24.07% with enrolment figures of 2,403,728.

The pupil –class ratio (pcr) for all the schools (public and private) was 94.8. While the pcr for public schools was as high as 112.50, that of private schools was 43.27.

Research Question 3

What gender disparities exist in the teaching staff of public and private pre-primary and primary schools?

Table 3: Number of Schools, Classrooms, Teachers by Gender and Percentage, Enrolment, Ptr and Pcr

TYPE OF SCHOOL	NO OF SCHOOLS	NO OF CLASSROOMS	TEACHERS					ENROLMENT	PTR	PCR
			M	F	TOTAL (M+F)	%M	%F			
PUBLIC	50,871	193,096	258,287	236,559	494,846	52.20	47.80	21,723,950	38.48	112.50
PRIVATE	9,318	61,223	37,060	68,266	105,326	35.19	64.81	2,403,728	22.61	43.27
TOTAL	60,189	254,319	295,347	303,47	600,172	49.21	50.79	24,127,678	40.20	94.87

Source (Adapted): Federal Ministry of Education (2006). Basic and Senior Secondary Education Statistics in Nigeria 2004 and 2005.

From table three, there were 600,172 teachers in both public and private pre-primary and primary schools. Of this number 295,347 were males while 304,825 were females representing 49.21% and 50.79% respectively. For the public schools, of the 494,846 teachers, 258,287 were males while 236,559 were females representing 52.20% and 47.80% respectively. For the private schools, of the 105,

326 teachers there were 37,060 males and 68,266 female representing 35.19% and 64.81% respectively.

While there were slightly more male teachers (52.20%) than females (47.80%) in the public schools, the reverse was the case in the private schools with males having as low as 35.19% and females as high as 64.81% of the teaching force.

Summary of Findings

- ❖ There were 60, 189 public and private pre-primary and primary schools (50,871 public and 9,318 private).
- ❖ Total enrolment figures stood at 24,127,678, {21,723,950 (92.29%)- public and 2,463,738 (7.71%) –private }:
- ❖ Gender disparity in enrolment between public and private schools was not so pronounced at both levels, pre-primary and primary. For instance, public pre-primary male was 51.49% while private pre-primary was 51.32%; public primary female was 44.62% while private primary was female 48.39%.
- ❖ PCR for public schools was as high as 112.50 (approx. 113).
- ❖ PCR for private schools was 43.27 (approx. 43).
- ❖ Disparity between the number of male and female teachers in public schools was not much as 52.20% of the number were males and 47.80% females.
- ❖ There was wide disparity between the number of male and female teachers in the private schools: 35.19% were males and 64.81%, females.

Discussion of Findings with Implication for Access in Educational Management

There were 60,189 public and private pre-primary and primary schools in Nigeria by 2005. Of this number 50, 871 were public while 9,318 were privately owned and managed. These figures represent 84.52% public sector and 15. 48% private sector contributions respectively to the number of schools at that level of education. Public schools recorded much higher enrolment than private schools at the rates of 92.29% and 7.71% respectively. The low number of schools with comparatively low enrolment by private schools suggests that the private sector needs to be encouraged to establish more schools and/ or expand the existing ones. This would help to increase access to education at the basic level.

Although gender disparity between public and private schools at this level was not pronounced, it is important to note that generally there were more girls enrolment in public primary schools in the southern states than in the northern states of the federation (FME, 2006) For instance, in the south, the following seven states have their girls enrolment as follows: Akwa Ibom – 51.36%, Anambra – 51.06% Bayelsa - 49.29%, Ebony 50.46%, Imo - 49.86%, Onodo-50. 81% and Rivers 50.70% - all above the overall mean girls enrolment of 44.62% from the study. These are compared with the following seven states in the North: Bauchi – 39.37%, Jigawa- 37.4%, Kastina- 35.49%, Kebbi – 33.41, Niger- 36.33%, Sokoto- 28.71 and

Zamfara- 28.08% - all below the overall mean girls enrolment (Federal Ministry of Education, 2006). The result is that this trend goes on to higher levels of education with female enrolment even going down in the Northern states. However, in realization of this phenomenon, most states in the North have embarked on Girl Education Project (GEP) with a view to increasing girls access to education.

Pupil class ratio (Pcr) for public schools was as high as 112.50 as against 43.27 for private schools. The situation of pcr is a big challenge for public schools because it rubs off on access. Granted that accessibility relates to two geographic concepts of distance and location and is a good measure of the efficiency of any public good and service (Adeyemi and Gbadamosi, 2007) it is important to note that access to school or education does not end at the point of a child getting to school and entering the classroom. If the classroom is not conducive, perhaps because it is as overcrowded as 112.5 pcr, then it affects adversely the pupils' access to quality education.

A wide gender disparity was observed in the private schools in respect of teaching staff. While the male staff constituted 35.19% the female constituted 64.8%, a situation which endangers the match towards gender equity and parity! It is not worthy to recall that the National Policy on Gender in Basic Education (Federal Ministry of Education, 2007:6) states as follows: "The vision for gender in basic education is to promote gender sensitivity at all levels in pursuit of the National Policy on Education (NPE), and the attainment of EFA and MDGs targets". If the vision must be realized, it therefore becomes necessary that both enrolment and staffing issues should be addressed in terms of gender sensitivity, more so to achieve the EFA and MDGs target.

Still in relation to access, it is necessary to point out that by 2005 the number of unenrolled school age children (6-12 years) was 2,448,588 while the gross unenrolled (6-11 years) was 3,516,476 (Federal Ministry of Education, 2006). The worrying situation gives a clear picture of the need to intensify awareness spirit of Universal Basic Education (UBE) and in respect of Education for All.

The ugly situation of unenrolment of school age children may be as a result of factors beyond the control of parents such as poor terrain and school being too far away from the child's home which, in turn, calls for appropriate school mapping.

Conclusion

Disparities in public and private pre-primary and primary schools enrolment, classrooms and teachers in 2005 have been investigated using secondary source data from the Federal Ministry of Education. Major highlights covered 7.71% enrolment of the private sector which should be improved upon to increase access to education; gender disparities in enrolment is not pronounced; high pupil - class ratio of 112.50 for public schools as against 43.27 for private schools which offers the private schools learning advantage; and the wide disparities between male and female teachers (35.19% and 64.81% respectively).

The disparities discovered in relation to the provision and goals of the National Policy on Education (NPE), the 1999 Constitution of Nigeria, National Policy on Gender, EFA and MDG provisions. If the recommendations made are implemented, it is hoped that remarkable success would be recorded.

Recommendations

The findings of the study and the discussion thereof with implications for access and educational management, the following recommendations are made.

There is need to encourage the private sector to establish and manage more pre-primary and primary schools by relaxing some of the conditions which may be too stringent for intending schools; proprietors and proprietresses. At the moment, the 15.48% contribution of the private sector representing their total number of schools (9,318 out of a total of 50,871) appears too low. If they establish more schools, that would help to increase access to education.

With most of the states in the North having their percentage mean girls enrolment in public primary schools below the overall national mean of 44.62% more incentives should be provided for school age girls. This would help to catch them young at the pre-primary and primary levels as this would encourage them to continue their education even at the higher levels.

The pupil class ratio (pcr) in the public schools which is as high as 112.50 should be reduced by building additional classroom blocks. This is important because it will improve access and management of education if the pcr is adequate. It will make the class more manageable, allow free movement, increase the health condition of the classroom as it would improve ventilation thereby enhancing teaching and learning.

The wide disparity between the male and female teachers (35.19% male and 64.8% female) in private pre-primary and primary schools should be addressed by making teaching job more attractive to the males to move close to gender parity and equity. Both males and females have their natural influence which should impact on the school child to make for a balanced character.

Since there were many unenrolled school age children, perhaps, due to factors beyond the control of parents/guardians, effort should be intensified to find out what is actually responsible for the worrying situation. Perhaps, more awareness creation and appropriate school mapping should be embarked upon especially in areas of poor terrain and schools far away from the children's home. This would improve access to education.

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AN APPRAISAL OF TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT IN ORGANIZATIONS IN NIGERIA: EMPLOYEE AND ORGANIZATIONAL GROWTH PERFORMANCE PIVOTAL

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Abstract

The leading expectation of an organization and its employees is growth. When there is growth, the organization will experience stability, expansion, and good profit margin. The employees also stand to attend to their personal needs and have some level of satisfaction. Growth in an organization is manifested in having large market share with profit, low rejects, and low rate of accidents at work, lower downtime, and harmonious industrial relations among others. Equally, growth is felt by the employees through adequate remuneration, good welfare packages, and job security. In order to realize growth, adequate training and development of the employees are needed as a pivot. The paper therefore, examines the principles, policies, rationale behind the need for training, and gains of training and development. Highlighted also are types of training, training programme designs, and a comparison of characteristics of training and development. This paper suggests that for an organization and her employees to grow, training and development should be in the front burner.

Keywords: Training, Development, employee, organization, growth, performance, pivotal.

Introduction

Growth remains the focus of every organization and its employees. This is to enable them achieve their different goals. In order to realize growth, strategies like downsizing, harmonious industrial relations, right application of procedures, efficient communication skills and system, technological advancement, and training and development are employed by the organizations. Among these strategies, training and development tend to benefit both parties favourably, because it helps the employee acquire the needed skills, knowledge, and capability to discharge his

functions. The organization that witnesses growth is sure of stability and good profit margin. Njoku (2007), observed that training and development are important management tools for changing and directing job behaviour towards specific organizational goals.

Training and development should be for all and sundry. Haralambos and Horlbon (2004), suggest that every employee has a clearly defined task in a cooperate enterprise, hence his contribution towards growth. In relation to this, untrained and undeveloped employees will not be able to communicate and cooperate, leading to confusion and disorder. Jones (2000) identified components of Human Resources Management to include development which the manager must have to fit in to complement the company's structure and control system. Further on training and development, CIPMN (2007), observes that organizations need to constantly work at making their employees the best through a comprehensive and purposeful career and life development programme that is responsive to needs.

According to Njoku (2007), training is the act of increasing the knowledge and skills of an employee for performing a particular job. Development is futuristic in sense, hence, (Njoku, 2007), sees development as the process by which managers and executives acquire competence, skills, and capabilities for future managerial tasks.

Organization is a formalized intentional structure of roles or positions (Wehrich and Koontz, 2006). Growth in this paper is an increase in economic activity as profit (Hornsby, 1995). Employee is any person who offers his services or labour to another in return for wages (Uvieaghara, 2001).

As a guide, organizations should note the policies, objectives, gains, and needs associated with training and development, holding same in the front burner. It will help the employees to exhibit value adding variables mentioned earlier and play down non-value adding variables. These will help the organization to have large market share, harmonious industrial relations with their employees and in turn promote growth.

The Problem of Study

Studies have shown that most organizations have neglected training and development programmes probably due to the cost implication or ignorance. In some cases only few multinationals pay little attention to them while small scale or local organizations don't attach importance to the training. This singular act of lack of adequate training and development has led to poor performance by some organizations and their employees leading to stagnant growth as is manifested in poor sales and profit, high rejects, high rate of accident at work, high downtime, and industrial actions among others.

There is the indication that lack of adequate training and development affects the growth of organizations and their employees. This is manifested in the rate of strikes, downtime, high rejects in organization by their employees (Jones, 2000; Njoku, 2007).

It appears that most organizations fail to have large market share, harmonious industrial relations, low rate of accident at work due to negligence of training and development of their employees. These inadequacies affect the needed growth of the organizations and the employees.

It seems that the effects of high turnover on organizations and the inability of employees to attend to their personal needs are as a result of lack of training and development. These have affected the stability of operations of organizations. Employees have remained disillusioned and are distanced from growth.

Objectives of the study

The major objective of this paper is to highlight the role of training and development as a springboard for organizational and employee growth.

The specific objectives of this paper are:

- i. To examine the impact of training and development towards organizational and employee development.
- ii. To examine the policies, principles and gains of training and development which promote organizational and employee growth.
- iii. To examine the prospects of growth in the organizations and their employees with the application of adequate training and development as a pivot.

Training and Development: Employee and Organizational Growth Pivotal

Rao and Rao (1996), summarized training and development as an intervention strategy employed by an organization that is aimed at instilling in their employees the needed skills, knowledge, and expertise to face the jobs. In the quest for an organization and its employee to realize their goals, the means to this end is growth. Growth by extension will help the organization have a large market share, disciplined and dedicated workforce, low rate of accident at work, good quality goods and services, good profit margin, and workers with high morale. In their drive towards growth attainment, organizations employ various strategies like cost reduction, good quality improvement techniques, aggressive advertising and marketing. Others are technological advancement in operations, downsizing, and training and development. This work focusing on training and development is of the opinion that non-value adding variables which are antithetical to growth are as a result of lack of training and development. The paper is of the opinion that with the instrumentality of training and development, the employees will garner the needed skills, expertise, knowledge, and capability to face job challenges and dethrone non-value adding variables like poor communication skills, high waste generation, indiscipline, poor market share, and wrong application of procedures among others. The value adding variables will promote the growth of the organization and its employees. This paper points out the policies, gains, objectives, and the rationale behind the need for training and development. Finally, this work is of the opinion that organizations should take training and development of their employees to the front burner because

with it best practices are realized leading to the growth of both the employees and their organizations.

Designing Training Programme

Utmost care should be taken while designing training programme and direct same towards the realization of the organizational goals. Onasanya(1999), outlines various stages of training design to include;

- i. Assess the Training Needs The supervisor should ascertain the training needs of the employee. These should be discussed and agreed upon by all personnel concerned with training.
- ii. Assess the Requirements of the Job The basic requirements of the job should be assessed. There upon, a proper skill analysis of the job should be carried out. This involves analyzing the needed skill and knowledge to perform a job to meet the standard of an experienced worker.
- iii. Choose Appropriate Subjects to be Taught While considering the knowledge and skills to be acquired by the trainee, subjects to be taught will emerge and consequently, further problems and complications to be encountered will surface. These may eventually lead to the decision whether an in-plant or external course is required and the method of teaching.
- iv. Standard to be Reached The standard should at this juncture, be defined depending upon the type of training envisaged. The type of training will determine the standard to be reached.
- v Consider Required Resources: The resources to be considered include:
 - a. available manpower to effect the training
 - b. the availability of training centres
 - c. cash to run the expenses
 - d. will overseas course be required? If so, what about the foreign exchange involvement?
- vi. Prepare the Training Programme Based on the skill analysis, the subjects to be taught, the standard of the training and the available resources. A training programme should be prepared with adequate practice materials and suitable exercise and tests.

According to Flippo (1984) and Ojo (1998), the principles of training include motivation, reinforcement, and feedback mechanism which guides the employee in his discharge of duties. Training can be on-the-job or off- the -job. During the on-the-job training, the employee is introduced to the would-be working tools, materials, machines or equipments. The employee is drilled on the manipulation or application techniques of the real job situation.

Training can be off – the - job away from the real work situation, through lecturing and discussions, coaching, case study methods and conference training using techniques and tools to inculcate in the employee the skills needed to handle

real job situation. This takes place in a cool environment, mostly the training centres of some organizations if the organizations want to hold same using their facilities. It can equally hold at designated centres run by consultants; in this case it may hold outside the organization's premises.

Development on its own is a long – term perspective aimed at preparing the employees on higher level for the handling of higher responsibilities along the career part. The tenet of development is futuristic in nature hence it is aimed at meeting tomorrow's organizational vision (Keith, 1977). To an extent, developmental skill is to be inculcated in the middle level and upper management cadre, hence decision making is reserved for this class of employees (Njoku, 2007).

Training policies

On training Policy, Njoku (2007) observed that training programme should include major decisions aimed at:

- i. Enabling staff to acquire new skills and knowledge.
- ii. Assisting workers to improve on their performance by correcting their weaknesses.
- iii. Preparing workers for stronger responsibilities in the future by developing their latent interest and hidden talents.
- iv. That all employees should have the opportunity of securing training appropriate to their jobs and positions.
- v. Training like other personnel issues should be close to the Chief Executive and involve all line and staff managers.

Nwachukwu (1998), observed that there are formal and informal ways of developing managers. He further pointed out that popular developmental methods in organization can be through job rotation, delegation of duties, coaching and understudy, multiple management, and ex – organizational methods via special courses, sensitivity training, special assistants, membership of professional bodies etc.

Objectives of Training and Development

There should be well focused objectives behind training and development exercises that will propel growth. According to Njoku (2007), the objectives of training and development include:

1. To assist the employees to acquire the required skills for the changing work methods in the dynamic work society.
2. Assisting the employees increase their performance at work.
3. As an organizational culture, to enable new employees key into the organizational vision.
4. To bring to the fore each job related proper attitudes in the employee.
5. To prepare the employee for a higher job demand and tasks.

6. As a motivational factor, it reinforces the cordial relationship between employees and employer.
7. It helps in preparing the employees to take care of jobs in the absence of the key operators. This is done in the spirit of job enlargement.

Gains of Training and Development

It is evident that the gains of training and development are not far-fetched in the running of an organization and by extension to its employees. Corroborating this assertion, Rao (1987) posits that the gains of training and development include:

1. **Reduced Supervision** When adequately trained, the employee will discharge his or her functions with less supervision leading to greater quantity and better output.
2. **Esteemed Organizational Harmony/Stability** The organization that has a reasonable number of trained and developed staff stands to weather the storm of high labour turnover.
3. **Waste Reduction and Increased Output** The employee with adequate skills and development will work against increased waste generation thereby giving a higher production output with better quality.
4. **Morale Boosting** The trained employee counts self as a member of the organization. This satisfies his safety, security, and ego needs.
5. **Reduced Accidents at Work** The trained worker is conversant with the job procedure and precaution which when followed will promote accident free work environment.

Categories of Training Need

Because the dimensions of training needs differ from each other, Kanu (2007) painstakingly categorized needs to include;

1. **Performance Improvement Needs** Here the training need is to eliminate or reduce performance short - comings of a working group or employee.
2. **Job Training Need** The aim here is to inculcate in the (new) employee the needed attitude, skills and knowledge for the job.
3. **Change Training Needs** These focus on the skills, knowledge and attitudinal needs arising from expected or planned changes in the organization.

- 4. Individual Development Needs** The focus of this need is to develop or add the needed skills and knowledge to the already acquired ones by the employee, to enable the employee handle even a higher job.

Organizations should take the training and development of their workers seriously. The dangers of untrained worker cannot be seen until the organization comes face – to – face with the havoc the untrained worker has caused the organization.

The training of the security operative, the messenger, the operator and their likes should not be taken for granted. An untrained messenger can dump a file that has the approval for the purchase of a tool which has caused a downtime, because he assumes his job is an inferior one. A security man can lockout a supplier that came with the needed tools that the production unit is waiting for and rather engage in story telling with colleagues or even in social networking.

Training and Development Compared

Ojo (1998), presents the comparative assessment of training and development. The characteristics are presented in the table below.

Table 1: Comparison of Principal Characteristics of Training and Development

Characteristics	Training	Development
Primary target groups	Rank and file	Managers, Professionals
Usual location	local	Dispersed
Payoff	Right away or soon	Long term
Application	Current jobs	Future jobs
Specificity	Narrow	Broad
Objective	Improve Performance	Improve Potential Capacity
Linkage to Performance	Immediate	Distance
Transferability	Narrow	Broad
Number of employees serviced at a time	Large	Small
Scope	Single level	Across levels
Variations Required	Comparatively uniform	Many special requirements
Duration	Short	Extended
Anticipated outcomes	Specific, Definite and Measurable	General
Participant gain/reaction response	Sense of competency	Meaningful overview, sense of satisfaction

Source: Ojo(1998)

The dimensions of operations by employees differ because of job responsibilities. It therefore follows that either training or development is required by an employee to enable him handle job challenges. While presenting the above observations, Ojo (1998) highlighted various characteristics associated with training or development. These characteristics stand as the direction and gains of training and development which are pivotal towards organizational and employee growth. In the main, training is associated with the lower level management while development is for now and in the future and it is for top level management.

Conclusion

Training and Development remains imperative for the growth of an organization and its employees as well as for the growth of a society and its members. The gains derivable in the aftermath of training and development outweigh the cost of sponsorship in line with the popular parlance, "if you say education is expensive try ignorance".

Training and development help to bring out the best potential in a being whose contributions in the organization or society will help its growth. The organization that has enough trained and developed workforce stands to weather the storm occasioned by labour turnover.

Recommendations

This paper recommends that since persistent wastages, accidents, poor performance, high labour turn over, disillusioned workforce, inability to make decisions, poor management technique by some managers are as a result of inadequate training and development arrangement by organizations, there is the need to step up training and development programmes in organizations in Nigeria. Every employee should be carried along in the training programme.. Hence, every employee's job is seen to add value to the organization starting from the least in the organization to the highest because no man has the monopoly of knowledge.

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MANAGEMENT AND HUMAN VALUES IN NIGERIA: A THEORETICAL APPROACH

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Abstract

The place of human values in organisations today has become a topical issue and has generated robust discussion among value scholars and management practitioners. As competition and rivalry for market leadership have become stiff, organisations have begun to look inwards into evolving ethical and human value-based practices as a form of competitive advantage and in developing an attractive workplace. The realm of management that began with starchy devotion to the scientific approach where workers were seen as a means and not the end in the production process and were treated as mechanistic items and economic articles that are to aid the realisation of organisational goals has given way to the human relations and behavioural schools which respected workers, emphasised the need to motivate them and sought to create an attractive work environment that aimed to achieve a marriage of organizational development with workers' development. Therefore, focus has consistently shifted towards value-based models of growth in the workplace. Modern organisations require a new corporate model based on ethical practices and human values and organizations in Nigerian must increasingly submit their business processes and operations to align with these global best practices. This paper considers the place of management and human values in Nigeria from a theoretical approach.

Keywords: Management, Values, Human Values, Organisation, Workplace.

Introduction

Management is an important component of an organisational setup because it facilitates the realisation of organisational goals and fosters the commitment, dedication and satisfaction of the workforce. However, management in most organisations is helped to fulfil its functions and carry out its roles by some consciously developed or crafted values. There are about three different values governing the operations and business activities of an organisation and these values

are: economic values, social values and human values in no special order (Urim, 2009). The economic values are concerned with the operating income, market capital, share price, revenue, profitability, among others. Social values are concerned with environmental management, compliance, social contributions and socially responsible projects, while human values include attractive and ergonomic workplaces, which motivate workers to pursue new challenges and innovate, encourage them to contribute to society, and support their career development, inter alia. Of all these values, human values are reckoned to be the most important because organisations exist through the contributions of two people: those who use its products and those who create them (Oticon, 2006).

Furthermore, a research by the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development suggests that a correlation exists between the performance of companies and the ways in which they developed and managed people (CIPD, 2003). People management today is therefore becoming the core of organisational discourse. Companies who care about their employees and what they can do to benefit their businesses are the companies that truly value quality human resources. Such organisations put a huge emphasis on the correlation between increased financial productivity and employees who enjoy what they do. It is not too hard to imagine that employees who are given positive incentives, whether financial and non-financial benefits, to come to work each day can benefit a company greatly by performing to the best of their abilities.

In support of human values as the chief driver of management change and the creator of organisational culture, Davar (2006:14) noted, "The culture or the spirit of an organisation is determined by the sum of the values, beliefs and working practices that exist within an organisation." Stretching this contribution, it is safe to say the culture, practices and operations of an organisation are a representation of its value and belief system in place. This article is therefore an overview of management and human values in Nigeria from a theoretical perspective. The intention here is to examine the behaviour, attitude and value system of management in Nigeria and the role human values are playing in management's perception of workers, the workplace and organisation. In this article, too, efforts will be made to highlight the impact that human values can have on management's perception of the workforce, the treatment of workers and the workplace.

Conceptual Clarification

What is Management?

Management is a generic term and subject to many interpretations. However, as Mary Parker Follett, one of the nineteenth century scholars pontificated, management simply is the process of getting activities completed efficiently and effectively with and through other people within organisations (Kleiman, 2010). Kleiman adds that management in all business areas and organisational activities are

the acts of getting people together to accomplish desired goals and objectives. In defining management, classical theorists, according to Imhonopi & Urim (2012), see it as the development of processes and principles that foster efficiency in organisational life. According to Daft (2005), from the behavioural point of view, management is understanding workers' attitudes, behaviour, motivation needs and applying conceptual and analytical tools to these needs with a view to predicting and influencing workers' behaviour. Quantitative theorists posit that management is concerned about how to use mathematical and statistical approaches to solve organisational problems, allocate scarce resources including time and by being concerned with improving productivity and quality of goods and services through capacity planning, facilities location, facilities layout, materials requirement planning, scheduling, purchasing and inventory control, quality control, computer integrated manufacturing, just-in-time inventory systems, and flexible manufacturing systems (O'Connor, 1999). Viewing management from the Systems School paradigm, Robbins & Coulter (1999) argue that management is focused on properly understanding organisation as an open system that transforms inputs into outputs. Contingency School theorists, on the other hand, see management principles and processes as dictated by the unique characteristics of each situation. In this sense, they claim that there is no one best way to manage and that it depends on various situational factors, such as the external environment, technology, organisational characteristics, characteristics of the manager, and characteristics of the subordinates (Daft, 2005). This must have informed the opinion that managers are creatures of the moment, perpetually immersed in the nitty-gritty of making things happen (David, 2005).

In sum, as Imhonopi & Urim (2012) observed, management is a dynamic system with processes and principles led by a group of people who seek to understand and influence employees' behaviour and attitude to achieve organisational goals and objectives through different problem-solving approaches, within a learning environment of job satisfaction for employees who are also involved in the growth, learning and survivability of the organisation in a constantly changing environment. Management, therefore, is active, not theoretical. It is about changing behaviour and making things happen. It is about developing people; working with them, reaching objectives and achieving results. Management is a creative as well as a systematic flow of knowledge that can be applied to produce results by using human as well as other resources in an effective way (Kadiwala, 2010). It is not limited to managing human resources but includes various branches like financial management, strategic management, operations management, time management, crisis management, marketing management, etc. Each of these is a separate branch that is being handled by managers who specialise in these fields.

Generally, therefore, management encompasses an array of different functions undertaken to accomplish a task successfully within an organisation; meaning that management exists for the purpose of "getting things done." However, it is the way management goes about achieving its target that makes management both an art and a science as well. It is an art because it deals with people and

human-related management issues and is a science because of the scientific processes, procedures and tools deployed in the effective running of an organisation.

Human Values

According to Gustavsson, Tripathi and Rao (2005), there are two main approaches to the understanding and conceptualisation of human values: the ideal-normative approach with theistic and humanistic branches and the empirical-purposive approach. The ideal-normative approach is steeped in the Western tradition and represented by Plato's formulation of the absolute values of Truth, Goodness and Beauty. These values are conceived as having independent existence of their own and are used as ideal norms for value judgement at the relative level of human existence. In the Indian tradition, absolute values are related to the absolute reality whose nature is described as Sat, Chit and Anand. Attainment of a state of eternal bliss by the realisation of identity of the individual self with the universal Self of this absolute reality is the highest and ultimate object of human striving. Closely related to this absolutist perception is the theistic view which may be called a sub-group of the idealistic-normative approach. This view is based on a metaphysical belief system which accepts the reality of a divine cosmic order and faith in the authority of a creator God who is also the upholder of all values. The basis of all ethical, social and other human values is sought in the enduring truths, either revealed or obtained through super-conscious insights of sages, contained in different pieces of sacred religious literature. Although differing in their belief systems, rituals and customs, the great world religions have a large area of agreement on the basic moral values, conceptions of personal virtues and social group behaviour based on humanistic values of love, brotherhood, caring and sharing. Many great leaders like Gandhi, Martin Luther King and Nelson Mandela were inspired by the absolutist-theistic value system and they used it as the basis for their efforts towards the spiritual, social and political transformation of their societies. As Chakraborty (1995a, b) and Ranganathanand (1991) contend, in recent times, the term "human values" has been used for this theistic approach to value system.

The second sub-group of the idealistic-normative approach to human values is made up of all the different strands of humanistic thoughts, ranging from love and compassion of Buddha to the radical humanism of Marx. Included in this sub-group are the ideas of humanists having varying degrees of theistic, non-theistic and atheistic leanings but **attaching prime importance to man and to human values**. As Fromm (1981: 148) points out "There is a remarkable kinship in the ideas of Buddha, Eckhart, Marx, and Schweitzer: their radical demand for giving up the having orientation; their insistence on complete independence; their metaphysical skepticism; their godless religiosity, and their demand for social activity in the spirit of care and human solidarity".

These humanist ideas and movements developed as protests against oppressive constraints on the human spirit of freedom, creativity and dignity, imposed by religious dogmas or by dehumanising social or technological orders of

their day. They developed a new ethics of man based on interconnectedness of humankind, love and respect for life, the joy of sharing and caring, and the faith in man to shape his own destiny. These ideas find deep reflections in the literary traditions of both the East and the West over the last few centuries (Bharati, 1990), and gave rise to different kinds of social and political theories, like liberalism and socialism, for the betterment of humankind, particularly of the oppressed and the exploited. As Gustavsson, et al. (2005) argue, the humanistic paradigm of values has led to the declaration of Universal Human Rights by the United Nations. They opine that the term "human values" has generally been understood in this context of humanistic thoughts.

The second main approach to human values is the empirical-purposive approach adopted by modern psychologists and other social scientists like Mukherjee (1965), Rokeach (1973) and Schwartz (1994). The empirical-purposive approach views values as a distinct component of the total human personality, which guide or affect attitude and behaviour of the individual and social groups. In Schwartz's view, values are "responses to three universal requirements with which all individuals and societies must cope: needs of individual biological organisms, requisites of coordinated social interaction and requirements for smooth functioning and survival of groups" (Schwartz, 1994: 21). This approach is non-normative and is not based on any religious or philosophical system of ideas or worldview, nor on any socio-political ideology. In this approach, identification of values, their classification, and search for interrelationships between them are based on empirical methods of observation, attitude surveys, statistical validation techniques, and others. Conceptualisation of human values based on the findings of empirical research is fast becoming a distinct area of social science research. These empirical studies and researches on human values are purposive because knowledge gained by them is sought to be utilised for practical purposes in diverse areas like, management science (leadership and team building, human resource development, and others), in socio-political policy decisions (welfare programmes, race relations, positive action programmes for minorities, population control programmes, environmental policy, and others). Hence, the appropriateness of the use of the term purposive in the descriptive title 'empirical-purposive' for this approach to human values.

Another way of classifying the different approaches to human values could be in terms of the level of aggregation they focus their attention on (Imhonopi & Urim, 2012; Onifade, Imhonopi & Urim, 2013). These levels may be called the individual, the sociological and the ecological. The first level focuses on the individual human being, taken as an independent entity. Some illustrative value terms referring to this level are survival values, character, personal virtues, aesthetic appreciation, human rights, salvation, self-realisation, inter alia. At the second level, individual values are subordinated to the sociological values. It is concerned with operation of values at the collective level of human society and includes values associated with family and other social institutions and professions; caring and sharing, sense of social responsibility, social and economic justice, values of humanity and human

interconnectedness, and others. Similarly, the ecological level subordinates the first two and consists of values from the standpoint of human beings as a part of the total ecological system. In the reports commissioned by the Club of Rome, there is a concern for developing a "new world consciousness..., a new ethic in the use of material resources, a new attitude towards nature, based on harmony rather than on conquest ... a sense of identification with future generations" (Mesarovic & Pestel, 1974: 148) to avoid global catastrophe caused by unrestrained economic growth. "For the first time a demand is being made for an ethical change, not as a consequence of ethical belief but as the rational consequence of economic analysis" (Fromm, 1988: 149). Human values perceptions from this perspective focus on the interdependency of human beings and nature and include expressive terms like respect for and harmony with nature, concept of Mother Earth, sustainability, conservation, and others. Thus, the authors arrive at a two-dimensional matrix for the classification of human values concepts. One dimension of this matrix consists of the different approaches and the other of the three levels of aggregation, shown as the horizontal and the vertical columns of the table below.

Approach level	IDEAL-NORMATIVE		EMPIRICAL-PURPOSIVE
	Theistic	Humanistic	
Individual	X	X	x
Sociological		X	x
Ecological			x

Therefore, human values refer to those basic moral values, conceptions of personal virtues and social group behaviour based on humanistic values of love, brotherhood, caring, sharing, fairness, respect, compassion, friendliness, integrity, honesty, egalitarianism, equality and equal opportunity which guide human and social interactions, affecting the individual, sociological and ecological planes. When these values are brought to bear on the behaviour, attitude and ethics of managers in an organisation, they would affect the way managers treat their subordinates and the workforce, on one hand, and also affect the way the organisation is run within the social milieu, on the other hand.

Brief Historical Development of Management Thought

The schools of management thought are theoretical frameworks for the study of management. Each of the schools of management thought is based on somewhat different assumptions about human beings and the organisations for which they work. Since the formal study of management began late in the 19th century, the study of management has progressed through several stages as scholars and practitioners working in different eras focused on what they believed to be important aspects of good management practice. Over time, management thinkers have sought ways to organise and classify the voluminous information about management that has been collected and disseminated. According to Barnett (2010), these attempts at

classification have resulted in the identification of management schools as summarised below:

Five Major Schools of Management Thought

MANAGEMENT SCHOOLS	BEGINNING DATES	EMPHASIS
CLASSICAL SCHOOL		Managing workers and organisations more efficiently.
Scientific Management	1880s	
Administrative Management	1940s	
Bureaucratic Management	1920s	
BEHAVIORAL SCHOOL		Understanding human behaviour in the organisation.
Human Relations	1930s	
Behavioural Science	1950s	
QUANTITATIVE SCHOOL		Increasing quality of managerial decision-making through the application of mathematical and statistical methods.
Management Science	1940s	
Operations Management	1940s	
Management Information Systems	1950s—1970s	
SYSTEMS SCHOOL	1950s	Understanding the organisation as a system that transforms inputs into outputs while in constant interaction with its environment.
CONTINGENCY SCHOOL	1960s	Applying management principles and processes as dictated by the unique characteristics of each situation.

Source: Barnett (2010)

The Classical School

The classical school is the oldest formal school of management thought and predates the twentieth century. The classical school of thought generally concerns ways to manage work and organisations more efficiently. Three areas of study that can be grouped under the classical school are scientific management, administrative management, and bureaucratic management. The classical had proponents such as Frederick W. Taylor followed by other contributors like Frank Gilbreth, Lillian Gilbreth, and Henry Gantt (Scientific Management); Henri Fayol (Administrative Management) and Max Weber (Bureaucratic Management). These schools in the Classical school emphasised efficiency, process and principles in the management of the organisation.

The Behavioural School

The behavioural school of management thought developed, in part, because of perceived weaknesses in the assumptions of the classical school. The classical school emphasised efficiency, process, and principles. Some felt that this emphasis disregarded important aspects of organisational life, particularly as they related to human behaviour. Thus, the behavioural school focused on trying to understand the factors that affect human behaviour at work. The Human Relations School had proponents like Clair Turner, Fritz J. Roethlisberger, Elton Mayo, and others like Mary Parker Follett, Chester Barnard, Abraham Maslow, Kurt Lewin, Renais Likert, and Keith Davis et al., while the Behavioural Science school had Gordon Howell, Douglas McGregor, Chris Argyris, Frederick Herzberg, Renais Likert, and Ralph Stogdill, et al. as its proponents. The schools in the Behavioural School looked at human behaviour at work, interpersonal communication, personality, attitudes, values, motivation, group behaviour, leadership, communication, and conflict, among other issues, as important factors in identifying and meeting workers' needs and getting them to support and commit to the realisation of the objectives of the organisation.

The Quantitative School

The quantitative school focuses on improving decision-making via the application of quantitative techniques. Its roots can be traced back to scientific management. The proponents of the schools in the Quantitative School are George Dantzig (Management Science and MIS) and W. Edwards Deming (Production and Operations Management). These schools advocated for the use of mathematical and statistical approaches to solving management problems, while the production and operations management school was concerned with how to improve the quality of the operation and control of the production process that transforms resources into finished goods and services.

Systems School

The systems school focuses on understanding the organisation as an open system that transforms inputs into outputs. This school is based on the work of a biologist, Ludwig von Bertalanffy, who believed that a general systems model could be used to unite science. Early contributors to this school included Kenneth Boulding, Richard Johnson, Fremont Kast, and James Rosenzweig. It must be said that the ideas inherent in the systems school formed the basis for the contingency school of management.

Contingency School

The contingency school focuses on applying management principles and processes as dictated by the unique characteristics of each situation. It emphasises that there is no one best way to manage and that it depends on various situational factors, such as the external environment, technology, organisational characteristics, characteristics of the manager, and characteristics of the subordinates. Contingency

theorists often implicitly or explicitly criticise the classical school for its emphasis on the universality of management principles; however, most classical writers recognised the need to consider aspects of the situation when applying management principles. A few of the major contributors to this school of management thought include Joan Woodward, Paul Lawrence, Jay Lorsch, and Fred Fiedler, among many others. The contingency school originated in the 1960s. It has been applied primarily to management issues such as organisational design, job design, motivation, and leadership style.

Contemporary Schools of Management Thought

Contemporary management research and practice continues to evolve and new approaches to the study of management continue to be advanced. Examples of contemporary schools of management thoughts include Total Quality Management (TQM) and the learning organisation. While neither of these management approaches offers a complete theory of management, they do offer additional insights into the management field.

Managers' Attitudes Towards People

The way managers approach the performance of their jobs and the behaviour they display towards their subordinates is likely to be conditioned by their predispositions about people, human nature and work. McGregor (1960) put forward two suppositions about human nature and behaviour at work. He argued that the style of management adopted is a function of the manager's attitudes towards people and assumptions about human nature and behaviour. The two suppositions are called **Theory X and Theory Y** and are based on bipolar assumptions about people and work.

Theory X

Theory X represents the Carrot and Stick assumptions on which traditional organisations are based. Its assumptions are that:

- the average person is lazy and has an inherent dislike for work;
- most people must be coerced, controlled, directed and threatened with punishment if the organisation is to achieve its goals.
- the average person avoids responsibility, prefers to be directed, lacks ambition and values security, most of all; and
- motivation occurs only at the physiological and security level.

Managers that share this perception or worldview adopt the central principle of Theory X, which is direction and control through a centralised system of organisation and the exercise of authority. Assumption based on theory X approach, and the traditional use of rewards and sanctions exercised by the nature of the managers' position and authority, are likely to result in an exploitative or authoritarian style of management.

Theory Y

At the other extreme of the continuum is Theory Y, which represents the assumptions consistent with current research knowledge. The central principle of Theory Y is the integration of individual and organisational goals. Its assumptions are that:

- for most people work is as natural as play or rest;
- people will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which they are committed;
- commitment to objectives is as a result of rewards associated with their achievement;
- given the right conditions, the average worker can learn to accept and seek responsibility;
- the capacity for creativity in solving organisational problems is distributed widely in the organisation;
- the intellectual potential of the average person only is partially utilised; and
- motivation occurs at the affiliation, esteem and self-actualisation levels as well as the physiological and security levels.

McGregor contends that a Theory Y approach is the best way to elicit co-operation from workers in an organisation. It is the task of management to create the conditions in which individuals may satisfy their motivational needs and in which they achieve their own goals through meeting the goals of the organisation. Developing McGregor's theory further, a comparative analysis of management and practices from different cultural backgrounds is provided by Ouchi (1981). In contrast to the traditional management style, Ouchi recommends a Theory Z, which is the Japanese management style. The characteristics of a theory Z organisation are as follows:

- long-term employment, often for a lifetime;
- Relatively slow process of evaluation and promotion;
- development of company-specific skills, and moderately specialised career path;
- Implicit, informal control mechanisms supported by explicit, formal measures;
- Participative decision-making by consensus;
- Collective decision making but individual ultimate responsibility;
- Broad concerns for the welfare of subordinates and co-workers as a natural part of a working relationship, and informal relationships among people.

According to Ouchi, Type Z organisations would be more effective as a result of an emphasis on trust, which goes hand in hand with productivity; a less hierarchical and bureaucratic structure; and higher levels of workers' involvement - all of which will create a distinctive company style and culture.

The Influence of the Managerial Grid on the Development of Managerial Style

Blakes and Mouton present a diverse approach to managerial style with their Managerial Grid in 1964 (transformed to Leadership Grid 1991). The Grid provides a basis for comparison of managerial styles in terms of two principal dimensions:

- Concern for people; and
- Concern for production.

Concern for human values is the amount of emphasis that the manager gives to subordinates and colleagues as individuals and to their needs and expectations. This is represented along the vertical axis of the Grid.

Concern for production is the amount of emphasis that the manager places on accomplishing the tasks in hand, achieving a high level of production and getting results or profits. This is represented along the horizontal axis of the Grid.

Blake's and Mouton's Theory categorises "how" the manager expresses concern about production and about people in a grid which they now capture in seven management styles. These management styles portray seven basic combinations of degrees of concern for production coupled with degree of concern for people.

- 1. The impoverished manager (1,1 rating):** the management style here has low concern for production and low concern for people. The Manager in this categorisation tends to be remote from their subordinates and believes in minimum movement from their present position. They do as little as they can with production or with people. They also believe that too much attention to production will cause difficulties with staff and too much attention to the needs of staff will cause problems with production.
- 2. The authority-compliance manager (9,1 rating):** This manager has a high concern for production and low concern for people. Such managers are autocratic. Staff are regarded as a tool for production, while motivation is based on competition between people in order to get work done. If staff challenges an instruction or standard procedure, they are likely to be viewed as being uncooperative.
- 3. The country club manager (1,9 rating):** the Manager here has low concern for production and high concern for people. This type of manager believes that a contented member of staff will undertake what is required of them and achieve a reasonable level of output. Production is secondary to the avoidance of conflict and maintenance of harmony among the staff is premium to the manager. Managers will seek to find compromises between staff and solutions acceptable to everyone. However, this management style tends not to lead to productivity for the organisation at the end of the day.

4. **The middle-of-the-road manager**, (5,5 rating); here the Manager has a moderate concern for production and moderate concern for people. This is a live-and-let-live approach and a tendency to avoid the real issues. This style of management is the "dampened pendulum" with managers swinging between concern for people and concern for production. Under pressure, the manager tends towards task management, where such strains relations and causes resentment from staff, he/she eases pressure by seeking compromise.
5. **The team manager** (9,9 rating). This is the ideal management style because here the Manager has a high concern for production and a high concern for people. The manager here integrates the tasks and needs of the people. Such managers believe in creating a situation whereby people can satisfy their own needs by commitment to the objectives of the organisation. Managers will discuss problems with the staff, seek their ideas and give them freedom of action. Difficulties in working relationships will be handled by confronting staff directly and attempting to work out solutions with them.
6. **Opportunistic management**, here organisational performance occurs according to a system of exchanges, whereby effort is given only for an equivalent measure of the same. People are bound to adapt to the situation to maximise the gains presented.
7. **Paternalistic/materialistic management**, here reward and approval are granted to people in return for loyalty and obedience; and punishment is threatened for failure to comply.

From their research, Blake and Mouton emphasise that managers may switch from one style to another or combine elements of different styles. However, they also found out that managers tend to have one dominant style of management that they use more often than any other. The dominant style of management is influenced in any particular situation by any of the four conditions:

- **Organisation** - the nature of the organisation in which the manager is employed and the extent to which there are rigid rules and regulations;
- **Values** - the personal values, beliefs and ideas that the manager holds concerning how to treat people or to manage results;
- **Personal background** - the deep-rooted personal history of the manager may be an important factor and may lead to a preference for a particular approach because that style may have been experienced frequently in the past;

- **Chance** - the manager may not have been confronted with or had personal experiences of alternative sets of assumptions about how to manage. "Chance" has not provided the manager the opportunity to learn.

The Need for Human Values in the Workplace

From the above perspectives, i.e. development of management thoughts, Macgregor's Theory X and Theory Y and Blake and Mouton's Managerial grid, it becomes evident that management's perception of workers and colleagues and of the organisation and its stakeholders is a function of the value system embraced by managers. This view is supported by the positions of Gustavsson (2005), Oticon (2006) and Schwartz (1994; 1996; 2005a; 2005b; 2006). The modern workplace is typified by stiff competition, economic considerations, survival instincts and diverse forms of manipulations. This situation creates bad blood, suspicion, greed, exploitation, high-handedness, arm-twisting and sharp practices between and among managers and their subordinates. In other words, without the human values of love, mutual respect, integrity, honesty, loyalty, commitment, friendship, compassion, egalitarianism, equal opportunity and fairness in place, inter alia, and managers' wrong perception of workers, managers will resort to underhand and unethical practices in a bid to outdo, outclass and out-profit their subordinates and even the organisation.

Human Values Management

The value of quality human resource is highly dependent upon the type of organisation employees work for. Management of values has to do with the creation of a dynamic environment where a variety of people can work together to achieve the same goals. Creating a workplace where employees are excited and driven to come to work each day, business and organisations have to take the time to expend resources in order to improve the quality of an employee's working life. This can only happen when companies realise that the value behind doing so results in increased productivity among all workers as well as an overall sense of job satisfaction among employees. Effective management of human value takes human resources and elevates it to a new level through superior training programmes and offers employees the chance to be engaged not only in work productivity, but their personal development as well. Because workers' development is so important to the company, there should be variety of training options presented to all employees. These include in-house training session, out-bound training programmes, and even programmes that allow for training abroad. It requires that once an employee concludes a training course, they should be certified and placed on a new task.

Companies that care about their employees and what they can do to benefit their business are the companies that truly value quality human resources. Organisations like these put a huge emphasis on the correlation between increased financial productivity and employees who enjoy what they do. It is employees who

are given positive incentives to come to work each day that benefit from a company greatly by performing to the best of their abilities. By conducting human resource activities that improve employee attitudes, companies can reap the benefits of a workforce that skilfully masters the business strategy as well as increased performances levels and higher market value.

A quality human resource is essential to hiring and maintaining effective and skilled employees. Most businesses agree that human resource activities are valuable to the success of a company and the efforts of its employees. If a business works to improve the attitudes of its respective employees, the company has obtained a distinct advantage over the competition that results in increased operating and market performance. Management should design a well-defined career path for employees to follow and reward positive attitudes and contributions employees make to the company. This type of incentive contributes to increase in good attitudes among employees and serves as proof that quality human resource activities are essential to a successful workforce.

No business can keep employees if those employees dread coming to work each day. This is where high quality human resources come to play; and it is so important to any organisation that desires to be successful. By keeping employees motivated and inspired, management facilitates positive workplace attitudes which in turn results in increased productivity for the company and its employees.

Expending human resources wisely is the key to maintaining a skilled and effective workplace regardless of the type of organisation. Research has indicated a strong connection between positive attitudes and the quality of the workplace. Creating an environment that employees can benefit from, as well as placing emphasis on their personal and professional growth, will result in dramatically increased market values and output for the company.

Management and Human Values in Nigeria

This topic will not be adequate unless "Management and Human Values in Nigeria" is addressed. To start with, there is no denying the fact that many Nigerian companies and organisations operating in Nigeria display human value system in their corporate and business strategy through their vision and mission statements, core values and execution of their organisational culture. For instance, in the Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS), which is a tax collection agency of government, the new philosophy of the body incorporates and displays human value-based management system that affects stakeholders within and outside the organisation. In fact, tax payers are now seen as customers by the Federal Inland Revenue Service and are treated as such. There are positive sides to management and human values in Nigerian organisations and some of them have been listed below.

Positive Aspects of Management and Human Values in Organisations in Nigeria

1. **Leadership style** The leadership style of many organisations in Nigeria is now Transactional (task-oriented) and Transformational in nature (change- and people-oriented). This therefore has moved leadership away from an autocratic point to a human-angled point.
2. **Open-door policies** Many organisations like the FIRS have adopted an open-door policy that allows workers to air their views, suggestions and even criticisms without the fear of reprisal.
3. **Welfare and reward packages** The welfare packages of many organisations in Nigeria have improved or are being improved on to provide living wages to workers. Besides these, there are numerous rewards given to workers today in many organisations such as profit-sharing, bonus shares, productivity/performance bonuses inter alia.
4. **Corporatism** Many organisations in Nigeria like banks have been removed from the dominance and control of a family or individuals to allow for the spirit of corporatism to flourish in the workplace today. This is part of the humanisation of the workplace going on in Nigeria.
5. **Customer-oriented businesses** Like alluded to, organisations in Nigeria are now rediscovering the place and importance of customers and according them the respect and privileges they deserve.
6. **Equal opportunity organisations** Today also, equal opportunity in recruitment and selection, reward and promotion is now being carried out in many workplaces.
7. **People-driven operations** Many organisations like the FIRS now embark on frequent training and development of staff, talent management, succession planning and carving their organisations as learning organisations with improved people processes and structures.
8. **Workplace ergonomics** Like the FIRS, the workplace today in Nigeria is increasingly conforming to global best practices of improved and attractive workplaces. Ergonomics is now the name of the game, as even public universities and organisations are beginning to wear a new look and imbibe world-class management and infrastructure in carrying out their work.

9. **Socially responsible institutions** Many organisations in Nigeria today are also becoming socially responsible in their business dealings, operations and even management style. This also is in line with a support for the society and the environment.
10. **Ethical and corporate governance** With the fall of some global giants like Cadbury, Enron, Siemens and Halliburton, in which they were incriminated in bribery and corruption scandals, many organisations are beginning to run ethical and effective corporate governance.
11. **Motivating people to pursue new challenges and innovate** With stiff competition in place, and the need for organisations to survive, many of them are now forced to motivate their people to innovate and to be creative in their approaches to work.
12. **Encourage people to contribute to society** This is another angle to it. Many organisations in Nigeria now raise funds for the sick, the elderly, HIV-Aids patients and some noble social causes. Business success is no longer measured in economic terms but in the level of impact an organisation has on society.
13. **Support career development** Many organisations in Nigeria, whether private or public, have always invested in their workers' career development and this is yielding great dividends for such organisations.

Although, there are positive examples of management and human values in Nigeria, there also exist numerous factors militating against an entrenchment of human values in the workplace in Nigeria today.

Factors Militating against a Successful Implementation of Human Values in Organisations in Nigeria Today

1. **Corporate corruption (moral collapse)** The examples of moral collapse as evidenced by the scandals in the Banking sector in Nigeria involving 5 bank chiefs; the bribery scandals of Halliburton officials and some Nigerians, Siemens and some Nigerians and Enron, show that corruption and lack of moral values can impede the successful implementation of human values by management in Nigeria.
2. **Unethical management practices – greed, theft, misappropriation** Through greed, management engages in theft, misappropriation of company

funds and other sharp practices which are not in the interest of workers or the stakeholders in the organisation.

3. **Favouritism and nepotism** Some organisations, especially public institutions still engage in nepotism and favouritism in the distribution of entitlements and privileges.
4. **Tribalism.** This is another factor inhibiting the embedding of human values in organisations in Nigeria.
5. **Gender bias** When being female means being short-changed, disadvantaged and inferior, this will not promote human values in the workplace.
6. **Management-labour crises such as strikes and lockouts** Organisational conflicts, when not controlled can affect successful implementation of human values in the workplace and are an indication that these values have either been eroded or broken down.
7. **Existence of autocratic/inflexible leadership style** This will not accommodate or promote human values in the workplace.
8. **Ascribed corporate practices** When corporate practices, rights and privileges are not based on merit but are ascribed, this short-changes genuine efforts to incorporate human values in the workplace. Other factors are:
9. Politicisation of recruitment, promotion and distribution of privileges.
10. Inept management.

Conclusion

The realm of management began with starchy devotion to the scientific approach where workers were seen as a means and not the end in the production process. Workers were treated as mechanistic items and economic articles that were to aid the realisation of organisational goals while just being paid for work done. This era gave way to the human relations and behavioural schools which respected workers, emphasised the need to motivate them and sought to create an attractive work environment that aimed to achieve a marriage of organisational development with workers' development. In today's scenario, the focus has consistently shifted towards value-based models of growth in the workplace. The era of Machiavellian treatment of workers which resulted in chaos and fiasco seems to be over, even if

not rapidly but gradually. In keeping with the signals from a shrinking globe and its increasing youth population, the time has come to reengineer and apply change management in management principle and practice. Recent concerns about green practices and corporate social responsibility reveal the subtle shift towards a value-based paradigm. The era of science has led to an era of human resource and today, both are in synergy, working towards New Age concerns like ethical issues and human values. Today's organisation requires a new corporate model based on ethical practices and human values and organisations in Nigeria must increasingly submit their business processes and operations to align with these global best practices. Business no more needs to be calculated in profit and economic terms alone but in how much impact an organisation is able to make within and outside its circle of influence especially as regards meeting the diverse interests of its stakeholders.

Modern managers must embrace human values in the discharge of their duties. They should listen and respond well to change. They should know how to motivate people by giving them positive feedback and rewards if appropriate. Through appreciation of their employees' performance, the manager will earn respect in return. A good manager knows how to gain trust and have a good sense of humour. This will break the ice and is an easy way of carrying workers and everyone along. To be able to discharge their responsibilities within a value-based organisation, it is important to reiterate that managers must:

- Be trained in human development and management.
- Start the change process from an individual level.
- Embrace Theory Y model of people and business management.
- Act on improving the relations in the workplace.
- Punish/resist any form of violence by management.
- Encourage creativity and idea generation between and among all staff.
- Run an open-door policy.
- Have a merit-driven business process in place.
- Foster motivation of workers in the workplace.
- Put in place swift, thorough and non-vindictive conflict management practices.
- Make whatever human values they have embraced part of their core values as an organisation.

It is hoped that this article will serve as further impetus to more robust discussion of management and human values in modern organisations today as regards sustainability, eco-friendly business operations, family-friendly workplaces and corporate governance.

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