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INEC and the Administration of Elections in Osun State, Nigeria (2015-2019)

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Abstract

This study examined the administration of elections in Osun State, Nigeria. Specifically, it evaluated the adequacy of INEC preparation for the conduct of 2015 and 2019 General Elections in Osun State; assessed its performance during the period; and analysed the challenges that confronted the commission in the study area. The study adopted a survey design and utilized both primary and secondary data. Questionnaires were administered on carefully selected stakeholders to obtain primary data used for the study. A Multi-stage sampling technique was adopted for the selection of the various stakeholders. At the first stage, one Local Government Area (LGA) was randomly selected from each senatorial district of Osun State, making three LGAs in the State. At the second stage, executive members of the two major political parties APC and PDP in the State, traditional chiefs, executive members of civil society organizations (CSOs) and executive members of community development associations from the three selected LGAs totalling 588 forms the study population. A sample size of 176 respondents was purposively selected for questionnaire administration. The data were analysed with simple percentage and mean values with the aid of SPSS. The study found that the preparations of INEC for the Conduct of 2015 and 2019 General Elections in Osun State were adequate (87%); and that the performance of INEC was generally effective and resourceful (2 = 3.7, $p < 0.05$) during the study period. Additionally, it was established that monetary inducement of voters (= 3.95) complemented with high level of poverty and illiteracy of the majority of electorate in the state (= 3.86) were the main challenges that faced the commission. The study concluded that the elections were well administered by INEC during the study period but the performance of INEC was majorly hindered by the excessive monetization of politics and high level of illiteracy among the people of the state.

Keywords: Election, Administration, Democracy, Governance, Politics

Introduction

In a democratic system, the role of the people is to form the government and elections have become the most acceptable process of changing leadership in any given civil political system. Failure to conduct a successful, free, fair, transparent, credible and acceptable election in a polity often generates outcomes that stunt the growth of democracy, on the one hand, and the development of the nation on the other (Heywood, 2002; Sule, Azizuddin & Mat, 2018). The key to an enduring and sustainable democracy is public participation that involves all eligible voters (Sule, 2019). Conversely, the most potent key to public participation itself is a free, fair, credible and transparent election.

Since the emergence of modern states and the major advancement made in terms of the popular will as one of the sources of sovereignty, election has offered a way through which the people exercise their right to determine who rule or conduct the affairs of the state on their behalf. Closely related to this is the fact that election confers legitimacy on those elected, because such type of political recruitment reflects the wishes and aspirations of the people. Apart from enabling the people to make their choice which is an essential ingredient of democracy, election also promotes probity and accountability, in the sense that the fear of defeat at the next poll exerts pressure on those in power to conduct themselves in a responsible manner and to take account to popular interests and wishes in their decisions (Oyediran, 2013).

The state of Osun was officially created in August 27, 1991following the breaking of the old Oyo state by the Military government of General Babangida.

The political process of institutionalizing democracy and electoral process immediately began and Isiaka Adeleke became the first civilian governor in January 1992 until November 1993, when the then military government of Babangida through the June 12, 1993 dissolved the government, Presidential election annulment. In 1999, Nigeria was return to another democratic era, and Osun State by Governor Adebisi Akande (1999-2003), Olagunsoye Oyinlola (2003-2010), Rauf Aregbesola (2010-2018) and the incumbent, Adegboyega Oyetola whose first term ends in 2022. However, within these periods, elections of2014/2015 and the following consequential elections attracted more concern in the state because the effort of the two major political parties in the state, APC and PDP was more than the previous ones in an attempt to reclaim the state by PDP and retain the power by APC. The administration of elections during these periods by the electoral umpire was therefore worth an academic study.

Despite all the preparations that preceded the general elections in Osun State, the

results that emanated from those elections have been a subject of litigations that have been decided different courts of law. Particularly, the elections of 2015 and 2018 have been a subject of concern, and have generated several opinions among the stakeholders. This study thus, builds on Olayode (2015), Olasile and Adebayo (2016), and Lawal's (2017) comparative study of the spatial structure of voting patterns and distribution of election results in the 2011 and 2015 presidential elections to develop a better analysis of the conduct of election in Osun State between 2015 and 2019 by the electoral umpire.

Statement of the Problem

Conducting free, fair and credible elections in an emerging democracy such as Nigeria has been viewed as a challenging process that demand functional input from democratic institutions such as the political parties, the electoral body, the electorates as well as the political entities whose activities are geared towards controlling the machinery of government (Omodia, 2011). Election is expected to serve major purposes according to Obianyo and Emesibe(2015); to give the electorate the liberty of choosing their most preferred people to represent them in government; and give the candidate the chance of canvassing for votes of the electorate in a well-administered electoral process. Elections in African countries, Nigeria inclusive, have however, been contentious and often controversial. The elections, especially, in Nigeria, have been characterized with violence, and irregularities, which have continued to mar the fairness of the process, and making the results of elections a subject of litigations.

Studies such as Saliu (2004), Agbaje and Adejumobi (2006), Ajayi, (2007), and Hassan and Musa (2014) have shown that the nature of the electoral system in practice in Nigeria ultimately determines the extent to which people participate in the Nigeria politics and the extent to which the wish of the people manifests in the governance (Sule 2019).

INEC over the years has made several reforms to strengthen the process, among which were the, operational and logistics overhauling, election project plan (EPP) and Business process review (BRP). The extent to which these reforms influence the performance of INEC in the conduct and management of election in Osun State since 2015 has not been well explored; hence this study.

Literature Review

Election

The conceptualization of the term 'election' has attracted views of scholars in social sciences and related fields. It is so, because, its conceptualization could determine its application in different fields such as politics, economy, and

philosophy. Simply put, it denotes the process of selecting and installing people in a position through the willful expression of other people (Aly, Chris & Onubogu, 2018). Politically, Ojo (2008) sees it as the process of filling or installing a democratic government through voting by the electorates. That is, election is a formal arrangement of constituting a democratic government through the willful expression of the people in selecting who will govern them for a particular period.

The concept of 'election administration' however, remains imprecise possibly because of the various inherent activities that constitute the term. Jinadu (1997) opines that election administration implies management of election to select various people into elective positions by competent and an impartial electoral body. This submission entails both the structure and process of conducting elections. The structure implies the established bureaucrats, which is saddled with the responsibility of organizing elections, which in this case, is the INEC, and institution like the security officers, civil society organizations whose support are inevitable to the successful conduct of elections. The rule and procedures that are set up by the electoral umpire for guiding the conduct of the elections constitute the process, as explained by Jinadu (1997).

In a related submission, Ajayi (2007) indicates that election administration entails the management and proper arrangement of all actions, stages, levels, and procedures that constitute electoral process. That is, the planning, organizing, coordinating and rules formulation and implementation which facilitate the conduct of elections. The stages of electoral process were grouped into three, according to Ajayi (2007), and electoral process by INEC (2018). These stages include the pre-election state that entails the various preparatory process such as creation of consistencies, political party registration, screening, verification and publishing of eligible voters etc. the second stage incorporate election activities such as voting, sorting and counting of votes, declaration of winners, pasting or publishing of results etc. The third stage is the post-election stage, which involves attending to and resolving litigations that arise from elections. However, this description of election administration is limited in scope because it fails to consider other aspect of election process such as electoral policies and act implementation. The definition, however offers the insight into the process of election and this is well evaluated in this study. In a more comprehensive submission, Elklit and Reynolds (2000) subdivide election administration into twelve basic steps as in table 1, and represents the framework employed for analyzing the administration of elections in Osun State between 2015 and 2019 by the electoral umpire.

Table 1: Framework for Systematic Evaluation of Electoral Process and Administration

	Steps in electoral process	Important elements in the step	Outputs of process	Indicators of performance	Elements to look at to gauge effectiveness/success of step
1	Legal framework	▪ Constitutional/legal basis ▪ Rules and regulations ▪ Seat allocation system	Written rules in constitution, statutory law, and regulatory law	▪ Elections held and on time ▪ Wasted votes ▪ LSQ Ids ▪ ENEP/ENPP	▪ Is legislation easily available and understandable? ▪ Perceived legitimacy of electoral system?
2	Elections management	▪ EC appointment and independence, including terms of tenure ▪ Commission/administration relationship ▪ Allocation of resources	Functioning EC	▪ EC activities ▪ Consumption of resources	▪ Perceived legitimacy/acceptance of EC by parties & voters ▪ Adequacy of resources allocated ▪ Accessibility/transparency
3	Constituency and polling district demarcation	· Relevant body identified and active · Principles for delimitation identified · Rules about automatic periodical revision · Adequate resources available · Rules for handling complaints in place	Identifiable constituencies (in accordance with the electoral system chosen) and registration	▪ Accessibility of information about constituencies and lower level districts ▪ Mal-apportionment ▪ Compactness ▪ Geographical sensitivity ▪ Community of interest	▪ Are the boundaries accepted? ▪ Are they temporally sensitive?
4	Voter education	▪ Timing ▪ Quality ▪ Outreach ▪ Adequate resources available ▪ Relationship between EC efforts and efforts by parties and NGOs	▪ Voter education sessions conducted ▪ % voters exposed to voter education (related to literacy rates and previous voting experience)	▪ % of ballot spoilt or invalid ▪ Resources per capital spent (related to literacy rates and previous voting experience)	▪ Scope/extent/penetration into marginalized communities ▪ Adequacy of resources allocated ▪ Are voter education efforts by various groups complementary or overlapping?
5	Voter registration	▪ Automatic or voluntary registration ▪ Appointment and training of registration personnel ▪ Adequate time for registration and access to registration stations ▪ Rules for public scrutiny of voter's register ▪ Complaint procedures	▪ Registered voters ▪ Co-ordination of voter register with polling districts	▪ Registration/VAP ▪ Patterns of registration/ VAP across regions, ethnicity, gender, age etc. ▪ % of complaint filed and processed prior to issuance of final voters' register	▪ Level of registration ▪ Equality of registration across the country ▪ Complaints procedures
	Access to, and design of the ballot: nomination and registration of parties and candidates	▪ Registration of parties/candidates ▪ Rules about independent candidates ▪ Mechanisms for ballot paper access ▪ Ballot paper design	▪ Parties and candidates registered and nominated for participation in the election	▪ % of parties registered of those who in good faith sought registration ▪ % of candidates nominated of those who in good faith sought nomination ▪ Disputes over ballot paper design/spoilt ballots	▪ Is access to the ballot inclusive of the diversity of political opinions? ▪ Were parties and candidates rejected for no obvious, legal reason? ▪ Acceptance of ballot paper design?
	Campaign regulation	▪ Spending rules ▪ Public funding of party expenditures/ campaign costs ▪ Access to public media ▪ Rules for meetings/rallies ▪ Codes of conduct ▪ Rules for handling of violations of code of conduct and campaign regulations	Political parties and candidates having media access to the electorate	▪ Air time allocated to and used by the political parties and the independent candidates ▪ # of substantiated complaints about violations of campaign regulations, spending rules etc.	▪ Acceptable distribution of public campaign funding, if any? ▪ Do funding laws facilitate a level playing field? ▪ Reasonable equal access to public media?
	Polling	▪ Plan for distribution and location of polling places ▪ Appointment and training of polling station personnel ▪ Procurement of polling material ▪ Polling observation by representatives	Unhindered and reasonable access to voting for all voters	▪ Turnout as vote/registration ▪ Turnout as vote/VAP ▪ % of polling stations operating ▪ % of polling stations that lack integrity ▪ % of constituencies (wards/polling	▪ Are polling places in place? ▪ Do they function in accordance with their expected role? ▪ Do they function adequately? ▪ Are polling station personnel able to fulfil their role?

Source: Elklit and Reynolds (2000).

Empirical Review

Ebirim (2013) assessed the performance of Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) in the 2011 gubernatorial election in South Eastern Nigeria. He found that the 2011 gubernatorial elections conducted in South Eastern Nigeria were neither perfect nor faultless; thereby revealed persistent challenges,

Footnote: Least Square Index (LSQ Ids): This measurees an electoral system relative disroportionality between votes received and seat alloted in a legisature. It measures the difference between the percentage of votes eact party etc. and the percentage of seats each party gets in the resulting legislature; ENPP: Effective Number of Parliamentary Parties; ENEP: Effective Number of Electoral Parties (Parliamentary Affairs); EC: Election Commission; Electoral Cycle; Voter turnout as the percentage of registered voters that actually turn out (RV turnout) and (2) voter turnout as the percentage of a country's voting agepopulation that cast their ballot on Election Day (VAP turnout); VEP: Voters Eligibility Percentage or percentage of eligible voters or VEP turnout.

which include logistical and operational problems, and election-related violence. However, his has only focused on 2011 gubernatorial elections and was limited to the gubernatorial elections in the southwestern Nigeria, with no consideration for other regions in the country, making his study not only limited in periodical scope but also in the coverage and this creates the gap for further study.

Other studies such as Okoye, (2011), Biu, (2010), and Atkeson and Saunders (2007) establish that election outcome is a function of the confidence reposed in the election umpire. In a similar development, Barrientos del Monte (2008:17) reported that the confidence placed on the electoral management board to a large extent determine the reliability of the outcome of such elections. That is, an increase in confidence that the electoral umpire will remain unbiased and fair in its dealings constitute the yardstick for measuring the reliability and acceptance of the outcome of an election (Atkeson & Saunders 2007).

Studies have equally documented factors other than election administration institutions which have also been found to be important predictors of voters' confidence in election and the quality of election administration, such factors include knowledge of problematic election processes outside one's own voting experience (Alvarez, Hall, & Llewellyn 2008), type of voting technology used, mode of voting and support for the winner (Alvarez, Hall, & Llewellyn 2008; Atkeson & Saunders 2007). A number of demographic and socio-economic characteristics have also been found to be related to voter confidence (Atkeson & Saunders 2007).

It is however, unclear whether the factors highlighted above affect individual level of opinions concerning the success of election administration. These studies provided some evidence that election administration and confidence in institutions matter, while others fail to look at multiple aspects of election administration using aggregate and individual level data. This study advances the study of election administration as it relates to individual state of a federation. Arising from the various studies reviewed above, it could be observed that the majority of the studies were only focusing on specific aspect e.g. voters' confidence, while others factors influencing election administration have been neglected. In addition, majority of available studies assessed the election administration at the aggregate level without considering the individual state units that make up the federation. In the same vein, most of the previous studies have only addressed the issue of challenges of INEC in Nigeria historically, while empirical investigation into the issues has been lacking in literature ;hence, this study.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical matrix, which underscores this study, is the theory of electoral governance. Shaheen and Mozaffar (2002) and Andreas Schedler (2002) developed electoral governance theory. According to Mozaffar and Schedler, electoral governance seeks to explain the set of procedures, engagement and activities that define the broad institutional framework for election administration and any instance that defines voting process as well as electoral rivalry. It is an important element of ensuring credibility and acceptability of election outcome since the various parties that constitute the key stakeholders in election process are incorporated into the design, and implementation of electoral process. Electoral governance entails the design of institutions, which explains the rudimentary framework of democratic election. It is constituted by not only the rules of electoral management but also with electoral competition, which is a product of democratic principles.

Electoral governance, thus involves the mediating and settling of disputes arising out of the process and the results of voting and electoral competition. Settling disputes over election results is a vital function of electoral governance. Rule adjudication prominently involves the arbitration of disputes that arise from ambiguities in complex election rules and operational problems in their implementation (Mozaffer, & Schedler, 2002). This theory is significant because it helps to classify the different aspects and roles in the administration of elections, which helps to explain the research problem.

Methodology

The study adopted a survey research design. The reason for adopting this design is that it focuses on vital facts about people for which only primary data is possible. The study is marked by prior formulation of research questions. The study utilized both primary and secondary data. The main instrument for data collection was questionnaires administered on carefully selected key stakeholders in election administration in Osun State. As revealed by the pilot study conducted in the three selected LGAs, the study population of 588 comprised executive members of the political parties in the State, traditional chiefs, executive members of community development associations and civil society organizations, and members of semi-formal organizations of the three selected LGAs in the State.

A multi stage sampling technique was used for the study. At the first stage, three LGAs were purposively selected which were Ede North, Ilesha East and Olorunda Osogbo.This is because the selected local governments are the strongholds of the major players in the Gubernatorial election and there is the

likelihood that the results from these local governments can decide the fate of the winner. In addition, at the second stage, political parties, traditional chiefs, executive members of civil society organizations (CSOs) and executive members of community development associations were purposively targeted in each of the three selected Local Government Areas. At the third stage, a sample of 176 representing 30% (Kothari, 2014) of the population was selected for questionnaire administration. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were adopted for analysing the data for this study. The descriptive statistics adopted include frequency distributions, simple percentages, mean values and charts. Also, content analysis of various document, Independent National Electoral Commission publications, political parties' publications and submission of scholars on the subject matter was equally conducted so as to get a robust analysis and validate the findings of the study. One hundred and seventy six (176) copies of questionnaire were administered out of which one hundred and fifty-two (152) copies of questionnaire were retrieved from the field, thus representing 86% of the total questionnaires that were administered. The data were analysed with simple percentage and mean values with the aid of SPSS

Findings and Discussion

Assessment of the adequacy of preparations of INEC before the Conduct of 2015 to 2019 General Elections in Osun State.

This section shows the assessment of the adequacy of preparations for election before the conduct of previous elections in Osun State between 2015 and 2019. The major areas of preparation process considered for assessment in this study include the general State of preparedness for the General Election; Election Day Processes; General Issues; and Campaign regulation. These areas are considered vital for the success of electioneering in any democratic period. The respondents' views were measured using the level of effectiveness of the process in addressing the success of election administration in the state.

Table 2a: Assessment of the adequacy of preparations of INEC before the Conduct of 2015 to 2019 General Elections in Osun State

	Preparation process	Aspect of evaluation	Very Effective	Effective	Ineffective	Very Ineffective	Not Performed
1	General State of preparedness for the General Election	Condition of Electoral materials: ballot boxes, Cubicles etc.	50(32.9)	30(19.7)	37(24.3)	25(16.4)	10(6.6)
		Condition of Storage facilities and Related Activities	60(39.5)	33(21.7)	34(22.4)	10(6.6)	15(9.9)
		Condition of Collation Centres, RACs and Pus (Location, Accessibility, Security etc.).	70(46.1)	60(39.5)	12(7.9)	5(3.3)	5(3.3)
		Condition of ICT Facilities: Hardware and Related (DDCM, SCR).	67(44.1)	50(32.9)	15(9.9)	10(6.6)	10(6.6)
2	Election Day Processes	Accreditation, Voting, Sorting, Collation and Declaration	82(53.9)	55(36.2)	7(4.6)	5(3.3)	3(2.0)
		Polling observation by representative of political parties and candidates as well as by local and international observations	45(29.6)	74(48.7)	17(11.2)	11(7.2)	5(3.3)
		Conduct of behaviour of Party Agents and Election Observers.	68(44.7)	40(26.3)	12(7.9)	12(7.9)	20(13.2)
		Conduct and Behaviour of Election Ad-Hoc Staff.	84(55.3)	48(31.6)	7(4.6)	5(3.3)	8(5.3)
		Conduct and Behaviour of Collation and Returning Officers	50(32.9)	40(26.3)	32(21.1)	28(18.4)	2(1.3)
		Counting procedures established (including whether to count at polling station level or at counting centers)	72(47.4)	46(30.3)	14(9.2)	8(5.3)	12(7.9)

Source: Field Survey, 2019.

As shown in Table 2a, based on the general State of preparedness for the general election respondents, 50 representing about 30% of the sampled respondents affirmed that adequacy and proper condition of electoral materials: ballot boxes, cubicles as being very effective for the elections and about 20% of the respondents only considered the condition effective. Summing up these responses, it shows that, more than 50% of the respondents agreed to the effectiveness of the condition of electoral materials during the study period. However, the remaining respondents, viewed this condition otherwise; about 24% of the respondents viewed the condition of electoral materials ineffective and 16% of them viewed it very ineffective implying that 40% of the respondents

were of the opinion that the condition was ineffective prior to the elections during the study period, while only 10 respondents indicated that the materials were not even available for the election during the period. This therefore shows that opinions were diverse about the condition of electoral materials prior to the elections.

The condition of storage facilities and related activities of the commission was equally considered as part of the general state of preparedness of the commission for the general elections during the study period. This is equally considered a necessary aspect of electioneering, because, without adequate safety of the electoral materials, the outcome and reliability of the election process will be marred.

For the acceptability of the election result, the condition of collation centres, RACs and Pus (Location, Accessibility, and Security etc.) needs to be properly managed and adequately provided for. As contained in the Table, almost all the sampled respondents, 86% of them, affirmed that the condition of collation centres was adequately catered for and effective in guaranteeing dependable and acceptable election results. In the same vein, 77% of the respondents indicated that the condition of ICT Facilities: Hardware and Related (DDCM, SCR) was adequate and effective as the state of preparedness prior to the election process. This therefore implies that the general state of preparedness for the general election was adequate and effective and could guarantee effective conduct of election and produce acceptable election results during the study period.

After assessing the state of general preparedness of election commission prior to the conduct of election in the previous years, the next issue for assessment is the actual conduct of the election by the election umpire as well as the other election stakeholders. As revealed in literature, a well-administered election requires the synergy and cooperation of all the stakeholders, with each stakeholder assuming its responsibilities as expected. The conduct of election involves the proper deployment of officers by the commission and security agents, accreditation of voters, sorting, collation and declarations, conduct of observers (foreign and local) as well as the conduct of party agents etc.

Table 2b: Assessment of the adequacy of preparations of INEC before the Conduct of 2015 to 2019 General Elections in Osun State

	Preparation process	Aspect of evaluation	Very Effective	Effective	Ineffective	Very Ineffective	Not Performed
3	General Issues	Clear rules for assistance to incapacitated voters	69(45.4)	50(32.9)	23(15.1)	6(3.9)	4(2.6)
		Administrative Processes in the management of the General Election	68(44.7)	56(36.8)	23(15.1)	4(2.6)	1(0.7)
		Communication: Hqts- States, States-LGAs.	75(49.3)	45(29.6)	12(7.9)	5(3.3)	15(9.9)
		Decision making: Promptness, Clarity	59(38.8)	41(27.0)	35(23.0)	11(7.2)	6(3.9)
		Implementation: Monitoring & Supervision	90(59.2)	35(23.0)	9(5.9)	12(7.9)	6(3.9)
		Registration of parties/ candidates	100(65.8)	20(13.2)	15(9.9)	7(4.6)	10(6.6)
		Mechanism for ballot paper access	95(62.5)	25(16.4)	22(14.5)	6(3.9)	4(2.6)
		Access to and design of the ballot, nomination and registration of parties and candidates	30(19.7)	40(26.3)	62(40.8)	10(6.6)	10(6.6)
		Ballot paper design, distribution and logistics	90(59.2)	30(19.7)	14(9.2)	10(6.6)	8(5.3)
4	Campaign regulation	Public funding of party expenditure/ campaign costs rule	30(19.7)	20(13.2)	70(46.1)	27(17.8)	5(3.3)
		Equal access to public media	28(18.4)	40(26.3)	45(29.6)	24(15.8)	15(9.9)
		Rules for meetings and rallies	30(19.7)	20(13.2)	70(46.1)	27(17.8)	5(3.3)
		Rules for handling of violations of codes of conduct and campaign regulations	40(26.3)	30(19.7)	50(32.9)	17(11.2)	15(9.9)

Source: Field Survey, 2019

In Table 2b., more than 50% of the sampled respondents indicated that the accreditation and voting process were very effective, while 36% of them considered the process effective. On the other hand, only 8% of the respondents indicated that the process was ineffective and just 3 respondents disclosed that the process did not take place in their environment. In all, it shows that about 90% of the respondents affirmed that the accreditation and voting process was effective in Osun State during the elections between 2015 and 2019 and that is a good ground to establish that the process was effective, adequate and capable of guaranteeing dependable results.

Next is the collation and counting procedures adopted during the election. As

contained in the table, 47% of the respondents considered this process very effective while 30% of them considered it effective, implying that 118 respondents representing 77% of the respondents affirmed that process of collation, sorting and counting was effective. On the contrary, just about 14% of them indicated that the process was ineffective while 12 respondents indicated that the process did not occur in their respective domain. This is a good indication that the process of collating, sorting and counting of votes was effective during the study period.

The conduct of stakeholders was equally paramount to the success of any election process. As indicated in Table 2b, the conduct and behaviour of election ad-hoc staff during the study period was equally evaluated and it showed that almost all the sampled respondent 86.9% were of the opinion that their conducts were effective and could guarantee fair election process while only 5% of the respondent indicated contrary to this view. It is therefore established that the ad-hoc staff deployed for the election process within the study period were effective, efficient and reliable to facilitate acceptable election result. In a similar situation, the conduct and behaviour of collation and returning officers were equally assessed. The result showed that 90 respondents representing 59% of the total respondent indicated that their behaviour was effective. On the contrary, 60 respondents representing 40% of the sampled respondent had a contrary opinion and declared that the conduct of the collation and returning officer was not effective. Combining this results it could be established that, although the majority viewed their behaviour as effective, the fact that substantial number of respondent opposed this view showed that the conduct was not dependable and reliable to have generated fairest and acceptable election result.

The conduct and behaviour of party agents and election observers was equally assessed. In this case, 108 respondents indicating 70% of the sampled respondent affirmed that their conducts were either very effective or effective and as such could guarantee smooth conduct of election within the study period while only 24 respondents that is equivalent to 15% of the sampled respondents had contrary view to this. It is therefore showed that the party agents and election observer conducted themselves very orderly which could facilitate peaceful conducts of elections within the study period, However, 20 respondents indicated that both the party agents and election observer where not even available during the election process. This could suggest that not all the units had the presence of either party agents or election observers and this could have caused possible threat or danger to the acceptability of the election results from those polling units and a ground to challenge the results in the court of law.

Campaign Regulation

Campaign regulation is a very vital aspect of the process, which if not well managed, could create danger to election process and administration. As indicated in Table 2b, among the campaign regulations assessed include funding of party, equal asses to media, rules for meetings and rally. As revealed by the respondents, the funding of party expenditures was considered to have met the commission's regulation as revealed by 50 respondents representing 32% of the total respondents. On the contrary, the majority of the respondents, 64% of them indicated that the regulation of the party expenditure was not effective while only 3% indicated that the regulation was not even in existences. This therefore showed that the regulation of party expenditure and campaign cost was not so effective during the study period. This has a great implication on the peaceful conduct of elections as lack of adherence to elections guidelines could result to violent and a threat to the acceptability of election results.

The equal asses to public media is a paramount principle that gives unrestricted freedom to the parties to show case their manifesto to the people. As indicated in table 2b, 18% of the respondents affirmed that this regulation of equal asses to public media by all the Parties was very effective, 26% indicated that the regulation is effective while the majority indicating about 50% of the respondents indicated that this regulation of equal asses to public media was not effective and about 10% of the respondent were not even aware of the existence of this regulation. This therefore implies that the political parties did not adhere to the rule of equal asses to public media. In addition, this could have led to favouritism and lack of awareness about the party manifestos by many of the electorate that participated in the elections.

In the same vein, rules for meetings and rallies was considered effective by about 32% of the sampled respondents while the majority of the respondents indicated that the rules for rally and meetings were not effective, which imply possible violation of the rules by political parties. This could have led to threat to security of people prior to election and could have given undue advantage to the financially buoyant party regardless of the manifestoes of other parties.

In summary, the findings of the campaign regulations showed that the political parties did not effectively follow the rules of the game during the general elections between 2015 and 2019 in the study area.

Pre-election Assessment

As part of the election process, the electoral umpire was supposed to employ, train and deploy adequate and resourceful personnel for the election. On the appointment and training of personnel, almost all the sampled respondent, 82% of them affirmed that the commission effectively appointed and trained the

required number of personnel for the elections during the study period. This therefore implies that shortage of personnel or uninformed staff was not part of the threat to the elections during the study period. In the same vein, it was unanimously agreed by the majority of the respondents about 75%, that the procurement of polling materials and deployment of it to the polling units were effective during the study period. In addition, this finding is similar to the respondents view on the availability of counting results materials and its process was very effective.

Voter registration is another area of concerned that could give potential threats to the acceptability of election results. In this regard, 122 respondents representing 80% of the sampled respondents indicated that timing for registrations and assess to registration stations by the voters was very effective during the study period while only 13% of the respondents added contrary view to this. It therefore showed that there are adequate time for registration and assess to registration situations was equally ensured. In the same vein, rules for public scrutiny of voters' register were equally assessed. It was revealed that about 32% of the sampled respondent consider the rules effective while more than 50% of the respondents considered the rule ineffective and about 10% of them were not even aware of the existence if the it. This therefore showed that the rule for public scrutiny of voters register were not so effective or were not even made available or were not even provided during the study period. Also, complaint procedure for challenging election result was considered well effective during the study period by almost all the sampled respondents which implies that the procedure were made well known by the people, easy to understand and adopt, and effective to guarantee acceptable election results.

Post-Election Process

In electioneering process, there are pre-election process, election process and post-election process as revealed in table 2b Provisions for special electoral court were considered effective by almost all respondents (83%), time limit for handling election dispute and complaint was equally considered effective by 83% of the respondents and verification of the final results as well as the certification of the election were considered well effective by about 87% of the respondents. In the same vein, provision for publication of election result at all level of electoral administration was equally considered well effective by 85% of the sampled respondents. This therefore showed that the postelection rules and regulations were considered well effective to have given enough opportunities for all the stakeholders to accept or challenge the election results during the study period and this is a good ground for a resourceful democratic process in any country.

General Election Issues and Processes

Among the general election process, is the process for the management of general elections by the electoral umpire. This include the prompt decision-making, clarity of rules and communication of decisions. The majority of the respondents (75%) indicated that the administrative processes adopted in the management of the election during the study period were well designed, utilized and resourceful to engender acceptable and dependable election results.

Generally, both the pre-election process and the actual conduct of elections were considered effective, resourceful and acceptable by the majority of the sampled respondents while only the campaign regulations were considered to have been ineffective and not resourceful, i.e. the campaign rules were not so adhered to by the political parties during the study period.

Evaluation of the Performance of INEC during the General Elections between 2015 and 2019

In evaluating the performance of INEC during the study period, this study utilizes 4 rating scales which are strongly agree, agreed, disagree and strongly disagree ratings. This was of the views of providing an in-depth analysis if the performance of the electoral umpire.

In making decision on this performance, this study utilized weighted average means of the responses with 2 as the average mean and as such any value more than 2 implies acceptability of the assertion while values less than 2 indicates rejection or non-acceptability of the assertion. On the performance of INEC regarding voters' education and tutoring, the majority of the respondents 68% strongly affirmed that the commission did well in this regard and 20% of them agreed to this assertions that implies that about 88% of the respondents affirmed that INEC did well concerning voter education during the study period. This assertion is well accepted using the main value of 3.8 that is far above the threshold of 2. In the same vein, the performance of INEC on voter registration and voter list display was equally affirmed as been high by the majority of the respondent. i.e. about 90% of the respondent agreed to the assertions that the voters registration and voter list display were well conducted by INEC during the study period. This assertion was equally acceptable based on the main value of 3.82.

In addition, the performance of INEC on the proper arrangement of the polling unit for easy conduct of election was equally evaluated. It was unanimously agreed that this performance was well appreciated. This is based on the 91% respondents who agree to this assertion with a mean value of 3.9. In the same vein, it was equally unanimously agreed by the majority of the respondent that

satisfactory performance of INEC on the adequate and timely deployment of relevant materials (2 = 3.7); adequate and timely deployment of relevant materials (2 = 3.62); adequate utilization of card readers and other e-voting materials (2 = 3.83); proper conduct of security officers (2 = 3.52); and proper and timely display of results (2 = 3.24). On the general average, summing up the results, it is found that the performance of INEC during the study period was satisfactorily high with the weighted mean of 3.65. This therefore, implies that INEC conducted the election well enough to have guaranteed acceptable results and fairest process during the study period.

Table 3: Evaluation of the Performance of INEC during the General Elections between 2015 and 2019

		Very Effective	Effective	Ineffective	Very Ineffective	Not Performed
Voter registration	Voluntary registration	90(59.2)	39(26.0)	12(7.9)	8(5.3)	2(1.3)
	Appointment and training of registration personnel	85(55.9)	50(32.9)	4(2.6)	4(2.6)	9(5.9)
	Adequate time for registration and access to registration stations	82(53.9)	40(26.3)	12(7.9)	10(6.6)	8(5.3)
	Rules for public scrutiny of voters register	30(19.7)	20(13.2)	72(47.4)	14(9.2)	16(10.5)
	Complaints procedure	81(53.3)	29(19.1)	19(12.5)	18(11.8)	5(3.3)
Access to and design of the ballot, nomination and registration of parties and candidates	Registration of parties/ candidates	100(65.8)	20(13.2)	15(9.9)	7(4.6)	10(6.6)
	Rules about independent candidates	40(26.3)	45(29.6)	32(21.1)	25(16.4)	10(6.6)
	Mechanism for ballot paper access	95(62.5)	25(16.4)	22(14.5)	6(3.9)	4(2.6)
	Ballot paper design	20(13.2)	42(27.6)	18(11.8)	22(14.5)	50(32.9)
	Spending rules	60(39.5)	55(36.2)	17(11.2)	10(6.6)	10(6.6)
Campaign regulation	Rules for handling of violations of codes of conduct and campaign regulations	72(47.4)	20(13.2)	15(9.9)	30(19.7)	15(9.9)
	Access to public media	72(47.4)	38(25.0)	32(21.1)	6(3.9)	4(2.6)
	Rules for meetings and rallies	90(59.2)	50(32.9)	2(1.3)	4(2.6)	4(2.6)
	Appointment and training of polling 100station personnel	81(53.3)	44(28.9)	22(14.5)	4(2.6)	1(0.7)
	Procurement of polling materials	91(59.9)	24(15.8)	17(11.2)	10(6.6)	10(6.6)
	Security and integrity of polling	98(64.5)	24(15.8)	4(2.6)	16(1.5)	10(6.6)
	Availability of counting results to party agents and others at the lowest level of counting immediately after completing the count	98(64.5)	40(26.3)	4(2.6)	2(1.3)	8(5.3)
	Access for interested parties to observe the count and request a recount	58(38.2)	42(27.6)	22(14.5)	15(9.9)	15(9.9)
Resolving election related disputes and complaints, verification of results. Certification	Provisions for special electoral courts and/ or adjudication system	99(65.1)	42(27.6)	4(2.6)	3(2.0)	4(2.6)
	Time limits for handling election disputes and complaints	96(63.2)	30(19.7)	10(6.6)	9(5.9)	7(4.6)
	Verification of the final results verified	68(44.7)	45(29.6)	30(19.7)	7(4.6)	2(1.3)
	Certification of the election	106(69.7)	28(18.4)	12(7.9)	4(2.6)	2(1.3)
Post-election procedures	Provisions for publication of election results at all levels of electoral administration	60(39.5)	70(46.1)	15(9.9)	5(3.3)	2(1.3)
	EMB subject to ordinary accounting	68(44.7)	40(26.3)	4(2.6)	20(13.2)	16(10.5)

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Challenges Faced by INEC in the Conduct of 2015 to 2019 General Elections. As a commission, a number of challenges were experienced in the conduct of elections. Using the higher rating scale and the decision rule of average mean this study established that excessive monetization of politics in general through vote buying and excessive party financing was the foremost challenge to the conduct of election in the study period. Almost all of the respondents, 92%, unanimously affirmed this and the mean value of the assertions is 3.95 indicating a very strong acceptability of the assertions. Equally high among these challenge is the general level of poverty and illiteracy affecting the majority of the electorate in the state. This assertion was well affirmed by 84% of the respondents with a sample mean of 3.86. In addition, the absence of clear ideological manifestoes by the major political parties in the state was considered as a challenge to the proper selection of candidate for the elections. This was considered a challenge to INEC because it poses a threat of orderly conduct of election to the commission and created violent atmosphere during the election period in an attempt to win the election at all cost, this assertion was equally well affirmed by the majority of the respondents with a mean value of 3.79. Other challenges include religion bigotry and ethic evaluations (2 = 3.72); lack of discipline by the party agents and some security personnel (2 = 3.69); low level of education of the electorate concerning their democratic rights, electoral rules and voting process (2 = 3.52). In summary, the findings have revealed that the challenges faced by INEC during the period were many, while the most important ones where indicated above.

Table 4: Challenges faced by INEC in the Conduct of 2015 to 2019 General Elections

S/N	ITEMS	SA(%)	A(%)	D(%)	SD(%)	χ
1	Lack of discipline in the forms, spirit and implementation of the election process	120(78.9)	15(9.9)	7(4.6)	10(6.6)	3.79
2	Excessive monetization of politics in general, via vote buying	125(82.2)	18(11.8)	4(2.6)	5(3.3)	3.95
-3	The general level of poverty and illiteracy	110(72.4)	22(14.5)	17(11.2)	3(2.0)	3.86
4	The absence of clear ideological underpinning of the parties	98(64.5)	27(17.8)	22(14.5)	5(3.3)	3.72
5	Religious bigotry and to a limited extent ethnic chauvinism	141(92.8)	5(3.3)	4(2.6)	2(1.2)	3.69
6	The selection of honest men and women of integrity to serve as ad hoc staff during the electoral process	23(15.1)	39(25.7)	67(44.1)	23(15.1)	3.52
7	Low education of the electorates with regards to their democratic rights, electoral rules and the voting process	33(21.7)	27(17.8)	72(47.4)	20(13.2)	3.72

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Discussion of Findings

The findings of this study encompasses the administration of elections in Osun State between 2015 and 2019. From the findings, it can be established that the election umpire has demonstrated commendable capacity and committed adequate resources to the elections that were held within the study period. It was equally established that, the commission had complied with the provision of laws regarding the conduct of elections, from the pre-election stage, the conduct of election and the post-election arrangements. However, considering the provision of law on political party financing and campaign regulation, the commission has not fared well in this aspect due to the lackadaisical attitude and lack of sportsmanship among the politicians in the state.

It was established that, concerning the preparation process by INEC, the commission only did fairly enough to ensure adequate mobilization of human and material resources, timely provision of information, deployment of adequate and experienced personnel, proper management of elections materials after the conduct of the elections as well as the security of the election results. It was equally established that the performance of INEC could be rated high during the 2015 to 2019 general election in the state. However, the commission face a lot of challenges in the conduct of the election which include, the economic challenges facing the people, high level of monetization of the electoral process, low number of security personnel to adequately guarantee safety of electorate during the election process and the unpalatable conduct of party agents in attempts to disrupt the election.

Conclusion and Recommendation

Generally, both the pre-election process and the actual conduct of elections were considered effective, resourceful and acceptable by the majority of the respondents while only the campaign regulations were considered to have been ineffective and not resourceful, i.e. the campaign rules were not so adhered to by the political parties during the study period. It can be concluded therefore that INEC performed creditably well during the conduct of elections in Osun State during the study period. However, the performance of INEC was majorly hindered by the excessive monetization of politics and high level of illiteracy among the people of the state. Based on the findings, this study recommended that the Election Act should be reviewed to criminalize the excessive party financing and vote buying, there should be a special commission to serve as election college, which will regularly promote citizens' awareness about election matters, and the government should intensify its effort on poverty alleviation programmes so as to liberate the people from poverty and thereby reducing excessive reliance on politics as a means of survival.

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Perceived Organizational Support, Perceived Superior Support, Employee Engagement, and Performance in the Nigerian Public Sector: A Proposed Framework

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Abstract

The Nigerian public service sector since its creation has undergone several reforms in a bid to bridge the gaping hole between delivering its mandate and sustaining its image. However, these several reforms have had very little effect on the improvement of the public sector's performance. Thus, the purpose of this paper is to conduct a systematic literature review to synthesize the human resource management practices such as employee engagement (EE) while assessing two of the antecedents of employee engagement, i.e., perceived organizational support (POS) and perceived superior support (PSS), aimed at proposing area for further research as well as practicable recommendations for public service administrators. This paper reviewed articles linked with employee engagement as well as public administration from the Scopus indexed databases. These publications are then further coded and classified into 5 categories while the main findings are linked with human resource management practices. This paper then proposes detailed recommendations and a research framework for further studies. Analysis of the relevant literature provided insights that are used to formulate the proposed framework as well as project recommendations for both further studies as well as managerial implications.

Keywords: Employee engagement, perceived organizational support, perceived superior support, performance, public service sector

Introduction

The labour management context and organizational behaviour have been recently flooded with the challenges of getting alternative means of addressing issues relating to performance with both the individual employee, as well as the organization. The popular approaches that are used among management of businesses are to reduce the cost of running businesses by cutting prices, laying off staff, as well as engaging in a business process redesigning (Abu Bakar, 2013). However, the impact of these approaches only produces less than the expectation of the management, and thereafter, the same issues would resurface (Abu Bakar, Cooke, & Muenjohn, 2016). Consequently, the call for a change of perspectives from problem coping approaches to a more human-centric strategy such as related to human resource management (HRM) has been recently proposed (Abu Bakar et al., 2016; Bailey, Madden, Alfes, & Fletcher, 2017; Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Bedarkar & Pandita, 2014). Furthermore, several studies have reported the abundant benefits of employee engagement(EE) to an organization regardless of which sector it belongs (i.e., profit or not for profit, private or public) (Albrecht, Bakker, Gruman, Macey, & Saks, 2015; Clark & McLeod, 2009; Saks, 2017; Saks & Gruman, 2011; Schaufeli, 2017; Wefald, Mills, Smith, & Downey, 2012; Wollard & Shuck, 2011). For instance, the reports from Wollard and Shuck (2011) have shown that employee engagement has the potential of reducing employee turnover and attrition. Employee engagement also impacts the performance of an organization positively, relating to client loyalty and satisfaction, financial performance and profitability, overall performance increment as well as improvement in safety and wellbeing of an individually engaged employee (Abu Bakar et al., 2016; Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Bedarkar & Pandita, 2014; Brockbank, Ulrich, Kryscynski, & Ulrich, 2018; Kpakol & Okpu, 2018). An engaged employee stands out with attitudes of complete discretionary efforts towards the job. They show vigour and dedication to task attendance, while disengaged employees are motivationally disconnected from their work, lacking the energy to work hard,as well as the exhibit reduced enthusiasm towards task performance (Aon Hewitt, 2013; Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009). Consequent upon all the above-mentioned research, this paper seeks to focus on the impact of employee engagement on performance most especially within the Nigerian Public Service Sector, while it also strives to understand through a critical exploration of existing perspectives on employee engagement, the effect of two situational factors, Perceived Organizational Support (POS) and Perceived Superior Support (PSS), as antecedents to engagement within the Public/Civil Service of Nigeria. This paper was motivated due to the paucity in studies that

examine the effect of poor employee engagement and public service performance, together as a whole. Although the paper tends to be conceptual, one of the significance it promises is the proposition of a less cumbersome framework to assist in managerial practices in the Nigerian public work context to be able to enhance employee engagement which may, in turn, change the current performance outlook of the public sectored organization to a positive one, as well as reduce existing gaps within the employee engagement literature.

In the next section, the relevant literature on EE, POS, and PSS are reviewed, while discussions on Social Exchange Theory (SET) is also brought in to underscore the consequences of poor organizational support leading to lack of employee engagement. Afterward, relevant hypotheses are proposed. Subsequently, the framework linking the combined concepts to employee engagement is presented in the succeeding section. This is followed by the discussions on both managerial and academic implications. Then, the conclusion and limitations of the research ends the review.

Literature Review

Perceived Organizational Support and Employee Engagement

Employees remain the pertinent source of a firm's competitiveness (Buckingham & Coffman, 2001) because they serve as the point persons and in most cases image projectors for their organizations (Islam & Rahman, 2016). Employee engagement has therefore gained a lot of attention in the recent literature (Karatepe, 2011; Lee & Ok, 2016). Employee engagement has been expressed with various terms, such as personal engagement (Kahn, 1990), employee engagement (Macey, Schneider, Barbera, & Young, 2009), job engagement (Wefald et al., 2012), and work engagement (Bakker, Albrecht, & Leiter, 2011). Several authors have defined employee engagement using different perspectives (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008; Koyuncu, Burke, & Fiksenbaum, 2006; Saks, 2006; Schaufeli, 2018; Shuck & Wollard, 2010; Wollard & Shuck, 2011).

Most of their definitions have one thing in common, that employee engagement leads to organizational productiveness and that it entails an emotional and intellectual immersion of employees for their organization (Saks, 2017). Kahn's (1990) definition of the construct as a personal engagement describes the situation where an individual harnesses themselves to their work roles. Moreover, engaged individuals tend to employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally while performing their roles (Kahn, 1990). Employee engagement is defined by Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, and Bakker (2002) as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication, and absorption. Furthermore, engagement has also been expressed to mean "a more persistent and pervasive affective-

cognitive state that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual, or behaviour" " (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p. 74).

Employee engagement can also be assessed by understanding its foundations. Bakker and Demerouti (2008) justified this assertion in their jobdemand and resources or the JD-R model. The model proposes that employee engagement will be better fostered where there is an actual presence of "job resources" and "social support" in the workplace. This is because these two factors, i.e., job resources and social support, stimulates intrinsic and extrinsic motivation amongst individuals, which, in turn, leads to them becoming more engaged. Hence for this current study, perceived organizational support as earlier suggested by Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, and Rhoades (2002) as pertinent "job resource" within the public service context. Perceived organizational support is defined by Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa (1986) as the degree to which an employer cares about their worker's wellbeing while also valuing their contributions.

Perceived organizational support improves employees' productive contributions with the help of evaluative feedback and results in more engaged employees (Eisenberger et al., 2002). However, such studies examining the relationship between perceived organizational support and employee engagement are scarce. Employees with low perceived organizational support are more sceptical. Contrarily, when perceived organizational support is high, employees find their work environment more acceptable and show more involvement to work (Kurtessis et al., 2017). Therefore, we hypothesize:

H_1. Perceived Organizational Support is positively related to Employee Engagement.

Perceived Superior Support and Employee Engagement

Another theoretical extension of organizational support is the perceived superior support which stands as the second antecedent of engagement next to perceived organizational support (Kurtessis, Eisenberger, Ford, Buffardi, Stewart, & Adis, 2017; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). The rationale for choosingthis antecedent as one of the overlying factors for this study in the Nigerian Public Service Sector is because there is quite a wide distance between the Private and Public work sectors. For example, the environment where the public service sector line managers, compared to those within the private sector, can create challenges in facilitating employee engagement in their workers, due to the following facts. Firstly, the constant change in leadership,which is either politically appointed or elected, usually present a short tenure and secondly, portraying objectives and goals that may be hard to implement into units that are objectively sizeable and measured, thirdly, controls placed on incentives that are financial in nature, and fourthly, the presence of

nepotism which may prevent superiors to be able to deal with employees that fall under poor performers (Jin & McDonald, 2016; Lin, Ma, Zhang, Li, & Jiang, 2018). Meanwhile, several types of research have shown that high superior support heightened job satisfaction and employee engagement of public service workers albeit the identified challenges and barriers that they may be facing (Clark & McLeod, 2009; Dromey, 2014; Saks & Gruman, 2011). But how it may have worked as a conditioning factor or as an antecedent within the Nigeria Public Service Sector is yet to be studied. Given the paucity in research on antecedents of employee engagement within the public service sector, there has been a scarcity in the way of model or theory development (Saks, 2006) except for the two streams of studies on employee engagement where particular models were identified.

Kahn (1990) conducted a qualitative research on psychological conditions of individual engagement at the workplace, where organizational members of an architectural firm and camp counsellors were interviewed about their moments with engagement and disengagement at work. In this study, Kahn (1990) discovered that three psychological conditions were particularly associated with being engaged or disengaged at work. Meaningfulness being the first, followed by safety, and availability were among the pertinent elements that employees look out for in places they worked or like to work for, without psychological meaningfulness, psychological safety, and psychological availability, employee engagement may be difficult to achieve in the workplace. Subsequently, building on Kahn's (1990) model, May, Gilson, and Harter (2004) discovered that the three psychological conditions studied by Kahn were highly related to employee engagement. They also discovered that role fit and job enrichment come as positive forecasters of meaningfulness (i.e., reward and recognition) and supportive supervisor relationship forecasted safety, whereas, sticking to subordinates norms and self-consciousness is a negative forecaster, availability of work resources being a positive forecaster of psychological availability, while involvement in external activities was found to be a negative forecaster of employee engagement (May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004).

Although both research models by Kahn (1990) as well as May et al.'s (2004) showed the psychological conditions necessary for employee engagement, one thing they did not do was to completely expatiate on the reasons why employees react to these psychological conditions differently in relation to being engaged or disengaged in the workplace (Saks, 2006). Perhaps bringing a much influencing theoretical explanation through social exchange theorywill achieve this. According to SET, commitment and loyalty are derived through a series of interdependent relationships between groups who are in a situation of reciprocity

(Emerson, 1976). Furthermore, it is accepted in SET that relationship develops gradually along with feelings of loyalty, trust, as well as mutual commitment so long as individualsuphold the laid down rules of exchange between them (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Saks, 2006). Rules of exchange in this context means the nature of the reciprocation from individuals of the groups or parties such that the activities of one group will translateinto an equal reciprocation from the other, for instance, when members are urged to genuinely respond and repay their organization whenever they have been rewarded with economic or socio-emotional resources from their superior or organization (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Saks, 2006). The most comfortable manner at which workers reciprocate any felt support from their employer is to approach their work or tasks emotionally, cognitively, and psychologically, in turn displaying engagement in full. Also, employees will choose to engage themselves to different levels and degrees in accordance to the availability of job resources provided by their employers. Therefore, employee engagement can be explained as a two-way relationship which exists with the employer and the employee (Saks, 2006).

Consequently, using SET alongside Perceived Superior Support as a predictor for allowing engagement to take place in the public sector organization can as well be supported as a factor that links to perception of psychological safety. This represents a feeling of being able to show and apply the self without being afraid of negative consequences (Kahn, 1990). If employees feel they can have the support of their supervisors whenever they contribute their efforts and not be sanctioned, they will be motivated to show more of their energy towards attaining organizational objectives (Schaufeli, 2017).

Additionally, one important element of safety arises from the amount of support and care workers perceive they are getting from their immediate superiors and the organization. This can be seen in Kahn's (1990) declaration that psychological safety and engagement will be encouraged by a supportive and trusting relationship between management and employees. Agreeably, where the worker's perception of support from their supervisor is genuine, they will reciprocate by being available to engage. It is based on this assertion that the following hypothesis is proposed:

H_2. Perceived Superior Support is positively related to Employee Engagement.

Employee Engagement and Performance in the Nigerian Public Service

The positive benefits that employee engagement can bring to the Nigerian Public Service performance cannot be overemphasised due to the evidence that has been earlier gathered from earlier research (Alagaraja & Shuck, 2015; Albrecht et al., 2015; Clark, 2000; Kahn, 1990, 2007; Magbadelo, 2016; Saks, 2017; Wollard & Shuck, 2011). It has been shown to help in benefiting organizational

performance as well as in sustaining organizational competitiveness, and other business elements such as reducing redundancy, attrition, absenteeism, accidents, turnover, and also improved worker wellbeing among others (Schaufeli, 2018; Schaufeli et al., 2002; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009).

Having undergone several types of reforms, and millions of Naira spent to improve the Nigerian Public Service Sector's performance, the federal government of Nigeria under the administration of President Mohammed Buhari has also continuously fought the stigma of the poor performance of the Nigerian Public Service (Aluko, 2003; Dogarawa, 2011a; Dogarawa, 2011b; Godfrey & Akpesiri, 2015; Okonjo-Iweala & Osafo-Kwaako, 2007; Oyedele & Aluko, 2018). The strategies of cutting costs, salary trimming, eradication of fringe benefits, rewards, and other related human capital development incentives, has always been the norm whenever reform is proposed. In some cases, some management in the ministries, departments, and agencies (MDAs) of the Nigerian Public Service often have the thought that developing employee engagement does not work, rather, traditional strategies that's been used is more effective. This is because public servants in Nigeria may have developed continuance commitment (which is the degree to which an employee think they need to stay with their employers because they believe they have no option than to stay, because of high rate of unemployment) (Godfrey & Akpesiri, 2015).

The call for the improvement of the public service sector's outcome in Nigeria has been ongoing for a while, but the challenges of scarce resources have also brought more impediments. Other factors such as high rate of impunity, lack of accountability, countrywide poverty, high rate of unemployment, failing infrastructures, and high cost of managing the public service have also not helped in getting the issues properly addressed (Godfrey & Akpesiri, 2015). Engagement level in the Nigerian Public Service is reported to be very low, with only just 16% of its employees engaged nationwide (AON Hewitt, 2018). This percentage is indeed quite low when compared to the figures seen with private sector (i.e., 65% (Aon Hewitt, 2018)). Aside from this, the resources needed to complete task within most of the public service workplaces are also lacking. And not too far into the past, the country experienced labour wages not being paid by employers across the nation (Godfrey & Akpesiri, 2015) caused by impunity and corrupt practices which led most of the defaulting state's executives to have spent above their means and in turn created a problem for themselves and the poor civil servants in their respective states. All these issues among others portend more reasons why there is the need for public authorities to follow the direction of human resource management practices by allowing the antecedents of employee engagement within the public service so as to encourage the development of employee engagement within the Nigerian Public Service (Godfrey & Akpesiri,

2015; Obasa, 2015). Arguably, encouraging the development of employee engagement in public service organizations in Nigeria will bring about the positive changes that Nigerian governments and masses have always yearned for in the sector, because when the individual worker is engaged at work, the feeling of involvement, loyalty, empowerment, and enthusiasm sets in and in turn leads to performance increase (Dromey, 2014).

Most especially, employees that are engaged have higher vigour, completely in tune with their work, and experience time passing quickly and more importantly, they are passionate about their job. This positive characteristic is what is needed in the human capital of the current Nigerian public service to turn around the organization from being a poor performer to a high performing and vibrant organization. Reiterating this point, when employees perceive that their organization gives them the needed resources and enables the creation of the antecedents that will develop employee engagement within the sector, they will feel the need to compensate by putting all their efforts into making the organization a successful one (Cooper-Thomas, Xu, & Saks, 2018). Therefore, assertions can be made, that engaged workers develops a fiduciary responsibility towards their organization, and this may assist in eradicating corrupt practices which currently festers within the Nigerian Public Service and which has had adverse effects on the performance of the Nigerian civil service (Godfrey & Akpesiri, 2015). Considering the above, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H_3. Employee Engagement is positively related to Performance.

Proposed Employee Engagement Framework

For proffering a practicable recommendation and further research agenda towards the improvement of the Nigerian Public Service's performance, three hypotheses based on literature in the parlance of employee engagement are proposed. This subsequently has led to the development and design of a simplified framework. The framework (Figure 1) reveals that Nigerian Public Service Performance is the dependent variable, Employee Engagement plays a dual role of mediator, between the two independent variables and the dependent variable, and the independent variable consists of the selected basic antecedents of engagement, i.e., Perceived Organizational Support and Perceived Superior Support. According to Saks (2006), Employee Engagement reflects a two-way reciprocity between the organization and its workers. Businesses whose staff are engaged benefit by way of higher competitiveness in client satisfaction, retention of talent, greater efficiency, higher performance, and greater productivity (Albrecht et al., 2015; Buckingham & Coffman, 2001; Robertson & Cooper, 2010; Saks, 2017). Therefore, a further research on these constructs and the

introduction of a clear scope and definition that can be utilized in developing employee engagement provokes a practical incentive.

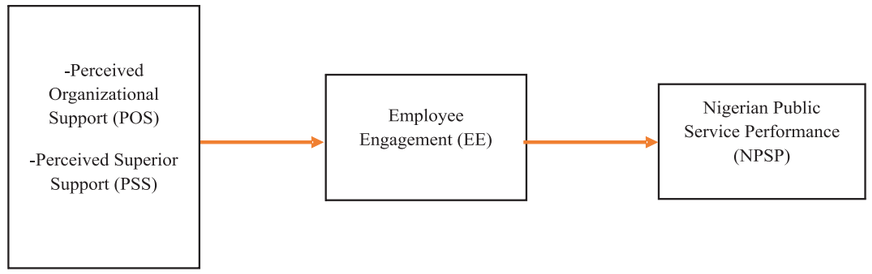

Figure 1. The proposed framework for future research agenda

Discussion

The overarching aim of this paper is to contribute to the existing literature within the field of employee engagement by providing management with the necessary tools that foster behaviour effectiveness in workplaces. The article also revealed opportunities for novel paths towards further research concerning employee engagement. Therefore, the following are proffered as recommendations for use in the workplace and for future academic investigation.

Managerial Implications of Employees' Engagement

I. Reduce the level of absenteeism, attrition, turnover, and talent loss for organization success
II. Create an organization that motivates, encourages, and empowers their employees while expressing the need for each employees' inclusiveness in bringing important development to the organizational bottom-line.
III. Encourages an organizational culture that enables partnerships between employees regardless of their cadre to motivate them towards being creative, emotionally attached, and more patriotic to the organization.
IV. Motivates a clear human resource strategy that enables the vision for enhancing employee engagement to bring out the best in workers, both in moral and performance of their duties in the organization.

Academic Implications of Employees' Engagement

I. There is the need to engage in further research on employee engagement while concentrating more on how to better explain the utilization of the antecedents and facilitators towards the achievement of greater consequences.
II. Conduct further validation and study of the linkages between the study variables proposed in this study to be impactful for organizations' management decisions relating to employee engagement strategies.

Conclusion

This review aims to identify research gaps, proffer practicable recommendation, and propose a framework of employee engagement for further research agendas. This work reviews articles relating to employee engagement and public service performance publications featured on Scopus and local Nigerian databases. Based on the above roadmap, the paper proposes six theoretical and practical implications (four for managements and two for academics). The paper contributes to the existing literature on engagement theoretically through discussing the benefits of having an engaged workforce most especially in a developing nation. It also presents the relationship between Perceived Organizational Support and Perceived Superior Support, and the mediating function of Employee Engagement in a bid to improve the Performance of the Nigerian Public Service sector. Having an engaged employee is quite pertinent for the survival, competitiveness, and success of any organization existing in this dynamic business context that organizations operate in today. However, a gap exists for researched-based knowledge on employee engagement in the context of the Nigerian Public Service which would have been of great assistance to management and leaders in this work sector. Arguably, the engagement model that this paper proposes, is believed to have the potential of reducing the current challenges of poor performance that the Nigerian Public Service sector is witnessing. Furthermore, a proposition for further research which will be empirical should be done on the proposed framework from this current review for its validity to be ascertained. Lastly, the managerial implications proposed in this review is aimed at assisting Nigerian Public Service administrators to harvest the positive impacts of employee engagement towards a performance improvement in their respective MDAs.

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State's Contradictions: Farmers, Herdsmen and Environmental Struggle in Nigeria

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Abstract

The irresolute travesty of the state's intervention in the management of environmental struggle between farmers and herdsmen in the post-authoritarian Nigeria is evidently documented in the literature. Previous works argued competition for scarce environmental resources and climatic reality as the predictors of farmers-herdsmen conflict. Disappointedly, the corrective gears of the post-1999 regimes appear fragmented and contradictory especially in the inelasticity of political, socio-cultural, institutional and legal responsibility of the state and the non-state actors thereby deteriorating the frail farmers-herdsmen relations. This exploratory article excavated the dynamics of contradictions in the instrument of resolution engaged for the farmers-herdsmen conflict in Nigeria. A clear discord in the resolution mechanisms was established because of the collaboration gap within the scope of political, institutional and legal arrangements among the vested stakeholders. The paper, therefore, prayed stakeholder approach inevitable for the sustainability of state-based resolution mechanisms for forfending environmentally induced conflicts between farmers and herdsmen in Nigeria.

Keywords: Post-authoritarian, Environment, Farmers, Herders, Conflict, Interest, State

Introduction

The evocative conflict between herder and farmer communities has continued its reverberation across Western and Eastern regions of Africa. Ample of written testimonies cited hotbed states with record of perpetual environmental conflict between pastoralists and sedentary farmers to include but not limited to Ghana, Niger, Mali, Cote d'Ivoire, Burkina Faso, Kenya, Liberia, Sierra Leone and Nigeria (Tonah, 2003; Nyong & Fiki, 2005; Shettima & Tar, 2008; Baidoo, 2015; Bukari & Schareika, 2015; Cabot, 2017).These conflicts, which often manifest in violence expression, exert dire consequences on the survival of the pastoral and sedentary farmers. It culminates into loss of lives and destruction of livestock (cattle) and farm plantation (food and cash crops), thus threatening economic and ecological survival of the two parties. Another is the sharp deteriorating co-habitation of farmers and herders that had shared history of harmonious relations before it becomes a subject of concern (Tonah, 2000; Cabot, 2017; Amnesty International [AI] 2018). This kind of struggle is intractably embellished in the complexities of authoritative allocation of dwindling resources – economic, socio-political and environmental – by the transiting states of the region while the pressure from environmental changes persist (Nyong & Fiki, 2005). In finding the drivers of this conflict, some perspectives have emerged. First is the competition for environmental resources especially land and water (Tonah, 2000; Chikaire, Onoh & Echetama, 2017). For Babagana, Ibrahim, Adamu and Gujja (2019), competition for resource ownership and exploitation has, from the time of early civilisation, dominated the subject matter of ethnic and communal conflict. The two specializations require water and arable land to flourish in production, as such any perceived competition in this regard is often greeted with stern opposition (Ogbette, Attama & Okoh 2018). For instance, the sedentary farmers, on one hand, depend heavily on water and arable land for all year planting and domestic routines. On the other hand, the pastoralists require rich vegetation and water to feed their herds, leading to land struggle between the herders and the farming communities.

For Steve Tonah, the manifestations of this view are always worsened by the ethnic dimension of the parties involved. The tradition of herding is culturally associated with particular ethnic people in the Sahel region of West Africa (Tonah 2003) – the Fulani and the Fulbe – making the conflict a minority against the majority populations. Next is the long-standing migratory practice of nomadic pastoralists. The complex landscape of pastoralist farming is aptly captured in the definition offered by Pratt, Le Gall and de Hall (1997). They describe pastoralism as a naturally induced practice involving the environment component, the cultural structure and diverse political undertone of a society. From this, it appears that the culture of pastoral farming is cut in the web of conflict as they

migrate from one settlement to another while navigating through different farming communities. Another dimension to what can be called environmentally induced migration is the climate change, which had gathered wide literature support. The argument is that the surge in the trend of competition for land and freshwater by the sedentary and pastoralist farmers is premised on the growing pressure imposed by climate change, setting in play an ecosystem that is prone to the conflict which threatens human security (Adano, Dietz, Witsenburg, & Zaal 2012; IPCC 2014a; Cabot 2017).

In recent times, the dangerous and gory trend of conflict involving farmers and herders in Nigeria is climaxing, thus remains topical headline for regional and international debate on climate change-induced resources conflict in West Africa.For instance, Amnesty International in it 2018 report titled '*Harvest of Death: Three years of bloody clashes between farmers and herders in Nigeria*' reported that between 2016 and 2018, more than 3,641 lives were lost to bloodletting attacks and counter-attacks involving farming communities and herders in Nigeria.This figure, of course, suggests urgent humanitarian and conflict reduction interventions by concerned stakeholders. The post-authoritarian Nigeria state has continued to battle herder-farmer conflict (Egbuta 2018), without any concrete mechanism put in place by the governments – Federal, State and Local – to neutralize the effects of the conflict and avoid future reoccurrence. Although it is argued in some quarters that in resolving conflict of this magnitude, attention should not only be limited to environmental succour but also the likely non-environmental solutions that mirror the political, social and economic multidimensionality of the conflict (Ejigu 2009; Cabot 2017). For the time being, the response from the Nigerian Federal government vitiates both environmental and non-environmental conflict reduction mechanisms as such remains elusive as well as attracts wide condemnation.

Remarkably, the growing conflict arising from the struggle for the natural resources in Nigeria has attracted the research focus of many authors (Adisa 2011; Okoli & Alelhe 2014; Adeoye 2017). Yet, only a few explored the multidimensionality of interests involved as a negating factor affecting the attainment of common ground for the conflict reduction mechanisms (AI 2018; ICG 2018). Drawing on the fragmented literature on how multiple conflicting interests are circumnavigating the political, institutional and legal responses of the government towards the conflict, this article further shed light on the network of contradictory realities of vested interests in the lingering environmentally-induced conflict between herders and farmers in contemporary Nigeria. In doing this, qualitative documentary analysis which draws evidence from documented publications (books, book chapters, newspapers, thesis, and institutional reports)

was used to substantiate arguments articulated in this work. It is subdivided into four interconnected sections. The foregoing introduction, followed by a discussion of complexities of conflicting interests along with political, institutional and legal responses. In the next two sections, the article made us understand the growing externalities of the conflict as well as presented the concluding remarks.

Irony of One Conflict, Multiple Interests and the search for Common Ground

The search for common ground and acceptable solution to the lingering herder-farmer conflict in Nigeria has continued, while the unending conflict has added another layer to the fragility of national security already stressed by Boko haram insurgency, cattle rustling, kidnapping, armed robbery and communal crises (Egbuta 2018). Cases of gruesome killings arising from bloody clashes, notably between herder and farmer communities are becoming extremely worrisome. According to Amnesty International (2018), within 34 months (January 2016 to October 2018), 312 attacks and reprisals were recorded in 22 states (and Abuja), 3,641 deaths, 406 injuries, 5,000 landed properties burnt and 182,530 displaced persons (IDPs) were also documented. The conflict which was limited predominantly among the farming and herding communities – differentiated along ethnic lines, religious sentiments and occupational background –in Northern Nigeria has spread geographically across the country (Tonah 2006). For instance, the distribution of deaths associated with herder-farmer conflict according the AI (2018) shows that all geopolitical zones have had their experience: North Central (1,576); North East (993); North West (955); South East (52); South-South (47); South West (16).

The southward diffusion of the conflict, which has expanded the scope of contradiction and complexities of conflict interests according to Chilkaire, Ajaero, Ibe, Orusha and Onogu (2018) is associated with the worsening environmental variations in the North and an emerging shift from pastoralism to sedentarism among livestock farmers. Adding to the position of Chilkaire *et al*(2018), it is the growing tension between farmers and herders, and activities of cattle rustlers and state institutions in the North particularly the Middle Belt that fuel the conflict. Example is the tension that forced herders to move from Benue state to the neighbouring states like Taraba and Nasarawa because of the legal intervention of Benue State Government (Kwaja & Ademola-Adelehin, 2017).

As the farmer-herder conflict grown from being regional to national issues, so also the vested interests grow more in opposing directions thereby worsening the complexities of the conflict. This makes finding lasting solution a subject of protracted national discussion. Previous writers interrogated the nature, causes,

and dimensionality of the conflict from diverse theoretical perspectives. For instance, Egbuta (2018) used Social Conflict Theory to understand the causes and nature of the conflict. Okoli and Alelhe (2014), Adeoye (2017) explored the political-ecology dynamics of herder-farmer conflict using Eco-violence and Eco-survivalism. Adisa (2011) used the Cognitive Appraisal Model to predict the perception of actors involved in the herder-farmer conflict. By way of departure, this article argues for Stakeholder Theory in addressing the conflict. The stakeholder approach of Freeman (1984) view organisation as a group of actors (stakeholder) with different interests, needs and positions regarding organizational resources. The managers are expected to co-ordinate the affairs in such a way that the rights of the stakeholder to participate in decision making are protected and ensure un-curtained existence of the organisation for long term benefits of each actor or interest. Donaldson and Preston (1995) expanded the scope of the stakeholder approach to understanding the three layers of stakeholder: descriptive (interest representation); instrumental (consequence of action); normative (moral basis for decision-making). Here, using Freeman's management and stakeholder to represent the Nigerian state and stakes in the conflict respectively, the article explained the dynamics of interests in farmer-herder conflict and corded up their implications on institutional, political and legal reduction mechanisms of the government. These interests include but not limited to crop farmers, livestock farmers, government (federal and state), ethnic group, religious group, media and non-governmental outfits. These interests are analysed after a brief review of government responses from political, institutional and legal viewpoints in the next paragraphs.

It is not new that the context of social contract expect the government to protect the individual and collective right of everyone in a state. Having this in mind brings the Nigerian state at the centre of the farmer-herder conflict. Government interventions in addressing the conflict has not yielded meaningful results. On political intervention, the government has chosen consultation and dialogue in a bid to harmonise the diverse interests of the parties involved. Committee system and traditional institutions are often used to wade the conflict (Chikaire et al 2018) but solutions that are more political are being explored recently. In the last half-decade, options such as the creation of cattle colonies, National Livestock Transformation Plans and the current controversial RUGA Settlement are tabled (ICG 2018; Udegbunam 2019) but not implemented due to tension clot arising from multiplicity of warring interests in the allocation of environmental resources.

The political will and approach of the Nigerian government (federal) has been questioned for lack of sincerity because of the soft and un-coordinated stand of

her measures (AI 2018; ICG 2018). The indefinite action of the Nigerian government has made the conflict more protracted unlike what is obtainable in Ghana and Cote d' Ivoire. According to Steve Torah, Ghana policy of expulsion and exclusion forced the herders to evacuate the trouble regions as a short-term solution but a long-term deterioration of the domestic livestock industry (Tonah 2003). This approach is unlikely in Nigeria because Fulbe herders in Ghana were predominantly seen as migratory strangers while the herder population in Nigeria is seen as a minority group. In Cote d' Ivoire, the policy intervention is accommodative. The state prioritized capacity development in terms of cattle shops, slaughterhouses, veterinary services and integration of herder communities into her livestock industry (Tonah 2003).

The institutional response appears to be contagiously linked with the weak political will. Institutions abound in Nigeria as far as herder-farmer conflict is a concern (Chikaire *el al* 2018), but there are serious allegations of conspiracy, lack of commitment, discriminatory sense of obligations among state institutions that often intervened in curbing the spread of the conflict-related attacks. For instance, Amnesty International (2018) reported that a number of interviewed victims raised heavy liability on the activities of security forces like the police and the military for the loss of family members and that many of the attacks are preventable if law enforcement agents had acted on the information received from the victims. The report quoted one of the victims:

> *...soldiers asked me to follow the villagers into the classroom but I told them I wasn't going in there. They said if I didn't go in they would shoot me, so I told them to go ahead, but that I wasn't going into the classroom. So, they ordered me to go and lie down on the ground in the school compound as punishment, which I did. While lying down, I turned and saw one of the soldiers beckoning with his hand on the Fulani asking them to enter the school (AI Report 2018:50)*

The above extract indicated contradictions in what is expected of state institutions like the security forces whose obligations are to safeguard and protect unarmed civilians during conflict time. Another bothering question one could ask is why the security apparatus failed to stop gun and ammunition supplies to the two warring communities (herders and farmers). This supports the thesis that conspiracy of the security institutions, which contribute, to the protracted nature of the conflict. The legal response to the conflict has continued to generate controversy in the vertical pattern of intergovernmental relation approach to the conflict in Nigeria. In recent time, the federal-state government's legal response to the conflict is not convergent. The state government appears to favour the side

of farmers with expulsion-driven state laws while the federal government assumes protectionist legal proposals for the minority population of herders (Kwaja & Ademola-Adelehin, 2017; Mathias 2019).

There is yet another dimension of consistency test of the laws of the state governments against the federal government, which gives the federal law upper stand. The contradiction in state responses toward the herder-farmer conflict in contemporary Nigeria cannot be exempted from complexity clot built around diverse interests involved. Placing the scarce resources at the centre of Stakeholder theory, relevant interests vested in the conflict are considered. The farmer and herder communities, relevant actors in the conflict chain. The farmers' interest lies in the means of crop production which often include arable land (inherit, purchase or hire), freshwater, while the herders strive on green pasture on the land, freshwater and migration routes (national or international). As climate change intensifies, an upward shift in the frequency of the conflict becomes a reoccurring decimal (Cabot 2017). For the farmers, the search for green pasture by the herders for their herds causes encroachment and destruction of farmlands (Tenuche & Ifatlmehin 2009). This environmental struggle according to Tenuche and Ifatlmehin (2009) is aggravated by a lack of adequate and functioning grazing reserves in the country. Therefore any attempt (political, institutional, socio-cultural and legal) which might limit the production capacity of either of the parties, as such is seen as a threat to survival. This at times provokes gruesome attacks and reprisals claiming lives and properties. The pogrom continues due to unrestricted access to guns and ammunition (AI, 2018).

More so, the government constitute conflicting interest. The federal and state governments are expected to protect lives and safeguard properties of the citizens. The federal is obligated to regulate the affairs of the entire country while state government represent the interest of its residents. In upholding these mutually inclusive independent commitments, knowingly or unknowingly contradictory positions ensued. The legal responsibility of the two-level of government vitiate the principle of collective obligation. For instance, some states like Ekiti, Benue and Taraba enacted anti-open grazing law in order to de-escalate the killings and destruction of properties (Kwaja & Ademola-Adelehin, 2017; ICG, 2018), but the processes and provisions of the laws are subject of national controversy. These laws are being considered as the policy of expulsion of the minority herder population in the concern states (Punch 2017).

According to Kwaja and Ademola-Adelehin (2017), the defects in the laws, especially in Benue state, include discriminatory provisions on access to ranching leases putting the non-indigene at disadvantage. Also, the potential inconsistency of state law with the federal legislation, huge financial implication

on the herders, inadequate preparation time for an effective date are the issues up against anti-open grazing laws. It also contravenes the 1999 Constitution provisions on freedom of movement and residency. There is a high probability of legal battle between state and federal government. It was further compounded by section (6, 29, & 30) of the Land Use Act of 1978. These provisions invariably grant the state government the power to allocate or revoke land ownership. The federal government policy and legal intervention are cut in the storm of agitation. Just recently, the government proposed RUGA policy that sparked nationwide condemnation for lack of adequate consultation with relevant stakeholder (Okuku 2019) as well as its inconsistency with the National Livestock Transformation Plan. It was reported by Odunsi (2016) that three grazing-related bills (Grazing Areas Management Agency; National Ranches Commission; Keeping and Movement of Cattle in Nigeria) were rejected by the national assembly due to duplication and constitutional restrictions (Odunsi 2016). All these cast doubts on the sincerity of the government to manage the conflict owing to intrinsic complications of diverse interests.

The increasing ethnic, religious, media sentiments contribute to the protracted conflict. The herders are mainly Fulani extraction of northern Nigeria and are predominantly Muslims. The aim of finding a uniform front to confront the conflict is being compromised by opposing demand from different groups affiliated with either the farmer and herder communities along ethnic and religious lines. All other ethnic groups recognise the Fulani minority as a threat to lives because of their cultural orientation and farming lifestyles (Idowu & Okunola 2017). For instance, the demands by socio-cultural groups like Northern Elders' Forum, Miyetti Allah Kautal Hore, Ijaw Youth Council, Yoruba Elders' Forum and Ohaneze Ndi Igbo for their members to defend themselves increases the polarization of the entire country and breeds breakdown of law and order (Kwaja & Ademola-Adelehin, 2017; Sahara Reporters, 2019; Punch, 2019). The growing acrimony between the crop farmers and the herders promotes unleashing dangerous attack at least provocation from either party. Similarly, the media cannot be absolved from creating more tension between the farmer and herder communities due to their biased and sensational reporting of one group as a dangerous entity.

The media stereotype against the Fulani herdsmen is worrisome. Abdulbaqi and (2017) questioned the media reportage for engaging in war-driven journalism as against peace-focus reportage. They observed violent media frames such as 'Killer herdsmen', 'Fulani herdsmen', 'Gun-carrying herdsmen', 'and Jihadist herdsmen'. This belligerent reporting of the conflict contribute to its being protracted. Another interest fixed around the conflict is the allegation of violation

of fundamental human rights, which has increased the focus of non-governmental organizations on the conflict. Reports raise concerns over activities of security forces that vitiate the principle of civil liberty and fundamental human rights (AI, 2018; ICG, 2018). Going further, the stakeholder approach, which considers representation stakes, analysing possible consequences and understanding moral basis of stakes, should guide the conflict reduction activities of the governments.

Externalities of Farmer-Herder Conflict in Nigeria

Across African nations, there have been reported clashes between the herders and farmers throughout the colonial period and even beyond (Abubakar, 2012). The conflict existing between the herdsmen and the farmers is not a new societal crisis in Nigeria but in recent time, the heat of this conflict is on the high side thereby making it a subject of security concern and public debate (Bamidele 2018). Oli, Christopher and Nwankwo (2018) avers that the incessant clash between the herders and farmers has resulted in general insecurity in Nigeria and many more socio-economic effects. The persisting crisis of herdsmen and farmers has resulted into "herdsmenism" which in the word of Ojo (2017) means unprecedented forceful and violent grazing activities of Nigeria's herdsmen that have almost completely driven farmers off their farms. In addition, if this is allowed to persist for a few more years, have the potential of precipitating nationwide severe food insecurity and turning Nigeria into a food import-dependent nation (Ojo 2017).

The herder-farmer clash is resulting in a serious threat to economic prosperity and food security, which cannot be overemphasized. The clash has resulted in killings of thousands of farmers and their farms are being wiped off completely(Babagana *et al,* 2019). This implies the possibility of a reduction in the food production capacity of the country. Another negative consequence of the conflict is viewed from the socio-economic perspective. Chidi Oguamanam adequately captured this grievous effect of the socio-economic implication of this conflict. He rightfully observed that 80% of Nigerian food production by crop farmers constitute the bedrock of the country's informal economy and the country's highest employer of labour (Oguamanam 2016;Babagana *et al,* 2019). Various farmlands have come under attack which has resulted in many farmers having nothing or only a miserable portion of what they sow. Nigeria has suffered a great deal of loss of life and properties, couple with displacement of people across various regions due to the reoccurring crisis. The Global Terrorism Index (GTI) placed Nigeria's Fulani herdsmen as the world fourth-deadliest militancy group for having accounted for about 1,229 deaths in 2014 and accounted for nearly 500

deaths in the first quarter of 2016 (Oli *et al,* 2018). Ojo (2017) also confirms this by reporting the SBM intelligence that there were 389 incidents involving herdsmen and farming communities between 1997 and 2015. Similarly, in 2016, SBM survey, over 470 victims were killed because of cattle rustling and 1,425 killed in attacks involving Fulani herdsmen. Loss of life and property accompany with displacement of victims has become the order of the day in any farmer-herder clash. The conflict resulted in near-mutual genocide of Christians and Muslims. In the course of the attacks and reprisals among herder and farmer communities, the Christian and the Muslim societies have felt the heat of the atrocities, which clearly indicated that the attack is not religious-based but a plain act of terrorism. Over 5,000 lives have been lost with 100,000 internally displaced people through the attacks of herdsmen in the North-Central region (Idowu & Okunola 2017). An endless list is the damage done to the nation at large

The ongoing menace of herder-farmer conflict has imposed a threat on the national unity of the nation. This has resulted in religious sentiment and ethnic enmity, which made members of the society recognise some tribes as a threat to others (Idowu & Okunola 2017). In a similar tone, Ndubuisi (2019) pinned externalities such as human displacement, and dwindling spirit of security and nationalism as agents of the conflict. The herder and farmer conflict portrays adverse effects in the whole nation at large. It ranges from loss of lives and properties, assault on women and girl child, negative national image in foreign nations, economic loss and agricultural deficit resulting in scarcity of food. All these and more place urgent wake-up call on the nation and that stakeholder interests should be accommodated in the conflict reduction plan of the state.

Conclusion

The article submits that inconsistency and contradictory views of state apparatus (state and federal) contributed to the lingering conflict between the crop farmer and herder communities. For instance, the article established that the body language of state governments favoured the sedentary crop farmers as against the migratory cattle farming in their respective states with the instrumentality of the law by playing indigenous sentiments within the context of legal intervention (see Anti-Open Grazing Laws of Ekiti and Benue States). The federal government intervention appeared as a direct opposite of states affected by the farmer-herder conflict, thereby making the intervention a subject of public controversy. Going from here, firstly, it is suggested that adequate involvement of stakeholders in formulating policies bring about effective conflict reduction mechanisms. This is expected to provide workable institutional and legal arrangement that guide the relationship of state institutions with conflict-prone

communities. Secondly, the media report should be adequately regulated to avoid the spread of bias and not so true report on conflict events. Lastly, the government should provide enabling support systems for commercialization of the ranches and its value chains in order to guarantee the sustainability of state-based solutions to the conflicts.

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New Public Management: Empirical Analysis of Local Government Areas Performance in Nigeria

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Abstract

Local Government Areas (LGAs) in Nigeria are expected to initiate development and bridge social and economic gap of the citizenry. However, the declining federal monthly allocation and stiff control from states government has impaired their performance. This necessitates LGAs to be proactive in revenue generation and cost-cutting approach to meet public utility demands. Thus, this study evaluated the impact of NPM reforms index on LGAs performance in Nigeria. Mixed design was used in the study. The thirty-three LGAs in Oyo State, Nigeria formed the population of the study. Multi-stage sampling technique was adopted and validated structured questionnaire was used to elicit information from the respondents. NPM reforms index considered in the study include inclusiveness, customer concept, and decentralization while LGAs performance measured were equity, effectiveness and efficiency which were moderated by political interference. The data was analysed using Partial least square with the aid of Smart PLS 3 Statistical software. The findings revealed that decentralization and inclusiveness influence LGAs performance and political interference affect LGAs performance. The study concluded that NPM reforms index impact LGAs performance. The study recommended among others that LGAs authority should focus on NPM reforms index to improve equity, effectiveness in revenue expansion and efficiency in spending.

Key words: LGAs performance, NPM reforms index, Political interference, citizens, social and economic development

Introduction

Performance measurement has been one of the major components in business evaluation for the purpose of continuity and survival (Shafritz & Guy, 2018). Private enterprises are known for topmost performance towards enhanced profit. Though, public organizations are mainly for the delivery of vital services to the betterment of the citizenries and not for profit making (Freeman, 2015). Hence, a critical analysis of these organizations revealed that despite huge government investment in public enterprises, many of them still perform below expectations. The underperformance of these public enterprises affects the level of service delivery to the citizenry. This necessitates the development of different strategies by the government such as creation of agencies, restructuring and merging of ministries, public private partnership, utilization of consultancy firms and privatization in some cases to improve performance (Scherer & Palazzo, 2011). Yet, the performances of public enterprises are still far below expectations.

The noticeable performance decline in the public enterprises has been a major concern for the organizational psychologist, researchers, and public analyst in the 21st century due to the fact that despite the available resources (5m's i.e. man, materials, money, machine and methods) at their disposal, their performance cannot be compare to that of the private enterprises (Diefenbach, 2009). Though, a lot of factors has been identified as major causes of performance decline such as corruption, favoritism, poor management, political interference, poor attitude to work, government control and political instability ("Knowledge Management in the Public Sector," 2015). Thus, this necessitates the new public management concept.

New Public Management (NPM) is a system of administrative reforms that advocated the adoption of private sector ideology and techniques in the discharge of quality services to the citizenry. The NPM concept is sometimes referred to as market-based public administration where the traditional concept of public administration is modernized to public management (Alamsyah, 2016). NPM reform encompasses reviews of wage system, outsourcing, cost cutting and downsizing, performance management system, revenue expansion, training and development, management style, transparency in administrative work, collaboration with public enterprises, government assets and debt management, review of organizational structure, and information disclosure (Agranoff & McGuire, 2004). These indices are geared towards performance enhancement in the public services. Globally, NPM reforms have its advantages and inherent criticisms: NPM reforms ensures that money has better value in discharging public service; it moves public enterprises to higher productivity; it gives the citizenries voice in demanding for better services through transparency and

accountability; and it promote good governance. Though, the policy was criticized for promoting efficiency over democracy, de-emphasized civil servant creativity and giving room for specialized agencies to handle sensitive public information (Scherer & Palazzo, 2011). Yet, past researches such as Levy(2010); Chappoz and Pupion(2012); and Alamsyah(2016) revealed that NPM reforms have been a good performance strategy for public enterprises in the twenty-first century. Nigeria has three Tiers of Government (Federal, state and local governments) which controls the activities of different Ministries, Departments, and Agencies (MDAs). Local Government Areas (LGAs) are the closet to the citizens in delivery of public services and grassroots development. The essence of LGAs is to bridge the gap and increase government responses in meeting demands and expectations for economic and social development of its populace(Agranoff & McGuire, 2004). There are divergence views on the performance of LGAs by different scholars (Gruening, 2001; Agranoff & McGuire, 2004; Kalimullah et al., 2012). Likewise, Manning(2001); and Basheka(2018) were of the opinion that the application of NPM reforms enhance public enterprises performance.Besides, there are controversies on the performance metrics used in measuring the municipal performance. Manning (2001) measures LGAs performance based on efficiency while Gruening(2001); and Agranoff and McGuire(2004) measures LGAs performance using fairness and revenue generation ability respectively. It is important to inculcate these views and established LGAs performance metrics that can be influence using NPM reforms index in Nigeria.Hence, this study evaluates the NPM reforms index on LGAs performance in Nigeria.

Literature Review And Hypothesis Development

Concept of NPM

The novel approaches of NPM which was pioneered by Christopher Hood refer to a sequence of change from public administration to management (Tolofari, 2005). The concept emerged in the 80s to tackle the flaw of public administration in adjusting to the competitive nature of market and economy demand. NPM was formulated to improve the quality of public services and governmental operations, cut government expenses and improve the efficiency of policy implementation. One of the major drivers of NPM approaches is cost containment, injecting competition principles and inculcating private sector management ideology to enhance public enterprise performance(Levy, 2010). NPM key elements are embracing private sector management ideology in public enterprises; making efficiency a priority; adopting entrepreneurial traits in public sectors a paradigm shift from procedures, control and rules to performance output targets; a proper input –output analysis and performance audit, private ownership

preference, embracing the concept of outsourcing in public services; decentralization of public services to units with cost cutting focus delegation of control with better monitoring and reporting system; and competitive market growth approach and efficient allocation of resources in public services(Stoker, 2006).

NPM reforms index

NPM reforms index referred to the identified metrics used in measuring private sector performance that can be adopted by the public enterprises to improve performance and ensure quality service delivery to the populace(Diefenbach, 2009). Based on the opinion of scholars (Gruening, 2001;Levy, 2010), the identified metrics were categorized into groups in Table 1 showing the rate at which each index were being used by public enterprises. The NPM reforms mostly used by public enterprises were categorized as first order followed by second and third orders.

Table 1: NPM reforms index based on the public enterprises usefulness

1st order	2nd order	3rd order
Cost cutting and downsizing	New personnel systems	Introducing performance management systems
Introducing market mechanisms	Introducing agencies	Separation of purchaser and provider
Quality and customer responsiveness	Democratization/Participation	Human capital development
Decentralization of management authority	Organizational structure and management style	

Source: NPM reforms matrix of usage applicability based on literatures(Lapsley, 2009)

NPM reforms adopted for the measurement of LGAs performance in this study based on the researchers' consensus in the literatures (Gruening, 2001; Manning, 2001; Agranoff & McGuire, 2004; Kalimullah et al., 2012; and Basheka, 2018). Based on factor analysis and rating as applicable to the LGAs, the researchers selected the highest rated NPM reforms in each usability categories stated in Table 1 which are decentralization, democratization (which depict inclusiveness in this study) and customer concept which coincidentally supported the views of Agranoff and McGuire(2004); and Basheka(2018) in their different studies: *Decentralization*: The deliveries of quality services valued by the citizens and enhanced managerial autonomy through reduction in central administrative

control by public services are the crux of decentralization. It ensures a good motivation and reward for both the individual and organizational performance. Decentralization deploys good technological and human resources in proper direction to achieve the predetermined goals. It increases response rates to contingency issues which promotes transparency and competition among civil servants to use their initiative, contribute meaningfully in decision making process and planning to improved performance. This enhanced better managerial, economic effectiveness and efficiency in governance (Kalimullah et al., 2012). For the purpose of this study, decentralization was proxy by delegation, outsourcing and collaboration with private enterprises.

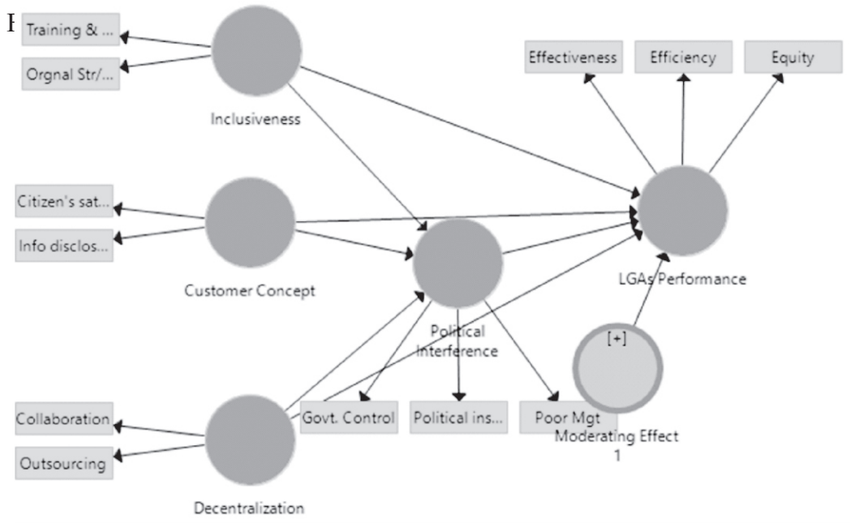
Inclusiveness: This involves decision-making and human capital development. Capacity building of human resources agents of any organization helps to achieve developmental goals in public services(Dunleavy et al., 2006).Staff training and development is essential ingredients in capacity building. Human capital development is needed for policy reforms, acceptance and possible change expected by the civil servants. Periodic training by civil service institutes to intimates civil servants on the new management responsibilities to enhance economic liberation and good governance in public services(Levy, 2010).For the purpose of this study, inclusiveness was proxy by training and development, organizational structure and management style.

Customer concept: This concept view populace as the consumer of public utility i.e. the reason for public enterprises is to meet the needs and satisfy public outcry. NPM reforms and principles such as transparency, competition, public utility and citizens' satisfaction as it is applicable in private sector management("New Public Manag. Eur.," 2007). NPM reforms may crowd out other reforms or values. In this study, customer concept was proxy by citizen's satisfaction (customer orientation) and information disclosure and transparency.

Local Government Areas (LGAs) performance

Local Government Areas has been described as the government arms that are saddle with the responsibility for grassroots development(Chappoz & Pupion, 2012). There are seven hundred and seventy four LGAs in Nigeria recognized by law while some states also created Local Council Development Areas(LCDAs) just to move grassroots development closer to people. Meanwhile, LGAs faces many challenges in the discharge of their duties. The challenges ranges from declining federal monthly allocation, corruption, poor management, political interference and government control especially states governments' control of LGAs allocation despite executive orders of autonomy. The performance of these LGAs has not being satisfactory to the citizenry. Based on past research(Manning, 2001), this study identified LGAs performance metrics:

equity, efficiency and effectiveness.



Source: Researcher's Path Model, 2020

Figure 1 shows the path model analysis of the NPM reform index effect on LGAs performance mediated by political interference. NPM reform index measured in the study are Inclusiveness - proxies by training & development and organizational structure & management style; Customer concept - proxies by customer orientation (citizen's satisfaction) and information disclosure & Transparency; and Decentralization - proxies by outsourcing and collaboration with public enterprises. These variables were measured on LGAs performance proxies by equity, efficiency, and effectiveness. The effect was moderated by the political interference proxies by government control, poor management, and political instability to check if the moderating variables effect will be significant. The figure presents interaction effects where more than single variables contribute to the latent variables.

	Customer Concepts	Decentralization	Inclusiveness	LGAs Performance	Moderating Effect 1	Political interference
Political Interference	Coefficients			-0.360		
Moderating Effect				-0.031		
LGAs Performance						
Inclusiveness				0.295		-0.178
Decentralization				-0.140		0.864
Customer Concept				-0.198		-0.160

Source: SMARTPLS Output, 2020

The findings from the path coefficients in Table 1 show a given standardization of weight ranging from -1 to +1 and the closeness of the weight to absolute 1 shows the strongest paths. On the other way round, weights close to zero reflect the weakest paths. Inclusiveness as NPM reforms index shows a positive but low contribution to the latent variable while decentralization and customer concept gives a negative but low contribution to LGAs performance. Also, Inclusiveness and customer concept (citizen's satisfaction) shows negative contribution to the moderating variable while decentralization gives a positive and strong contribution to political interference. This implies that outsourcing and collaboration with public enterprises are more influence by political instability, poor management, and government control. Politicians most times see these variables as an opportunity to payback their loyalist through awarding of contract and maximizing citizens' collaboration to their advantage. The absolute magnitude of decentralization index gives a better coefficient under the political interference (Moderating variable) while the Inclusiveness index gives a better coefficient under the LGAs performance. The result also shows that the path coefficients mediated by political interference shows weak standardized weight compared to the weight under LGAs performance while the political interference index gives a negative weight coefficient to LGAs performance. This implies that NPM reform index are good model for the prediction of LGAs performance while

the interference of the moderating variables seems significant with low coefficient. The identified NPM reform indices variables contribute significantly to the prediction of LGAs performance.

Table 2: Outer Loadings

	Customer Concepts	Decentralization	Inclusiveness/ Participation	LGAs Performance	Moderating Effect 1	Political Interference
Collaboration		0.930				
Customer Orientation	0.840					
Decentralization					0.923	
Effectiveness				0.891		
Efficiency				-0.783		
Equity				0.585		
Govt. Control						0.859
HRD			0.883			
Info. Disclosure	0.896					
Orgnal Str./ Mgt Style			0.879			
Outsourcing		0.914				
Political Instability						-0.378
Poor Mgt						0.789

Source: SMARTPLS Output, 2020

The outer model shows the indicators contribution to the definition of the latent variables. Though, the closer the loading to 1 the better, the convention well-fitting reflective model state that the path loading must be above 70% (criterion for minimum measurement loading) which explained about half of the variance in the indicator and its factor should be greater than error variance. From the result outputs, all the identified variables meet this condition except for equity – a variable under the LGAs performance, which could have been dropped but dropping the indicators did not improve composite reliability. Outer weight model varies from zero to an absolute maximum lower than 1, it has been established that the more the indicators for a latent variable, the lower the maximum and the lower the average outer model weight. The results of outer model weights justify why the weak loading could not be dropped as the indicators loading weight was greater than or close to 0.50. Also, this variable was a major constituent of the latent variables from the literature as the

metrics for measuring LGAs performance.

Table 3: R Square

	R Square	R Square Adjusted
LGAs Performance	0.809	0.799
Political Interference	0.782	0.775

Source: SMARTPLS Output, 2020

The common effect size measure in the path with political interference shows the R square of 0.782 (i.e. 78.2%). This variation effect is strong while direct effect shows R square of 0.809 which means that 80.9% of the variance in LGAs performance can be explained by the joint model of NPM reforms index metrics. This implies that the variation of direct effect is approximately higher than the moderating effect. Thus, this is a strong effect (i.e. the variation is greater than 80%) as the identified variables affect LGAs performance which implies that the remaining 19.1% is due to other variables not imputed in the model. Though, R-square greater than 80% suggests a possible multicollinearity problem (Tolerance = 1- R2) but in this case, there is no multicollinearity problem as tolerance in this data set is 0.20 at the extreme. However, adding predictors to a regression model tends to increase R2. The adjusted R-square of 0.799 is close to the unadjusted R square in this model because of the small number of variables involved in the model. This does not have any effect on the result output as the models were built from the literature. The findings revealed that moderating effect reduced the variation effect of the NPM reform index on LGAs performance.

Table 4: f Square

	Customer Concept	Decentralization	Inclusiveness	LGAs Performance	Moderating Effect 1	Political Interference
Customer Concept				0.056		0.036
Decentralization				0.012		0.672
Inclusiveness				0.132		0.052
LGAs Performance						
Moderating Effect 1				0.003		
Political Interference				0.143		

Source: SMARTPLS Output, 2020

The weights of these variables are shown in the f square table where the changes in contributions of NPM reform index were revealed according to their importance. The f square result revealed the strength of the path in the change effect. The contribution change of NPM reform index is 0.036, 0.572 and 0.052 of the latent variables to the moderating variable. This change weight was better compared to the change effect on the LGAs performance which gives a value of 0.056, 0.012 and 0.132 respectively for consumer concept (citizen's satisfaction), decentralization and inclusiveness. The moderating effect change of 0.003 is relatively low. The implication of this is that, political interference of political instability; poor management and government control slightly reduce NPM reform index effect on LGAs performance. With this, political instability, poor management, and government control have weak and low effect on LGAs equity, efficiency and effectiveness. F square change effect shows that decentralization metrics is stronger to other NPM reform index. The implication of this is that outsourcing and collaboration with public enterprises contribute most significantly to the change effect of LGAs performance in terms of equity, efficiency and effectiveness. Thus, it is important for the public enterprises to take these variables seriously to enhance favourable LGAs performance.

Table 5: Bootstrapping

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (|O/STDEV|)	P Values
Customer concept->LGAs Performance	-0.198	-0.197	0.107	1.845	**0.066**
Customer concept -> Political Interference	-0.160	-0.152	0.135	1.187	**0.236**
Decentralization ->LGAs Performance	-0.140	-0.148	0.135	1.037	**0.300**
Decentralization ->Political Interference	0.864	0.846	0.128	6.739	**0.000**
Inclusiveness ->LGAs Performance	0.295	0.297	0.096	3.084	**0.002**
Inclusiveness ->Political Interference	-0.178	-0.193	0.090	1.976	**0.049**
Moderating Effect 1 ->LGAs Performance	-0.031	-0.035	0.088	1.965	**0.049**
Political Interference ->LGAs Performance	-0.360	-0.353	0.091	3.954	**0.000**

Source: SMARTPLS Output, 2020

The PLS bootstrapping output showing the t and p value revealed that any t value above 1.96 will be significant at 95% confidence interval and 5% significance level. From the output result, it was observed that political interference is significant on LGAs performance. This implies that political instability, poor management and government control affect LGAs performance. This is supported by the moderating effect on LGAs performance with t value approximately to 1.96 and p-value less than 0.05. Though, the value seems to be on the borderline which explains a slight weak effect of the latent variable. Also, decentralization metrics was significant to the moderating variable and insignificant to the LGAs performance. This further revealed the important of these index used often by the politicians to their advantage. Customer concept (citizen's satisfaction) was not significance to both the moderating variable and LGAs performance. On the other hand, inclusiveness index is significant with both political interference andLGAs performance. With this, NPM reform index were significant in predicting LGAs performance except customer concept. It is suffice to say that, the local government areas performance are influence by NPM reforms index while political instability, poor management and government control has weak influence on the identified local government areas performance metrics of equity, efficiency and effectiveness.

Discussion of findings

The output of the analysis revealed that to enhanced LGAs performance of equity in term of fairness in social and economic development; efficiency in term of spending; and effectiveness in revenue generation, there is need to strengthen the LGAs collaborations with public enterprises, involvement of the services of professionals to take charge of some specific aspects (outsourcing), engages in open door policy by information disclosure and transparency to the citizenries, proper training and development of their staff, a good organizational structure and sound managerial orientation in bridging the gap between the government and the citizenry. All these NPM reform index metrics are important to improve LGAs performance. This is in line with the study of Diefenbach(2009);Levy(2010); and Shafritz and Guy(2018) who concluded that NPM index influence public enterprises performance. Likewise, the local government areas authorities need to work on customer concept index in terms of customer orientation (i.e. citizen's satisfaction) and information disclosure to instill citizen's trust and confidence in local government administration. It was also revealed that the loading weight of equity gives negative values far below the 0.70 cut off suggested for the loading weight. This is a great divergence from prior expectation. The equity in fairness is likely to increase if information disclosure and transparency is encouraged. Thus, when citizens' social and economic

expectations are met, there is high tendency of increase in participation such as willingness to pay taxes and other levies which will lead to revenue expansion. However, NPM reform index metrics influence LGAs performance in Nigeria.

Conclusion and Recommendations

NPM reforms index was evaluated against LGAs performance in Nigeria and the model was moderated by political interference to check if political instability, poor management and government control have effect on the interaction between the two latent variables. The findings revealed that both decentralization and inclusiveness index such as collaboration with public enterprises, involvement of professionals by outsourcing of some functions to increase revenue, proper organizational structure and sound management style, and training and development contribute significantly to LGAs performance in terms of equity i.e. fairness in social and economic development; efficiency in spending prudently; and effectiveness in revenue expansion with R-square of 80.9%; t-value of NPM reforms index variables are greater than 1.96 and p-value of less than 0.05. Meanwhile, the political interference used to moderate the latent variables is significant though with weak coefficient. The study concluded that NPM reform index influence LGAs performance while the political interference affects LGAs performance in Nigeria. This implies that NPM reform index were significant in predicting LGAs performance. The study recommended that; i. LGAs authority needs to focus on all identified NPM reforms index to improve fairness in social and economic development; efficiency in spending; and effectiveness in revenue expansion. Also, efforts should be geared towards customer orientation (i.e. citizen's satisfaction) and information disclosure to instillcitizen's trust and confidence. ii. State government should allow the LGAs to enjoy full autonomy without any form of political interference and control in spending and revenue generation to meet the growing social and economic need of the populace.

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Struggling with Economic Recession: Youth Unemployment and Crisis of Legitimation in Africa

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Abstract

There is growing citizens' expectations for responsive government that will proffer solutions to developmental challenges such as poverty, deteriorating infrastructure and unemployment among others. In most African countries, government are performing below expectations in some of the aforementioned priority areas, thus, underscoring the basis for growing legitimation crisis. The paper is conceptual in nature and relied extensively on literature review. The paper argued that government inability to develop progressive ideas, responsive jurisdiction, technical capability and effective planning to address the basic expectations of the citizen particularly rising youth unemployment, breeds systems of political deception that further encourage thuggery, hooliganism, criminality and insurgency among other which are natural consequence of legitimation crisis in Africa. The paper concluded that legitimacy is vital for social, economic and political development in Africa. The paper recommended that government should develop proactive policy measure to curtail economic recession in Africa through the promotion of fiscal and monetary policies that will encourage employment opportunity to the teeming unemployed youth.

Keywords: Youth, Economic recession, Unemployment, Crisis of legitimation, Africa, Developing nations.

Introduction

The economy of every nation is susceptible to business or economic cycles. Business cycles describe fluctuation of economic activities in medium-to-long-term. The instabilities of economic activities, if not well managed create economic contraction or recession. From economic perspective, a recession is a contraction in business cycle which upshots into overall slowdown in economic activities. Some of the major indicators that a country is experiencing economic recession include declining Gross Domestic Product-GDP, contraction of investment, declining capacity utilization, declining household disposable income, shrinking business profits, galloping inflation, bankruptcies and growing rate of unemployment among others (Maswana, 2009; Brahmi & Zouari, 2014; Adebayo, 2016; Inokotong & Salami, 2016). Since late 2008, countries across the world have been affected by the global economic slowdown or meltdown (Dooley, 2000; Hong & Tornell, 2005; Clever, 2017; Afolabi, 2017). For almost four decades, barely would a year pass without some form of reports of dire economic crisis in many nations of the world (Claessens & Rose, 2009). As the recession bites in most countries, poverty levelincreases, unemployment rises, the middle classes worldwide are destabilized, and there is growing risk of social and political tensions (Kodila-Tedika & Nguena, 2017).

Africa's comparatively weak global links indicated worst impacts of the global economic crisis compare to many developed and emerging economies (Bakrania & Lucas, 2017). Africa region as a whole has been exposed to slump and declining growth estimates lowered from 5 percent in 2008 to 1.7 percent as at April 2009 (International Monetary Fund-IMF, 2009). The Food and Agricultural Organization-FAO's statistical report on low- and middle-income nations in the period 1995–2017 shows that a huge impact of economic slowdowns and temporary recessions is expected (Food and Agricultural Organization of United State, 2020).Occasioned by economic recession, economic growth in Africa continues to lose momentum (Clever, 2017). According to Pells and David (2008), the global financial crisis of 2008 is a foremost financial crisis and the worst of its kind since the great depression of 1930. Ever before and after the two remarkable global financial disaster, the Great Depression (1929-1933) and Great Recession (2007-2009), a number of scholars have focused on what triggered economic fluctuations and recessions (Clever, 2017). According to Central Bank of Nigeria-CBN (2012), two major factors that can lead to recession are internal (endogenous) and external (exogenous). The internal factor on one hand, are the consequences of conflict of thoughts, corruption, misapplication of economic policy, regulatory negligence and policy distortions. The external factors on the other hand, are exogenous in nature and deal with issues occasioned by loss of government control on issued such as natural tragedy, climate change,

insurgency and wars.

The International Labour Organization (ILO) observed that in Africa the ratio of vulnerable employees had increased by 5 percentage points between 2007 and 2009 forcing the figure up to beyond imagination (ILO, 2011).With the declaration of COVID-19 by the World Health Organization (WHO) on 11 March 2020, as a global pandemic, the International Monetary Fund-IMF has proclaimed that the world is set to experience the worst economic catastrophe since the Great Depression (World Bank, 2020a). The World Bank-World Economic Outlook (WEO) report released in April 2020, projected that there will be a global shrinkage of 3 percent in 2020 (World Bank, 2020a). For advanced nations, GDP will decline by 6.1 percent, and for emerging and developing economies, a decline of 1 percent is forecasted. Based on the scenario simulations of the IMF, global economic growth could decline by 0.5 for the year 2020 (African Union, 2020).According to the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), for each month of lockdown, there will be a loss of 2 percentage points (p.p.) in annual GDP growth which will propelled funding requests from IMF by low-income and middle-income nations to cope with the looming economic challenges (OECD, 2020).

Technically, when a country recorded two consecutive quarters of negative or adverse growth in real GDP; within a given period, usually one year, it can be assumed that the country is experiencing recession. The economic crisis in some Africa countries is comprehended to have intensified many of the structural difficulties confronting Africa, particularly poverty and unemployment (Obadan & Odusola, 2010). According to Niall (2015), the incidence of long-term unemployment amongst the youth in most African countries increased by more than one third during economic recession and the circumstances of youth whose labour market prospects were weak prior to the economic crisis triggered beyond control. One of the daunting challenges to young people in every country is growing unemployment leading to high risk of long-term inactivity and exclusion (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), 2009). Africa's relatively fragile global linkages also suggested that the continent would experience the worst impacts during economic crisis. In other words, the weak competiveness of most Africa's nations will create impacts that are more devastating during economic recession.

Of all the consequences of economic recession, youth unemployment exerts the most devastating effects. One of the general descriptions of unemployment cover persons (aged 15–64) who during the period under consideration were currently available for work, vigorously seeking for work but were without work (Werner, 2011). Many nations both developed or developing countries have experienced some degree of unemployment in a particular period of their respective economic

trajectories. Economic literature offers numerous reasons for growing unemployment complications (Solow, 1980). According to Cappelli (2012), unemployment can be attributed to poor economic systems, and the unemployed workers for lack requisite education and skills. Kristina, Mindaugas, and Akvile (2017) transferred the problem of unemployment to external influences and tremors, or volatile events, while Otekhile and Zeleny (2016) contended that technology and labour market organizations are the bases of unemployment complications. From another perspective, Okafor (2011) argued that deficit in aggregate spending and lack of innovations are the critical factors for explaining unemployment challenges.

Opportunity to be gainfully employed is vital to all aspect of human lives, thus, being gainfully employed is not just a structure that permits people to get along in the society, but how an individual view and defines him or herself and how human being develop sense of self-worth (Burkhard, 2010). On the contrary, being unemployed, hurts and it is devastating particularly to the youth. Unfortunately, this is the situation several million young people inAfrica find themselves. Youth unemployment is growing geometrically in Africa and the percentage of youth unemployment is becoming uncontrollable (Okafor, 2011; Jennifer, Trish, Andrew, & Melissa, 2015). The associated costs of youth unemployment for individual and the nations are enormous. For instance, youth unemployment turns into greater spending on social benefits, aggravates inequalities and suppresses social mobility, lost income to the public purse through tax income forgone and complex spending on criminal justice system (Richard & David, 1982). Unemployment is connected with chains of undesirable health consequences, both physical and psychological (unhappiness, deviance behaviors, criminality etc.) are inclined to nurture disproportionately within the duration of unemployment.

Global youth unemployment rate is 12.7% in 2012, and the ILO estimated that it is likely to increase to 12.9% by 2017. Precisely, there are 1.2 billion youth in the world aged between 15 and 24, accounting for 17% of the world's population. Sub-Saharan Africa's population is anticipated to increase from 800 million to 1.5 billion by 2025, which is likely to compound existing labour market deficiency in Africa (The Brenthurst Foundation, 2011). Statistics' released by ILO also indicates that no less than 40% of all unemployed people are young and youth unemployment rates are generally four to five times more than the adult rates in every country in the world (ILO, 2016). There are numerous reasons for youth unemployment besides the general situation of the country and the labour market. Some of the notable reasons are low level of education and training systems, labour market and employment policies, lack of requisite hard and soft skills, the stratification and distribution of opportunities in society among others.

Irrespective, of the reasons causing unemployment in Africa, Bell and Blanchflower (2010) maintained that a policy measures aiming at solving youth unemployment is one of the most pressing challenges confronting governments across Africa continent. Relying on the aforementioned position, legitimization crisis has direct influence on the growing unemployment without any foreseeable solution in Africa.

Legitimation crisis denotes a general decline in the confidence of administrative functions, institutions and leadership. Jurgen Habermas, a German sociologist and philosopher (Habermas, 1976) first presented the notion of 'legitimation' in 1973. With a legitimation crisis, an institution, organization, or government lack the administrative competences to establish or preserve structures that is effective in implementing instrument of public policy to accomplish desired goals in the interest/ benefits of the society (Habermas, 1976). The sheer magnitude of youth employment has progressively penetrated the public's awareness over the past decades and there seems to be no hope in sight. Increasingly, there is a realization that intensities of youth unemployment are not merely a mirror of the business cycle, but tenacious structural challenges that have diverse implications (Godfrey, 2003). Africa's leaders' mono-causal explanation on growing unemployment is now under serious scrutiny given the multi-dimensional and entangled challenges confronting the large majority of the citizenry (**Ogundiya, 2010).** Because of growing unemployment and poverty, youth has become instrument of public disorder and criminality. Regrettably, the pace of democratic stability in most Africa's nations, which is anticipated to neutralize the storm of these challenges, has failed woefully. Rather, democratic dispensation in most Africa's countries has brought with it rising stream of challenges that further aggravate legitimation crisis in Africa (Rainer & Rainer, 2011). Given the prevalent of the aforementioned challenges, the teeming population most especially the youth engage in several form of illegitimate acts such as stealing, Yahoo boys, kidnapping and political thugs among others to pursue legitimacy for themselves. Against the aforementioned research background, this paper seeks to review economic recession, youth unemployment and crisis of legitimation in Africa

Economic Recession: Causes, Effects and Management

The historical origin of economic recession dates back to the3rd Century (AD 235-284) during the era of military anarchy also known as imperial crisis, which propelled several form of economic hardship, public crisis, assault and diseases (David, 2017). Other notable economic crises took place in the 14th Century during economic predicament in England and the 17th Century Dutch era of economic collapse. To date, there is no formal description of economic recession, but there is general acknowledgment that the word 'recession' denotes a period of

deterioration in economic activities. Most analysts refer to recession as a two consecutive quarters of degeneration in nation's real (inflation adjusted) GDP (Moswana, 2009; Brahmi & Zouari, 2014; Adebayo, 2016). According to Kodila-Tedika and Nguena (2017), most scholars and policy analyst often restrict the definition of economic recession to the declining GDP, but this measure does not adequately define the situation as a whole. The above definition was first promoted by Julius Shisken (1974) and has two inherent flaws. Firstly, the "two-quarter" principle is defective. Secondly, the predominant focus on GDP alone is constricted due to occasional revision (*The Economist*, 2008). On this note, Claessens and Rose (2009) remarked that it is more satisfactory to contemplate a broader set of measures of economic activities to determine whether a nation is actually experiencing a recession.

The National Bureau of Economic Research-NBER, offers an expansive definition of economic recession. According to NBER, recession is a substantialdeterioration in economic activity, which spread across the economy, enduringmore than a few months, usually visible in production, employment, real income and other economic indicators (Scott, Nicholas, & Steven, 2015). Recessions usually occur when there is an extensive fall in spending (an adverse demand shock) and may be caused by different issues, such as financial predicament, external trade shock, adverse shock or the bursting of economic activities. The NBER framework advocates four sequences to define recessions: (i) level of employment, (ii) industrial output, (iii) actual personal income less transfer payments, and (iv) the size of transactions of the manufacturing and trade sectors (Edward, 2008). The word recession, no doubt, is well known, and the public characteristically understands its undesirable consequences on the economy. However, Edward (2008) claimed that the concrete meaning of a recession is not very clear. In particular, at what level is the economy in recession? In addition, how can this be determined? In other words, what really makes a recession a recession? Even though an economy may show signs of dwindling economic activities prior to plugging into recession, the procedure of determining whether a nation has slumped into recession (or not) often takes time (Edward, 2008). Besides, diverse measures of economic activities may display contradictory behaviour, making it problematic to ascertain whether a particular nation is undoubtedly in distress based on deepening deterioration in economic activities (Edward, 2008).

According to CBN (2012) report, the above positions are explicable, because, the assessment and pronouncement processes include instituting a comprehensive decline in economic activity over a prolonged period and scrutinizing economic trend through many variables, which are often reviewed after their initial pronouncement. A thorough understanding of the sources of recession has

become one of the most enduring domains of research in economics. A number of issues can propel recession. Some of these issues are connected with severe changes in the prices of industrial inputs, which push up the general price level and resulting to decline in aggregate demand. A recession can also offshoot when government of a country attempt to reduce inflation by adopting contractionary monetary or fiscal policy measures. Recession may also be rooted in financial and stock market complications (strident assets prices, credit expansion, debt accumulation, and shares price manipulation etc.). Recession can also occur when there is sharp decline in external demand, especially in nations with strong export based sectors. Other issues that can lead to recession are high interest rates, declining consumer confidence andreduced real wages. Gabbi, Kalbaska, and Vercelli (2014) attempts to clarify series of financial meltdown and economic crises from the perspective of incentives that change because of securitization and contagion procedures. Thus, for financial crisis to meet the requirements of a cyclical downturn in the financial system, it imply, the moment that ends a period of growth and unlocks a recession or even depression (Kodila-Tedika & Nguena, 2017).

The experience of most African nations as regard financial meltdown and economic recession crisis most often than not spread into Africa via business cycle and contracted trade relations rather than financial links (Maswana, 2009). According to Padayachee (2010), analysis of the global recession in developing nation's vis-à-vis African countries trails a simple logic linked to exportation and commodity prices. Zulu (2011) stated that macro and micro level factors are mostly adopted to examine the complications of recession on Africa. Macro level influences consist of level of unemployment, declined commodity prices, contracted trade; lessen foreign aid inflow, etc. While the micro level influences are connected to how the macro level issues impact the household and individual (Padayachee, 2010). According to Keynes (1936) and Damachi (2001), there are a number of approaches to combat economic recession. These include:

i. Countercyclical expenditure and investment
ii. Lesser taxes and incentives
iii. Accommodative monetary policy to propel lower reserve desires
iv. Huge borrowing to finance infrastructural development
v. Recognition and acceptance of normal inflation rate
vi. Bail outs option

Defining Unemployment

Unemployment has long been identified as one of the most persistence and problematic issues to manage. The notion of "unemployment" is a multidimensional phenomenon. However, it comprises economic, political and social elements. Unemployment is also challenging to operationalize because its

definition and measurement is contingent on the economy of the nation's, socio-cultural settings, and education system among others. According to the National Bureau of Statistics-NBS (2016), labour force of a nation refers to category of people or citizens who are enthusiastic and are able to utilize their skills at any given period for gainful employment. While the unemployed are the individuals who have no work, but are seeking for work. Karl and Allan (1978) viewed unemployment as a measure of distance between short- and long-run equilibrium situations of the labour market, not a consequence of the incapability of people to find employment. Jeffrey (2010) contended that unemployment is because of incongruity between the distribution of labour, industries and the distribution of demand among productive entities. ILO stated that unemployment refers to those people who have not worked more than one hour during reference period but who are available for and aggressively searching for work (O'Higgins, 1997). In the opinion of Fajana (2000), unemployment refers to circumstances where people who are enthusiastic and skilful, and are unable to find suitable paid employment. According to Adebayo (1999), unemployment occurs when members of the labour force who are willing to work find it difficult to get jobs. Martin (2000) maintained that the present-day configuration of unemployment is not well suited within the customary interpretation of unemployed who are unable to find paid job. In the opinion of Okafor (2011) there seems to be no agreement on the meaning of unemployment. However, in a simple term, unemployment refers to the circumstances of people who are without jobs. According to Ajufo (2013), changes in the labour market, structure from local and global creates some form of discrepancies between employment and unemployment, which make the notion of unemployment to lose much of its comprehensive description. However, the above narrative is mostly correct in developing countries, where few people have consistent employment on a contractual basis and where the deficiency of benefits makes unemployment somewhat a pointless concept. According to Richard and David (1982), the cyclical comprehension of unemployment is the consideration of two rather dissimilar occurrences. From this perspective, unemployment can upsurge either because fewer jobs are available or because more workforces choose to seek available jobs. The aforementioned two causes **of**unemployment evidently have quite diverse economic impacts; while the former is undoubtedly suggestive of a deteriorating labour market condition, the latter mirror an enlargement in labour market situations (Richard & David, 1982).

A review of economics literature reveals that scholars have identified numerous forms of unemployment. These include structural unemployment, frictional unemployment, cyclical or Keynesian unemployment, and residual unemployment (Ademola, 1999; William & Bill, 2011; Capelli, 2012; Uddin &

Uddin, 2013). Structural unemployment arises when there is an alteration in the structure of an industry or the economic activities of the nation. This may arise from technological revolutions, paucity of capital resources in relation to their demand. Frictional unemployment is triggered by industrial resistance in which jobs may exist, yet the workforces may be unable to fill them either because they do not have the necessary skill, or because they are not aware of the presence of such jobs. Seasonal unemployment arises from seasonal differences in the activities of particular businesses instigated by climatic changes, changes in customers' preferences or innate nature of such industries. Cyclical or Keynesian unemployment is attributed to changes in operation or business cycle of an industry that arises when the aggregate demand falls below full employment level (Keynes, 1936). Residual unemployment is initiated by personal factors such as old age, physical or mental incapacity, poor job attitudes, insufficient skills and training to secure paid employment work.

An Overview of Youth Unemployment in Africa

Unemployment is a global phenomenon but it occurs commonly in developing countries of the world. The growing occurrence of unemployment has created huge social, economic, political and psychological consequences in most Africa countries. Youth is among the greatest formidable force and resources that a nation can have in order to enhance its socio-economic development. Likewise, availability of large number of youth constitutes energetic, courageous and adaptable force of change to nation's social economic development, if they are well integrated and groomed towards productive economic activities. Therefore, huge youth's unemployment in any nation is a sign of far more multifaceted problems. According to ILO report, the percentage of youth unemployment is progressively growing and the figure of those without jobs persisted at an all-time higher rate across the globe but more pervasive in developing countries (ILO, 2016). Unemployment has consequence that is more devastating on youth that portends immense vulnerabilities when understood from the point of view that young people are the next generation of potentially productive economic and social actors. The impact of youth unemployment generates a direct loss of income to the unemployed and devastating influence on the government in terms of enlarged social benefit expenditures and forfeiture of tax revenues income. It also has associated cost implication to the economy in terms of lost output.

In Africa, youth's unemployment constitutes huge problems, which propelled other criminal tendencies in the youths.

According to Woolfolk (1998), youthful ages mark the fundamental period of human development, because at this stage, they are easily responsive to

vocational or entrepreneurship training as opposed to self-destructive behaviours. Within the OECD countries, formal measure of youth unemployment is defined by the ILO as unemployed young person (aged between 16 and 24) that are without work, available for work and enthusiastically looking for work. Issues such as lack of requisite experiences and abilities, talents incongruity and age factors have been said to contribute to the high youth unemployment compared to the adult cluster (Godfrey, 2003). Growing rates of unemployment among teeming youth have been described from two perspectives, namely, traditional and structural views. The traditional interpretation holds that the challenge to youth unemployment is due to lack of job availability. The second perspective accommodates huge flow into unemployment trap rather than the lengthy period of unemployment. Contemporary viewpoint perceives employment instability as the root causes of youth unemployment. Scholars such as Okojie (2009) and Ojeifo (2013) have documented a number of issues that propel unemployment of graduates in Nigeria. These include explosive population growth, poor school curricula, unguided expansion of the educational system, corruption, declining capacity of the manufacturing sector, high rate of rural-urban migration, poor access to information, destructive linkages and influences among youth, lack of talents applicable to the workplace and lack of cognate experience among others.

The Notion of Legitimation Crisis: African Perspective

The concept of legitimacy is use in a wide variety of social contexts. For instance, it is legitimate for a manufacturer to charge a fair price for its products or service, and it is also legitimate for a government to provide basic amenities for citizens. In these circumstances, the notion of legitimacy is adopted to label not just the capability to act, but the right or prerogative to act. In general, the idea of legitimation crisis infiltrates the work of Jurgen Habermas in his book "*Managing Legitimacy: Strategic and Institutional Approaches*". Suchman described legitimacy as a widespread discernment or supposition that the activities of an entity are needed, suitable, and proper within some socially built system of customs, values, beliefs and descriptions (Suchman, 1995). According to Dogan (2004) and Fergusson and Yeates (2014), if citizen have the conviction that existing institution are suitable or morally right, then those institutions are legitimate. The original connotation of legitimacy lies in the political domain, originating from the classic political-legal word "legislate" where legitimacy is largely viewed to denote the right to rule or the right to govern (Coicaud, 2002). Legitimacy is generally comprehended as prerogative to control, which commonly means right to issue influential commands that necessitate obedience from those subject to the leader. Legitimacy is a social notion in a strict sense – it

defines an occurrence that is inherently social and because of its intrinsically social nature, politicians, journalists and academics with other social concepts such as sagacity, fairness, legality and ethics often equate legitimacy. As expressed by Rainer and Rainer (2011), in the politics of legitimation, legitimacy is not a substitute.

One of the concepts that have attained much ill repute in political and social sciences is the term "crisis. Too many variants of it for a single study to accommodate, for instance, there is crisis of welfare state, crisis of political parties, crisis of legislature, crisis of despotisms and crisis of democracy to mention a few (Herbamas, 1976). Jurgen Habermas' offers four dimensions of crises, the first one relating to the economy is known as (Type 1: economic crisis), the second political-administrative system (Type 2: rationality crisis), the third is institutions of democracy (Type 3: legitimation crisis), and finally, the individuals and their work ethics (Type 4: motivational crisis).Legitimation crisis, according to Habermas (1976) is an input predicament that transpires when the legitimation system failed in maintaining the requisite level of mass loyalty. Perceivedlegitimation crisis can be viewed as a crisis of change, that is, a change from conventional approach to modernity (Lipset, 1959). Likewise, loss of legitimacy typically ensues when a political institution no longer has the capability to offer satisfactory access to the political process or expectations of its citizen (Lipset, 1959). In simple words, legitimation crisis is a challenge that stems from hindrance, unfulfilled need, loss of hope and frustration of the expectation of those governed in a society.

The success or failure of government is contingent on the degree of its reasonableness, capability to meet and exceed the needs and aspirations of her citizens and by extension general acceptance by the people – i.e. its legitimacy (Coicaud, 2002). Legitimacy is undeniably a central notion in contemporary governance because of the growing expectations of citizens. From practical viewpoint, legitimacy is what makes citizen willingly comply with instructions from constituted authority. For decades, government in most African countries have put their knees on the neck of developmental agenda and good governance. The result has been the strangulation and asphyxiation of subnational entities by the ruling class, leading to inequity, injustice, absence of fair play in the distribution of resources, retardation of economic growth, debt conundrum, low quality of life, and more importantly, the neglect of the welfare of the youths who constitute the vast majority of the population in most African countries.

Conclusion and Policy Recommendations

This paper discusses economic recession and how it breads youth unemployment and crisis of legitimation in Africa. From the review of literature, it is clear that

the challenges generated by economic recession are more of structural than of monetary or fiscal. For the bulk of African countries, the level of economic activities during economic meltdown and recession has been substantially worse and devastating. Economic recession is not a new phenomenon in most African countries because countless nations such as Ghana, Ethiopia, Zimbabwe and South Africa, Nigeria to mention a few, have faced serious economic complications. The state of the economy in most Africa countries portrays a very fragile situation that aggravates developmental challenges such as unemployment, fraud, youth restiveness among others. Youth unemployment in particular persists as a pressing issue in most African countries and it upsurge more during economic recession. The level of unemployment is a reflection of the state of a country's economy. To some degree, youth unemployment is greatly contingent on the overall state of the economy. Therefore, wider access and opportunity to engage in meaningful work that enhances self-esteem, comfort and social inclusion is a right in an ideal society, irrespective of gender, age, social, class and ethnicity among others. Scholars and policy analysts for the most part have pronounced unemployment as unanticipated burden on the currentgeneration of youth. High levels of youth unemployment also symbolize a misused resource on the part of Africa nations because it limits opportunities.

Unemployed youth has been described has “a lost generation”, not only because of output loss but also because of enduring direct and indirect consequences (poverty, criminality, social costs, social exclusion, and obstruction of personal development opportunity etc.) The consequences of unemployment on young people, their families and society at large are huge and very complicated (Sulaiman, Rahim, Akintunde, & Ajiroba, 2016). The trouble in securing employment and to live a meaningful livelihood desired by youth create intense sense of frustration when jobs are not available, leading to inability to meet basic needs (such as food, shelter, clothing, education and access to health care service among others). Two prominent consequences of economic recession are rising degrees of unemployment and poverty that breed legitimacy crisis. Crisis of legitimation create severe consequences on the quality that society ascribes to constituted authority or government. When citizen ordains positive perception or quality of governance, both citizen and government are said to enjoy or command legitimacy, which is essential to the cultivation and maintenance of not only law and order, peace and stability among others but institute legitimacy on the part of the government to govern and to be respected.

Economic recession has created serious difficulty for youth in securing work, which, if left unaddressed, will create a constraint on Africa economic growth and more profoundly create crisis of legitimation. The above conclusion is based on a simple analogy that an idle mind is not only a devil workshop but also tools

through which several other detrimental evils can be perpetuated. The above scenario succinctly captured the present circumstance of most countries in Africa continent that is characterized with terrorism, insurgency, kidnapping, civil unrest and lack of respect and order for constituted authority. The youth are particularly important to the prosperity of Africa nations because it has been projected that 25% of the global population is between the ages of 15-24 years of age and that in Africa; by 2025, two-thirds of Africa population will be under 25 years of age (The Brenthurst Foundation, 2011). The above demographic statistics presents remarkable opportunities for Africa as a whole, but also pose significant challenges, if the issue of rising youth unemployment is not proactively curtailed.In the absence of jobs and meaningful living opportunities, young people in Africa will naturally seek other approaches to discharge their energies. The immediate consequence is rising violence, growing brain drain, and revolt against constituted authority which is nothing but a huge misfortune on Africa's growth and competitiveness.

The dramatic decline in the labour markets occasioned by economic recession badly reshapes the informal economy, and contrary to conventional economic understanding, the informal economy is failing to serve as a cushion to the formal economy during economic recession.In the end, this has enlarged poverty, aggravates unemployment situation, decline in the states' capabilities to offer social services and absence of social security safety nets in almost all Sub-Saharan African states(Clever, 2017). Over 820 million people in the world were hungry in2018, which accentuates the enormous complications of accomplishing the Sustainable Development Goal(SDG) of Zero Hunger by 2030 (United Nations Children's Fund-UNICEF, 2019). Currently, the unprecedented COVID-19 pandemic is complicating global economic prospects in ways no one could have anticipated and the consequences has been projected to be severe in most African countries. Economic stimulus and foreign aid is urgently needed and is being currently deployed throughout the world. However, most countries in Sub-Saharan African states lack the capabilities and abilities to use the bail out packages and stimulus at the level that is necessary to curb the magnitude of the COVID-19 challenges (Food and Agricultural Organization of United State, 2020; World Bank, 2020b).

In conclusion, the socio-economic impact of legitimation crisis is real. It is therefore, crucial for policy-makers to make concerted effort to lessen the adverse associated challenges posed by legitimation crisis. Job creation on a massive scale is crucial for guaranteeing that young people have access to economic prospects. Public policy can also exert powerful influence on the rate of unemployment in most African countries. For instance, on the supply side of the labour market, a number of public policies such tax holiday, promotion of spirit of

entrepreneurship and public-private sector collaboration are some of the measures that can ameliorate the challenges connected to unemployment in Sub-Sahara Africa.The paper offers the following policy recommendations to address the menace of economic recession, youth unemployment and crisis of legitimation in Africa.

1. In fashioning out the case or policy measure to come out of economic recession in Africa, it is imperative to articulate aggressive fiscal and monetary policies to propel and support the inherently weak economy; therefore, government need to offer more support and extension of unemployment benefits to the teeming unemployed youth.
2. Responsive leadership is the hallmark of good governance as the behaviour of the citizens not only youth is directed and shaped by the type and quality of leadership. No doubt, leadership legitimacy is not commanded but earned. Therefore, for the needed reform and development to thrive in Africa; a reasonable level of generally acceptable and legitimacy must subsist by doing the needful in all critical areas that impacts negatively on youth employment and other developmental challenges.
3. No doubt, young people are more readily integrated into the domain of work when formal education systems are flexible and responsive to the needs and expectations of the labour market. On this note, it is important to ensure that school curricula and quality of teaching matches the expectation of labour market to enhance youth employability.
4. There is need to create a favourable regulatory environment for private sector investment to thrive in Africa. To accomplish this goal, there is need to create an enabling environment for industries and private sector participation in economic activities.

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Alternative Work Arrangements in Nigeria: Is it avoidable by Modern Organizations?

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Abstract

Alternative work arrangement is growing in use across countries of the world because of population increase on a daily basis due to migration. This has created imbalance in workers' survivability across the globe. Thus, this study examined the effect of level of acceptability of alternative work arrangements on the practice of alternative work arrangements as necessity among city workers. The study employed a survey research with 121 staff of Globacom Telecommunication Company in Lagos metropolis. 121 sample size was determined using Taro Yamane [1967] formula for estimating sample size from the population of 174 staff housed at their headquarter, while correlation was used to analyse the relationship between the variables. The correlation result [0.591] revealed a strong positive relationship between level of acceptability of alternative work arrangements and its practice in workplaces with $p = 0.001$ indicating that level of acceptability of alternative work arrangements is significant on organizations' survival making its practice as a necessity. In conclusion, it is a necessity for modern organizations to start thinking of alternative work arrangements in their operation as an unavoidable work schedule and the study therefore recommended that alternative work arrangements should be introduced into workplace practice with commensurate infrastructural development from all stakeholders so that organizations can stay

alive and not lose their talents to competitions.

Keywords: Alternative work arrangements; flexible working; competitive performance management; organization; modern organisations

Introduction

Since the beginning of time, man has always occupied himself with work. This phenomenon has made him grow in all facet of his existence. Work is an everyday event that takes a good portion of the day from people that engage in it because it takes effort and time to complete (Mohamed, 2018).

However, as modernization continue to unfold unabatedly, complexities have also grown around the world of work (Atayero, 2017). Work used to take place in very close locations to people many decades back, but that is not the case with so many millions of people today.

Population has increased in cities across the world because of mobility of labour and infrastructural deficiencies that has triggered rural-urban drift. Houses are congested, streets are filled with cars and on and on, we can continue to list all the aches that surround the world of work in our modern time (Supreet, Kremer & Mullainathan, 2015). However, with all these growing challenges, a major way of making life satisfactory for employees in the age of increased pressure is through alternative work arrangements (De Menezes, 2011).

Just as we know, there is no problem that does not have solution, and as such, when the problem of work stress and its consequences began to take its toll on workers, a new line of thought began to creep into men's heart and the movement for better work and life was born (Barling, Inness& Gallagher, 2002).

In the attempt of workers to balance their work with their family, a movement called alternative work arrangements was birthed, and promoted greatly by the recent global pandemic- Covid-19, that forced the entire work community to seek for alternative means of staying productive (ILO press release, 2020).

All the job hassles that people go through are thrown under the light of creative thinking of both managers and workers even government is throwing its weight behind the promotion and acceptance of alternative work arrangements (Nye, 2010).

If there are no alternatives to a more balanced work and life, productivity will be in jeopardy and that means not only the worker directly involved will suffer, but the nation at large and every other stakeholder around such worker. Moreover, a question to be asked from modern organizations in Nigeria whether they can avoid this global trend or not(Waiganjo & Kihoro, 2016). All across the big cities of the world, alternative work arrangements are growing in use because of the

solution it proffers to the workers and the economy (Mas & Pallais, 2017).

In the wake of the last century, migration across the globe, to western world, has made it practically uneconomical to be keeping all workers of corporation under the same roof at the same time because of the growing demand on workers life ranging from personal to family matters (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). In addition to these trends, there are workers in several organizations that are thousands of kilometres away from each other, which may only function optimally and satisfactorily through the adoption of alternative work arrangements (Loan, Codruta & Patricia, 2010).

Benefits are recorded in firms that adopt alternative work arrangements across the developed world but what is unclear in this part of the world is whether we will continue to choke our city workers with daily work hassles or we will, like the developed world, consider adopting this phenomenon.

It is therefore in the background of the foregoing that this study seeks to examine whether alternative work arrangements is avoidable by modern organizations in Nigeria using organizations that are located in Lagos central business district as case study.

Statement of Problem

Alternative work arrangement is gaining popularity in the world of work all across the globe according to (Nye, 2010). However, the issue with Nigeria is the level of preparedness to face this reality and accept it as part of workplace norms in the 21st century.

For alternative work arrangements to become part of the consideration in the world of work in Nigeria there are some basic infrastructures that must be in place like access to ICT and other supporting infrastructures and facilities.

The challenge of keeping work and life at a balance is another factor that should be in consideration when alternative work arrangement is being considered. Modern workers are stressed to the limit when it comes to commuting back and forth work.

Furthermore, the availability of workers with specific skills and competence in particular locations, which may be far from employers' location, contributes to the reason why alternative work arrangement is necessary for modern organizations in Nigeria.

In the light of the above preamble, modern organizations in Nigeria may not be able to escape the adoption of alternative work arrangement in order for them to be able to measure up with their counterparts in the western world and other developed economies.

Research Question

The question that this study seeks to answer is stated herewith: does acceptability

of alternative work arrangement among workforce significantly influence organizational survival? Whether organizations in Nigeria as a growing economy, particularly in our cities, will be able to avoid the use of alternative work arrangements in the midst of growing work hassles that people go through on daily basis in our time.

Objective of the Study

The objective of this study is to examine the effect of acceptability of alternative work arrangements among city workers on modern organization survival; hence, the need for the study in investigating its necessity in modern day organization in Lagos metropolis. As people struggle back and forth work in cities across Nigeria, there will be what can be done, in their own opinion that can bring solution to the headaches surrounding their work.

It is this perception that this study seeks to examine among Nigeria modern organizations workers in order to know whether alternative work arrangements can be jettisoned or not.

In specific term, the study seeks to examine the level of acceptability of alternative work arrangements on the well-being of staff that need to be productive for organizations to survive in this modern age.

Research Hypothesis

Hypothesis is objective stated in nullity (Kothari and Gaurav, 2014) and as it is in this study, the objective is to examine the influence of acceptability of alternative work arrangements among city workers on modern organizations' survival.

Therefore, the hypothesis in this work is:

Ho: Acceptability of alternative work arrangements does not have significant influence on modern organizations' survival.

Literature Review

Conceptual Clarifications

Alternative Work Arrangements

The context of work is changing very rapidly across the globe and this phenomenon has compelled organizations to rethink the way work is being done (Atayero, 2017). Alternative work arrangement is any alteration to the traditional way in which work is done that produces same or better result (Lutz, 2012). At times, it is referred to as flexible work arrangements or flexible work schedules.

The troubles of transportation through heavy traffic to work and from work is one of the reasons, why workplaces are seeking alternatives and alteration of their work pattern in order to remain competitive and efficient (Waigango & Kihoro, 2016). If workers spend the whole day in the traffic jam, the question one begins

to ask is what time will be left for work to be done in the workplace.

Another problem facing modern organizations that has necessitated research into alternative work arrangements is space. The cities are growing at a rate that put infrastructures under pressure and as such, there is need to manage space for offices and other vehicular movements in and around the cities (Rau & Hyland, 2002).

Modifications to the schedule, location and way that work is done in a workplace fall under alternative work arrangements. In addition, the work that is usually done by l0am on a particular day can be modified to be done either earlier or later under alternative work arrangements (Subramony et al, 2018). So also is the location, where the work is done from; it can be modified to suit and serve a particular purpose with benefits accruing to all parties involved.

Types of Alternative Work Arrangements

1. Compressed work schedule
2. Flexible start and end times
3. Reduced hours
4. Job sharing
5. Remote work
6. Telecommuting

Compressed Workweeks

This is defined as an alternative work arrangement that grants employee to work 40-hour workweek in 3-10 days within two weeks (Bliss and Thornton, 2010).

Under this arrangement, employees can compress their work schedule into fewer days so as not to show up at work on some days within the working week.

The idea behind this is to free-up time for employees to cater for other aspects of their lives, which need to be balanced for productivity sake.

Flexible Start and end times

Eldridge and Nisar (2011) opined that traditional time for starting and ending work on a typical work day can be altered with the sole purposes of reducing absences from work and reduction in vehicular jams.

As the name of this arrangement suggests, starting and finishing work time are replaced by a policy that allows the employee to choose the time to appear and disappear from work.

There is need for understanding in handling flexible start and end times alternative work arrangement because the components must be taken care of. A major component of flexitime is CORE TIME – and this is a period within the working day that all employees are expected to be at work. It is within this core time that an employee can choose to arrive and leave the workplace (Hicks & Klimoski, 1981).

Rather than agonizing on how to handle the home front and office mad rush, allowance is created for employees to get to work within the core hour to balance his/her life as much as possible and not jeopardize performance.
Work-life-balance is a huge concept that has gained ascendancy in human resource practice across the globe and modern organizations may not be able to close their eyes to anything that can promote it particularly alternative work arrangements.

Reduced hours
This is alternative work arrangement that requires that a worker observe a work schedule that is below full-time.
In other words, the meaning is found in the name-reduced hours. For example, if an employee works 8 hours in a day, the hours may be reduced to 5 hours or less, depending on what was arranged with the employer. The adjustment will ultimately benefit both the employer and the employee in one way or the other (Eldridge & Nisar, 2011).

Job Sharing
Society for Human Resource Management defined job sharing as the event of having two different employees doing the tasks of one full-time position. This alternative work arrangement allows two people to handle the job that one person will do in the event of that one person being a full-time jobholder.
Illustratively, two employees with each one taking 10 hours can share a 20-hour task. Another typical example is a 5-day task for a full-time staff being split into two and a half-day for two employees.
Job sharing is different from part-time in the sense that it involves two different employees handling the job of a full-time staff (Bliss & Thornton, 2010).
Lutz (2012) wrote about the benefits of job sharing both to the organization practicing it and the employees involved in it. He also mentioned that the practice of job sharing is not as common as other forms of alternative work arrangements.

Remote Work
Remote work is a form of alternative work arrangement whereby workers do not get to leave their home for the work. Tasks, completed, and submitted from home via computer networks and other ICT devices. The difference between remote working and telecommuting is that remote worker will never have to leave home for office at any time but telecommuter have period of showing up at the site/office in order to continue/finish task(s).

Telecommuting
This is a work arrangement that allows employees to spend part of their time

working off-site, most of the time at home. E-mails, computer networks, and other technology can empower employees to stay in close contact with their office and do as much work as if they are in the office location. While this arrangement does not come very free of shortcomings, it is beneficial to both employees and employers.
The employees will escape the hustle and bustle life of going to and coming from work. They can combine the work at home with other assignment that may be of personal interest.
Moreover, not every telecommuter has the courage to leave breakfast table for their desk to start work. In addition, scheduling meeting with employees may not be easy since every worker have different days of showing up at work.
The growing difficulties that surround going back and forth work and that of office expenses plus parking space challenges have made it necessary for flexible working arrangements to be made in the 21st century world we live in.

Concept of Organization Survival
Organization survival means the ability of stakeholders in organizations to creatively and painstakingly, on a continual basis, navigate the turbulent environment in which they operate to remain in service to the point where their costs are covered with little or no profit (Cutlip, 2019). There are proactive steps that can be taken in ensuring organizations survive in modern time as we are in which scholars have looked into. Oloda (2017) evaluated strategies that could assist firms to the ever-changing world of business environment out of which alternative work arrangements form a vital part.
The link between organization survival and alternative work arrangements has gotten to a point where stakeholders do not have the luxury of not creating different work arrangements that will ensure that their firms make it through the uncertainties surrounding their operations as witnessed in COVID-19 pandemic (Subramony, Solnet, Groth, Yagil, Hartley, Beomcheol Kim & Galubovskaya, 2018).

Theoretical Framework
Theory of Work Adjustment (TWA) explains the relationship of a person to his or her work environment. This theory seeks to describe the impact of work environment on the person that is doing the work. Is there satisfaction and/or motivation given the circumstances that surround the work a worker does? There is a way the work environment significantly affects the outcome or result that an employee generates at work. If the environment is not inspiring, no matter how creative or talented a worker is, there is bound to be crisis (Bandura, 1977).
Therefore, the satisfaction, motivation and inspiration plus freedom of choice that alternative work arrangements offer modern day workers makes it suitable

for this research work to settle for theory of work adjustment (TWA) in theorizing this study. It is also referred to as ***the person-environment correspondence theory*** and was developed by Rene Dawis, George England and Lloyd Lofquist in University of Minnesota in 1964.

"Drivers" of Alternative Work Arrangements

Modern organizations cannot overlook the need for flexible working as rapid changes continue to upturn traditional work settings.

These changes have brought about both benefits and challenges that make it almost mandatory for organizations that will maximize their human capital to consider their operations and take necessary actions in order to remain competitive in their respective industries.

In convincing organizations to embrace flexible working arrangements, the change in context of work that is creating new opportunities and challenges must be explained to decision makers and the opportunities are embedded in the following points:

1. **Advanced Technologies:** This is a benefit triggered by continual improvement in technology that has led to reduction in cost of performing operations across all industries. Work that is more complex has to be standardized and computerized leading to automation thereby giving room to employees to better manage their time. In addition, there has been increased collaboration with different people in different locations all leading to agility and flexibility. The advancement in technology has made it possible for knowledge sharing that transcend territories and create virtual based working arrangements across the globe. All of these developments allows modern worker to arrange his life around his work in a meaningful and purposeful manner.
2. **New Societal Values:** There is a yearning by employees all over the world for their work to have meaning and purpose and this has created a global push that makes workers to desire to design their work in such a way that it will be personally meaningful to them. Autonomy and choice is equally growing in the society globally for agility and mobility. Instead of employers designing the way employees work – which is the traditional mode of relationship in the workplace, employees want to design their work pace and at their own designed location.
3. **Changing Demographics:** There is a phenomenal increase in the number of years that people are expected to live due to advancement in healthcare and wellness business and this has triggered the blend of older workers mixing with younger workers to share different lifestyles in the same workplace. This blend ultimately calls for alternative work arrangements

for these different people.

Also, the emergence of people staying longer in the workplace for a longer period is making multiple generations of people to work together simultaneously (Gratton, 2012). This may mean a marriage of inconvenience of some sort that calls for creativity in the way work is arranged in order to avoid unhealthy conflict in the organization. The lifestyle of Baby Boomers is different from that of Generation X (1965-1979) and Generation Y (1980-1994). In addition, according to Lyons and Kuron(2014), Generation Z (1995-2000) people will be in the workforce by 2020 with its unique challenges. So, all of these drive modern organization toward alternative work arrangements.

4. **Rapid Globalization:** This strong force is driving organizations into creating alternative work arrangements. The entire world is rapidly shrinking to become a global village where everyone have instant access to each other through technology.

   Consumers all over the world are shifting to a culture of 24/7 access to goods and services and this culture cannot be sustained by the traditional work setting of the past centuries. The ability to connect to and understand customers require that organizations become agile and flexible in their approach and as such sends a signal of alternative work settings to the firm.

   In addition, there is limit to what firms can do to with resource control, as they do not have all the resources they need. Sustaining growth and maintaining the global populace is equally forcing organizations into creating alternatives in their work schedules.

   Carbon emission is a big challenge in commuting employees and running offices and if the earth will be sustained according to environmentalists, there is need for organizations to adopt more efficient way of working that will depend less on carbon emitters (Gratton, 2012).

Company-Specific Benefits of Alternative Work Arrangements

AnyConnect at Cisco

This platform created by Cisco and available to all employees provides access to the Cisco network from any location using any device. This platform ensures a seamless working experience comparable to Cisco office set-up.

Business Continuity at Ernst and Young

Flexible working has allowed many employees to work in ways that more closely match the needs of their customers by moving away from the traditional 9 to 5 setup and towards a more blended working life that acknowledges individual project needs.

Office Savings at BT

Since the 1980, BT has been adapting its physical infrastructure to embed flexibility. Today, Bi employs around 70,000 flexible workers, saving around $700 million a year in property and reducing absenteeism by 60% (Gratton, 2012).

General Benefits of Alternative Work Arrangement

1. **Increase in employee productivity** as recorded by many organizations that have bought into alternative work arrangements.
2. **Virtual Teams becoming more pronounced and effective** – This is seen across the globe of people working together and not having to be together physically in a location thereby reducing cost of travel and office space.
3. **Customers' needs are better met**: Alternative work arrangements gives room to face global environment by empowering businesses for continuity and customer coverage. Zones and locations do not have to be a barrier with the help of technology under alternative work arrangements.
4. **Reduction in business travel**: carbon emissions and congestion are reduced to a good percentage with alternative work arrangements. Works can be done and submitted without physical movement and this reduces costs and risks.
5. **Customers' expectations are matched and at times exceeded**: In a modern world where customers demand for 24/7, access to goods and services, alternative work arrangements have made it possible with real time access to products and services coupled with real time customer care.
6. **Agility of infrastructure**: By buying into flexible working, tangible infrastructural savings can be recorded by reducing office space usage.
   Furniture, equipment and fittings consume space in offices and once the cost of using such is known, a flexible arrangement can be created around it that will crash the cost.
   In addition, energy is another source of cost in an office, particularly in data centres in offices. Cloud-based computing is eliminating such costs under alternative work arrangements that promote flexibility.

Empirical Framework

Katz and Krueger (2016) conducted research into the rise of the use of alternative work arrangements, in the United States in late 2015 and they found out that between 2005 and 2015, there is an increase in the percentage of temporary help agency workers (on-call workers, contract workers, independent contractors/freelancers) from 10.07% to 15.8% alone. They also found out that percentage of workers hired out through contract companies showed the largest rise from 1.4% in 2005 to 3.1% in 2015.

Blix and Sorenson (2016) examined the perceptions of participants and non-participants in alternative work arrangements. The outcome of their study is that participants in alternative work arrangements are really having a good time with their work and personal lives as they enjoy greater level of freedom and productivity while non-participants are a bit not sure of what the outcome will be since they have not experienced it.

The participants, according to the study, seem to be more positive about the balance they are enjoying and hope that non-participants will give it a trial (Owoyemi, Elegbede & Gbajumo-Sheriff, 2011).

White (2018) examined the career penalties associated with part-time working arrangement using data from big four professional services firms in the United States. His study found that part-time workers returning to full-time work were bias penalized and labelled as employees with low commitment when supervisors have fewer or limited information about them. This, the supervisors do by relying on heuristics. However, when the same supervisors have better information about the workers, the performance evaluation score penalties were minimized.

Methodology

The methodology of this search work is descriptive in nature with a survey design because the study seeks to examine the acceptability of alternative work arrangements among city workers in Lagos metropolis.

The population of the study is made up of workers in corporate headquarters of Globacom, a telecommunication outfit located on Lagos Island. Globacom has a total staff strength of 3,379 as at June 2019. One hundred and seventy-four of these staff are housed in the headquarter located on Adeola Odeku, Lagos Island. This firm was selected because it satisfies all parameters of modern organization as operationalized in the literature.

Sample size of 121 was determined using Taro Yamane (1967) formula for sample size determination among the senior staff of the telecommunications company.

Sample size= $N/1+N(e)^2$

Sample Size= $174/1+174(.05)^2 = 121$

Data Collection

The administered questionnaires were reduced to 93 upon return, which represents 77.5% of the total questionnaire sent out. These were duly filled and became the source of data for this study.

The questionnaire was segmented into two parts: the first part was respondents'

biodata while the second part was about information and questions concerning the phenomenon in study.
The study employed 5 points Likert scale of Strongly Agree (5), Agree (4), Disagree (3), Strongly Disagree (2), and Do not know (1).

Data collection & Analysis
Questionnaire was the primary source of data collection for this research work. The study employed correlation coefficients and regression as tools of analysis for the data collected. Student t-test was used to test the hypothesis formulated from the research objective.

Data Analysis and Discussion of Findings
The data collected were analyzed and discussed with the hypothesis testing coming first

Test of Hypothesis
HO: Acceptability of alternative work arrangements does not have significant influence on modern organizations' survival in Lagos metropolis.

Table 1
Computation of simple regression of level of acceptance of alternative work arrangements among city workers on organizations' survival in Nigeria.

t-value	Variables	Coefficients	Std. Error	Sig.
	Constant7.621	0.263	0.032	
	Acceptability of AWA	0.636	0.049	0.001
	R^2	0.593		
	F-value	162.753		

Statistically Significant at 5% level
Source: Field Survey Data (2018)
The data in Table 1 shows the estimate of regression of the necessity of alternative work arrangements among city workers that were sampled in the study. The coefficient of determination is 0.593 and the meaning is that 59.3% variability in level of acceptance (necessity of alternative work arrangements among the city the model explains workers, while the remaining 40.7% was not explained by the model.
The analysis showed that acceptability (necessity) level among city workers influenced alternative work arrangements positively and this positive relationship is significant at 5% level.
The F-value (calculated) of 162.753 is greater than the F-value (tabulated) of 6.84. The p = 0.001value indicates that level of acceptance of alternative work arrangements is statistically significant at 5%. Student t-test showed 0.001 which

means that organizations survival is significantly influenced by acceptability of alternative work arrangements and this necessitated the rejection of the null hypothesis and the acceptance of the alternative hypothesis.

Conclusion and Recommendations
The hypothesis that was tested in this study showed that alternative work arrangements is statistically significant when it comes to organizations' survival in modern day work schedule among city workers in Nigeria (Waiganjo & Kihoro, 2016). Therefore, the conclusion of this study is that level of acceptability of alternative work arrangements among city workers influence organizations' survival thereby making it unavoidable in this modern age, thus, it becomes a necessity that cannot be jettisoned (De Menezes, 2011; Katz & Krueger, 2016).
Furthermore, with the analysis of the data and the result that study came up with, it is recommended that:

a. Organizations that are desirous of staying alive competitive and thrive in this modern age should introduce alternative work arrangements into their system in order to bring the best out of their workers through flexibility that if affords and not to lose their talents rivals.
b. Awareness should be created among the regular members of employees on the benefits of alternative work arrangements by management of organizations and possible benefits should be attached to workers who are ready to give it a trial.
c. Infrastructures should be invested in consciously by organizations to build capacity for the practice of alternative work arrangements. Information and Communication Technology (ICT) is a key hub on which majority of different types of alternative work arrangements revolves around (Subramony et al, 2018). Thus, workers should be empowered both in acquisition and training in the use of devices and network that enhance alternative work arrangements.
d. Support from government through policy thrust and financial involvement in funding some infrastructures that enhance the practice of alternative work arrangements is recommended (Blix & Sorensen, 2016; Dartmouth College Employment Policies and Procedures Manual, 2018). This is because there are some infrastructures that private business operators may not be able to fund e.g. Subways and tunnels, which facilitate flexibility in movement of both goods and people. Government can, and should be involved in such and with that in place; the stage will be set for flexibility, which is a key feature of alternative work arrangements.

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In-service Training and Job Performance of Non-Teaching Staff of Osun State College of Education, Ilesa

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Abstract

The study examined the effect of in-service trainings on job performance of non-teaching staff of Osun State College of Education, Ilesa. This was with a view to establishing the nexus between in-service training and job performance of non-teaching staff of the institution. It relied on two sets of data. One, copies of questionnaire were administered to 120 non-teaching staff of the institution (75% of the population) using probability proportional to size sampling technique; and two, use of Job Performance Evaluation Format (JPEF) administered by the immediate supervisors of the sampled staff to measure their job performance. Data collected were analysed using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA).The results revealed that regular in-service training enhanced job performance of the non-teaching staff of the institution ($F_{(2,117)} = 23.41$, $p<0.05$). The study concluded that in-service training positively affected the job performance of the non-teaching staff of the institution.

Keywords: In-service; Performance; Non-Teaching staff; Osun; ANOVA

Introduction

Training is an essential aspect of human resource management. Through training, employee acquires knowledge and skills which are expected to enhance their competency and efficiency. Maximum output can be achieved only when the workers are trained and developed to meet up with the performance level expected of them. Although employees possess certain initial basic skills before they are employed, the expanding knowledge base of rapid technological change is placing current skills and technical knowledge in danger of being obsolete; hence, the need to update technical skills through training (Benson, 2001; Fejoh

& Faniran, 2016). Managers and employers of labour therefore take very seriously, the training and development of their workforce to make them more effective and efficient so that goals and objectives of organizations are achieved with minimal costs.

Osun State College of Education, Ilesa was established, like other Colleges of Education, specifically, to produce teachers who are expected to teach in junior secondary schools, which are the middle level of the Nigeria three tier system of education. The College was established in 1978 to meet the challenge of inadequacy of competent and qualified teachers arising from the growing number of secondary schools, occasioned by the free education policy of the then Oyo State Government. To achieve this objective of producing competent and qualified teachers (which are the graduates from the college), there is the need to ensure the competency of both the teaching staff (lecturers) and the non-teaching staff of the college. That is, there is the need for enhancement of job performance of the employees.

Available information revealed that there had been periods when staff of the college, both teaching and non-teaching, enjoyed regular college/government sponsored trainings and staff developments. These were the early 1980s up to the early 1990s. Staffmembers were granted study leave with pay for short and long duration courses; and were sponsored by the college to seminars, conferences and workshops. Internally organized in-service trainings were held regularly. Beyond this period, as time progressed, these opportunities started fading away. The responsibilities were left for the staff to sponsor themselves on those developmental programmes. The trainings were no longer regular and for some periods not available, leaving the institution's workers to self-sponsored trainings. Given the fact that conferences, workshops and seminars constitute a requirement for academic staff promotion, this category of workers in the institution continued to sponsor themselves for conferences, seminars and workshops attendance. However, their non-teaching counterparts in the college were observed not to have shown serious concern about self-development, except a few, perhaps because it is not a requirement for their promotion.

Whatwas left of in-service training for the non-teaching staff in the college, at aperiod,were few trainings sponsored by the Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETFund). This was considered inadequate, especially as the sponsorship ratio was known to favour the academic staff more than their non-teaching counterpart did. While some of the non-teaching staff had enjoyed such trainings on regular basis, some enjoyed it sparingly while some never benefited from it. The irregularity or absence of in-service training for certain segment of the non-teaching staff of the college, is believed, might cast aspersions on the level of their job performance.

For this reason, this raises the question of 'to what extent, do in-service trainings

affect the job performance of the non-teaching staff of the institution?' It is against this background that this study set out to examine the impact of in-service training on the job performance of the non-teaching staff of the institution.

Statement of Research Problem

A large body of literature indeed exists on workers' in-service training and their job performance, particularly in Nigeria. However, the studies are mostly private sector focused. Among such studies are: Ikpefan and Augustine (2009), with a focus on financial industry, Falola, Osibanjo and Ojo (2014) on Banking industry, Aidah (2013) on Telecommunication;and Ndibe (2014) on bottling companies. Few others such as Essien, Akpan and Oboto (2016); andIgbal, Khan, Mohammed and Mujtala (2019), which dealt with the public sector were on in-service training for teachers. The effect of in-service training on job performance of non-teaching workers, especially in the tertiary education institutions in Nigeria is yet to receive adequate attention; hence, this study. A common deficiency of some of the above-mentioned studies among others is methodological inadequacy. For instance, Ndibe (2014), Benson (2001), Falola *et al* (2014) and Essien *et al* (2016) measured impact of training on performance by relying mainly on the responses of staff that participated in trainings as the basis for judging the impact of training on their job performance. Actual measurement of the staff's job performance was not involved. The trainees could not have been able to assess their own performance objectively. Results obtained from such studies are, therefore, liable to errors, and conclusion derived from such results could be inadequate. This study is an attempt to fill such methodological gap through the use of adequate measurement of the job performance of the workers.

Hypothesis

The following null hypothesis was tested for the study.

H_0: There was no significant difference between the job performance of non-teaching staff of Osun State College of Education, Ilesa, who attended in-service trainings and those who did not attend in-service trainings.

Methodology

The study was carried out in Osun State College of Education, Ilesa, in Ilesa East Local Government Area of Osun State, Nigeria. The College, a teacher training institution, was established in 1978 to meet the challenge of inadequacy of competent and qualified teachers. Ilesa is a town about 120km North East of Ibadan and about 30km from Ile-Ife. The institution, like other Colleges of Education in Nigeria, awards the Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE), which is the minimum qualification for a teacher to teach in the Junior Secondary

Schools in Nigeria.

The population for the study consisted of 162 non-teaching staff of the College. They included the typists, secretaries, clerical officers, executive and administrative officers. The sample size for the study was 120, representing approximately 75% of the total population of 162 non-teaching staff in the college. A multi-stage sampling procedure was adopted to select participants for the study. At the first stage,the 25 identified Departments/Units in the institution were classified into seven categories, based on their mode of operation, to ensure adequate coverage of all the Departments/Units. The categories were: Schools, Directorates, Registry and Establishment, Provost and Deputy Provost, Maintenance, Bursary and Library. At the second stage, probability proportional to size sampling technique was adopted to select 120 staff.

The distribution was as follows. School (16); Directorates (30); Registry and Establishment (19); Provost and Deputy Provost (10); Maintenance (11); Bursary (25); and Library (9). At the third stage, simple random sampling technique was used to select participants foreach of the categories.

The study relied on two instruments for primary data collection, namely: questionnaire and Job Performance Evaluation Format (JPEF). On the one hand, the questionnaire was used to obtain personal data about the respondents. The data included their age, academic qualification, Departments/Units, years of service and frequency of in-service training. On the other hand, the immediate supervisor completed the JPEF. It measured the job performance of theselected staff. It was a 25-Item rating scale covering job performance measuring criteria such as rate of performing tasks, accuracy of performing tasks, quality of works, courtesy and respect, acceptance of responsibilities, personal appearance, and punctuality among others. Relevant secondary data for the study were obtained from available records in the institution, especially the registry, establishment and the bursary units of the institution.

The items were the relevant ones drawn from the Annual Performance Evaluation Report (APER) form of Osun State College of Education, Ilesa and the 16 indicators of performance identified by Hakala (2008) in his article titled: Sixteen Ways to Measuring Employees' Performance.

The ratings were on a 5-point Likert scale: 5 = Excellent; 4 = Very Good; 3 = Good; 2 = Fair; and 1 = Poor. The JPEF was completed for each participant by his/her supervisor. Since the maximum and minimum score on each item were 5 and 1 mark respectively, the maximum score of any participant in the JPEF was 5 x 25 = 125 and the minimum score was 1 x 25 = 25. However, since some of the items on the format were not relevant to some of the respondents the minimum and maximum mark obtainable varied. Therefore, to ensure a common denominator for all respondents, all marks were converted to percentages. The

score per hundred of each participant in the JPEF formed his/her Job performance score. The Instrument was validated and its reliability coefficient calculated to be 0.84 using the Cronbach Alpha Formula.

Results and Discussion

The selected participants were categorized into three groups based on their responses to question on frequency of in-service trainings (whether self-sponsoredor college sponsored) they received. The categories, as shown in Table 1, are 'Often', 'Seldom' and 'Never'. The job performance scores of the three groups of participants were subjected to the one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The means and standard deviations of the three groups are shown in Table 1 while Table 2 shows the results of the Analysis of Variance.

Table 1: Job Performance Mean Scores and Standard Deviation of the Three Groups

In-Service Training Frequency	No of Participants	Mean Score	Standard Deviation
Often	20	58.5	1.89
Seldom	77	54.6	2.34
Never	23	54.1	2.90
Total	120	55.1	2.80

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Table 2: ANOVA of the Job Performance Scor es of the Three Groups

Source of variation	Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	P
Between Group	267.45	2	133.73	23.41	.000
Within Group	668.42	117	5.71		
Total	935.87	119			

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Table 3:Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Levene statistic	df_1	df_2	Sig
1.448*	2	117	.239

Source: Field Survey, 2019

*Not significant, p> 0.05

Table 1 shows that 20 respondents claimed that they participated in the in-service training often, and the mean score and standard deviation of their job performance were 58.5 and 1.89 respectively. The Table also shows that a majority of 77 out of the 120 respondents had seldom participated in in-service training with job performance mean score 54.6 and standard deviation 2.34. The Table further shows that 23 respondents claimed that they never participated in any form of in-service training. The mean score of their job performance was 54.1 and the standard deviation was 2.90. Thus at the level of descriptive statistics, the groups that attended training often had the highest job performance mean score. This was followed by the group that rarely attended training with job performance mean score that was slightly higher than that of those who never attended any form of in-service training.

The one way analysis of variance in Table 2 shows that the differences in the job performance mean scores of the three groups were significant ($F_{(2,117)}$= 23.41,P<0.05). That is, the job performance mean scores of the three groups were significantly not equal. To know exactly between which pair of groups this significant differences lie, the post-hoc test was carried out. The test of homogeneity of variance in Table 3 shows that the variance of the 3 groups could be assumed equal since the Levene statistics 1.448 was not significant, P>0.05), therefore equal variance are assumed. Hence, one of the commonly used post-hoc test for cases of assumed equal variance, the Turkey HSD was used.

The results are shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Turkey HSD Post -hoc Test for the ANOVA

	Often Training		Seldom Training		Never Training	
	Mean Difference	Sig	Mean Difference	Sig	Mean Difference	Sig
Training Often			3.88	.000	4.32	.000
Training Seldom	-3.88	.000			0.44	.718
Training Never	-4.32	.000	-0.44	.718		

Source: Field Survey, 2019 *Significant at 0.05 level

The Turkey HSD post hoc test shows that there is a significant difference between the job performance mean scores of the “often” group and the “seldom” group (mean difference 3.88, p<0.05). There was also a significant difference between the job performance mean score of “often” group and the “Never” group (mean difference 4.32, P<0.05). However, there was no significant difference between the job performance mean score of the “Seldom” group and the “Never” group (mean difference 0.44, p>0.05). It was thus found that the workers who participated regularly in in-service training had better job performance (average performance score of 58.5%) than those who seldom participated (average

performance score of 54.6%) or who never participated, (average performance score of 54.1%), but those who seldom participated in the in-service training were not unexpectedly different in terms of job performance from those who never participated.

The implication of this is that regular participation at in-service trainings could enhance job performance while irregular participation or complete absence had the same effect of not supporting enhanced job performance. This finding considered from one perspective was contrary to that of Rashid (2008) that training programmes in College of Education, Zaria had no positive impact on the job performance of the staff. The present study had shown that regular participation in training enhanced job performance of non-teaching staff of Osun State College of Education, Ilesa. However, it can also be deduced that there was a kind of synergy between the two studies to the extent that the present study showed that irregular training did not enhance job performance. The inadequacy of the trainings could have affected their effectiveness in promoting job performance in COE, Zaria. This result was also supported among others by that of Ramya (2016) who found that respondents, overwhelmingly (90.91%) agreed that training bridged the gap between the present level of competency of a worker and his job requirement for efficiency. Further, the study agreed with that of Junejo, Sarwar and Ahmed's (2017) finding that in-service training affected positively on the performance of teachers in Karachi region of Pakistan.

Conclusion and Recommendation

The conclusion could be drawn, from the findings in this study, that regular participation of the non-teaching staff of Osun State College of Education, Ilesa enhanced their job performance. Irregular or occasional participation in in-service training was not in any way different from outright absence of in-service training, as it was found not to make any significant impact on the job performance of the staff. It is therefore recommended that the college management reinvigorate in-service trainings for the workers, both academic and non-teaching. As complement, the workers should engage themselves in self-sponsored on-the-job trainings to enhance their job performance.

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Effect Of Organisational Culture On Employees' Organisational Citizenship Behaviour In Nigerian Manufacturing Industry

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Abstract

The influence of organizational culture to elicit certain discretionary behaviours from employees cannot be over emphasized. Therefore, to bring OCB to employees, organisational culture is required. However, the lack of administrative will to entrench a culture that encourage the exhibition of OCB by employees has been an impediment to the survival of many organizations. Thus, this study examined the effect of organizational culture on employees'organisational citizenship behaviour in Nigerian Manufacturing industry using selected culture and OCB variables with reference to Sunflag plc. Lagos.The specific objectives of the study were to: examine the effect of people oriented culture on employee sportsmanship behaviour and evaluate the effect of result oriented culture on employee conscientiousness. Questionnaire was served to the sampled respondents of 297 gotten with taro Yamane sample size determination formula from 1150 employee of the organisation, through a multi stage sampling technique(stratified to take care of each levels of staff and simple random to pick from each strata). Regression analysis were adopted to test the two hypotheses formulated for the study.Results from the study revealed that people oriented culture has a significant and positive effect on sportsmanship (R^2= 0.581: p-value<0.05) and that results oriented culture has significant

influence on employee conscientiousness (R^2=0.661: p-value<0.05). The study concluded that organizational culture in its various forms has significant impact on employees' corporate citizenship behaviour. The study recommended that organization manager should promote a culture that foster selflessness, participation and exhibition of innovative behaviour that guarantees the realisation of the organisational target.

Keywords: Organisational culture, organisational citizenship behavior, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, result oriented and people oriented culture.

Introduction

The reality of today's business world has shown that employees represents one of the foremost success factor for most organizations. Thus, the threat facing majority of organizations today have remained the development of an effective and efficient strategy aimed at actualizing organizational excellence and competitive strength through employees' management (Al Aina& Atan, 2020). In order to overcome this difficulty, organizations must put in place strategies that will incite their workers to be involved in activities geared towards the accomplishment of predetermined organizational objectives by entrenching an organisational culture that is all encompassing and has the capacity to attract an extra role behaviour from the employees.

Organizational culture is all about the shared view of all the stakeholders in the environment in which an organization operates. It has the capacity to and can greatly inspire the behaviour of people in the organisation to the extent of directing their activities beyond their imaginations. In addition, the nature of organizational culture, its strenght or otherwise that is entrenched in an organisation is critical to the kind of behaviour that managers and their surbordinate exhibits from time to time. (Ebrahimpour,Zahed, Khaleghkhah, & Sepehri, 2011).

Besides, organizational citizenship behaviours are discretionary in nature and it depicts a kind of behaviour that surpasses one's basic job requirements in the workplace (.Ahmed & Islam, 2011). OCB are often seen as actions that are outside the call of duty and normal rewardable act. It encompasses all extra role actions, activities and pro-social behaviour that influence individual, groups or organizations' ways of doing things. It is all about worker's efforts that goes above the dictates of his or her required role in the place of work. OCB covers those activities such as readiness to take extra tasks, assiting colleagues and following the rules of the game to the latter. Simply put, OCB are those action that exceeds

the cover of normal organisation rewardsystemthat are supportive to the progress of the individual, group and the organisation (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007).Therefore, organisations operating in the volatile business world most especially the manufacturing firms where only the fittest survives will require consistent exhibition of organisational citizenship behaviour by its employees as competitions gets more intense.(Christiansen & Chandan, 2017).

Conclusively, the worrisome state of the manufacturing sector in Nigeria where studies have confirmed that about 60% are morribond, 30% are in state of extinction while the remaining 10% are struggling to survive or even operate below install capacity. Therefore, it is imperative for scholars to look at possible solution of instituting an organisation culture that has the capacity to direct employees and stakeholders toward the act of organisational citizenship behaviour. This is important looking at the strategic position of human resource in driving competitive strength across firms (Olamade, Oyebisi & Egbetokun**,** 2013). Moreso, having observed that firms are challenged by internal and external environmental factors, it is therefore expedient to take interest in how organisations can make their human resource more innovative through the selected organisational culture variables of people and result oriented types of culture to elicit OCB behaviour of sportsmanship and conscientiousness from its employees to achieve predetermined goals and objectives.

In conclusion, it is on the basis of the background discussed above that this study examined the effect of organizational culture on employee organisational citizenship behaviour with particular reference to Sunflag Nigeria Plc, a textile manufacturing company located in Lagos state Nigeria.

Statement of the problem

In Nigeria, high rate of absenteeism, lateness to work, fall in productivity and product quality, insubordination to authorities etc. are the symptoms of lack of organizational citizenship behaviours (Olalekan & Ekene, 2019). In the opinion of Akinmayowa (2006), organisational citizenship behaviours are required from workers in Nigeria who carry out tasks that are only within their prescribed job specifications which are not enough to guarantee the accomplishment of organizational goals thereby making it important that organizational managers entrench an organizational culture that are people oriented in nature to elicit employees' trust which has the capacity to direct them towards the volountary exhibition of corporate citizenship behaviour of spormanship in the workplace. This, if achieved which will lead to easy accomplishment of organisations' set goals and objectives.

More so, organisational planning should be done to achieve the goals of the organization through cultural elements because doing anything without the elements of organizational culture can result in unintended consequences (Schein, 2004). Therefore, lack of attention to appropriate organizational culture that is result oriented in nature to elicit employees' exhibition of organisational citizenship behaviour of conscientiousness where individual initiative and innovation is encouraged to take care of the volatile operating environment has led to the lost of energy and time in the course of solving organizational problems making it difficult to achieve pre-determined organizational goals (Khoda, 2010).

Research Questions

In the light of the statement of problem raised above, these research questions emanated:

i. To what extent does people oriented culture influence employee sportsmanship behaviour?
ii. To what extent does result oriented culture affects employee conscientiousness?

Objectives of the study

The core objective of this study is to examine the effect of organizational culture on organisational corporate citizenship behaviour with particular reference to Sunflag Nigeria Plc, located in Lagos State, Nigeria. Specifically, other objectives are to:

i. examine the effect of people oriented culture on employee sportsmanship and
ii. evaluate the effect of result oriented culture on employee conscientiousness.

Research Hypotheses

Ho_1: People oriented culture has no significant influence on employee sportsmanship.

H_{O2}: Result oriented culture has no significant effect on employee conscientiousness.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Concept of Organizational Culture

Black and La Venture (2017) sees organisational culture as the shared knowledge that comes from the principles, belief and social relations and interactions amomg

organisation members. These relations encapsulates behaviours, beliefs, common values and mutual understanding that are entrenched in an organisation from time to time (Schein, 2002). Organisational culture provides a platform for distinguishing members of an organization from one another and thus provides a sense of identity (Alvesson, 2011).

Organizational culture provides a platform for a shared assumptions that individuals and group accepts overtime as a sure way of solving problems encountered in the organisation. It covers the expressive characteristics of individuals within an organisation as well as the character of the organisation itself (Schein, 2004).

Chau (2008) described organisation culture as a separator between insiders and outsiders, a binder that holds organisations together and a means by which organisation participants connect and co-ordinate their collective efforts. In short, OC encompasses those beliefs, values and behavioural norms among the organization members that shape and affects their performance (Rabiei, 2006).

Forms of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

People Oriented Culture

This is a culture where worker's right are respected, principle of fairness is entrenched, management act fairly in their relationship with the staff and there is mutual support and symbiotic relationship between actors in an organisation. Erdogan, Liden and Kraimer (2006) maintained that firms which promote this type of culture always place greater emphasis on and also expected to place employeeon high esteem at all time. Therefore, organisation that design its work system around its workforce will command the trust, respect and leverage the talent within the organization (Black & La Venture, 2015). This type of culture encourages high productivity, profitability, and engagement since leadership and frontline managers sees employees as strategic partners and listen more intently to their ideas (Sagiv, Schwartz, & Arieli, 2011).

Result Oriented Cultures

Result oriented cultures emphasizes and holds achievements, results, and positive actions by employees in high esteem. It is a culture where employees and managers are held accountable for success and otherwise and where individuals and group performance are rewarded accordingly. Firms that made use of outcome oriented culture lean towards outshining others and thus occupy the top place in the industry (Nohria, Joyce & Roberson, 2003). A result oriented organization is a place where the best of the high performaers are easily identified, isolated and publicly rewarded. As stated by Strickland (2006), it is an

environment where motivation are generated through the compensation of high performersas performance are tied to the organisation's reward system. At the same time, this culture need to be carefully managed not to allow performance pressures lead to a culture where unethical behaviours becomes the norm, where employee see their peers as rivals resulting into an unhealthy competition that can be so counter productive to the organisation (Probst & Raisch, 2005). .

Concept of organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour is a behavior that is undefined by an organisation's operating procedures or contract of employment(Appelbaum, Bartolomucci, Beaumier, Boulanger, Corrigan, Dore, Girard, &Serroni, 2004) . This type of behavior is neither anticipated nor included in the company training schedule, but it has significant influence on the growth of indidviduals and group as well as the overall success of the organisation (Noor, 2009; Intaraprasong, Dityen, Krugkrunjit, & Subhadrabandhu, 2012).

Rassuliand Turnipseed (2005) sees organisational citizenship behaviour as behaviours that tends to consistently act in the interest of the organisation. Daniels, Joireman, Falvy & Kamdar (2006) maintained that organizational citizenship behaviours involves encouraging co-workers to partake in any work or actions outside their role requirements. Organisational citizenship behaviours are those advantageous employee behaviours that are not enforceable by the organisation, though essential for effective work processes and the smooth running of the organization. To Luthans (2011) organisational citizenship behaviour is a personal behaviour that is optional, undefined by any formal reward system and which in all ramifications support the smooth running of the organisation.

Forms of Organisational citizenship Behaviour

Sportsmanship

Sportsmanship behavior is act of not showing discomfort when faced with obvious workplace operational challenges, work distresses and exploitation that is synonymous with work situations, and to maintain a positive attitude even in a blinking situation when sucees is dicey. Generally, it is all about tolerant, conplaint avoidance and holding positive thought about happenings in the workplace (Nielsen, Bachrach, Sundstrom, & Halfhill, 2012). Sportsmanship behaviour entails those actions and activities of employees that demonstrate act of tolerance of workplace dilemmas without any display of frustration (Organ, 1990). That is, it is all about a situation where people maintain high level of opstimism about the success of the organisation even when they are not favoured

by the decisions and circumstances of the time (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach , 2000).

Conscientiousness/Initiative

This encompasses the individual initiative dimension of OCB which involves voluntarily dealing in task related activities outside the minimally required levels. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine and Bachrach (2000), sees such behaviours as capturing deliberate acts of creativity and innovation personally done to improve one's skill and competensies directed at boasting task performance and thus organization's performance. It is all about putting an extra effort towards the successful accomplishment of one's job, taking more responsibilities and inspiring other organisation memebers towards the same act.

Theoretical Review

There are many theories in literature that are very related to the study of organisational culture and organisational citizenship behaviour among which are; involvemnt theory, consistency theory, equity theory, open book management theory and theory Z. However, this study made use of only two out of the ones mentioned as discussed below:

Equity Theory

Equity theory propounded by John stance Adams in 1963 is one of the general theory in management and social sciences that is very efficient in predicting employee behavior in the workplace(Robbins, Judge, &Vohra, 2012). Simply put, equity means justice while inequity connotes injustice. The known measurement of equity in the workplace setting is the input output ration and the corresponding compensation system. Input entails employee efforts, skills, competence and experience while out put entails both intrincsic and extrincsic rewards. Therefore, the assessment of equity of rewards are done through a comparism of reward given to other with similar input, skills and competence (Chiekezie, Nzewi & Orogbu, 2009). In any organisation, the determinant of employee job performance is the exerted effort and compensation that comes with it (Pritchard, 2006). Employee job performance is a measurable actions, that is, actions and consequences that employees involve in that are connected with and enhance the attainment of organizational milestone. The discussion here centres around the exhibition of behaviours that are pertinent to the realization of the organizational goals and objectives that comes out of the perception of equity or inequity by the employee which are also determined by the type and the nature of organisational culture so entrenched in the organisation (Viswesvaran, 2009).

Theory Z

Theory Z propounded by William Ouchi (1981) is an offshoot of the comparism between American and Japanese style of management. This model is simply a unified system of inspiring employee to greater performance. Ouchi maintained that common cultural values have the capacity to promote greater organizational commitment among employees. Besides, the idea is of the view that organisations are human systems and as such their progress depended largely on the quality of social interaction that is entrenched in the system. A type Z organisation is synonymous with progressive features which promote organisational democracy such as mutual understanding, sense of belonging and intimacy. Mutual relationship among members of an organisation which is always the output of people oriented culture minimises unnecessary rivals which promotes team work. Sensitivity in the workplace requires thoughtfulness towards colleagues which results in higher productivity while affection suggests concern, support, discipline and selflessness which are the expected corresponding behaviour from people and result oriented culture. Inshort, theory Z is an hybrid system that integrated the strengths of the American management (individual freedom, risk taking, quick decision-making, etc.) and Japanese management (job security, group decision-making, social cohesion, holistic concern for employees, etc.) systems.

Conclusively, this study adopted the thery Z as it dwell extensively on the influence of the selected cultural variables and their corresponding OCB behaviours used in this study.

Empirica Review

Olalekan and Ekene (2019) examined the effect of role oriented culture and result oriented culture on organizational citizenship behaviour in chosen money deposit banks in Yenagoa, Bayelsa State, Nigerianamely: Access Bank, Diamond Bank,Fidelity Bank, First Bank of Nigeria, First City Monument Bank, Guarantee Trust Bank, United Bank of Africa (UBA), Zenith Bank who render similar services and use similar operating equipments and technology. A cross sectional survey design was adopted for the study. The population of the study stands at 422 seleccted from the eight banks used for the study. Data were gotten with the use of questionnaire distributed randomly to 205 respondents through the use of or Taro Yamani sample size determination formula. Inferential statistical tools of analysis (correlation and regression) were used to analyse the data. The study concluded that organisation that entrenched role and achievement oriented culture in its structure and processes surely secures the employees and organizational stability and consequently arouse the employees' desire to support

and care for one another , which is linked to the altruistic, Conscientiousness and Sportsmanship, (OCB-O) aspect of organizational citizenship behaviour.

Similarly, Nadeak (2018) conducted a study on the effect of organizational culture on organisational citizenship behaviour of lecturers. A survey research design was adopted for the study. The population of the study was 316 lecturers of Kristen University in Indonesia. Needed data gotten through the use of questionnaire distributed randomly to 177 lecturer with the aid of Slovin sample size determination formula.Formulated hypotheses were tested using descriptive and inferential statistical tools of analysis. Results from the test showed that a strong organizational culture is a panacea and can be used as a guideline in solving some organizational problems. Therefore it should be taught and entrenched in to the psyche of organisational members as it has the capacity to enhance and motivate employee towards organisational citizenship behaviour.

Mohanthy and Rath (2012) studied the influence of selected culture variables on organizational citizenship behaviours with reference to the three dominant organizations representing the major sector of the economy which are: manufacturing, information technology and banking . A specially designed questionnaire distributed to 550 employees of the organizations out of which 380 were returned and 36 were rejected due to missing data, thus, 344 questionnaires were used for analyses. Stated hypotheses were tested through the use of mean deviation, standard deviation and inter-correlation of study variables. It was found that a strengthened cultural foundation of an organization have the capacity to lure every employee to the observance of organizational citizenship behaviours in all departments of the organization.

Gap in Literature

Evidence from the reviwed literature indicated that studies have been conducted before now with regards to the effect and relationship that exist between organization culture and organizational citizenship behaviour in many areas of business endeavours, such as the banking, information technology, social security and education sectors but this study focud on the influence of selected organizational culture variables on employees' organisational citizenship behaviour with particular reference to the textile manufacturing sub sector (Sunflag Plc. being a textile company). This is important considering the massive resources the government of the day is spending on the revival of the moribund textile industry in Nigeria in their quest to solving unemployment problem in Nigeria.

Besides, the literature reviewed showed that most of the studies conducted in the past were carried out outside Nigeria and the only one conducted in Nigeria was

conducted in the south-south while this present study was done in Lagos in the South western part of Nigeria. This is important as most of the surviving textile manufacturing companies in Nigeria were in Lagos due to its strategic location being the commercial nerve centre of the Nation.

Methodology

For this study, a survey design was adopted to investigate the influence of selected organisational culture on organisational citizenship behaviours of employees in the Nigerian Manufacturing sector with particular reference to Sunflag Plc, a textile manufacturing public liability company located in Lagos state, Nigeria. The population of the study stands at 1150 which comprises of all levels of staff in the organisation except the third party staff. To achieve the objective set for this study, a well-structured questionnaire was distributed to a sample size of 297 respondents gotten with the use of Taro Yamane sample size determination formula. Stratified and simple ramdom sampling techniques were adopted for the distribution of the questionnaire to the respondents. Out of 297 copies of questionnaire administered, 296 were adequately filled and returned which brings the respond rates to 99.6%. The stated hypotheses were tesyed through the use of multiple regression analysis with the aid of statistical package for social science (SPSS) software.

Data Presentation and Analysis

Test of Hypotheses

Hypothesis One: People oriented culture has no significant effect on Sportsmanship in the organisation

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.762[a]	.581	.572	.58321

a. Predictors: (Constant), Recognition, Positivity, Fairness, Empathy

a. Predictors: (Constant), Positivity, Empathy, Fairness, Recognition
Source: Researcher's computation, 2020.

The table above is a model summary for the tested hypothesis where correlation coefficient of .762 signifies that people oriented culture variables were strong, positive and jointly related to organisational citizenship behaviour variable of sportsmanship. The R-square value of 0.581 also indicates that organisational

culture that is people oriented in nature accounted for 58.1% of employee sportsmanship in the workplace while the remaining 41.9 % was accounted for by other factors that were not considered in the study.

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	28.472	4	7.118	30.485	.000[b]
	Residual	68.181	292	.233		
	Total	96.653	296			

Source: Researcher's computation, 2020.

The ANOVA table above shows the F-statistics value to be significant since the probability value of 0.000 is less than the 0.05 level of significance. This also signifies a good fit between the sub variables of the independent and the dependent variable used in the study.

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.221	.213		15.146	.000
	Positivity	.176	.037	.257	4.758	.001
	Empathy	.045	.073	.052	.616	.000
	Fairness	.248	.050	.336	5.004	.004
	Recognition	.298	.048	.482	6.262	.002

a. Dependent Variable: Sportsmanship
Source: Researcher's computation, 2020

The table above reveals the coefficient values of the independent variable where all the proxies to organisational culture that is people oriented came out positive and thus significantly influenced the organisational citizenship behaviour of sportsmanship. This assertion is further collaborated with the probability values of the proxies used that fell below 0.05. This result led to the rejection of the null hypothesis and acceptance of the alternative hypothesis which states that people oriented culture has signicant effect on employee sportsmanship behaviour in the workplace accepted. This result is also in tandem with the conclusion drawn by Nadeak (2018) as well as Olalekan and Ekene (2019).

a. Dependent Variable: Sportsmanship
b. Predictors: (Constant), Recognition, Positivity, Fairness, Empathy

conscientiousness in the organization

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.813[a]	.661	.583	.60752

a. Predictors: (Constant), Accountability, Reward, Recognition, Performance

Source: Researcher's computation, 2020.

The table above is a model summary for the tested hypothesis where correlation coefficient of .813 signifies that result oriented culture variables were strong, positive and jointly related to organisational citizenship behaviour variable of conscientiousness. The R-square value of 0.661 also indicates that organisational culture that is result oriented in nature accounted for 66.1% of employee exhibition of organisational citizenship behaviour of conscientiousness in the workplace while the remaining 33.9 % was accounted for by other influences that are not included in the model

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	23.023	4	5.756	34.659	.000[b]
	Residual	48.492	292	.166		
	Total	71.515	296			

a. Dependent Variable: Conscientiousness

b. Predictors: (Constant), Accountability, Reward, Recognition, Performance

Source: Researcher's computation , 2020.

The F-statistics value indicated in the ANOVA table above is significant since the probability value of 0.000 is less than the 0.05 level of significance used for the study. This also signifies a good fit between the proxies of the independent variable of result oriented culture and the dependent variable of employee exhibition of conscientiousness used in the study.

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	6.301	.259		24.284	.000
	Performance	.236	.050	.310	4.672	.001
	Reward	.383	.049	.462	7.771	.002
	Recognition	.471	.051	.558	9.160	.000
	Accountability	.251	.040	.342	6.320	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Conscientiousness

Source: Researcher's computation, 2020.

The table above reveals the coefficient values of the independent variable where all the proxies to organisational culture that is result oriented came out positive and thus significantly influenced the organisational citizenship behaviour of conscientiousness in the workplace. This assertion is further collaborated with the probability values of the proxies used which falls below 0.05 significance level set for the study. With this outcome, the alternative hypothesis which states that result oriented culture has signicant effect on employee exhibition of conscientiousness behaviour in the workplace is hereby accepted while the null hypothesis is rejected. This result is also in tandem with the conclusion drawn by Mohanthy and Rath (2012).

Conclusion and Recommendations

Conclusion

Conclusively, findings from the study attested to the fact that organizational culture positively influenced the exhibition of organisational citizenship behaviour by employees in the workplace most especially the OCB-O that is directed towards the organisation. Therefore, a strong organizational culture can be entrenched as tool for resolving some organizational problem that are employee related. It can also be taught to members of the organization as a matter of policy with the aim of improving employees' OCB.

Recommendations

In agreement with the conclusion drawn above, the following recommendations were made;

1. Employees should be treated as valuable and indispensable resource of the organisation by putting job satisfiers in place through appropriate organisational culture that encourages the exhibition of behaviours that guarantees employees job security and organisational sustainability and competiveness among its peers.
2. Rewarding employee performance through fair assessment as instant as possible will facilitate increased display of diligence, thoroughness and dutifulness on the part of employees which would result in overall organizational performance.

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Social Protectionand Compensation Management in the Nigerian Public Sector: A Historical Review from 1934 - 2019

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Abstract

Social protection and compensation are critical in employer-employee relationship which could unfittingly be a major source of conflict in labour-management relations. This paper reviewed social protection and compensation management from 1934 to 2019 with a view to understanding the context of collective bargaining, salaries and wages administration in the Nigerian public sector. It adopted the historical research design and relied on secondary source of data based on the review of literature and archival documents. It argued that the adoption of collective bargaining and the government commitment to abide by the agreements reached with unions in the public sector remain the cardinal means for promoting peaceful labour-government relations and to a large extent forestall incessant strikes that have bedevilled the public sector in recent times. It therefore concluded that there is the need for the Ministry of Labour and Employment to be alive to its responsibilities by ensuring that government labour policies and laws on social protection are implemented to the letter. It recommended that robust budgetary allocations should be allotted to the key sectors of the economy, especially the health sector so as to meet the needs of workers and Nigerians in general. In the same vein, the state-of-the-art medical facilities and centres should be established in the six geo-political zones to meet the health needs of the teeming Nigerians to reduce medical tourism abroad. This of course will assist to conserve foreign exchange which can be ploughed back to the economy for developmental projects that will benefit the citizenry.

Keywords: Social Protection, Compensation, Wage Commissions, Public Sector, Nigeria

Introduction

Social protection is a human right. It ensures access to health care and income security for all. It makes provision for the sick, the unemployed, the injured, the elderly to mention a few. Social protection is one of the four pillars of Decent Work Agenda as espoused by the International Labour Organisation (ILO).According to the ILO (2013), decent work has four main pillars. These are promoting respect for core international labour standards; generating decent and productive employment; improving social protection and encouraging social dialogue. Decent work entails doing a job which gives sustainable income and due respect for fundamental human rights and security at work. Social protection and compensation are critical in employment relationship and could be a major source of conflict in labour-management relations if relegated to the background. According to Otobo (2007, p.162), "in Nigeria, the public sector is much larger than the private sector in many respects such as the quantum of investment, employment opportunities and size of the workforce." The involvement of the Nigerian government in workers' compensation (wages and salaries) began at the turn of the 19th century arising from the emergence of wage labour (Fashoyin, 1992). A wage is used specifically to refer to payment to hourly-rated production and service workers and represents direct monetary compensation; whereas, salary is generally paid to administrative, professional and managerial employees. Salaries are calculated on a monthly or annual basis (Yoder & Staudohar, 1982). There are three broad methods by which wages, salaries and conditions of service are determined in Nigeria. These are the individual-employer contract, collective bargaining and Government or State intervention (Chidi, 2017). "Collective bargaining was originated by Sidney and Beatrice Webb a British couple in 1891 to describe the process of agreeing terms and conditions of employment through representatives of employers (and possibly their associations) and representatives of employees (and probably their unions)" (Rose, 2008, p.274).

Collective bargaining was introduced in the public sector in 1948, under the Whitley councils system which was meant for the regulation of employment conditions in government establishments. In its industrial relations policy, published in 1955 the Nigerian government reaffirmed its confidence in the effectiveness of voluntary negotiation and collective bargaining for the determination of wages (Fashoyin, 1987). According to Fashoyin (1987), for a long time the public employer has used the civil service regulations and *ad-hoc* wage commissions in determining wages and a host of other conditions of service in the public sector. This has hampered effective collective bargaining, specifically on social protection and compensation management of the workers

in the Nigerian public sector.

The objective of this paper is to examine social protection and compensation management in the Nigerian public sector from 1934 to 2019; with emphasis on the Labour Act, the Minimum Wage Act, Pension Scheme, the National Health Insurance Scheme as well as the Employees' Compensation Act which regulates payments to employees for injuries/death and health insurance. To achieve this objective, this paper adopted a historical research design and relied on secondary data based on the review of literature. It is structured into eight sections where the first paraded the introduction, the second reviews wage commissions in Nigeria while the third examines labour Act. The fourth section reviews the employees' compensation Act. Section five examines the minimum wage Act in Nigeria. Section six dwells on the national pension scheme in Nigeria. Section seven reviews the NHIS scheme; while section eight deals with conclusion and recommendations.

A Review of Wage Commissions in Nigeria

According to Otobo (2007), the government as employer of labour, have been determining public sector terms and conditions through the establishment and functioning of wages and salaries commissions. In Nigeria, pay/wage determination via wage commissions dates back to the colonial era with the establishment of the Hunt Commission in 1934. The establishment of the Hunt Commission opened the floodgate for the establishment of several wage commissions as depicted in Table 1.

TABLE 1: WAGE COMMISSIONS IN NIGERIA PRE AND POST COLONIAL ERA

WAGE COMMISSIONS	YEAR INSTITUTED	REASONS FOR SETTING THEM UP/TERMS OF REFERENCE &RECOMMENDATIONS
Hunt Commission	1934	This was set up to structure the wages of unskilled workers in the public sector by the colonial administration (Eneanya, 2009).
Bridges Commission	1941	This was set up to examine the adequacy of workers' wage rates on the basis of changes in the cost of living and to make recommendatio ns. It was set up to cushion the effects of the rising costs of living as a result of the harsh effects of the second world war (World War II). The cost of living allowance(COLA) awarded throughout the country was the aftermath of the committee's report (Eneanya, 2009).
Tudor-Davis Commission	1945	As a result of the general strike of 1945, which lasted for 45days, the Tudor -Davis Commission was established. The commission recommended an increased in the cost of living allowance (COLA) by50 per cent for public sector workers. The commission recommended the est ablishment of two staff cadres in the public sector, the 'Junior' and 'Senior.'
Harragin Commission	1946	The commission was set up following the 1945 general strike. The commission recommended a two -level service structure, which is senior and junior civil servants, and salary adjustment for established government staff.
Miller Commission	1947	This was established to examine and review the COLA for daily paid labourers and unestablished government employees. It introduced the zonalisation of wages in Nigeria. The commission recommended principle of payment on the basis of geographical location o f workers. This led to pay differentials based on location and cost of living. The recommendation of geographically -based pay was based on the idea that cost of living was higher in cities especially Lagos then and its immediate environs. Therefore, wages/ salaries should be lower the farther a worker lived away from Lagos. Labour unions protested and demanded for uniform wages/ salaries irrespective of workers' location.
Whitley Commission	1948	Following the desire of workers to be involved in the determination of their conditions of employment, the government introduced the Whitley councils in 1948, which had been in existence in England since 1919.The Whitley system consists of three councils: 1,2 and 3 respectively for senior, junior and industrial employees.
Gorsuch Commission	1955	This commission abolished the senior and junior service structure in view of the absence of a middle category and recommended the establishment of five main grades from the lowest established posts upwards with parallel classes for both administrative and professional cadres and recommended a new set of salary scales on the basis of the revised grade structure.
Mbanefo Commission	1959	This reviewed existing salaries and wages paid by the Federal, Northern and Eastern Governments. It advised against the frequent use of review commissions and recommended a new wage and salary schedule.

Morgan Commission	1963-1964	After political independence from Great Britain in 1960, the Morgan commission was set up to review salaries and wages following the general strike of September 27, 1963. It recommended a progressive levelling up of minimum wages paid throughout the countr y, until a national minimum wage would emerge. It recommended salary reviews oflower cadre workers inthe private and public sectors.
Adebo Commission (The Salaries and Wages Review Commission)	1970-1971	This was set up to recommend revision of salaries and wages in the public sector as a result of the excruciating effect of the civil war. It addressed the problem confronting the public sector which was the deficit of senior civil servants owing to the poor remuneration package. It recommended the setting up of a Public Service Review Commission to examine the role of the Public Service Commission, the structure of the civil service and its conditions of service and training arrangements. The acceptance of the recommendations of the commission led to the s etting up ofthe Udoji Public Service Review Commission.
Udoji Commission (The Public Service Review Commission)	1972-1974	This commission was set up to establish equitable pay system in line with the Nigerian economy. It recommended the Unified Grading and Salary Structure (UGSS) using the method of job evaluation. The commission reduced the wages and salary scales from 183 to 17 in 1974 after a job evaluation exercise. With the UGSS, a new staff would be automatically placed on a salary scale commensurate with the staff qualification and experience. Udoji Commission also introduced the open reporting system for performance ev aluation. The following monitoring bodies were established to ensure implementation: a) Public Service Review Unit (PSRU); b) Anti -Inflation Task Force. It recommended the establishment of Productivity Prices and Incomes Board to advise government on natio nal incomes and carry out research on wages and salaries; c) The National Public Service Negotiating Council which replaced the Whitley Council charged with the task of resolving industrial relations problems regarding pay and other conditions of service. The Udoji Commission on the review of the Public Service recommended that a permanent body be constituted to *inter alia* , take care of annual reviews of wages and salaries in the Public Service. This could have led to the establishment of the National Salar ies, Incomes and Wage Commission in1993.
Akintola Williams Commission	1975	Following the publication of Udoji report and the spate of protests that greeted the report, the Akintola commission was set up to redress the problems. The panel received 3,306 petitions dealing with the anomalies in the grade and salary structure recommended by Udoji commission.

Onosode Commission	1981	This was a Presidential Commission set up to review the wages and salaries of parastatals as a result of agitations for higher salaries. Such asthe Universities , statutory corporations, State -owned enterprises and the Central Bank. It recommended the removal of some parastatals from the Unified Grading and Salary Structure (UGSS). It recommended that the 17 - grade salary structure should continue to be usedfor public employees in the civil service.
Cookey Commission	1981	This was a Presidential Commission set up to review the salaries and conditions of service of university staff. It recommended the removal of the universities from the UGSS and gave them a separate salary structure known as University Salary Structure (USS) distinct from that of the civil service salary structure.
Presidential Tripartite Minimum Wage Committee inaugurated by the Shehu Shagari's civilian administration	1981	It was only in 1981 under the Shagari civilian administration that a tripartite wage bargaining took place following the general workers strike of May 1981 which lasted for three days organised by the NLC occasioned by the demand of the NLC for wage review. This led to the minimum wage of ₦125.
Adamolekun Commission	1982	This commission worked on conditions of service in other educational institutions such as Colleges of Technology, Polytechnics, Teacher Training Colleges and Technical Colleges owned by the Federal government.
Fatai Williams Commission	1990	This commission was set up to review the remuneration of doctors who wanted to opt out of the UGSS as the structure was not favourable to their members in terms of earning power. The commission recommended a different salary structure for health and medica l workers comparable to that of the universities to avoid brain drain of doctors.
Ukandi Damachi Commission	1990	Damachi led tripartite minimum wage committee inaugurated by the Babangida regime on January 30, 1990 was manipulated by President Babangida who determined the minimum wage of ₦250.
Longe Commission	1991	This is the commission on the review of higher education in Nigeria. The commission examined the challenges besetting tertiary institutions such as funding, salaries and conditions of service as we ll as curricular and recommended a broad salary raise of 30 per cent to all tertiary institutions staff within the Elongated University Salary Structure (EUSS); and various allowances to go with the salary increase.
Ayida Alison Commission	1995	The commission under the chairmanship of Mr. Alison Ayida had the mandate to review the performance of the civil service. The commission observed the care -free or lackadaisical attitude to work, corruption and low morale to name a few. The commission noted the remuneration gap between the civil servants and their counterparts in the private sector and parastatals which had widened since the mid-1970s when the Udoji commission tried to abridge the gap. The commission recommended the regular adjustment of salaries and allowances of civil servants in line with inflationary trends.

The Report of the Vision 2010 Committee	1997	The committee recommended the review of salaries and allowances every two years, on the basis of cost of living index and the comparability of remuneration with the private sector employees; p roviding assistance in the education of worker's children by paying education allowances on a maximum of four children per family until they graduate from secondary school. Payment of housing and allowances to enable public sector employees rent adequate accommodation and reduce their incessant demands for living in Government quarters.
Phillip Asiodu Committee on Harmonisation of Remuneration in the Public Service	1998	The mandate of this committee was to harmonise the proliferation of salary structures in the public sector. It recommended the harmonisation of public service salaries in order to promote industrial harmony . Thus, commercial parastatals be allowed to continue to operate their respective salary structures and continue to fund th eir personnel costs without recourse to government subventions, but with clearance from the National Salaries, Incomes and Wages Commission on subsequent reviews.
Phillip Asiodu Committee on Minimum Wage Review Under President Olusegun Obasanjo	1999	The minimum wage was increased on 1 st September, 1999 from ₦250 to ₦5, 200 without due consultation with relevant stakeholders. Sequel to strike actions, negotiation between the 36 states and labour, it was agreed that workers in federal establishments sho uld be paid ₦3, 500 and their state counterparts should be paid ₦3, 000 this was in October, 1999.
President Olusegun Obasanjo Minimum Wage Review Commission	2000	President Olusegun Obasanjo unilaterally increased minimum wage payable to public sector workers to ₦5, 500 for states and ₦7, 500 for federal workers.
Ufot Ekaette Presidential Committee on Monetisation of benefits in the public sector	2002	Monetisation of fringe benefits in the public service. The list of benefits currently being monetised are as follows:- (i) Residential Accommodation (ii) Furniture Allowance (iii) Utility Allowance (iv) Domestic Servant Allowance (v) Motor Vehicle loan (vi) Fuelling, Maintenance and Transport Allowance (vii) Leave Grant (viii) Meal Subsidy (ix) Entertainment Allowance (x) Personal Assistant Allowance Implementation began in July, 2003.
Pension Reform Commission	2004 and 2014	The Pension Reform Act, 2004, established a contributory pension scheme for employees in the public and private sectors.(a) In the case of the public service of the federation and Federal Capital Territory: a minimum of seven and half percent by the employer a nd a minimum of seven and half percent by the employee(b) In the case of military: a minimum of the twelve and half percent by the employer and minimum of the two and half percent by the employee (c) In the private sector, a minimum of seven and half percent by the employer and a minimum of seven and half percent by the employee. In 2014, there is an amendment to the 2004 Pension Reform Act in which case a minimum of ten percent by the employer and a minimum of eight and half percent by the employee.

Onosode FGN/ASUU Re - Negotiation Committee	2009	The term of reference was to re -negotiate the 2001 FGN/ASUU Agreement. The Committee agreed that the essence of the re-negotiation was: (i) To reverse the decay in the University System, in order to reposition it for greater responsibilities in national development; (ii) To reverse the brain drain, not only by enhancing the remuneration of academic staff, but also by disengaging them fro m the encumbrances of a unified civil service wage structure; (iii) To restore Nigerian Universities, through immediate, massive and sustained financial intervention; and, (iv) To ensure genuine university autonomy and academic freedom.
President Goodluck Jonathan Minimum Wage Review Committee	2011	The minimum wage was increased to ₦18, 000; as against the demand of the NLC for ₦52, 500. Minimum wage has been put in place via legislation. The minimum wage ensures that all workers receive a predete rmined minimum wage.
President Muhammadu Buhari Minimum Wage Review Committee	2018/2019	The committee was set up in 2018 but completed its assignment in 2019. The committee recommended the review of minimum wage from ₦18, 000 to ₦30, 000; as against the demand of the NLC for ₦56, 000. minimum wage. This is the current minimum wage in Nigeria.

Source: Adapted from the ASUU/FGN 2009 Agreement; Chidi (2017) ; Ekaette (2003); Eneanya (2009); Fajana (2006); Fashoyin (1987 & 1992); Otobo (2007); Ujo(2008).

There exists now a permanent National Salaries, Incomes and Wages Commission in Nigeria established by Act 99 of 1993.The foregoing Commissions were set up in the colonial period/era and post-colonial era, by successive governments in Nigeria both military and civilian and their objective is to ensure that employers do not exploit their workers and for employers to pay fair and equitable compensation to Nigerian workers in both the public and private sectors (Ekwoaba & Olusanya, 2014; Ekwoaba & Ideh, 2013). Workers' pay or compensation is regulated through government labour policy as stipulated by the Nigerian labour laws or legislation. These laws include the Labour Act, the Employees' Compensation Act, the Minimum Wage Act, the Pension Act, and the National Health Insurance Act. These are discussed in profundity in what follows:

A Review of the Labour Act of 1974

The first set of policies that have important implications for the evolving labour market realities is the reform of certain labour laws that are intended to protect workers in employment. Thus, the primary labour law is the Labour Act of 1974 which has been incorporated into the Laws of the Federation, 1990. Section 7 (1) of the Labour Act, Cap 198, Laws of the Federation of Nigeria 1990 provides that an employee must be given a written letter of appointment within three months of engagement. Such letter should specify, among other things, the date, name and place of work where the worker is engaged, the nature of the employment, whether; for example, work is for a fixed term and when the contract expires. In the event of disengagement, it should state the period of notice by either party. It should also state the hours of work, rate of pay and the periodicity of payment, holiday and provision for sickness or injury and terms relating to these.

The aim of these provisions of the law is that a formal contract of employment should be given to the worker. However, it is an irony that the provisions of this law cover only workers in standard/ regular employment, ostensibly because many workers, in non-standard work, are engaged informally and often without written contract or letter of employment. In some cases, not only do some employers fail to offer formal appointment letters, they do not keep records of those employed, presumably to evade the law. Such instances have increased the vulnerability of the affected workers (Fashoyin, Owoyemi & Chidi, 2012).

A Review of the Employees' Compensation Act (ECA) of 2010

Since some health bills are still paid by a number of Nigeria employees owing to occupational death, injuries and diseases, the Nigerian government from the colonial era came up with workmen compensation as a way of compensating employees for their loss or injury in the course of duty. Nigerian employees, most times, do leave employment earlier than retirement as a result of injuries sustained at work or during employment. The colonial government, in a bid to ensure that Nigerian workers still maintained their standard and living conditions even with the injuries, enacted the first Workmen Compensation Ordinance in 1941. The Ordinance was sequel to the Trade Union Ordinance of 1938 which gave legal backing for the formation of trade unions in Nigeria. The 1941 Ordinance was followed by the Labour Code Ordinance of 1945. The two Ordinances were to ensure the safety of employees at work. By 1958, the Factory Ordinance was enacted to ensure that factories were registered and that workers security, safety and welfare were provided for at factory premises. In 1987, both the Factory Act and Workmen Compensation Act were amended to cover not just the provision of safety measures but also compensation for injuries and death

sustained in the course of employment.

With the coming of democratic government in 1999, the Workmen Compensation Act was instituted in 2004. The Act was optional to employers who are willing to provide additional cover for employees and was mainly left for the private sectors after its repeal in 2010 as government does not collect fund and neither does it manage the fund for the sector. Government gives the private sector regulations that will help them to choose insurers. Insurance experts have objected to this government stance, stating that no profit-driven public sector can deliver social security (Abubakar, 2011). The flaws associated with the 2004 Workmen Compensation Act led to the establishment of the Employees' Compensation Act of 2010 which was signed into law by President Goodluck Ebele Jonathan in 2011.The New Employees' Compensation Act (ECA) of 2010, which repealed the 2004 Workmen Compensation Act aims at improving the welfare of Nigerian workers.

As pointed out earlier, the Employees' Compensation Act of 2010 is a reformulation of the Workmen's Compensation Act of 2004. The new Act makes provisions for compensating employees for contractingoccupational diseases or injuries sustained from industrial accidents at the workplace or in the course of duty. The law creates, in Section 56(1), the Employees' Compensation Fund into which all contributions by employers shall be lodged, which is to compensate employees or their dependants for any injury, disability, death or disease arising out of or in the course of employment. In section 36(1) of the Act, every employer shall within the first 2 years of the commencement of the Act, make a minimum monthly contribution of one per cent of the total monthly payroll into the Fund. The Act establishes a contributory compensation fund referred to as the Employees' Compensation Fund managed in the interest of both employers and employees. The Fund is managed by the Nigeria Social Insurance Trust Fund Management Board (the Board) established under the Nigeria Social Insurance Trust Fund Act No. 73 of 1993. Contribution to the Fund derives from various sources including, a take-off grant by the federal government, compulsory contributions, fees and charges assessed to employers, gifts or other grants from local or international organisations, and earnings from profitable investments of the surplus fund by the Board.

It is significant that the Act covers employees in both the public and private sectors of the economy. It also covers self-employed persons, whether in the formal or informal economy. However, members of the Armed Forces, except those employed in civilian capacity are excluded from the scheme (FRN 2010, Official Gazette). The potential contribution of this innovative Act to the welfare of workers is enormous, but it is yet to be discerned if the operators are able to

bring the various categories of employers into its coverage, and perhaps more significantly, whether the enforcement provisions are able to ensure that all employers' categories faithfully implement the revolutionary provisions.

In the Employees' Compensation Act 2010, specifically, employees are liable to compensation for death, injury and disease resulting in the course of work. Compensable categories include death, injury, mental stress, occupational disease, hearing impairment and other injuries occurring outside the normal workplace. Even though there is no judicial pronouncement specifically relating to the Act, previous judicial decisions have attempted to define the phrase “in the course of work”. The courts have stated that the “course of the servant's employment can be extended to acts which are outside the employee's working hours and outside the employer's premises, provided the acts are done for the purpose of the employer's business.” This definition is consistent with the definition provided in the Act. The Act also provides that an employee shall be entitled to payment of compensation with respect to any accident sustained on the way between the place of work and employee's principal or secondary place of residence; the place where the employee usually takes meals; the place where he/she usually receives remuneration, provided that the employer has a prior notification of such place. These are in agreement with ILO Conventions No. 121 on Employment Benefit 1964 and Convention 102 on Social Security (Minimum Standard) 1954.

The provision in the new Act complies with periodic payments as recommended by ILO Convention 121 of 1964. In the case of death of the breadwinner or permanent incapacity, the Board makes a periodic payment, specifically on monthly basis, to the dependants of the deceased employee or incapacitated employee. The amounts and conditions of payment may change as follows: increments in periodical payments are provided if the disabled persons required constant help or attendance of another; and the condition of periodic payment could be reviewed, suspended or cancelled depending on changes in the degree of working capacity or substantial changes in the cost of living. The Act makes room for changes in payment based on the degree of incapacity or rate of adjustment of the injured employee; but this is at the discretion of the Board. For example, Part III, No. 7 of the new Employees' Compensation Act stated that the compensation payable for occupational disease might, in addition to the provision of this section of the Act, be determined by regulations made by the Board. What this means is that besides the provisions of this Act, it also empowers the Board to determine compensation by its regulation. In our opinion, this allows for flexibility of the Act. The minimum benefit levels stipulated by the Act includes: In the case of death resulting from the course of work the scale of compensation is 90 per cent of

the total monthly remuneration of the deceased employee as of the date of death where the deceased leaves dependants wholly depending on his/her earnings, a widow or widower. Part IV, sub-section 1(a) of the Employees' Compensation Act identified the following conditions and the scale of compensation: where the deceased employee leaves dependants wholly dependent on his/her earnings, a widow or widower:

i. and two or more children, a monthly payment of a sum equal to 90 per cent of the total remuneration of the employee as of the date of death,
ii. and one child, a monthly payment of a sum equal to 85 per cent of the total monthly remuneration of the deceased employee as of the date of death,
iii. without a child who, at the date of death of the employee, is 50 years of age or above, or is an invalid spouse, a monthly payment of a sum equal to 60 per cent of the total monthly remuneration of the deceased employee, and
iv. who, at the date of the death of the employee is not an invalid spouse, in under the age of 50 years and has no dependant children, a monthly payment of a sum that is equal to the product of the percentage determined by subtracting 1 per cent from 60 per cent for each year for which the age of the dependant, at the date of death of the employee, is under the age of 50 years, and provided that total percentage shall not be less than 30 per cent.

A Review of the Minimum Wage Act in Nigeria

The minimum wage ensures that all workers receive a predetermined minimum wage (Ujo, 2008). Given the structure of employment and the growing size of non-standard workforce, the role of the minimum wage, in serving as a safety net for workers at the lowest rung of the income ladder,can hardly be over-emphasised. In fact, this role of the minimum wage, in protecting the workers at the lower rung of the income ladder, has been one of the outstanding features of wage determination in Nigeria since the 1950s. With growing number of non-standard workforce relative to those in regular or standard employment, the role of the minimum wage, in providing regular income for the designated workers, is key to the minimisation of poverty in the country. Yet the determination of the minimum wage has, for several decades, been acrimonious and turbulent aspects of the employment relationship in Nigeria. For a historical account of the determination ofthe minimum wage; (see Ezeife, 1987; Fashoyin, 1991). Minimum wage covers only the financial aspect of compensation and was not obvious until 1972, when the Nigerian government set the monthly financial compensation of workers at ₦60 minimum per month.

In 1981 as depicted in Table 1, following the usual drama and acrimony

surrounding the determination of the minimum wage, the government of Alhaji Shehu Shagari and the social partners agreed to an ad hoc tripartite panel to determine the minimum wage. After threats of strikes for the lack of progress in the negotiations, the parties agreed to a minimum wage of N125 per month for the designated workers. Between 1981 and 2010, four of such ad hoc tripartite determinations had taken place, at a regularity of 10 year period. This exercise, similar to earlier exercises, have drawn considerable acrimony (even at the time of writing), because of the reluctance of state governments to pay, on claims that they had not been duly consulted by the federal government, while they questioned the right of the central government to determine the minimum wage for them.

These procedural issues of the determination of the minimum wage speak only to one of the fundamental anomalies in the salaries and wages administration in Nigeria. There is the equally and perhaps more fundamental issue relating to the category of workers that ought to be targeted when determining the minimum wage. Historically in Nigeria, the minimum wage has targeted the lowest paid wage earner in the public service, and the corresponding grades in the private sector. However, as it has recently been argued, this target is not only a misadventure; it is crisis-laden (Fashoyin, 2011). In the first place, by targeting the bottom of the well-established salary ladder in the public sector, the minimum wage sets off an uncontrollable wage agitation by upper-grades wage earners who justifiably want to maintain existing wage parity between their grades and that of those at the bottom. As Fashoyin (2011) argued, the crisis over the target of the minimum wage policy is inevitable; and will subsist as long as the policy fails to focus on those members of the labour force in low wage establishments and who are disadvantaged because they lack organisation or the capacity to influence their wages. In other words, the policy on the minimum wage has ignored the role of the minimum wage as a wage floor designed to protect workers in the bottom of wage income. This point is critical because a growing proportion of the workforce has fallen into the minimum wage category because of the observable increase in non-standard employment in the country.

In 1982, there was a salary and wage freeze which was lifted in 1988 fiscal year (UNESCO, 2012). In 1985, the 1st of October to be precise, the General Ibrahim Babangida administration applied deduction of between 2 per cent and 20 per cent from workers' salaries, rents and dividends. The then Head of State, General Ibrahim Babangida told Nigerian workers then that they were giving to their future generation (Babangida, 1991). In 1990, workers' minimum wage rose to ₦250, and by 1993, it was increased to ₦363. In 1998, there was a sharp increase

to ₦3,500. In 2000, under the administration of President Olusegun Obasanjo the minimum wage was split into two: with federal government paying its workers ₦7,500 minimum while the states and private employers paid ₦5,500. The Minimum Wage Act of 2004 seems to harmonise minimum wages across federal, state and the private sector. In 2011, the Minimum Wage (Amendment) Act, which replaced the Minimum Wage Act of 2004 was signed into law on the 22nd of March , 2011; by the then President of Nigeria Dr. Good-luck Ebele Jonathan to review the national minimum wage upward from ₦7,500 to ₦18,000 minimum.

The minimum wage was increased to N18, 000; as against the demand of the NLC for N52, 500. Minimum wage has been put in place via legislation. In Nigeria, many state governments in Nigeria owing to inability to pay arising from poor revenue base have not religiously complied with the law on minimum wage. The current democratic dispensation under President Muhammadu Buhari set up a minimum wage committee in 2018 for the review of the ₦18,000 minimum wage to N56, 000at the instance of organised labour in view of the excruciating economic conditions that Nigerian workers are grappling with.However, after several months, the committee recommended the sum of N30, 000 minimum wage as against the sum of N56, 000 which is the yearning and aspiration of organised labour. Organised labour threatened industrial action over the minimum wage as some state governments have divergent views on the amount to pay. However, after prolonged agitations by organised labour, the Federal government approved the sum of N30, 000 monthly minimum wage in 2019. This is the current minimum wage to date. The Federal Government has begun implementation of this minimum wage with some state governments in Nigeria as of the time of writing this paper. However, some states are yet to implement the new minimum wage. There is a need to institute the living wage for every employee in Nigeria so that they can live well and have a reasonable standard of living (Chidi, 2017).

A Review of the National Pension Scheme

The Nigerian government has equally made substantial adjustments in the non–wage compensation of pension. In explaining the non-wage compensation of pension and the associated reforms; Anyim, Olusanya and Okere (2014), PENCOM (2008), Ahmed (2006) and Odia and Okoye (2012), viewed pension as the benefits employers pay to employees on retirement or after attaining the statutory retirement age or age of superannuation, which makes employees to be

financially independent at old age and during post-employment years. Though a deferred reward and remuneration package, it guarantees employees comfortable life after active years of service. According to Adams (2005), pension is the amount that company or government pays an employee after having worked for a specific period and retires because of either ill health, old age or having reached the statutory age of retirement. This amount is assumed to be paid monthly by employers to retirees until their death. Chizueze, Ikeji, Agba and Ogaboh (2011) and Adebayo (2006), viewed pension as a scheme of an earned income that has employees paying a portion of their earnings during their working life into the pension fund. Ozor (2006) posited that the sums paid by employees during their working life can only be earned upon disengagement from active service. Nigerian employees, before 2004 Pension Reform Act, were scary of the word pension because the scheme was not only problematic; but also fragmented and rigid. The scheme caused untold hardship on retirees who have to queue long hours, wait for days, weeks, months and even years to earn their entitlement (Dostal & Cassey, 2007).

The Nigeria pension scheme can be traced to the 20th century organised by workforce in the private and public sectors in the colonial era (Barrow, 2008). Ikeji (2002) as cited in Anyim et al. (2014) opined that the colonial pension law was primarily designed for the British officials who moved from place to place within the vast British Empire. The intention was to guarantee continuity of service wherever they had worked. He further noted that the Pension Ordinance had limited application to Nigerian or indigenous employees; and was granted at the pleasure of the Governor-General. This implies that the pension scheme, at that period, was not an automatic right of Nigerians who were discriminated against. However, the scheme did not give equal rights to Nigerians as their British counterparts. The Nigeria first pension scheme that was inaugurated in 1951 with the Pension Ordinance had a retroactive effect from the 1stJanuary, 1946 (Balogun, 2006; Barrow, 2008). The legislation provided pension and gratuity for public sector employees while the National Provident Fund (NPF) established in 1961 was the first legislation enacted on Pension matters to cover private sector employees (Anyim et al, 2014). The 1961 pension scheme was based on 6 per cent basic salary of 80 shillings (now ₦8) contribution which was shared equally by both employer and employee, that is employer contributes 40 shillings (now ₦4) while employee contributes 40 shillings (now ₦4). Eight naira (₦8) is based on "N1 to 10 shillings "in line with the Federal Government change to decimal currency policy of Naira and Kobo on the 1st of January, 1973 (CBN, 2015).

The non-contributory and unfunded pension plan enshrined in Cap.30 of the Laws of the Federation of Nigeria of 1961 is a colonial inheritance that was solely designed to take care of colonial administration employees (Orifowomo, 2006). The 1951 and 1961 Pension Ordinances and National Provident Fund (NPF) were to cater for pension issues in both the public and private sectors respectively. Pension Act No.102 and Pension Act No. 103 that catered for the Armed Forces followed these in 1972 and 1979. Other Pension Acts included, Pension Right of Judges Act No. 5 of 1985, the 1987 Pension Act No. 75 that established the Police and other government agencies pension schemes. The 1987 Pension Act established the Local Government Staff Pension Board that caters for local government employees' pensions (Sule & Ezugwu, 2006 as cited in Ayegba, James & Odoh, 2013).

The challenges of the previous schemes made government to establish the Nigeria Social Insurance Trust Fund (NSITF) in 1993 under Decree No. 73, to replace the defunct National Pension Fund (Odia & Okoye, 2012). NSITF, which took effect from the 1st of July, 1994; was set up to address pension and retirement issues of employees in the private sector of the economy and any law of employment that is against workers in their old age, invalidity or death (Balogun, 2006). The Pension Act of 1997 allowed parastatals to have different pension arrangements for their staff. The pensions in Nigeria can be classified as follows: retiring pension, compensating pension, superannuating pension and compassionate allowance. The entire pension scheme used in Nigeria from 1951 to 1997 was the Pay- As -You -Go (PAYG) pension policy. The 1951 scheme that has retroactive effect from January 1946 has basic salary contribution of 6 per cent. That is of 3 per cent for the employer and 3 per cent for the employee. Other schemes include: the 1961 National Provident Fund Scheme had 7.5 per cent contribution of basic salary of 2.5 per cent by the employee and 5 per cent by the employer.

The Armed Forces Pension Act No 103 had 15 per cent contribution of basic salary of 12.5per cent by the employer and 2.5 per cent by the employee. The 1976 and 1979 Pension Act No 102 that commenced on the 1st of April, 1974 and the other Government Agencies Pension Act No 75, 1987 and Local Government Pension Decree 1987 had 7.5 per cent basic salary contribution of 2.5 per cent by the employee and 5 per cent by the employer. From 1995 to 1999, the basic contribution rose to between 16.7 per cent and 30 per cent. The percentage contribution was reversed in 2002 to 10 per cent of 3.5 per cent contribution by employee and 6.5per cent by the employer (Fapohunda, 2013; Odia & Okoye, 2012).

In the PAYG scheme, three tiers of government are responsible for the pension of

public servants while some corporate organisations, especially the multinationals had special pension programme for employees. The lack of payment after retirement by PAYG Pension schemes otherwise known as "Benefit Plan" owing to government budgetary allocations, non-contributory bottlenecks and corruption in terms of misuse and embezzlement of pension fund led to the establishment of the 2004 Pension Scheme, otherwise known as the "Contributory Pension Scheme." The 2004 Contributory Pension Scheme took care of the challenges of budgetary provision release by all tiers of government, fraud and corruption to mention a few. According to Ayegba, James and Odoh (2013) and Goloma (2009), the 2004 Pension Reform Act was to remove the usual delays in processing the retirement benefits of workers in all sectors of the economy. According to Sule and Ezugwu (2009) as well as Ahmed (2008), the 2004 Pension Reform came to remove the various problems inherent in the PAYG at both the public and private sectors of the Nigerian economy. Government aims at establishing the Pension Act 2004, invariably was to relieve government of pension problems, reduce the suffering of pensioners and give an average Nigerian employee hope in retirement.

The objectives of the new pension reform are to ensure that every worker receives his/her retirement benefits as and when due, empower the worker, assist workers to save their terminal benefits/pension in order to cater for their livelihood during old age, establish uniform rules, regulations and standards for administration of pension matters and establish strong regulatory and supervisory framework for the scheme (Pension Reform Act, 2004). In the 2004 Pension Reform Act, every employee shall maintain a Retirement Savings Account (RSA) in his/her name with any Pension Fund Administrator (PFA) of his/her choice and notify the employer of the details. The scheme is comprised of 15 per cent total contribution with the employee and employer each contributing a minimum of 7.5 per cent of the employee's monthly emoluments of monthly basic salary, transport and housing allowances. In the case of the Armed Forces, it is 12.5 per cent contribution by the employer, while it is 2.5 per cent contribution by the employee. The scheme covers all organisations with at least 5 employees in their employment. The Pension Act 2004 was amended in 2014. The 2014 Pension Amendment Act covers organisations with as low as 3 employees and a total of 18 per cent contribution based on emoluments as agreed in contract of employment by both employer and employee. In the 2014 Pension Act Reform, the employer is required to contribute 10 per cent while the employee will make a contribution of 8 per cent of total emolument (Anyim et al, 2014; Fapohunda, 2013).

A holder of a retirement savings account upon retirement and on attaining the age of 50 years, shall utilise the balance standing to the credit of his/her retirement

savings account for the following benefits: programmed monthly or quarterly withdrawals calculated on the basis of an expected life span; annuity for life purchased from a Life Insurance Company licensed by the National Insurance Commission with monthly or quarterly payment; and lump sum from the balance standing to the credit of his/her retirement savings account; provided that the amount left after that lump sum withdrawal shall be sufficient to procure an annuity or fund programmed withdrawals that can produce an amount not less than 50 per cent of his/her annual remuneration as of the date of his/her retirement. Any employee who retires before the age of 50 years in accordance with the terms and conditions of his/her employment may, on request, withdraw a lump sum of money not more than 25 per cent of the amount standing in retirement savings account; provided that such withdrawals shall only be made after six months of such retirement and the retired employee does not secure another employment. Any amount payable as retirement benefits is exempted from tax.

A Review of the National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS)

The non-wage compensation of healthinsurance, which covers employees in both the private and public sectors of the Nigerian economy, has also undergone reforms to arrive at its current form. With respect to the Universal Healthcare Coverage (UHC) around the world, the World Health Organisation (WHO) in its report observed that it has been difficult to achieve universal healthcare coverage in many developing countries owing to out-of-pocket expenses, which include over the counter payments for medicines and fees for consultations and procedure (WHO Report, 2010). Medical fees especially have been the main challenge to health care coverage and utilisation; not just for employees but also for the entire population of most developing countries and Nigeria is no exception. Health facilities are inadequate and the cost of accessing health care is expensive in Nigeria (Yohesor, 2004; Odeyemi & Nixon, 2013; Vonke & Sunday, 2014).

The yearly budgetary national allocation to health in Nigeria has not only been fluctuating but alsomeagre to cater for the health needs of its over 180 million people. This is evident in the report of the Budget Office of the Federation and the Federal Ministry of Finance in 2012. The report of the Budget Office for year 2000 shows that ₦15.7 billion which is 2.1 per cent of the national budget was allocated to the health sector. This was increased to ₦42.6 billion in 2001, representing 271 per cent increase to 2000 and 4.1per cent of total annual budget. In 2002, it was ₦44.7 billion and 1.9 per cent of annual budget for that year. In

2003, it increased to ₦52.2 billion and 2.1 per cent of annualbudget. In 2004 the health budget was ₦59.8 and 1.9 per cent of total annual budget. The year 2005, witnessed the allocation of ₦71.7 billion, representing 3.2 per cent of the annual budget. In 2006 health budget increased to ₦106.9 billion and 5.6 per cent of total annual budget. In the following years: 2007, 2008 and 2009 the health budgets stood at ₦122.9 billion, ₦143.9 billion and ₦154.6 billion respectively representing 5.1 per cent, 3.6 per cent and 4.3 per cent of the total annual budgets for the three consecutive years. In 2010 and 2011, budgetary allocations to health stood at ₦164.9 billion and ₦266.7 billion respectively which is 3.7 per cent and 5.4 per cent of total annual budgets for the two consecutive years.

TABLE 2: BUDGETARY ALLOCATIONS TO THE HEALTH SECTOR AND PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL ANNUAL BUDGET 2012 - 2020

Year	Budgetary Allocations to the Health Sector in Billions (₦)	% of Total Annual Budget
2012	280.77	5.95
2013	282.50	5.66
2014	264.46	5.63
2015	259.75	5.78
2016	250.75	4.13
2017	308.46	5.17
2018	411.6	4.40
2019	424.03	4.75
2020	427.30	4.14

Source: Budget Office and National Bureau of Statistics for various years

Table 2 depicts the budgetary allocations to the health sector as well as percentage of total annual budget from 2012 to 2020. From the foregoing therefore, it is clear that successive governments' budgetary allocations to the health sector have been very inadequate to cater for the health needs of its huge population. The only way out of this quagmire is for government to encourage the risk–pooling prepayment approach as exemplified by the National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) to cater for the health compensation of the country's workforce (Onyebede, Goyit & Nnadi, 2012; NHIS Report, 2005; WHO Report, 2010).

The idea of Health Bill on National Health Insurance Scheme in Nigeria is not a new phenomenon; it was conceived in 1960 under the Halevy's Committee on Lagos Health Bill. But not until 1984; did the National Council on Health; set up a committee to advise government on it owing to legislative issues and political

instability. The Committee did not start review until 1985. When they did review, the health sector advised that the National Health Insurance Scheme bill be kick started. The bill was not promulgated until 1997 when the government of the Federal Republic of Nigeria in response to the World Health Organisation (WHO)'s clarion call, repackaged and launched the Nigerian National Health Insurance Scheme on the 15th of October, 1997. The scheme had no enabling law establishing it, until the promulgation of Decree 35 otherwise now referred to as Act 35 of 1999 in May 1999. The health reform was in essence stalled between 1960 and 1997 by legislation and political instability in the country. The scheme only became reactivated on the 6thof June, 2005, after another 6 years of delay (NHIS Report, 2005). The objective of the National Health Insurance Scheme was to give good health care services, reduce medical bills, give equal health care cost among different income groups, and employees in both the public and private sectors of the economy.

The NHIS, which is an agency under the Federal Ministry of Health, consists of three main programmes, out of which: one formal and two informal (Odeyemi & Nixon, 2013). The Formal Sector Social Health Insurance Programme (FSSHIP) covers public employees and the Organised Private Sector (OPS) employees, and is implemented via a managed care model funded through percentage contributions from employees and employers. The scheme has contributory premium of 15 per cent of worker's basic salary with the employee contributing 5 per cent and the employer contributing 10 per cent. It is mandatory for organisations with ten or more employees (Metiboba 2011, NHIS 2012, Odeyemi & Nixon, 2013). The two other schemes, the Urban Self-Employed Social Health Insurance Programme (USSHIP) and the Rural Community Social Health Insurance Scheme (RCSHIP) are outside the formal sector and not part of the focus of this paper. As a compensation package, the NHIS which collects premium purchases health services that cover the illness of employees, their spouses and four children under the age of 18 (NHIS, 2005). According to Ichoku (2005), Yohesor (2004), and Metibuba (2011), despite the NHIS, exorbitant health services bills are still paid for by employees as the scheme does not completely cover high cost illnesses such as surgery, hypertension, diabetes, dental problems to name a few. Only generic drugs are given to employees, spouses and children under the age of 18. In most cases, the Health Maintenance Organisations (HMOs) do not, most times, have essential drugs.In some cases, the patients are asked to buy some of the drugs outside the hospital pharmacy leading to additional financial burdens on the employees who bear the cost of recommended medications, which are in some cases exorbitant.

Conclusion and Recommendations

This paper set out to examine social protection and compensation management in the Nigerian public sector from 1934 to 2019. Salaries and wages administration in the public sector when compared with the private sector are markedly different. The organised private sector seems to have a better mechanism with respect to pay determination and salaries adjustments as exemplified by the use of collective bargaining. In the public sector, the civil service rules and wage commissions are the mechanisms for salaries and wages determination and adjustments. These mechanisms are preferred to collective bargaining by employers in the public sector in Nigeria. The use of wage commissions in the public sector is antithetical to collective bargaining as it involves unilateral determination of employment terms and conditions. Therefore, to minimise the incidence of strikes, resolve the wide salary/wage differentials between the private sector and public sector, and to attract talents to reposition the public sector, it is imperative to strengthen the collective bargaining machinery in the public sector. A cursory examination of policies onsocial protection reveals that the target is on workers in the formal sector. Although, an x-ray of the policies reveal that workers in the informal economy are covered by the provisions of some of these lofty public policies, but from experience, the workers in the informal economy have been relegated to the background and are yet to fully benefit from the provisions of these public policies on social protection. With particular reference to the minimum wage of ₦30,000 per month, it is argued in some quarters that the amount is meagre considering the high cost of living in Nigeria now. The administration of pension leaves much to be desired in view of the wanton corruption and embezzlement of pension funds. A lot needs to be done to ensure a hitch-free pension payment system to retirees as and when due. The NHIS seems to be for the very few workers in the formal sector as well as those in the urban centres/cities. Those in the informal sector and rural areas have not been fully covered in this social protection scheme.

Particularly, this paper hereby recommends that the NHIS should be expanded to accommodate workers in the informal sector and those in the rural areas for the impact to be more felt and visible. It is also recommended that the adoption of collective bargaining and the commitment on the part of the government to abide by the agreements reached with unions in the public sector remains the cardinal means for promoting peaceful labour-government relations and largely forestall incessant strikes that have bedevilled the public sector in recent times. There is the need for the Ministry of Labour and Employment to be alive to its responsibilities by ensuring that government labour policies and laws are implemented to the letter. There is the urgent need to step up labour

administration and inspection by the Ministry. With regard to the embezzlement of pension funds, there should be stiff penalties imposed on those who mismanage or embezzle such funds and the penalty should be life imprisonment or capital punishment. On the issue of health for employees and Nigerians in general, robust budgetary allocations should be allotted to the health sector every year to meet the health needs of workers and Nigerians. In the same vein, the state-of-the-art medical facilities and centres should be established in the six geo-political zones to meet the health needs of the teeming Nigerians to reduce medical tourism abroad. This of course will assist to conserve foreign exchange, which can be ploughed back to the economy for developmental projects that will benefit the citizenry.

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THE IMPACT OF SOCIAL MEDIA ON LOCAL GOVERNMENT ADMINISTRATION IN NIGERIA

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Abstract

As governments of all spheres seek to drive citizens involvement in governance while promoting openness in advancing public service delivery, social media platforms have been subsumed into the governmental establishment and have been considered as veritable channels in stimulate and promoting public goals. Broadly, this paper analysed the impact of social media on Local Government administration in Nigeria. The study relied on primary and secondary data. Primary source included the use of questionnaires and statistical data and analyzed using frequency distribution and simple percentages. Two Local Governments were proportionally chosen while random sampling methods were used in selecting respondents therein. From 1,500 study population, a sample fraction of 10% constituting one hundred and fifty (150) questionnaire was administered to the respondent. This paper found that existing WhatsApp, Instagram and Snapchat application were not strange to officials of the Local Governments, government initiatives, and that social media has made it possible for people or groups to create, organize, edit, comment on, combine, and share content in Local Government administration. The paper concluded that positively, social media has significantly influenced local government administration in Nigeria. The paper recommends local government administration should continue to cooperate with the local people on how they can develop adequate strategy to strengthen positive effect of the use of social media platforms.

Keywords: Social media, Local Government, Website, Communication, Information

Introduction

Social media in today's world has stirred interest in many sector of the public space (Cohen, 2015). The effect of social media on governance has gained wider scope in government establishment as it assists in showcasing governments' efforts in service delivery and intimating the citizens of governments' activities. The innovative potentials of social media has brought about changes throughout society, as it is fast becoming a leading avenue of information dissemination and changing the methods with which organisations in both the public and private sectors use to interrelate with people. Extant literature, Troshani (2015), Sivarajah, Irani & Jones, (2014) in their studies submit that employing social media in citizens' governance participation and communication can strengthen and generate numerous advantages in the administration of Local Governments, wider-reach and participatory commitment strategies in addition to the use of Web technologies in global e-government (Cohen, 2015; Hamidullah, 2016; Shark, 2015). Yet, the application of Web technologies raises questions on how Local Governments can develop and effectively carry out their roles in development through the instrumentality of social media strategy in a bid to actualize organizational objectives thus maximizing their worth in governance space. This will further ensure minimization of risks management as well as leveling out challenges to application of social media.

Social media is becoming increasingly essential in many fields of endeavours. It is fast becoming influential in the affairs of mankind. This is as a result of its growing tools in number and variety of features initiated to engage humanity in carrying out personal, private and public activities. (Banaji, 2008). Essentially, for Local Government administration, according to Flanagin's (2006) study on 'social pressures on organisational website adoption', finding showed that citizens who employ online website content in communicating with government agents and agencies exhibit high level of civil commitment and community participation interactively than citizens who do not employ online means of accessing government activities (Kang & Gearhart, 2014). Studies on "Social media assimilation in firms: Investigating the roles of absorptive capacity and institutional pressures and social media effects on fostering online civic engagement (Bharati, Zhang, & Chaudhury, 2014);building citizen trust in institutions" showed that the application of social media for civic involvement has relatively evolved trust and confidence in organisations (Warren, Sulaiman, & Jaafar, 2014). Impliedly, there is need for government institutions and agencies to create social media, which will enable active citizens' engagement thus enhancing transparency in organisations.

In other climes such as Australia (Howard, 2012) and Japan (Schellong, 2008),

for example, social media has also been applied to increase local government productivities by providing assistance in community building and pursuance of civil advancement (Bell, 2013; Clarkin, 2009). Comparatively, local government administration with its Federal counterpart stand a better opportunity in becoming more innovative in their application of social media tools, since their explorative alternative mechanism is usually not limited. Clearly, local government deals with issue of financial resources constraint though with an advantage obligation to a sizable proportion of communities, which can create a capable application of social media trappings to aim at citizens. Evidently, social media tools in many non-profit organisations, Local Government inclusive, often "experience higher dispersal challenges" (McGrath & Zell, 2001). It is against this backdrop that this study intends to analyse the effect of social media in Local Government Administration in Nigeria.

Literature Review

Social media technology is fast becoming an integral part of Local Government for public information dissemination strategies aiding and prompting media coverage of government activities in most areas (Lee, 2012; Lee, Neeley, & Stewart, 2012). In public and government spheres, media coverage of positive governments' activities reporting sometimes positively influence public trust by citizens in governments endeavours (Gross, Aday, & Brewer, 2004). A survey conducted by Liu *et al.* (2012) on 881 business and government organizations aimed at exploring the nexus between media coverage and external government communication showed a clear link of "dynamic press interface, supportive organisation for effective communication, and sufficient budgetary communication association with reporting to have a more encouraging coverage". Liu et al., (2012) also noted the increasing negative media reporting influence of governments' activities in recent times and suggested the application of social media as a way of improving relationship and communications with official media outlets and citizens alike thus occasioning prospective increment in citizens levels of trust and improvement in the general image of legality of local government in Nigeria.

Lee (2012) identifies the essence and dynamic role of public interactions and external communications in the government perspective. He further cited the instance of policy free enterprise skills that greatly depend on the capacity to theorize subjects mostly acceptable to news media. Lee further argued that public relations has become an integral part of communication in the realm of public administration in the area of public support, programme implementation, democratic accountability, public support, agency power, public policy

development among others. He maintained constant communication remains a requisite for success in this particular area of information dissemination, which constantly use emerging social media and technologies assure. Four reasons were adduced by Lee, Neeley and Stewart (2012) as being central to the adoption of social media technologies by government organizations in their public relations drive as well as external communications. First, social media has virtually taken over daily routine of vast majority of peoples' lives. Second, communication has to a large extent defined public administration for driving information and education of the citizens. Third, the power of communications largely assists government in fulfilling its mandate and become accountable to people. Fourth, there is the need to understand the prospect of social media for two-way communication channel by public managers. This will enhance information sharing in organisations.

In any contemporary world, it is hardly imaginable that there still exist societies devoid of the internet and social media. Social media is inevitable as it has become part of human lives and nothing can really be discussed in isolation of social media or making reference to the technological innovation (Probono Australia, 2012). It is better to accept it because it has actually come to stay. It is a topic of discussion in today's world being amongst traditional media and a large range of youths and teenagers. Explaining the concept in a simple term, social media is defined as a Web 2.0 of electronic media, which allows online socializing including sharing pictures, media contents with people all over the globe (Taprial & Kanwar, 2012).

Dominick (2009) is of the opinion that telephone was the first social medium used to keep in touch. The growth of telephone from a simple fixed device to a changing dynamism of nature commenced with the dawn of a slang “phreaking” invented to term a philosophy of people who explored, studied and tested with telecommunication during their spare time. The phreaking era came into existence in the early 30s. The prankers and hackers might be first social media explorer who proceeded to construct “boxes” considered to be household electronic devices, that generated airs, which allowed free calls to be made as well as accessing the back end of the phone system. In this regard, hacked cooperate voice mail system called codeines were used to produce the first real blog or podcast. According to Taprial and Kanwar (2012), the Usenet resembled the Be Back Soon that carries the acronym BBS. In many respect, it pioneers various internet forum being used today. Usenet was a worldwide distribution of internet discussion system invented by Jim Ellis and Tom Truscott in 1980. On Usenet, messages can be read by users to more than one category called newsgroup. The users could past and read messages on local services. Today, internet platform

assumes similar dimension of technological and social space as Be Back Soon (BBS)'s did. The term BBS is today used in describing any online forum.

Kassotokkis (2010) stated that in reality, most activities done offline are closely linked to social media applications influence for far and wide reaching audience. Social media are considered an online services forum or online sites that place emphasis on reflection and development of social interaction and relationships among users who for instance share interests or activities. He further stated that social media consist of a picture of consumers with the use of profiling their social links as well as provision of avenues for users to share interaction through the internets, which among others include instant messaging and e-mail.

Tobin (2018) has supported that social media have revolutionarily evolved with a boom. He noted that every persons in the World today using internet are linked to one social media sites with statistical confirmation by Jue and Marr (2010) study as cited in Ohiagu (2012). Findings showed that, 25% of the entire world population has joined social sites. By his description of the social media rapid expansion and growth, Dominick (2013) stated that for example, Facebook have about 500 million users in (2012). He further explained that about half of all the youth in the countries like Britain, Spain, United States, Russia, and Czech Republic now use Facebook and similar web sites.

Ikpa and Olise (2010) noted that the nature of social media varied along organisation, social change, and national development outlook. By its global influence on communication exchange , social media has impactfully contributed largely to the improvement of social relationship, ties and has been seen to meet virtually all the social needs of man as a social animal. Similarly, other authors Oche and Aminu, (2010): Olubiyi (2012) agree one of the veritable means of getting information in modern academic era is social media as it serves a flexible footing upon which knowledge is sourced.

Novas (2011) asserted that social media has wide ranging purposes, which to a large degree has made it important in organisations, society and daily activities of mankind. Ikpa and Olise (2010) highlighted the key roles played by social media. Some of which are:

a. Communication: Social media is one the most sophisticated, reliable, cheap, accurate, speed, portable and efficient communication tool in the history of communication. It turns the entire world into a global village where interactions have evolved a single social community. Social media has a potency of making ease of communicating possible without having direct and physical contact with the responder as against interpersonal communication.

b. Collaboration: Today, social media enhanced partnership among the people. The use of social media aid inter-collaboration among users in the world, where

almost large numbers of users are directly engaging in blogging, social media chats, Google talk among others. Social media has made it possible for users to state their conversations by their post with or without the multimedia support content and have their posts circulated among the closed group.

c. Engaging: Everyone in one way or the other engages themselves in social media simply to keep in touch with loved ones. Some do that to avoid loneliness.

e. Entertainment: Social media on one hand offers great deal of entertainment among users. It allows users access to varieties of multimedia content, thereby removing all boundaries which on the other hand are posed by traditional media.

f. Monitoring: Social media gives clearer picture of the situation in real time.

The notion of Local government has generated various definitions. As a concept as other concepts, it has generated less controversy to what it actually means. Some of the few definitions given by scholars will here be considered. Local government is considered as a can be defined as the framework upon which other structures (federal and state government) of government are laid. Iman (2007) (in the work of Akhakpe, 2011) aptly defines local government as a unit of administration with clearly defined powers, territory and administrative authority with comparative sovereignty". The 1976 Local Government reforms initiated by the Federal government summarily defined local government as

> *"Government at local level exercise through representative council established by law to exercise specific powers within defined areas. These powers should give the council substantial control over local affairs as well as the staff and institutional and financial powers to initiate and direct the provision of services and to determine and implement projects so as to compliment the activities of the state and federal government in their areas and to ensure, through devolution of functions to their councils and through the active participation of the people and traditional institutions, but that local initiative and response to local needs and condition are maximized", (Federal Government of Nigeria, 1976).*

According to the definition given above by both Imam and Federal Government of Nigeria, Local Government exists to provide services to the local clients of the state with relatively defined power to exercise within certain areas. Essentially, local government was created to see to the needs of the people at the grassroots level or rural areas. Ekong (in Akhakpe, Fatile & Igbokwe-Ibeto, 2012) assert that the context within which local government operates is defined by the size of communities either as inward-looking, small and peaceful communities bounded

by kinship relationships and subsistence agricultural occupations. The rural-urban dichotomy reflects the population density, size; equality; sparse social classes presence; low standard of living, scarce social amenities; mainly agricultural in nature; rural-urban movement of vibrant and agile young able-men and women searching for greener pastures; poverty, domestic labour; high mortality rate; high fecundity rate; relative risk of high health, illiteracy, absence and inaccessible productive resources, dearth of access to credit/market facilities among others.

The creation of Local governments is aimed at development of rural areas. However, as an agent of rural development, local governments deploy funds that are provided by both the federal government directly through statutory allocation from the federation account and the revenue generated internally in order to enhance livelihood and general wellbeing of the people within their areas of operation. This is done through several initiatives, which attract developmental projects to the local government area. Among such developmental projects are water and electricity, access roads; sustainable livelihoods (provision of credit facilities for agriculture, small scale business; formations of cooperative societies and other economic groups) (Akhakpe, 2012).

Local government is key to national development of any nation. However, the role of local government cannot be understated. It is important to note that no meaningful development can be attained politically, socially, economically and by extension technologically without the involvement of the local government.

Social Media Tools

There are existing online social media (sites) tools that are developed to bring about connecting people via community networking and online networking. They can be highly defined in operational outlook, or varied in reach as plausible. In the global social media space today, Facebook appears dominant. LinkedIn is another social media tool that popularizes and prioritizes business, education and interest connections networking system. These social media networking allow users to freely search for other users on the basis of "friendship" ranging from interest group, group associations, background, hence the prospective aims for nearly limitless connections. The advent of social media networking is fast playing a vital role in private and public lives that most Web 2.0 technologies (photo sharing sites such as Flikr and Snapfish and Wikis (like Wikipedia), as well as media sites like The New York Timesonline), allows direct connections to Facebook or separately own social networking aspects of theirs. In government domain, the Federal Web Managers Council also suggests that agencies of government can explore social networking practice to the benefits of propagating

their services. The use of existing sites such as Facebook can help to create government communities of employees as well as interested citizens in specific issue-targeted groups, recruitment of employees, as well as building cooperation among workers by a way of developing inter-agency, intergovernmental relations (Antil, 2009).

Implementation of Local governments activities could well be projected with the adoption and application of social media. Citing the City of Coral Springs in Florida, Bryer (2010) noted that the government outfit judiciously deployed and integrated social media in exercising its functions. He also noted that City of Coral Springs in Florida was one of the first local governments to create a Facebook platform in the USA. Prior the establishment of the Facebook page, there was wider consultation by the city administrators with the attorney general of the state office for guidelines on how to deploy it in community interaction interacting to ensre privacy requirements and transparency (Bryer, 2010).

Anonymity is usually the case with social media networking as against physical case of meeting people conventionally, especially when holding a town hall forum or public hearings where people are gathered for easy identification of individuals in attendance. In social media world, some levels of impacts have been created by a way of shaping the way people discuss and construct the society, types of interactive communication and norms of communications it contains (Edelman, 2018). There, there is need for public administrators to consider the possible interchange between courtesy and full privacy when developing their mode of social media plans (Bryer, 2010). There is huge benefit derivable from the application of social networking to local government in analytically considering a reliable system for backing up their services by a way of capturing via social networking data in an attempt to saving useful information cum prevention of loss through error thereby making it easily trackable.

Blogging: The use of blogging in social media world comprises conveyance of diaries and entries that are aimed at particular audience and sometimes updated with a new blog entry as required. It is usually an informal style of communication that engages readers as well as inspires a dialogue between blog givers and the readers. In government circle, blog use can be observed in the area of effectively engaging citizens in explicit government activities and to ensure a more unperturbed and friendly face on government efforts (Hernandez, 2011; Smetanka, 2011).

Micro-blogging: Micro-blogging is conducted between bloggers that are connected to one another to facilitate swift exchange of ideas. The common and

most popular micro-blogging social networking is Twitter. The twitter allows users to post entries running into 140 characters limited. The micro-blogging comes in fo*rm o*f tweets, which can be read online or sent as text messages to mobile phones and other devices.

Visual Social Media: Aside being one of the most popular social networking site in the world, Facebook benefits allows posting of information in various formats including videos, photos. Moreover, other visual social media medium such as Snapchat and Instagram are equally of benefits to the Local Government if well deployed. A UK report for instance showed that a 2015 increase in the use of Instagram by local councils was reported (BDO, 2015). In far Australia, it was also reported that local councils were using Instagram widely for the purpose of information sharing about the Council's operations coupled with citizens' submitted photos in an attempt to assist in building and strengthening communities across the country (Dean, 2014).

Shark (2015) notes that the application of video messaging tools are fast becoming specifically essential for transparency of government's activities and service operations with the aim of ensuring improvement as well as promotion of enhanced involvement using a High-Definition (HD) video and sound to assisting virtual communication between government and citizens representatives at all levels. The use of live streaming tools such as Meerkat and Periscope provide significant possibility for ensuring key effect on Local Governments' transparency via council meetings broadcasting as well as other major government activities (Beese, 2016). According to Mergel (2013), video sharing reflects a thorough avenue of communication that governments officials are now considerably using to pass background information concerning issues affecting the locals and to widely transmit video interviews with agency managements or to post activities off the record footage, among varying purposes.

Wikis: The application, Wikis is importantly a group of web pages that is used as a source of information sharing thus providing a cooperative and practical desk for users. Wikipedia as a social networking is a representation of the best popular of the wiki sites and is categorized by its continually developing content that is shaped, created, added to or edited, by a large number of users. Some of the benefits of Wiki have been identified by Local Government Council as prompting transparency by allowing wiki community users members to assess and in turn respond to each other's comments and perceived changes within its desks, engages participations of community members to the conversation of emerging

community matters through provision of efficient documentation storage and recovery as well as providing veritable platform for recording decisions made from conversations and policy drawn, which can be tracked and promptly reviewed by members of the community.

Social Media and Local Government

Mossberger, Wu & Crawford (2013) and Shark (2010b) observed that the existence of local governments has provided a formidable front for e-government services via the instrumentality of social media implementation. The late 1980s through the whole 1990s, the introduction of e-government ingenuities was seen to be hinged on web-based communications. Within this particular era of e-government initiative, many local governments, some state and federal government organizations, attempted to explore the platform of deploring text chats and discussions boards and started integrating certain public activities/functions online, including appointment-making capacities and information-sharing (Bryer, 2010). With the advent of modern social network applications, local governments have been, particularly creative in their usages of most of the famous social media handles such as Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, Linked In, among others in showcasing their knowledge of the inherent advantages of social networking applications (Shark, 2010b).

There is a high proclivity of Local government being more creative in their consideration of social media tools use. This is owing to the fact that they appear unlimited than their Federal and state government and agencies, particularly in their exploring different ways from the conventional approach to governance as a mechanism of reaching out to the people. The reality of frequent financial constraint bedeviling the operation of local governments can be leveled out by the Local government using social media platform as a cutting edge to targeting accessible relatively smaller and an understandably well-conversant community members to serve (Bollwitt, 2009). More than 90% local governments in the United State of America were using Twitter and Facebook as channel of communication in their operations in 2012 as revealed by the Fels Institute of Government, United State of America (USA) study. Invariably, today, the numbers have risen as most communities have consistently put it to trial including other practices of social media. A study conducted in 2014 on Digital Use Survey of a certain groups of local government workers, 88% of respondents were of the opinion that their local governments have a strong social media existence in USA (ICMA January 23, 2015).

In adapting use of social media by local governments as a veritable means of enhancing service delivery, agencies of local government and its representatives

consider community interfacing necessary in order to create an atmosphere of intimacy and engagement thus identifying and clarifying the goals and objectives of social media integration. Clarity of goals are critical in the use of social networking applications in local government administration, especially in changing situations (Riccucci, Meyers, Lurie & Han, 2004), for example, when traditional processes are being replaced with contemporary technologies. Determination of use of social media is informed by the political milieu, that is, how public administrators will interact with members of the public. Krueathep *et al.* (2010) noted that local government in Thailand embraced the use of social media in networking various stakeholders in their areas of authorities as a networking practice as characterized by political competition. This is as a result of competitive governance efforts where political and ideological group were directly involved (Krueathep et al., 2010) thus attracting attentions of people who were not familiar to the use of social networking to broader political engagement. Such trends evidently will make social media to be more embracing in the area of collaborative governance, people oriented programmes, strategies aimed at engaging citizens to be more political conscious in their immediate environments.

Methodology

The paper relied on primary and secondary sources of data. Primary source of data was done with the use of questionnaire adopting a survey research design. This was done with the use of questionnaire administered to the employee and residents of two proportionally selected Local Governments in Lagos State, namely, Somolu Local Government and Kosofe Local Government respectfully in the social development and information departments and selected members of the community by wards. The paper used simple random techniques to select 150 respondents for questionnaire administration from 1510 study population using a sample fraction of 10%.Data collected were analysed using appropriate descriptive statistics with the use of SPSS software. Findings were presented in frequency table (which also showed percentage distributions of the respondents on the itemized variables in the questionnaire) with appropriate inferential statistics.

Table 1: Existing Social Media in Somolu and Kosofe Local Government Area of Lagos State

VARIABLES	STRONGLY AGREE		AGREE		UNDECIDED		DISAGREE		STRONGLY DISAGREE	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	f	%	F	%
Blogs are diaries or entries that are, ideally, targeted to a particular audience and regularly updated with new blog entries is available in your local government	42	28	81	54	5	3.3	16	10.7	6	4
Micro-blogging formats is, Twitter, which allows users to post entries that run to 140 characters and no more exists in your local government	6	4	11	7.3	24	16	79	52.7	30	20
Visual social media platforms such as whatsApp, Instagram and Snapchat are available in your local government	29	19.3	75	50	17	11.3	19	12.7	10	6.7
Wikis: a group of web pages is available in your local government	37	24.7	52	34.7	11	7.3	35	23.3	15	10

Source: Field survey, 2020

Table 1 showed the existing social media in Somolu and Kosofe Local Government Area of Lagos State

As presented in table 1, a total 123 of the respondents (82%) were of the view that blogs that are diaries or entries ideally targeted to a particular audience and regularly updated with new blog entries existed in their local governments.This implied that blogging was available for use and well utilized by local clients. Moreover, 109 of the respondents (72.7%) were of the opinion that micro-blogging format such as Twitter, which allowed users to post entries that run to 140 characters and no more existed in their respective local government. Impliedly, twitter was available well embraced a social media in Somolu and Kosofe local governments areas for information dissemination.

As revealed in table 1, 104 respondents **(**69.3%) recognized the availability of visual social media platforms such as whatsApp, Instagram and Snapchat. This implied that existing whatsap, Instagram and Snapchat application were available and in use to officials and communities members of the selected local governments. Moreover, a marginal 89 (59.3%) of the respondents noted Wikis, which essentially represented a group of web pages. This implied that the selected local governments' officials acknowledged the available of this social networking sites and used it appropriately in implementing government activities

This table showed that the two selected local government have the social media in place and were in use for carrying out services, information dissemination and building community relations among the people.

Table 2: The Effect of Social Media in Somolu and Kosofe Local Government Area of Lagos State

Statements	Level of Agreement (%) (n=150 for pooled sample)				
	SA	A	U	D	SD
Social media potentially has changed the dynamics, inviting greater citizen participation into the very processes that networking facilitated in Local Government administration of your area	28.3	54	3.4	10.3	4
Social media has engaged citizens in real-time response efforts about community matters, government initiatives, and emergency notifications in Local Government administration of your area	4.3	51.7	8	16	20
Social media has explored the ways in which public managers are now employing these particular social media formats in Local Government administration of your area	19	50.3	12.3	11.7	6.7
Social media have made it possible for people or groups create, organize, edit, comment on, combine, and share content in Local Government administration of your area	7.7	34.3	24.7	23.3	10
Social media has ensured interactive collaboration and information sharing and represented a refinement in Local Government administration of your area	30	54	11.3	1.3	3.4

Source: Field Survey, 2020

The effects of social media in Somolu and Kosofe Local Government Area of Lagos State

As shown in table 2, 82.3% of the respondents noted that social media potentially has changed the dynamics, inviting greater citizen participation into the very processes that networking facilitated in Somolu and Kosofe Local Government administration. This implied that social media trended towards a nature of activities of the two local governments where exposure was given.

Moreover, 56% of the respondent agreed that social media has engaged citizens in real-time response efforts about community matters, government initiatives,

and emergency notifications in Somolu and Kosofe Local Government administration. Impliedly, social media facilitated engagement of citizens that closely intimated them of what the local governments were offering the community. This has largely impacted local government administration in being closer to the people in showcasing their service and relevance to local client.It was also revealed that social media has explored the ways in which public managers are now employing these particular social media formats in Somolu and Kosofe Local Government administration. This finding was consequent upon 69.3% agreement level with the statement. This implied that social media had a greater influence on public managers, particularly regarding areas of deploying certain social media designs in disseminating their services to the general public.

In table 2, it was also maintained by an average of 42% of the respondents that social media has made it possible for people or groups to create, organize, edit, comment on, combine, and share content in Somolu and Kosofe Local Government administration. Impliedly, Somolu and Kosofe local government organised the aforesaid activities using social media platforms. An assertion was made regarding the effect of social media on Somolu and Kosofe local government administration, 84% of the respondents responded positively that social media has ensured interactive collaboration and information sharing and represented a refinement in Somolu and Kosofe Local Government administration. This result proved acknowledgment of the positive effect of social media in widening the gap between interactive collaboration and information sharing in local government administration.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The study attempted to examine the dynamics and impacts of social media application to Local Government administration using Somolu and Kosofe Local Government as case study. Findings of the study generated significant information on the real-life understanding and effects coupled with experiences of using social media in the local government context, on the basis of data collected from the two local governments in Lagos State, respectively.The paper identified gaps in previous studies and attempted to make a significant contribution to knowledge and understanding of the prospective impact of social networking for an all-improving local government service performance, thus enhancing citizen participation in public service delivery at large. From the data collected and analysed, the paper concluded that positively, social media has significantly influenced Somolu and Kosofe local government administration and hopes that the findings will be widely sensitize the general public on the

positive impact social media played in government functions and based on the understanding what each of the social media represents.

More awareness should be created in the public space for people to understand the usefulness of social media in government activities, particularly in disseminating the activities of local government administration in Nigeria. This can be done through massive awareness campaign on posters, print and electronic media that intimate people of what local governments' administration activities are using social media platforms. Moreover, local government authorities should continue to cooperate with the local people on how they can develop adequate strategy to strengthen positive effect of the use of social media platforms.

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Career Management: A Predictor of the Performance of Civil Servants in Osun State

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Abstract

The essence of career path to individuals and organizations particularly the public sector, has been a contentious issue in the field of human resource management. Thus the study aims to determine the influence of career development and career counselling on employee performance among civil servants in Osun state. All the civil servants in Osun state make up the population. Simple random sampling technique was used in selecting three hundred and eighty three (383) civil servants from eight of the sixteen (16) ministries in Osun state. Questionnaire was used for generating primary data. Two set of standardized instruments namely career management scale (CMS) and employee performance scale (EPS) were used. Hypotheses were tested using a regression analysis. The results reveals that career development ($\beta = 0.310$; $t = 1.938$; $P<.01$) and career counselling ($\beta = 0.145$; $t = 1.879$; $P<.01$) were independently predicators of employee performance at 1% significant level respectively. Hence, it concluded that career development and career counselling jointly have positive and significant impact on the performance of civil servants in Osun State. The study recommended that government should organize educational advancement, seminars and career counselling programs for the civil service development and high performance.

Keywords: Career Management, Career Development, Career Counselling, Civil Servants, Performance

Introduction

The prospective success of any organization rests on the shoulders of its workforce career success. Career is a term inseparable from profession. Although it differs, as it inculcates all the progress and actions of an individual professional life towards self-actualization. Building a career is of utmost importance to every civil servant because it signifies his or her pre-determined path to success. Government workers with career prospects possess high level of job satisfaction and commitment, which is of economic benefit to the enterprise. Therefore, it is imperative for the Nigeria government to consider managing and developing its workforce career dreams.

Globally, the management of employee career has been a stimulating subject amongst human resource practitioners (Noe, Hollenbeck, Herhart and Wright 2012). Career management as reported by Lyria, (2013) is a formal and informal activity, which includes promotions, job rotation and enrichments for employee sustainability in an organization. However, it should be noted that every civil servant, irrespective of their position (top manager, supervisor or factory workers) have a proposed responsibility to attain in returns for the benefits provided by the organization. Management in both private and public sector need to design strategies for supporting workforce career in order to align their orientation with the target and purpose of the organization. Career management triggers employee self-development as it creates awareness of strength, skills and knowledge required to achieve their goals.

Greenhaus, Callanan and Godshalk (2010) reported that career development is a continuous process of work life. Its benefits are of no limits to the workers and organization at large. Organizations tend to estimate employees' personal interests to career focus for development needs. Thus, career development system is an essential tool for all organizations regardless of size, sector and market. This is because employees' capacity and capability has a fundamental impact on their efficiency, morale and effectiveness, which is an economic benefit to the organization. In any part of the world, it obvious that proper career development will not take place if workforces are not equipped with supportive programs that educates and create awareness on their chosen path in an organization.

In Nigeria, like most developing countries, individual firms or organizations cannot do without career management. This is because career development and counselling of human resource in any organizations (public or private) are essential for the growth and survival of the organization. Mwanje, (2010) opined that nowadays, the public sector pays more attention to the validity of recruitment practices, and are equally vigilant about developing ambitious civil workers. It is

the dream of all civil servants to attain career fulfilments e.g. awards, promotions and retirements. Therefore, organizations provide counselling sessions and internal promotions for employees to perceive self-actualization. Career counselling helps workers identify themselves and take right decision about their chosen path for better performance at workplace. It is a sequence of events aimed at assisting civil servants in service to take educated decisions on job and job related problems.

Notably, many organizations particularly in the public sector have failed to realize the importance of career management as a lacuna to enhance employee development, mentorship and performance. In addition, the current pandemic issue has led to several losses of jobs, as many employees were coined liability to the organization. In addition, organizations consider workforce career development as a cost, forgetting that such development enhance high performance and organizational growth.

Owing to these, there is an emergent need for government to consider career management in the public sector as an avenue to reduce employee poor attitude to work and unproductive operation. It will also enable employees to fit into vacant job opportunities in the sector. Few literatures have commented on career development and counselling in the public sector (Nthangi, 2007: Kong, Cheung & Zhang 2010: Kakui, 2016). Thus, this study aims to proffer clear insight by examining the impact of career management on the performance of civil servants in Osun state, Nigeria.

Research Objectives

i. To examine the influence of career development on the performance of civil servants in Osun state

ii. To determine the influence of career counselling on the performance of civil servants in Osun state

Literature Review

The Civil Service

The term civil service is a two old French word meaning “relating to law” and “aids”. The civil service is the stem of a country's administration towards supplying the public needs. Members of the civil service are called the civil servants. They are an extension of the government that helps dispense its services to the people. The civil service is coordinated and directed by the civil service commission. Each state has their civil service commission headed by the Head of Service. Chapter 6, part 2, section 206 of the 1999 amended constitution established the Osun state civil service commission. The commission functions

as an autonomous government machinery to facilitate and carryout policies proposed by the Osun state government.

The civil servants work in ministries, extra-ministerial departments and government parastatals. Magbadelo, (2016) posits that the Nigeria civil service as a whole had suffered tremendously owing to its workforce poor attitude to duty, unproductive operations, political instability and interference among others. Hence, various government reform exercises have been enacted to address these issues. Whereas, Ayodeji, (2012) argued that most reforms failed due to lack of democratic practice in the civil service. Therefore, the civil service has been considered stagnant and inefficient towards obsolescence, lethargy and lack of enthusiasm in its performance.

Career Management

Kong, Cheung and Zhang (2010) reported that career management is a program implemented by an organization to upkeep or support employees towards their pre-determined success. Besides, Hall (1986) posits career management as an organizational process, which involves preparing, implementing and monitoring career plans of workforce to enhance their skills, knowledge and ability. Career management in the civil service confers an effective strategy that induces awareness and success proposition amongst the civil servants. It is designed towards attracting expertise, maximum job satisfaction and exorbitant productivity. Khan, Rajasekar and Al-Asfour (2015) argued that the prospective career development exercise of an organization includes two approaches namely the workforce career development as well as career counselling.

In the view of Ababneh, (2013), career management is usually cited a predictor and antecedent to career development and counselling. Thus, Dialoke, Chiavoghi and Ukonu, (2016) proposed career development as a co-ordination and planning of workforce progression in learning and expertise to facilitate career prospects. Pinnington, (2011) purported that employees should design and develop their career path with zeal to work, learn and acquire experiences. This is because many organizations particularly the Nigeria civil service aims at developing and counselling industrious workers skills, awareness and mind-set in order to enhance global competitive advantage.

Nthangi, (2007) views career counselling as a personalized process that helps individual understand how to explore career options, clarify and obtain desired career goals. Hirschi and Froidevaux (2020) argued that career counselling is a two way process in which both the counsellor and the counselee contribute to employee performance. Furthermore, Hirschi and Froidevaux (2020) concluded that career counselling assist to tackle challenges employee experience in career

path. Therefore, UNESCO, (1988) spelled the four main process of career counselling namely; render of psychological assistance to employees for better self-awareness on chosen career, creating link between them and their profession, aids them in rational career decision making as well as giving a backbone support to them on whatever progress and challenges faced in the career. These will aid employee to achieve career satisfaction for better performance in the civil service.

Elena-Iuliana and Maria (2016) reported that performance is trivialized with other management terms such as profitability, productivity, effectiveness among others, which are its mere components. The need to enhance employees' performance lies in the management proficiency towards workforce career (Kehinde, 2012). This implies that efficient performance of the Nigeria civil servants lies on the competency of its government. Didier, (2002) views the performance of an employee as the result of his/her performance in comparison with the organizational objectives. Hence, it can be deduced that employee performance relates to how successfully the human resources of an organization perform given functions in the workplace.

Career management and Employee performance

A proactive public organization that nurtures workforce career can positively gear their sense of purpose, belief and expertise towards the organization goals (Guest, 1999). Sadly, many government workers are not aware of their role behavior (i.e. they do not know what is expected of them). As a result, they neglect incorporated objectives building their own dreams. Similarly, management's failure to stimulate workforce for better career planning may result to deficiencies in employees occupying vacant positions (Anyadike, 2013). Thus, career management is essential for employees in the civil service to solemnly improve in their performance output.

Career management functions in employees to track career prospects and in organizations to attract job satisfaction, loyalty and talents towards better service delivery. Agarwala, (2008) supported that career management practices includes career planning, assessment, career counselling, formal mentoring ,career workshops, retirement programs and career development. As reported by Manggis, Yuesti and Sapta (2018) career development engross greater employee performance.

Career development will enhance potential employees and motivate them towards performance improvements. Consequently, it will lead to enlarged productivity, sales and much revenue to the organization (Manggis, Yuesti & Sapta 2018). The Nigeria civil servants encounter several challenges in

progression of their career. Thus, there is need for management intervention in both public and private sector to uphold the concept of career counseling in other to control the situation with sublime advice, guidance and information. Career counseling is therefore considered as a series of effective actions aimed at remedying existing problems to restore quality workforce productivity (Ombayo, Otuya & Shiamwama 2011).

Theoretical Framework

Krumboltz's Theory: This theory was propounded by Krumboltz in 1979. This theory incorporates many factors, each of which has a different impact on individual career decision making. Firstly, genetic endowment factors such as sex, race, developmental disabilities and innate talents may expand or limit career options for individuals. Secondly, career decisions are influenced by environmental conditions and events beyond a person's control such as cultural norms and economy. Lastly, factor is individual learning, which can occur both instrumentally and associatively based on perception. Learning experiences include acquiring work habits and problem-solving skills.

The Krumboltz's theory emphasizes on the need for organization to centre employee personal interests on the career developmental needs. This can be achieved based on evaluating self-observation on the learning experiences pertinent to career future fulfilments. Krumboltz sees career development as unique for the individual and believes that most of the influences on career development and career choice (interests. self-concept) are capable of being altered at any point in life.

This study adopts the Krumboltz's theory, being that it emphasized the need for an organization to possess a planning policy on employee career management. This according to Krumboltz, 1979 will go a long way to upkeep and support employee for better performance and actualization of organizational goals.

Empirical Review

Earlier to now, various studies have been conducted aiming to determine the major effect of career management on employee performance. Career management is a gradual concept with diverse dimensions. Nonetheless, it can be integrated from previous studies that career planning, development, satisfaction, counselling, motivation, and appraisal, among others are dimensions of career management. Therefore, the present study aimed to bestow unto the global count on the relationship between career management and performance of employee.

In relative comparison with other studies, Ombayo Otuya and Shiamwama (2013) examined the relationship between career counselling and employee

productivity. Using a Pearson product moment correlation research design, the results posited employee productivity as a derivative of career counselling. Notably, Ombayo Otuya and Shiamwama (2013) explained counselling as a dimension of career management, which was in accordance with the study of Kakui, (2016) who also spelled development of career as a dimension of career management. The data collection was based on stratified random sampling technique, but the analysis was vague. Still, result of Kakui, (2016) is analogous to the study of lyria, Namusonge and Karanja (2017) that examined the impact of career management on organizational performance in companies listed in Nairobi Security Exchange in Kenya with a sample size of 224 respondents. Results of the study showed that career management had positive influence on the organizational performance.

In a broader scope, Manggis, Yuesti and Sapta (2018) conducted a quantitative research on the effect of organizational culture and career management on organizational performance with motivation an intervening variable. Data was analysed using Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) based on Partial Least Square (PLS). The study of Manggis, Yuesti and Sapta (2018) is a fractional contributor to employee career management. This is because the focus of the study was to examine the two independent variables of psycho-stimulating factors (organizational culture and career management) to employee performance, with motivation a glimpse to both independent variables. Thus, the current study sought to determine employee performance as not only a derivation of career management, but with insight to both career development and career counselling in the civil service commission.

Methodology

The study adopted a descriptive survey design. All the civil servants in Osun state make up the population. Simple random sampling technique was used in selecting three hundred and eighty-three (383) civil servants from eight of the sixteen (16) ministries in Osun state. The preference for sample selection centred on the inability to access all civil servants in the state due to their widespread and standardized operation. Selected ministries include; ministry of agriculture, commerce and co-operative, economic planning and development, education, environment and sanitation, health, home-affairs, human resource and capacity building as well as information and strategy. The primary data was used for analysis and questionnaire was administered to the selected participant in the ministries. Furthermore, out of 383 questionnaires administered, 354 questionnaires were filled, returned and was used for the study. Data collected were subjected to Inferential and Descriptive statistics. Regression analysis was

used for testing the two hypotheses of the study at 1% significant level.

Results and Discussion

Test of Hypotheses

Table 1: Regression Analysis

Model Summary					
Model 1	R=.553a	R^2=.896	Adj.R^2=.291		
	Sum of Square	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Regression	11.012	2	8.455	19.855	.000[b]
Residual	27.605	352	.428		
Total	38.617	354			
Variable	Unstandardized	Std. error	Standardized Coefficient (β)	T	Sig.
Constant	7.737	1.042		7.427	0.844
CD	.617	.318	.310	1.938	.002
CC	.110	.058	.145	1.879	.000

SPSS Computation, 2020

The above table shows that both career development and career counselling significantly predict employee performance at 1% level. The predicting variables jointly contribute 89.6% to employee performance, while the remaining 10.4% could be due to the effect of extraneous variables. This implies that career development and career counselling jointly have positive and significant impact on workforce performance. Furthermore, career development ($\beta = 0.310$; $t = 1.938$; $P<.01$) and career counselling ($\beta = 0.145$; $t = 1.879$; $P<.01$) independently predicts employee performance at 1% significant level respectively.

From the above analysis, it was asserted that career development has a significant effect on employees' performance in the Osun state civil service. This assertion was in line with the findings of Kakui, (2016) who purported that career mentoring affects employee performance. More so, the findings also proved that career counselling has a significant effect on employee performance. The

findings can be supported by the result of Ombayo, Otuya and Shiamwama (2013) which revealed that the more sugar firms shun away from career counselling, the more the productivity goes down. Hence, it is reasonable to conclude that career management has a positive significant effect and also a predictor of the performance of civil servants. This also aligns with the conclusion of lyria, Namusonge and Karanja (2017) and Orgar, Igwe, and Effenji, (2019) which shows that career management had a positive influence on the organizational performance.

Conclusion and Recommendations

This study aimed at evaluating career management as a predictor of the performance of civil servants in Osun state. In the management of any organization both private and public sector, career management plays an immeasurable role in the goal accomplishment of the organization. Many organizations have vanished into obscurity due to the negligence and mismanagement of employee career prospects. It is unarguably believed that once you choose a job you love; you will not feel the stress. That would be an employee pride. Hence, the study concluded that both workforce career development and career counselling are predictors of employee's performance.

In the light of the above result, the study recommended that managements in the public sector should view career management as imperative for motivating employees in other to be more committed towards achieving quality service delivery. More so, government should engage employees in career development programs through training, seminars, conferences and educational advancement in other *to update their knowledge for better performances.* Eventually, government should inculcate career counselling as a vital instrument to provide solutions to the challenges faced by civil servants thereby, assist them towards achieving their career prospects and success.

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Academic Staff Union of Universities Strikes and Employees' Job Performance in University of Lagos

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Abstract

Strike in any institution is an organized work stoppage by a body of employees to enforce employers' compliance with their demands. Key factors to incessant industrial actions of Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) had been that of granting of university autonomy, and employees' welfare among others. The study therefore, sought to examine how the union's industrial actions affect the job performance of academic employees' in the University of Lagos. A cross-sectional research design was employed. A sample size was derived using the krejcie and Morgan's formula to get a sample size of 199 from a study population of 393. The study utilized a simple random sampling to distribute questionnaires among 80 departments. Data was analyzed using inferential statistics of t-test. The result shows a statistically significant effect of industrial action on the performance of University academic employees ($t(59) = 0.001$, $p < 0.05$). If these incessant strikes continue, it might deprive the next generation the acquisition of skills and values necessary for meaningful engagements in organizations to achieve the desired national development. The study therefore, recommend that all relevant trade unions related to education should ensure proper communication between union and government and make effort to resolve issues using other techniques such as dialogue rather than embark on strike all the time.

Keywords: Conflict, Employees, Performance, Strike, Trade unions

Introduction

University education plays a vital role in the economy of Nigerian nation. The importance of university education is beneficial and impactful in human capital development, research, information and technology innovation (Ajayi. 2014; Fajana 2000, 2005). This level of education provides the nation with the required human capital knowledge, values, ideas and skills needed by governments, individuals and corporate bodies within the economy (Fajana, 1995, 2002; Ekpo, 2014). The acquired skills play significant role in improving individual's quality of life; and enhance organizational skills that help business survival, which eventually affects national development. The impact on national development includes amelioration of poverty, ensuring promotion of equity, fairness, social justice and supply of human capital needed to drive the economic growth for enduring national development (Ajayi, 2014). His (2014) final submission was that tertiary education at university level is so necessary such that without it, there would be no meaningful impact on any aspect of the economy. Ogbette, Eke and Ori (2017) who opined that the skills acquired at that level influences the economic and non-economic sectors of the nation corroborated this position of indispensability of university education for economic growth.

Considering the importance of university education as suggested in many quarters, it then meansthat significant investment should be made by various levels of government into taking care of university employees' and infrastructures (Adamu & Ngwo, 2014; Ajayi, 2014; Adavbiele; 2015). This investment would have gone a long way in ensuring development of human capital and enhancing creativity in ideas as well as skills and ultimately improving quality of output. Inadequate investment in this sector is a reflection of government low-commitment; and it might be responsible for the inability of the universities to achieve viable level of autonomy, poor infrastructure development, inadequate employees' welfare leading to incessant industrial actions (Adetiba, 2012; Chijioke, 2013). Poor investment can readily be shown in the funding of the institutions. The low budgetary allocation of 6.7% in 2020 and 7.05 % in 2019 to the Ministry of Education to be shared by 37 Federal Universities, 25 Federal Polytechnics, 21 Colleges of Education, 104 Unity Schools and 28 Parastatals as against the recommended 15-20% by UNESCO is another major contribution to the frequent industrial actions in the educational sector especially in the universities and other institutions of higher learning (Uzo, 2017; Ogbuka, 2000, Olaiya, 2000; Ekpo, 2014; Pemede, 2007). The poor funding of universities, among other things like government interference in the university system, not honouring of collective agreement, wage payment issues, have led to 19

industrial actions (strikes) by the academic staff union of universities in it 42 years (1978-2020) of existence (Fajana, 2002; Adetiba, 2012; Adesuulu, 2012; ASUU, 2000, 2013; Uzor & Anigbogu, 2013). This incessant industrial action implied that academic calendar is disrupted every two years. The trigger for this industrial action in 1988 was the demand for university autonomy, which saw the union being proscribed in 1992 during military regime. The agreement reached between the government and the union was not sustained, and government dismissed ASUU's executives which triggered the Union's strikes of 1994 and 1996 until their executives were reinstated (Anyim, Ikemuefuna & Ekwoaba, 2012a; Iyayi, 2002; Maduewesi, 2002).

The union still has not fared better with democratic dispensation that started in 1999 as academic staff union of the universities and each successive governments for the past 20 years have been at loggerhead over agreements reached on autonomy of universities, wages, allowances, university funding, infrastructural development in the universities (Ekwoaba & Ukeije, 2016). Each successive government has relented in honouring collective agreements, wage payment, improving infrastructures, giving autonomy to the universities; and this have resulted to an average of 2 strikes in 3years (Anyim, 2013, Ekwoaba & Ikeije, 2016).The main reasons behind these industrial actions revolve around not honouring collective agreement, poor infrastructures, non-autonomy of universities etc. According to Simon-Oke (2012), the ASUU and governments industrial conflicts affect academic employees of universities' contribution to the nation's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Previous studies have shown that much time had been lost from the union's industrial actions, so much so that in the last 21 years, the Nigerian university academia has stayed away from work for 3 years, 4months and 2 weeks (ASUU, 2000; ASUU, 2013; Iyayi, 2002; Adetiba, 2012; Ogbette, Eke & Ori, 2017; Bayo, 2018). The calendar for the industrial actions from 1999 are varied and included: 1999 ASUU strike that lasted for 5 months, 2001 was for 3 months of strikes over the re-instatement of University of Ilorin sacked lecturers, 2002 was two weeks strike, 2003 was 6 months strike on poor funding, wage disparities and retirement age; 2005 lasted for 2 weeks, 2006 a week warning strike, 2007 was 3 months strike, 2008 strike lasted for 1 week. The 2009 ASUU strike was for 4 months, 2010 industrial action by ASUU lasted for 5 months, 2011 was for 3 months, 2013 was for 5 months and 2 weeks, 2017 was for 1 month, 2018 was for 3 months and 2020 strike that has lasted from March 9th to date (Albar, 2016; Adamu & Nwogo, 2014; Bayo, 2018; ASUU, 2020). The union's collective and organized cessation of work to force government to accept their demands have been seen by some researchers as salient factors causing instability at the tertiary educational calendar and

impairing both students and lecturers' performance (Amadi & Urho, 2015; Parker, 2012). This disruption had been described as a social ill that eats into students' time and contributes to lecturers non coverage or rush over of academic workload, thereby leading to graduation of students who are ill equipped both in character and learning which invariably affects organizations later (Edinyang & Ubi, 2013). Furthermore, strike actions by academic employees usually affect not only the services provided in the universities but tends to have infectious character as other unions in the universities and other institutions of higher learning draw strength for their own industrial actions from the ASUU's style of negotiation (Anyim, 2012a, 2012b).

There is a strong perception that university autonomy and governments continual honouring of agreements reached with ASUU will drastically reduce the number of strikes the union would embark on and help to achieve growth in the educational sector (Bayo, 2018; Albar, 2016: Adamu & Nwogo, 2014; Ebele, 2013; Uzoh, 2017; Uzoh & Anigbogu, 2013; Fajana, 1995; Otobo, 1984). However, earlier researchers maintained that eradication of ego that breeds costly conflict of interest, reduction of pressure from union members and government stoppage in trying to split and weaken unions will help to reduce ASUU strikes in Nigeria and increase the job performance of academic employees of universities (Fashoyin, 1992; Aka, 2018). The goal of government in establishing public universities is for academic employees of universities to impart knowledge, skills, attitude, values and norms to students as to bring human capital development, national development and transformation; these developments can only be achieved through production of competent and resourceful graduates with high morals in the society (Amadi & Urho, 2005). The total development of Nigerian men and women (graduates) can only be achieved in a friendly and conflict free enabling work environment through appropriate teaching, research and service to humanity. This study therefore, examine how well Nigerian universities academia perform in their assigned jobs of developing their students vis-a- vis the constant industrial actions necessitated by struggle to induce governments towards the implementations of collective agreements, fund universities, pay better wages and university autonomy with special emphasis on University of Lagos Academic Staff.

University of Lagos was chosen for the study due to its being in the front line for fighting the cause of Academic Staff Union of Universities' welfare. The Chapter presidents are usually very vocal at national level on issues bordering on the union's welfare. The impact of industrial actions are also felt maximally when University of Lagos is involved, first, as a first generation university and secondly being located in the commercial nerve centre of Nigeria with most

electronic and print media using Lagos as their headquarters. Therefore, when it is happening in Lagos, it is assumed that the whole country is actually involved.

Literature Review

Concept of Industrial Action (Strike)

The relationship between employer and employee is conflictual by nature, because of the divergent interests and aspirations of the two parties (Ahmed, 2014). Issues of wages and other conditions of employment are usually the cause of disagreement. Resolving these issues is usually done through the process of collective bargaining. However, sometimes the issues are not resolved through negotiation. The non-resolution of these issues through negotiation can lead to either party resorting to industrial action. The employer can lockout his employees and the employees can use the weapon of strike

Employment relations is a fertile ground for industrial actions which sees the combined action of a group of employees withdrawing their services either totally or partially, with the purpose of persuading an employer to succumb to their combined demands (Parker, 2012). This is also seen as organized work stoppage by employees to put pressure on the employers in other to actualize certain demands (Chijioke, 2013; Chijioke, 2016). This pressure on employers becomes meaningful when the employees are organized or unionized with certain goals usually welfare of employees or working conditions (Amadi & Urho, 2015). When this pressure mounts, the parties in conflict would start looking for practical and workable means of resolving the conflict for industrial peace (Ebele, 2013). According to (2014, p302), "the strike is an instrument of economic coercion that seeks to deprive an 'employer' of labour input and, thereby, diminish through loss of production, his earning capacity in the hope that the resulting economic strain would compel him to come round to strikers' point of view". Therefore, industrial action has been seen by some as a normal part of employer and employees' relationship which makes for better working relationship between both parties (Obgette, 2017). However, Edinyang and Ubi (2013), see the industrial action as abnormal, in fact, a social ill that hinder society progress, eats students' life and time and produce half-baked students who are ill equipped in learning and character.

Ekwoaba, Ideh and Ojukutu (2015) observed that the Nigerian industrial relations system has been overwhelmed by the incessant strikes, which have manifested in shut down of economic activities in different sectors of the economy. This incessant strike was occasioned by the divergent views of the employees' and the employers. The employees, at all times, will seek for what would commensurate to their input to their organizations in terms of labour and

time. While employers, on their parts, will seek for the talent, skills and potentials of workers and in return reciprocate the workers efforts monetarily to such extent that could not affect their profit margins (Fasan, 2011; Ekwoaba & Ikeije, 2016). These divergent views strain the relationship between the employees and the employers. This could, in-turn be a disadvantage to the employees' performance and impediment to organizational goals if not properly managed (Otobo, 1984, Fajana, 2000; Anyim, et al, 2012).This opposing view can explain the emergence of recurrent strikes which is detrimental to the organizational goals and the society at large (Uma, Obidike, Eboh & Ogbonna, 2013). The International Labour Organization (2011, p.99) considered strike as the most visible and controversial form of collective action in the event of a labour dispute and is often seen as the last resort of workers' organizations in pursuit of their demands. However, employees' see strike not only as a last resort but also a very potent tool deployed by workers with common understanding to hold back work until employers come to a negotiation table for better wages and working conditions (Armstrong, 2004, 2009; Ivancevich, 2007; Aswathappa, 2015; Sahary, 2013).

From the foregoing, it can be said that strike is a deliberate action or decision taken by a group of workers/employees with the same interest towards their employers to stop working for reasons of better remunerations and working conditions, disciplinary procedure, pension and gratuity scheme, national health insurance scheme etc. (Ohiwereia& Omo-Ojugo, 2008). Strike is defined by the Business Dictionary as collective, organized, cessation or slowdown of work by employees, to force acceptance of their demands by the employer. The Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary defined strike as organized stopping of work by employees because of a disagreement. The use of the strike weapon by workers constitutes part of the collective bargaining process (Anyim, Chidi & Ogunyomi, 2012b; Ekwoaba & Ikeije, 2015). To drive home the importance of strike as a collective bargaining strategy, Sharma and Kumur (2014) explained that the right to strike is labours' ultimate weapon and in the course of the century, it has emerged as the inherent right of every worker and that it is an element, which is of the very essence of the principle of collective bargaining.

Strikes by Academic Staff Union of Universities, Causes and Effects

The trade dispute of 1988 between university employees and the Governing Councils of Universities in Nigeria on university funding, university autonomy, conditions of service etc is marked as the first trade disputes in Nigerian universities (Eneji, Onnoghen, Agiaide & Okon 2019; Bayo, 2018; Maduewesi, 2002). The year 1992 saw the second industrial action (strike) by members of

Academic Staff Unionof Universities(ASUU) over the gross underfunding of universities in Nigeria, poor working conditions, academic freedom and university autonomy (Anyeni & Kolawole, 2014). The 1992 strike which lasted nine months saw ASUU being proscribed by government but not without the gain of "Separate Salary Scale"tagged 'University Academic Staff Salary (UASS)beingapproved by government though UASS was cancelled and replaced with anElongated University Salary Structure(EUSS)same year (Michael, 2013; Olopayimo, 2014).

In 1993, ASUU embarked on 5 months strike to challenge the cancellation ofthe University Academic Salary Scale (UASS); this was followed by 1994 strike to press down the need to return to democracy after the June 12th Presidential Election of 1993. Between1994 and 1996, there were strikes by ASUU demanding for the reinstatement of the union executives sacked by Sanni Abacha's regime (Ogbette et al, 2017, Ajayi, 2014, Bayo, 2018). ASUU's continual struggle did not stop even with the advent of democracy in Nigeria in 1999. In 2002, 2003, 2004, 2005, 2006, 2007 and 2008, ASUU was on strike demanding forbetter welfare packages for its members, university autonomy, better university funding, improved salary scheme and reinstatement of 49 University of Ilorin sacked lecturers and ASUU Members (Adetiba, 2012; Adesalu, 2012; Ajewole, 2014; ASUU Report; 2002, 2013). The 2009 industrial action of ASUU saw the signing of the controversial 2009 Memorandum of understanding with government consistent and better payment of salaries, better condition of service, stoppage of government and politicians interference in education, better funding of the educational sector, delay in payment of salaries and other allowance etc. (Amadi & Urho, 2015). The non –compliance and implementation of the 2009 agreement have led to 2010, 2011, 2013, 2017, 2018, 2020 industrial actions of ASUU (ASUU Report 2012, 2013, 2017, 2018, 2020).

ASUU strike actions, according to Fajana (2000) and Otobo (1984), will affect the planning and scheduling of activities of university management, academic activities of staff and students. Igbaji (2009), Aletan (2012), Amadi and Urho, (2015), opined that strike would fervently interrupt educational system through distortion of academic activities, decline in quality of education, stoppage of research and encourage moonlighting, neglect of academic duties and students supervisions, increase in the length of students stay in a program, encourage vices like prostitutions, kidnapping, armed robbery, etc. Ige (2014), Olukunle (2011), Kazeem and Ige (2010) state that other resultants effects of strike include students not completing all academic scheme for the year, compression of academic calendar and decline in quality of education. Oladipo (2012),Isangedighi (2017) and Iheanacho (2012) on their parts enumerated the

positive effect of ASUU strike to cover in the long run better classrooms, more committed lecturers, better learning environment for students.

Theoretical Framework of the Study

This study is rested on Victor Vroom's Valence Expectancy theory (1964) and rational theory of Homans and Blau (1969). The theories explain the possibility of an action taken by employers causing equal and opposite reaction from employees. The major assumption of the theories is that employees' behaviour will stem unconsciously from alternative behaviours that cause either pain or pleasure. According to Vroom an individual employee is always torn between uncertain outcomes and his degree of believe on outcomes and how that outcomes motivates or de-motivates him/her. This means that employees expect their efforts to yield commiserate reward for motivation; anything less than that motivation means that employee will select behaviours within their reach that will give them their desired result or reward (Chidi & Okpala, 2012, Ile, 1999, Vroom, 1964)

Rational Choice theory assumes that each industry or sector in the economy has rational actors who use information available to them from management to make rational choices that will maximize their reward and minimize their loss. (Witteck, 2013). Philip (2019) and Cornish and Clark (1986) argue that rational choice theory is employed by rational actors to avoid punishments and sanctions that follows their agitations.

The employer of ASUU (the government as rational actors) employs information available to them from ministries and international policies to determine the welfare package, and working environment of the employees without disadvantaging the economy. However, the employees' expectation is for government to raise the standard of employees' welfare and funding of the universities to close to international standard. The government had not been able to match their promises with actions leading to poor funding and poor welfare package. These paved ways to brain drain of many academics (selection of behaviours within their reach that will give them their desired reward) while the ones left in the country continuously engage the government in incessant industrial actions. There is, therefore, need for employer and the employees to regularly meet to nip any future conflict in the bud.

Methodology

Research Design

The study adopted a survey research design. Simple random sampling technique was employed to draw required sample size from 80 departments of the university. A sampling frame, which is a list of the lecturers in each department, is

obtained from the office of the Deputy Register academic, University of Lagos. The total number of academic staff on ground in University of Lagos as at 2019 is 1065.

However, inclusion criteria captured only academic staff that had been in service for more than seven (7) years. This is to make sure that such staff had experienced at least three industrial actions of 2013, 2017 and 2018. This would make them appreciate the impact of industrial action on their performance. In addition, members of academic staff who were on leave of absence or sabbatical leave during the study were excluded from the study. This leaves about 393 staff valid for our study population.

To determine the sample size of the total population of (N=393) employees, the kreijcie and Morgan's (1970) sample size calculating formula was adopted. This formula is shown below:

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

Where, N= total population,

n= sample size,

e= error term, which is 5% (i.e. at 95% confidence interval). Given the above formula, the minimum recommended sample size for this study is:

$$n = \frac{393}{1+393(0.05)^2}$$

=199 sample size

One hundred and ninety nine (199) respondents from academic staff of university of Lagos were sampled. Averages of 2 to 3 questionnaires were distributed to each of the 80 departments. The lecturers in each department were selected using the simple random sampling until a sample size of 199 was achieved.

Table. 1 Mean Response on the Influence of ASUU strikes on University of Lagos Academic Workers' performance.

S/N	Statements	Mean	Std. Deviation
1.	Strike reduces my level of job performance and commitment	3.2167	1.55238
2.	Strike does allow me moonlighting and this slows my research work	3.2167	1.37892
3.	ASUU strike promotes my absence from office and work.	3.0167	1.34658
4.	ASUU Strike slows down my community services	3.9167	1.10916
5.	ASUU strike makes me to neglect my duties.	3.6333	1.43759

Source: Field Survey, 2020.

Table.1 shows that the mean which is the measure of central tendency is fairly close except for response numbers 4 (ASUU Strike slows down my community

services) and 5 (ASUU strike makes me to neglect my duties) which have higher mean of 3.9167 and 3.6333 respectively. The value of this mean is better appreciated by considering the standard deviation, which is a measure of the dispersion. A smaller standard deviation indicates that more of the data is clustered about the mean and, therefore, more representative of the mean. Hence, the mean for 'ASUU Strike slows down my community services' (with lowest standard deviation of 1.10916) is more representative than the mean of other groups.

Test of Hypothesis

H_0: The ASUU strike has no significant effect on the performance of University of Lagos Academic Workers.

Table 2. One-Sample Statistics and Test for the effect of ASUU strikes on University of Lagos Academic Workers' Performance

One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
The effect of ASUU strikes on University of Lagos Academic workers performance	199	3.4000	.90273	.11654

One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 3					
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Lower	Upper
The effect of ASUU strikes on University of Lagos Academic workers performance	3.432	59	.001	.40000	.1668	.6332

Table 2 shows that the mean score (M = 3.40, SD = 0.90) for the construct is statistically significant with mean difference of 0.40 at 95% Confidence Interval [0.17 to 0.63], $t(59) = 0.001$, $p<0.05$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected and concluded that the strike had a significant effect on the performance of University of Lagos academic employees.

Conclusion

This study revealed that ASUU strike has a statistically significant effect on the performance of academic staff of university of Lagos. Strikes make planning for universities' academic and non-academic activity to be very difficult. The untimely interruptions produced by industrial actions could jeopardize good

formation of aggregate skills that would have been inculcated into their products (the students). Subsequently, they may be churned out as half-baked graduates with little or no skills to compete with peers internationally. Injection of such skills into local industries and organizations might require rigorous training and retraining to trigger off meaningful output for national development. Little wonder many industries favour applicants with foreign certificates. This industrial action, therefore, has potential of negatively branding our university education both locally and internationally. This could heighten the level of unemployment of university graduates and creating further opportunities for crimes and insecurity. There is need, therefore, for effective communication and consultation among the different stakeholders for quick resolution of any conflict that could degenerate to industrial action.

Recommendation.

The following recommendations could help mitigate the incessant industrial actions in our university system. There should be regular stakeholders' interactions to look at challenging issues like autonomy, welfare and working conditions. The outcomes of this collective bargaining should be respected and implementation honoured as and when due. Such outcomes like funding should also reflect global dynamics in order to achieve competitive products both in research and learning. This will enable university system to attract private sector into university funding especially in the areas of research and development so that university's output could match organizational demand.

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Domesticity and Implementation of Affirmative Policy at the Local Government Tier in Nigeria

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Abstract

The objective of this study is to enquire into the nature and causes of the observed implementation failure of Affirmative Policy at the local government tier in Nigeria, given the importance of the policy in gender balancing. Goaded by the persistent unequal underemployment in labour market and politics, ascribable to socio-cultural prejudices, women embarked on various programmes aimed at redressing the anti-gender disequilibrium, through Women's Charter of Demand or Affirmative Action. The resultant policy: Gender Policy 2006, enunciated by the Federal Government of Nigeria, was therefore aimed at mainstreaming women into public sector establishments by reserving, at least 35per cent of all available offices for women. Overseas, in Canada, China, Malaysia, United Kingdom, USA, et cetera, Affirmative Programmes had been initiated for the realization of women's equality. In the study, survey method was adopted where 100 local government councils were purposively selected from the 6 geopolitical zones of Nigeria; and a questionnaire administered to gather the required data; analysed using percentage statistical tool, as is widely applicable in researches in Social and Management Sciences. Oral interviews were also held with some

council chairpersons, to clarify ambiguities. The major findings of this study included councils' pervasive unawareness, or ignorance of the existence and operation of the Affirmative Policy; and unwillingness to implement the policy, if compliance was optional, due to conservatism. It was thus recommended that, among others, the Federal Government of Nigeria should establish and institutionalize a mechanism for educating local government councils on new policies. Furthermore, legislative sanction against defaulting council managements for non-implementation of Affirmative Policy should be promulgated, to compel attitudinal change, as espoused by Modernization Theory, adopted in this study.

Keywords: Affirmative Policy, Domesticity, Inequality, Local Government Tier, Women Marginalization

Introduction

The notion, "gender difference", as an expression has become nonce, particularly in modern usage. Although nature at its convenience assigned different traditional roles to humans based on gender, the current thinking is that any erstwhile rigid barrier that discriminated against people because of gender has proceeded on a fast withering trajectory. Thus, gender difference has become relevant only with regard to physiognomy or biological roles. From the standpoint of the modern "fusion" of gender responsibilities, the role of women in a modern society has assumed equal importance and diversity as the role of men. Implicitly therefore, the role of women has undergone metamorphosis into a more complex status. This includes leadership positions in industry, politics, career diplomacy, public administration, and the professions, among others (Sapru, 2013).

The need to "harmonize" the artificial gender difference to flatten the deprivation or marginalization curve has led to intense and sustained agitation for gender equality. Consequently, women, through the Nigerian Women's Charter of Demand, otherwise known as Affirmative Action, had pressed relentlessly for a national gender policy, aimed at developing a gender-egalitarian society, totally devoid of gender discrimination. The struggle culminated in the recognition and adoption of the National Gender Policy by the Nigerian Government in 2006. The Affirmative Action also sought to mobilize the full potentials of women's social groups, as well as promote women and girl-child education, and their well-being, in line with the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (FRN) (as amended). The practical demand of the Action was for a female gender policy that reserved at least 35 per cent in the distribution of all public offices in public establishments for women (Abubakar & Ahmed, 2014). Ultimately, the objective

of the demand was to establish a system of female gender mainstreaming across all sectors in Nigeria. Overseas, Affirmative Action has been adopted in many countries, including Isreal in 2000; Sri-Lanka (the Standardization Policy) in 1981; Finland in 1980; Taiwa in 2004 among others (Nwankwo, 2015).

Notwithstanding the institutionalization of the appropriate gender policy framework by the Federal Government of Nigeria (FGN), it is a common experience that across the local government tier, the "domestication" and implementation of Women's Affirmative or Gender Policy has remained largely unimplemented, as reported by empirical studies (Ayuba, 2012; Jagun, 2013). This study is motivated by the desire to gain insights into the non-implementation of Gender Policy and the key inhibiting factors, in the realization of its objective at the local government tier in Nigeria, with particular reference to the selected local government councils in Edo State.

Statement of the Research Problem and Research Questions

It is trite knowledge that women have been "sidelined" in almost all engagements in the public sector in Nigeria (Aina, 2016). The situation is worsened progressively from the national, through the sub-national to the local government level. The agitation for fairer representation via the Affirmative or Gender Policy seemed to have yielded positive results at the national level, where women's participation has increased, although sub optimally, given the observed deficit in the expectation, as reported by literature and empirical studies (Aina, 2016; Odejide, 2001; Naussbam, 2003 & Omoluabi, Aina, and Hanasso, 2014). Among the sources of the observed deficit, cultural factors, low level of female education and spousal objection are critical factors, particularly in formal employment.

In contradistinction to the above position, this study contends that low level of awareness and conservatism, is more critical in the pervasive default in domesticating and implementing the Policy, particularly at the local government tier in Nigeria (Leach, 2008; Chukwezi, 2010). Investigating the nature and causes of the factors responsible for non-implementation of Affirmative Policy, particularly at the local government tier, therefore, is the central focus of this study.

Objective of the Study

Flowing from the research problem, the major objective of this study is to examine the factors critical in the non-implementation of the Affirmative or Gender Policy in the selected local governments.

Literature Review

Conceptual Clarifications

Several concepts relating to women in gender studies have been developed in literature. Some of the relevant concepts in this study include women underdevelopment, 'women marginalization', women education and Affirmative Action. Accordingly, clarifications are provided, to establish their relevance and application.

Women Underdevelopment

The widely held view or notion that women are naturally weaker than men are tends to retard women's efforts in seeking appropriate adjustment to work, occupational hazards or difficulties (Awofeso & Odeyemi, 2014). Women therefore acquiesce to the blackmail and accept "their situation" as given. Otherwise, women can be well positioned to rise against their discrimination on the bases of religion, cultural or superstitious taboos, through education, and socialization (Aina, 2016). El-Hadad (2016) reported that in terms of statistical evidence, women are more negatively impacted upon, with particular reference to literacy, labour force participation and income.

The resultant effect of the artificial clog placed in the path of women through discriminatory practices is "underdevelopment". Women underdevelopment is therefore the outcome of combination of adverse forces that interoperate to keep women at "sub optional operating levels", behind their male counterparts, in the comity of human endeavours, be it public or private (Adebisi and Mahmud, 2019).

Women Marginalization

Women marginalization is a situation, which is derived from the underdeveloped condition to which women have been subjected, through obnoxious discriminatory practices (Aina, 2016). The effect is the observed deprivation of women with respect to "resource" allocation. The situation is noticeable at the family, work and societal levels. The situation negates the aspiration by women for gender equity and equality, and dampens the much required impetus to fight on.

Women Education

Education as a tool for human development can be adversely deployed as a potent instrument for underdevelopment and the subsequent marginalization. In emerging countries, education can engender a make-or-mar situation, depending on whether it is provided or denied, the observed fundamental differential in

development between the advanced and developed countries and the less developed countries has been traced to the differences in the levels of education (Jhingan, 2006). The obvious discrimination meted to women in their educational aspirations, as variously displayed in poor access to girl-child education is fundamental, in this regards (Aina, 2016).

Affirmative Action

Affirmative Action refers to the concrete steps taken to eliminate discrimination, be it in employment, education, contracting, or any endeavor in which discrimination is observed. The term also refers to attempts and efforts made to redress the effects of past discrimination. Central in the driving force of Affirmative Action in Nigeria is the principle of equality, which holds that all persons have the right to equal access to self-development and determination, as guaranteed by the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (as amended). Implicit in Affirmative Action and the principle, is the fundamental position that persons with equal abilities should have equal opportunities in all human endeavours (Aina, 2016).

The effectiveness of Affirmative Action in eradicating or ameliorating discrimination varies among societies and countries. Affirmative programmes designed to redress discrimination have therefore yielded different results, depending on the environment. While some actions merely attempt to review hiring process for women, minorities and other more vulnerable groups, others are explicit in their preference for members of the affected groups.

Affirmative Action, seeks to protect employees or business managers against discrimination on the basis of religion, national origin, race, colour and physical capability in hiring, compensation, training and promotion. The practice may also be applicable in contract award, political recruitment and engagement, among others.

Across Africa: Rwanda (2003), South Africa, Uganda, Mozambique and Senegal, etc., adopted quota system in order to improve women's participation in leadership. Indeed, Rwanda had 39 out of 80 (48.8%) members of the Chamber of Deputies in 2002. Similarly, women members occupied 6 (38%) out of the available 20 seats in the Upper House. Goaded by the discriminatory practices against the women folk, Nigerian women advanced a case for inclusiveness, particularly in public engagements or establishment (Nicodemus, 2017).

Illustratively, in 2006, out of a total Senate membership of 109, only 9 or 8.25 per cent were females; while in the House of Representatives, 27 out of the 360 members of 7.5 per cent were females. In the State Houses of Assembly, only 54 out of 990 members or 5.4 per cent were females (Adebayo, 2013). In the

circumstance, women's demand for greater participation under the Nigerian Women Charter of Demand, 2006 was reasonable (Gender Policy, 2006).

Key elements of the five cardinal political demands of Affirmative Action were the promotion of gender equality, justice and women's empowerment; investment in women's economic empowerment, girl-child education, legislation on at least 35 per cent of local government's budget for the poor: women, elderly and children, and establishment of a system of gender mainstreaming, incorporating 35 per cent of women in all sectors of government, among others (Ezeilo, 2011).

Recognizing the importance of women in national development, FGN committed to gender mainstreaming, as a veritable tool for achieving social transformation. Thus, in 2006, the National Gender Policy was developed in response to the protracted challenges of gender inequality in all aspects of Nigeria's society. In essence, the major objective of the Policy is to build a just society, devoid of discrimination, among others (National Gender Policy, 2006).

Elsewhere, in India, China, Israel, Malaysia, Sri Lanka (1981), Taiwan (2004), Finland, France (1980s), Germany (2007), Norway (2009), Romania, Russia, Slovakia (2005), United Kingdom (2010), and Canada, USA (1991), various Affirmative Action programmes have been designed by government to curb discrimination (Ezeilo, 2011; Aina, 2016).

As a potent tool, education brings to bear an improvement on the socio-economic and political conditions of beneficiaries, through numerous intrinsic values: easier social interaction; wider economic opportunities, through brighter employment or business prospects; greater social security; healthier living conditions and wider participation, among others. The injustice and resultant injury afflicted on women can therefore be better appreciated when the denial to equal educational opportunities extended to the folk in less developed countries (LDCs), Nigeria inclusive, are considered (Aina, 2016).

Review of Empirical Studies

This empirical review focuses on gender labour participation, with emphasis on the observed discrimination and marginalization, particularly because the theme of Affirmative Policy is "labour participation" in public establishments.

In 2000, a study conducted by African Centre for Gender Development (ACGD) to examine gender participation in the formal sector reported a lower rate of participation for women than for men in some of the countries covered; Ethiopia (49%), Tanzania (33%) and Nigeria (45%) respectively. Although an increase in women employment was observed, the rate of increase in employment was relatively low, when compared with the rate for men (Bam, 2010).

Notwithstanding the increasing rate of women participation, in Nigeria

(Ighodalo, 1990) and India the concentration was at the lower cadres in the formal sector (Chandra and Nganou, 2001; World Bank, 2010). In its study, the World Bank (2010) reported better chances of male survival than female when job rationing was undertaken, primarily because men were better educated and trained, to occupy the few vacancies, than the less educated and lower trained women.

Studies in Nigeria by Ogwumike, Alaba, Alayande and Okogie (2006) reported that factors that affected entry into the labour market resulted in differences in workplace opportunities; including income, career advancement etc., among employees. The respective positions of the United Nations (2002), Surma (2007) and International Labour Organisation (2008) supported the widely reported marginalization of women. Specifically, ILO reported that the weekly earnings of women as fractions of men's earnings were 79 per cent in China, 51 per cent in Nigeria, 45 per cent in Mozambique and 23 per cent in Burkina Faso in early 2000 (ILO, 2008).

Onyechere (2008)'s finding centred on culture and belief systems, as critical factors affecting labour market participation in some parts of Nigeria. Cultural factors, to Onyechere (2008), therefore, accounted for the difference in earnings and other workplace opportunities between male and female employees. Folohunda (2011) and Mensah (2017) also supported the positive relationship between education and women employment. Using a sample of 700 women from Ibadan, and employing Pearson's Product Moment Correlation method to analyse the primary data, the study reported a high correlation coefficient of 0.8 at 0.05 per cent significance level, between formal education and employment opportunities. To increase the likelihood of employment therefore, women increased the rate of contraception, to moderate the high rate of fertility.

Adeleke (2006), employing a sample of 300 female graduates as primary data, conducted a study on the relationship between women education and access to employment in Owerri, Nigeria. A non-significant relationship was found with a Chi-square value of 9.37 at 0.05 significance level. The study therefore concluded that highly educated women lacked access to formal employment, and were therefore concentrated around the informal sector. The setting of Owerri, as a largely commercial environment, might have influenced the study. In such setting, educational qualification and formal employment are often not strongly associated, in the light of the preferred alternative economic opportunities in the informal sector.

Izuh (2003) conducted a study on women employment in Rivers State, Nigeria, using a sample of 500 women. Multiple regression and F-test results reported that spousal cooperation was highly related to women employment in the State. As a

corollary observation, the study revealed that a positive relationship existed between the age of the marriage and the likelihood of spousal consent to a wife's employment. The wider the age difference between the couple, the less the likelihood of spousal consent; and, hence, the less likely the prospects of the wife's chances of formal employment. From the empirical review, it is discernible that employability of women might have been largely influenced or affected by two critical factors that included education and culture.

Theoretical Underpinning

In search of a suitable theoretical groundwork, three reinforcing positions were examined: Diffusion of Innovation Theory, Modernization Theory and Structural Functionalism.

Diffusion of Innovation Theory was proposed by scholars including Gabriel Tarde (1980), Friedrich Ratzel and Leo Frobenius, among others, whose theses attempted to provide an explanation for how rapid spread of ideas translates into their adoption and application for development (Imhonipi and Urim, 2011). The theory was initially developed through a research in Rural Sociology; but its use has been of considerable application in wider fields in contemporary times.

Rogers (2003) extended the frontiers of the theory, developing four elements that influence the spread of new ideas, thereby adding impetus to the imperative of the theory. Rogers' position was that through the process of diffusion, a new idea or innovation is communicated through certain channels over time to members or elements of a system.

To Rogers, the key elements that influence the spread of new ideas include innovation, time, social system and communication channels. Furthermore, knowledge, persuasion, decision implementation and confirmation are included in the five-stage decision innovation process by government and individual.

The utility of Diffusion Theory is the insight it provides in explaining how rapid spread of new ideas can translate into their adoption and application, for engendering development in a given system. Besides, it explains the channels through which new ideas are communicated, for knowledge and decision implementation. In this regard, the theory is useful in explaining how the rapid dissemination of information on Affirmative Policy by FGN, or otherwise, to local government councils affected the domestication and implementation of the policy.

Modernization Theory, adopted in this study, was developed in the 1950s and 1960s by scholars including Rostow, (1969), Apter (1965), Moore (1964) and Inkeles and Smith (1960). The thesis of the theory entails changes in institutions, ideas, practices, individual attitude, rationalization of social behaviour and social

organizations and openness to new experience (Habu, 2018).
The process of modernization also entails the transformation of a traditional or primordial society into a technological society associated with social organization that characterized the advanced societies (Habu, 2018). To Rostow (1969): "modernization implies an intellectual, a technological and social revolution. It transforms three of man's most fundamental relationship to time, nature and his fellowmen".
The relevance of modernization theory is the ability to provide an understanding into the process of attitudinal and systemic changes for considerable improvement in relations, be they in gender, equity or otherwise.

Methodology

Empirical studies, as cited, provide evidence to support the position that women have been marginalized in all endeavours in Nigeria, whether public or private (Mahmud & Ogwuzebe, 2019) using secondary data from Nasarawa State Civil Service, compared the rate of female employment with the benchmark Affirmative Policy rate of 35 per cent. Chi-square statistical test result established a significant discrepancy between the actual level of employment and the Affirmative Policy level. (Nnaji, 2015). Factors that include culture, "underdevelopment" and religion, etc., have also been adduced to propel the undesirable situation. The focus of this study therefore, is to examine the critical factors central in the non-implementation of Affirmative Policy in the selected local government areas in Nigeria.
Accordingly, this descriptive research adopted a primary survey method. A hundred rural local government councils were purposively selected from the Nigeria's six geopolitical zones, and a sample of one hundred local areas was adopted in the survey, following further revalidation of the responses. The choice of purposive sampling technique was informed by the homogeneity of the councils, in terms of mandate, structure and function.
Each council management was requested to respond to questions posed in an online mail questionnaire; and upon completion, only one hundred were validated. Respondent council management included Council Chairman, Supervisory Councilor and Council Secretary. Where however, council management was unelected, the management comprised of the Caretaker, Chairman and the departmental Directors. Jointly, a local government management responded to a copy of the questionnaire.
Oral interviews were also held with some council chairpersons, to clarify observed ambiguities and to obtain further information. The limitation of the choice was ascribable to the remoteness of some local government headquarters;

and the attendant logistic challenges. Data gathered from the responses are presented in frequency tables and analyzed with percentage tool, as is widely applicable in Management and Social Science researches involving trend movements. Among other researchers, Sambo and Abdullahi (2017) and Odonye (2017) employed the method.

Data Analysis and Findings

Three major elements of implementation of the Affirmative Policy by councils are relevant in the enquiry: awareness or ignorance; reasons for ignorance (if present) and reaction to the imperative of policy implementation. Table 1 presents the responses to the questions provided by council management, comprising of the team of key decision makers in the local government council. Of note is that a set of the questionnaire was administered on selected councils as corporate entities. Responses were therefore provided by councils and not individual management executives, after due deliberation at Council's routine meeting. Council Chairman and Secretary responded on behalf of management, in line with the routine procedural schedule. The preference for this approach was premised on the need to elicit responses from each council as a corporate management team, based on collective responsibility and common viewpoint.

Table 1: Percentage Representation of Responses by Local Government Councils.

S/No	Response Factor or Variable	Percentage (%) Frequency			
		Yes	%	No	%
1	Knowledge/Awareness of Policy	8	8	92	92
2	Reason for ignorance or awareness i. No circular from State Government on Policy. ii. Policy has not been circulated through literature or training to councils.	100 94	100 94	0 6	0 6
3	Possible reaction of council to a circular directing policy implementation: i. Council will voluntarily accept and implementation. ii. Council will however be reluctant to implement, except where option is unavailable because culture and religion do not approve of gender equality.	15 100	15 100	85 0	85 0
4	What in the view of council should be done, to facilitate domestication and implementation of the Policy? i. State Government should direct through circular as soon as possible. ii. Training of council management on the essence and modality of Policy implementation, for comprehension and buy in. iii. New policies or ideas should be disseminated to councils as soon as available in future.	100 100 100	100 100 100	0 0 0	0 0 0

Source: Computed from the Field Survey, 2019.

A perusal of Table 1 reveals the fundamental lacunae in the implementation of Affirmative Policy: dismally low level of awareness (8%), pervasive information gap between Policy source (FGN) and Councils (97%), substantial defect in formal dissemination mechanism and flow; and probable reluctance of council

management to compliances, if optional (100%).

On the strategy for securing policy domestication and effective implementation, all councils (100%) suggested, during the interview, that FGN, through State Governments or the appropriate agency, should convey information about the Policy, with clear guidelines on the processes, and probable sanctions for violation. Councils also believed that the usual information exclusion observable in inter-governmental relations, particularly between the federal and local government tiers, should be bridged via cultural re-orientation, in order to put all tiers on the same page at all times.

Furthermore, councils were generally of the view that periodic training: seminars and workshops, should be held regularly, to update council managements, who were information-disadvantaged, due to their remote locations and poor access to facilities in modern information technology.

Discussion

Arising from the analysis, two major findings were made: first, there existed a high level of unawareness about the existence and operation of Affirmative Policy among councils (ignorance); and second, councils would have been unwilling, ordinarily, to implement the Policy, due to cultural adherence (conservatism). Except where non-compliance was sanctionable. In line with the objective therefore, the findings located the critical factors in the non-implementation of Affirmative Policy to ignorance and conservatism among council managements in the selected States of Nigeria.

Notwithstanding the analysis and findings, it is known, in fact, that local government councils in Nigeria, particularly the ones located in very remote areas, lack access to information (Imhonipi & Urim, 2011). The major findings of this study traverse policy ignorance and unwillingness, the discussion of which is undertaken subsequently.

Ignorance is a derivative of poor education and awareness (Ujo, 2008). Often, the situation arises when enlightenment of the target audience is withheld, willfully denied or inadvertently omitted. Like illiteracy, ignorance creates a fundamental gap in communication and performance expectation from the responsible agency or institution (Ujo, 2008). Where laws or policies are made but are inadequately communicated to the generality of the populace or to the target segment, no meaningful response, with regard to performance, can be expected or elicited. It was therefore most likely that when Affirmative Policy was made, but not much was done formally to disseminate the Policy to the institutions with the responsibility of its domestication and implementation, instruction, which is unknown, is not executable.

Similar experience was reported with regard to deficit information dissemination, and the resultant effects on implementation in a study conducted by Mahmud and Ogwuzebe (2019) on the low level of application of e-Governance Policy at local government tier by FGN. It was found that the major inhibiting factor was poor dissemination of information on the ICT Policy, although a structure: National Information Technology Development Agency (NITDA) had been established (2001), with the core responsibility of developing ICT, raising awareness among target public sector user-agencies and ensuring its deployment, for governance. It is expected that, in defence, the relevant federal or state government agencies will put up a contrary position, by submitting that nothing had been done to create the required awareness through various communication channels.

The "unwillingness" of councils to voluntarily comply with the provision of the Policy was expected: if a chief executive had the leeway, preference would be to circumvent any externally imposed instruction, except where such instruction fell on the zone of indifference (Mohammed, 2012). The dispositions expressed by council executives are cultural, religious and attitudinal prejudices which, in totality, are deeply rooted in conservatism. When, therefore, opportunities for regular interface between the "more-enlightened" federal or state officials and the rural council leaderships are created, the requisite enlightenment for compliance can be accomplished.

Changing the attitude of council managements through institutional interactions and inclusiveness in national decision making is, to be sure, strategic in engendering the requisite buy-in women gender equality, and higher participations, the cardinal objective of Affirmative or Women Gender Policy. Achieving such changes align with the thesis of modernization, as aptly posited by Habu (2018) and Sapru (2013).

To achieve the objective of modernizing the existing attitude of and system in local government councils, the relevant structures and institutions must reform for improved performance of their functions, as is required by Structural-Functionalism (Sapru, 2013).

Conclusion

The findings of this study, however, provide complementary insights into the broader understanding and conclusion that beyond other factors, ignorance and conservatism of council managements are critical in the poor implementation of the Affirmative Policy, and the resultant prevalence of gender inequality at the local government tier in Nigeria.

Policy Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following policy recommendations are made:

First, the Federal and State Governments should embark on the enlightenment of local government council managements on the existence, operation and imperative of Affirmative Policy, in order to engender the embracement, domestication and implementation. In this regard, formal communication of policy initiatives to local government councils should be ensured at all time.

Secondly, education and proper enlightenment of council managements through interactive sessions at seminars and workshops should be held regularly by the relevant national and subnational government agencies, to ensure policy implementation. To achieve this desire, dedicated policy education, enlightenment and coordination should be institutionalized.

Thirdly, a regime of sanctions for non-policy implementation should be institutionalized. In this regard, it should be provided by policy that a defaulting council management is compelled to achieve the appropriate gender balancing in employment or face appropriate sanctions.

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Influence of Cabotage Act, 2003 on Nigerian Maritime Administration and Safety Agency Coastline Operations

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Abstract

The paper critically analysed the effect of Cabotage Act on the *modus operandi* of the Nigerian Maritime Administration and Safety Agency (NIMASA). The paper reliably used secondary data and a logical descriptive method of analysis to address the objectives. The paper found that NIMASA has relatively demonstrated institutional capacity at safeguarding maritime space by its legal operations through the enactment of Cabotage Act of 2003 thereby ensuring compliance of inland waterways operations. Compliance to Cabotage Act has not fully been observed by inland waterways operators based on several challenges being encountered by NIMASA in this regard. Thus, the paper concluded that Cabotage Act, 2003 influence on NIMASA's has been greatly marred by lack of institutional capacity and partly government attitudes of interference leading to poor implementation and enforcement. The study therefore recommends that NIMASA should synergize with its partnering agencies to facilitate effective and efficient enforcement of the Cabotage Act 2003.

Keywords:NIMASA, Cabotage Act, Enforcement, Coastline, Waterways

Introduction

United States Geological Survey puts the Nigerian coastline to about 870 kilometres, inland waterways 3,000 kilometres and land mass, 923,768.64 square kilometres (United States Geological Survey, 2005). The Nigerian waterways have been a subject of national and international concern in recent time. This is due to identified challenges ranging from administration and safety (Jesugbamila, 2010). In its efforts at ensuring safety on the waterways, the

Nigerian government established an agency to provide a regulatory framework for management of waterways operations. The Nigeria Maritime Authority (NMA) now Nigerian Maritime Administration and Safety Agency (NIMASA) was saddled with the responsibility of enforcing Coastal and Inland Shipping (Cabotage) Act, 2003 in a bid to change the face of maritime business within its coasts or upturn the supremacy of foreign crewed and owned vessels, while guaranteeing safety and security of Nigerian waterways. Principally, the aim of the Cabotage Act is an exclusive reserve of the Nigerian citizens' owned commercial transportation of goods and services operating within coastal and inland waters to vessels flying the Nigerian flag. Further, Cabotage Act is aimed at promotion maritime asset through involvement of local players in administration of costal affairs thus expanding the frontier of economic growth in the country (Bashir, 2018).

In a survey conducted by National Maritime Authority in 2004, findings showed that a sizable proportion of about 11 costal vessels' ownership out of 245 operating in the Onne oil and gas free zone axis in 2003 were credited to Nigerians. Furthermore, within the same period of inquiry, 44 out of 266 tankers engaging in coastal trading in the Apapa port constituting 16.6% were indigenously owned by Nigerian as against 222 of 83.5% foreign-owned.This clearly showed a gapping discrepancy in the total number of metric tonnage of petroleum products that were carried by the Nigerian owned tankers, which totalled 97,041 metric tons of 3.4% as against 2,745,365 metric tons being carried by the foreign owned tankers to the tune of 96.6% of the total capacity of cargo (Biu, 2007). The reality of foreign dominance in the coastal trade was confirmed by this. Currently, NIMASA has been a geometric increment in Cabotage implementation and Nigerian's maritime asset with added flagged vessel from 262 (232,000 tonnage) to 307 (415,638 tonnage) (NIMASA, 2018).

Igbokwe (2006) identifies some of the problems inhibiting smooth enforcement of the Cabotage Act which among others include; insufficient monitoring and implementation mechanism, particularly inter-agency and inter-unit, inter-ministerial squabbling cum hostile approaches; high cost of monitoring and enforcing the Act; absence of political will to drive the objectives of the Act and its determination; lack of confidence in its contents and intents; and foreign-local operators' clash; marginalization of Indigenous Shippers Association of Nigeria (ISAN) from the process of ministerial consultation of waivers granting, protracted resolution of Cabotage disputes by the court of law.

On one hand, Ezem (2011) maintained that after some years of its enactment, the Federal Government of Nigeria admittedly confirmed the difficulty in content and structural defect in administration of the Cabotage Act, 2003. Notably,

Benard (2010) expressed a concern over intermittent removal of many Director-Generals of the Nigerian Maritime Administration and Safety Agency (NIMASA) consequent upon their failure to closely supervise and monitor compliance of enforcing the Cabotage Act. On the other hands, Igbokwe (2006), Benard (2010) and Ezem (2011) were succinctly unable toexamine the borderline between the capacity of NIMASA institutional incapacity to closely ensure monitoring of enforcement and compliance of the Cabotage Act 2003 and equally unable to survey the link between NIMASA's ability gap and poorly handled compliance of the Cabotage Act. This paper therefore seeks to explore the influence of Cabotage Act on the waterways safety and security operations of NIMASA with a view to identifying challenges inherent in its administration and proffer possible solutions.

Literature Review

The word “Cabotage” was coined out of the Spanish word“cab” or “cabo” implying maritime movement at diminutive coastal spaces or maritime business along the coastal lines.Contextually, Cabotage means the coastal shipping occasions that occur in coastal maritime trade of Nigeria (Ukpere, 2011). In his definition, Iroegbu (2010) considers cabotage law as “a law that gives power of navigation and waterways trading within a country's defined coastline ranging from port to port exclusively reserved for the national flagships and nationals of the country”.Thus, it is an act of empowering local skills and competence in the maritime sector to drive coastline activities. Igbokwe (2003) defines cabotage as coastal trade or coasting trade, which determines cargoes and passengers movement by ship from one port to another of the same country. Carbotage Acts/laws are special reserve of coastal trade of a particular country that operates under the country's flag. Cabotage Act is specially made for operators of cargoes operating under the flag of a country from port to port within the same country. It is considered as a regulatory framework, which is purely aimed at conducting the affairs of local and international shipping as well as trading navigation on inland waterways and coasting trade in a country. Cabotage law has been adopted by several nations from Europe, North America, South-America to South East Asia as a guidelines for operators within their waterways.

To Usoro (2003) cabotage covers the entire length and space of transport activities in the marine sector being carried out within the confine economic territory and coastlines of Nigeria with the exemption of those areas that are not covered by the Act. In international law, cabotage is defined along coasting, shipping, coasting and navigating activities from port to port within the same waterways. Hence, cabotage is recognized as carriage of goods and person,

coastal trade via shipsalong same coastlines or from ports or to port. It is a special right legally conferred by laws on individual countries waterways operators within its defined coast. While the limitation of cabotage to a particular country means a domestic or national, the regional or sub-regional operations is described as short sea shipping both of which fall still within the purview of maritime cabotage. Cabotage operating domestically regulation is usually a function of law that empowers trading and shipping navigation from port to port within a country by its national or national flagship exclusively. Cabotage Act is aimed at preventing foreign flagged ships from gaining access to national shipping market and giving exclusive domestic trade right to national flagged ships as wel as closing foreign competition that may arise from such maritime trade. Economically, cabotage laws restrictive purpose is to ensure promotion of establishing and developing domestic commercial marines. Derived from Spanish, the word cabotage is a maritime term indicating cargo navigation along maritime waterways while observing rules of not plying the open sea (Zhang, 2005).

The Nigerian Maritime Administration and Safety Agency (NIMASA) exist as an agency of the Nigeria Federal Ministry of Transport. It wasestablished from the merger of the previous National Maritime Authority (NMA) including Joint Maritime Labour Industrial Council (JMLIC) (This is for the dual former parastatals of the Federal Ministry of Transport) precisely 1st of August, 2006 to ensure monitoring, implementation and enforcement of Coastal and Inland Shipping Act 2003(Cabotage Act 2003). A law was passed in 2007 by the National Assembly enacting the creation of NIMASA Act 2007, which to a large extent empowers the agency to administer the Cabotage Act 2003 (Usoro, 2010).

The enforcement of Cabotage Act 2003, under the backings and control of the Federal Ministry of Transport NIMASA synergizes with other federal agencies such as the Nigeria Ports Authority (NPA), Nigerian Inland Waterways Authority (NIWA), and the security agencies like Nigerian Customs, Police and Navy among others. Moreover, for efficiency and effective administration of the Cabotage policy, 5 departments/units were carved out of NIMASA (the Register of Ships, Cabotage Enforcement Unit, Collecting Agency for Cabotage Vessel Fund and Seafarers Training and Certification Development) (Wilson, 2005).

Under NIMASA Act of 2007, Merchant Shipping Act of 2007 and Cabotage Act of 2003 NIMASA reserve the right to implement and monitor the Cabotage Act by performing the following functions:

i. Restrict the use of foreign vessels in domestic coastal trade
ii. Promote development of indigenous tonnage
iii. Establish Cabotage Vessel Financing Fund

iv. Reserve the bulk of coastal trade for vessels built, owned, registered in Nigeria and manned by qualified Nigerian seafarers
v. Stimulate and expose Nigeria's indigenous shipping firms to shipping business in the coast as a stepping stone to deep sea or international shipping
vi. Encourage acquisition of shipping technology by creating and diversifying employment opportunities in the industry
vii. Improve environmental safety
viii. Protect the nation's security interests
ix. Enhancing domestic waterborne transportation
x. Increase the national fleet or tonnage
xi. Develop ship building and repair capability
xii. Create opportunities for employment
xiii. Conserve foreign exchange protects national economy and security, among others(NIMASA Act, 2007).

NIMASA is by a way of enforcing the Cabotage Act encourage indigenous shipping lines to directly participate in coastal and inland trade; administer Cabotage Vessel Financing Fund (CVFF); enlighten and sensitizeintending investors in the cabotage trade through conferences, seminars, workshops, among others; maintain a separate registry of vessels for cabotage trade; and register ships owned by local/indigenous shipping lines to participate in the country's cabotage trade (Usoro, 2010).

Cabotage: The Nigeria Perspective

In order to achieve the desired maritime growth of indigenous Nigerian shipping capacity, in April, 2003, Coastal and Inland Shipping (Cabotage) Act was enacted to among others cover;

i. The deportment of goods and passengers by sea, which is jetties, ports and docks within the same coastal points in the country;
ii. Deportment of passengers and goods via sea, relative to exploitation, exploration or conveyance of the country's natural resources within and outside the Nigerian coastal and inland seas;
iii. Submarine or on water surface deportment of goods and passengers installations;
iv. Deportment of goods and passengers emanating from a port-point in Nigeria aimed at Nigeria, but being transported via another country's coast and back to Nigeria for release; and
v. Operations being carried out by vessels of any other marine transportation activity of an enterprising nature in the country's waters, which among others include bunkering, towage, pilotage, dredging, and salvaging.

NIMASA and Cabotage Enforcement

In his writings, Wilson (2005) avers the bold step that Nigerian government made to effect changes and enhances maritime business within her seashore by administering Coastal and Inland Shipping (Cabotage)Act of 2003. As a follow-up, operational guideline of the maritime policy was released in April, 2004 to speedily aid its enforcement. The implementation of the Act came into effect in May, 2004, which primarily specified restriction of foreign participation in the country's domestic or national sea trade with lots of maritime trade opportunities for foreign investment in the structure. Considerably, tariff and registration fees, licenses and waivers are mainly designed to cover costs of administration of the whole process ranging from application to certification issuance stage. The Minister of transportation annually has the power to review registration fees and tariffs based on current circumstances and maritime reality in line with the Act guidelines. This is done to initiate punishment and strict restrictions as may be required. There are designated officers in the cabotage enforcement unit of NIMASA with each officer with identity card for recognition. The identity card contains their full name, designation and passport photograph (NIMASA, 2018).

As specified in the Act, the Nigerian Maritime Administration and Safety Agency (NIMASA) is the primary focus of implementation of the Act. NIMASA is saddled with the responsibility of ensuring legal administration of the Act. Section 22 and 29 of the cabotage Act is expected to take care of vessels' registration by the registrar of ships in domiciled NIMASA special cabotage register. NIMASA is the agency institutionalized for implementing the cabotage. In compliance to section 30 of the Act, created a unit for cabotage regime within the agency for enforcement. Section 44 of the Act authorized NIMASA to collect for Cabotage Vessels Financing Fund operations. NIMASA enforcement officers are expected to wear their photo identity cards while on field performing their operations. For effective application, the Minister could engage the service of relevant government agencies to second enforcement (Bashir, 2018).

Ship-ownership and registration of cabotage vessels companies is carried out in pursuant of Section 22 of the Act, which states that vessels that are meant for use are expected to be registered with NIMASA in the applicable register specially created for ship-owing and vessels that are engaged in cabotage. The following are special registers for cabotage in NIMASA is opened;

Nigeria exclusively owned vessels special register

1. Bareboat chattered vessel special register
2. Joint venture owned vessel special register
3. Fully foreign-owned vessel special register
4. Exempted vessel special register.

Historically, the Act provided 5% of the yearly income to support the Maritime Academy of Nigeria (MAN) with 35% of its income to be deployed to development of maritime facilities. Provision of fund for Maritime Academy of Nigeria (MAN) boat and jetty was made. For the students responsible for the residue, NIMASA in 2009, December precisely established a fund to cover 40% cost of training in maritime education. While in the year 2010, NIMASA largely encouraged Nigeria to fully lunch into maritime sector, the agency administered a directive that ensured full engagement of Nigeria maritime cadets on board of all cabotage trade shop operators in order to build their sea-time experience and confidence.

Nevertheless, NIMASA experienced dire shortage of trained sailors. In 2011, NIMASA committed resources to training Nigerians in Scotland, India and Egypt as a result of MAN incapability to offer comprehensive training. Plan to set up new training schools came under criticism because they would be effectively operated under the existing Maritime Academy of Nigeria (MAN). Beneficiaries of a new Cabotage Vessels Finance Fund (CVFF) were given approval and guarantee by NIMSA in its institutional capacity in June, 2011 (Vanguard, July 21, 2014). This was administered by financial institutions as replacement to the previous Ship Acquisition and Ship Building Fund (SASBF) (Vanguard, July 21, 2014).

As central as Cabotage Act, 2003 is in Nigeria coastline activities, studies carried by Okeke and Anichie (2012);Ajiye, (2013), Okon and Edem (2018) among others have shown that in time past, Cabotage Act has suffered enforcement leading to sack of NIMASA headship (Bernard, 2010). The reasons are not far-fetched, that NIMASA lacked the requirements to administratively enforce the Act in its intuitional and watchful capacity. Furthermore, the Agency has in recent time not being able to interpret the letters and aim of the Act into a concrete and more beneficial and flourishing maritime sector worthy of investment by the general public. There is scarcity of materials and human resources to administer cabotage policy leading to NIMASA's frail capacity in effectively discharging its responsibility with respect to the Act aims and objectives to the admiration of publicists Okon and Edem (2018). Thus, the cabotage as was and is being administered has recorded relative failure in uplifting the face of Nigeria maritime industry. Law contained and clearly specified in cabotage has been improperly administered (Okeke & Anichie, 2012).

It has been observed that NIMASA has not considered synergy with other partnering agencies such as NNPC, NCD, IOCs, NPA, NIWA, security agencies among others in leveraging on the partnership needs to administering the Cabotage Act effectively. This is because there is a perceived disconnect

between these partnering agencies and NIMASA in making a bold front at smooth implementation of the Act (Onuoha, 2009).

As noted by Iroegbu (2010) despite the Cabotage Act of 2003, Nigeria has an insignificant share of shipping industry. 30% estimation of the maritime trade is undertaken by foreign-flagged vessels culminating in loss of foreign exchange and worrisome loss of employment opportunities for Nigerians in the maritime industry. Consequently, the Cabotage Act has not fared well in terms of implementation with a record of 20% market share value at the earnings and disposals of Nigerians (Ajiye, 2013). NIMASA's realization of earnings despite has not adequately protected the interest of Nigerian investors in the maritime space. Against the current reality, NIMASA has registered more cargoes of national flagged to create a more participative drive for local ship owners in the maritime industry (Bashir, 2018).

Cabotage and Capacity Building

The Nigerian government following the enforcement of Cabotage Act of 2003 made a provision of $25 million for shipping development and expansion, which was considered sparse resources considering the geographical nature of the country (Olukoju, 2004). This amount reduced the domestic investors and the NMA to a rent collectors' capacity. In earnings, the NMA served a veritable source of income for some successive governments and its officials as against its primary role of developing the maritime sector. The Act specifically provided for 35% of income to be used in strengthening and developing the maritime infrastructure. NIMASA made financial provision for MAN's boat and jetty project with a view to ensuring efficiency(Olukoju, 2004).

One of theDirector-General of Nigerian Maritime Administration and Safety Agency(NIMASA) and also a successor of Dr Adegboyega Dosumu, Temi Omatseye stated that implementation of the Cabotage regime in full depended on NIMASA's institutional ability to develop local capacity that will ensure facilitation of volume of tonnage while placing the maritime sector in a position of contributing force to government revenue and national development. He concluded that if the Act must achieve its objective, NIMASA must ensure that the Act is performance-driven on all sides (Bernard, 2010).

The failure of cabotage policy in the maritime sector of the country as being viewed by stakeholders and observers goes beyond lack of legal structure to actualize the Act. Maritime professionals argue that conceptualization of Cabotage Act, 2003 is sufficient enough to inspire maritime participation of Nigerians in the profitable shipping commercial venture as well as capacity building(Bernard, 2010).

Although in recent time, there have been a remarkably improved number of Nigerian flagged vessels registered from 262 accounting for over 232,000 total metric tons vessels from 2015 to 370, 420,000 metric tons in 2016 and a marginal 307, 415,000 metric tons downward registered vessels in 2017 (NIMASA, 2018). This is in fulfilment of the mandates of the regime stating whole ownership of vessels by Nigerians, registration of cabotage vessels in Nigeria, manning of cabotage vessels by Nigerian citizens and building of cabotage vessels in Nigeria and by Nigerian shipyards

Mr. Patrick Akpobolokemi, the former Director-General of Nigerian Maritime Administration and Safety also identified the shortfall in indigenous capacity in Nigeria maritime industry. He noted that there is need to train and engage over 50,000 seafarers in manning vessels plying coastal trade to bridge the widening capacity gap that is created by available prospects in job creation for the increasing unemployed youth population in the country (Daily Independent August 26, 2011).

Okoroji and Ukpere (2011) note that the Nigerian cabotage regime is expected to receive boost due to the restrictive definition of the Act on foreign-flagged ship, particularly as it affects shipping markets prospects of domestic vessels captivation of the cabotage. It was also noted that the country has been losing so much money expected to be realized through capacity building due to more involvement of foreign-owned and crewed vessels in the Nigerian marital industry. The number of indigenous or domestic capacity in the Nigerian maritime shipping and seaboard is disproportionate to foreign-flagged ships. This lack of indigenous capacity is credited to low investment drive of Nigerians in the sector. In some cases, foreign flagged vessels are seen transporting equipment and personnel for oil exploration in the deep ocean. They argue that local vessels operators are not seaworthy to compete favorably with their foreign counterparts and do not satisfy safety, environmental and health standard.

The maritime sector has not impacted the economy due to the aforementioned administrative laxity despite its huge potentials in wealth and job creation. Expectedly, the sector is supposed to employ 5% of the country's population, but has been masked by people of diverse selfish interest and supervisory agencies resulting in loss of interest by potential investors in the sector (Iroegbu, 2010). Only a few domestic ship owners are players in the industry with old and rickety ship to operate efficiently with several resonating challenges besetting the shipping sub-sector of the maritime industry outside the influence of major players in the industry. Maritime business is a technologically driven industry that requires a sound steel sector, service sector and a huge capital outlay to build ship and effectively managed it. Absence of constant power supply, inland

container deposit, rail, among others complicate these challenges thus making it more cost-effective to purchase a ship from overseas compared to building a ship in Nigeria. Moreover, financing ship has not been encouraging and constituting a fundamental problem bedeviling Nigerian shipyards. This is as a result of many banks inability to finance ship acquisition considering the capital involved in procuring a standard vessel from overseas. Only a strong and effective shipping sub-sector could offer adequate protection to indigenous operators in the maritime industry.

Influence of Cabotage Act, 2003 on NIMASA Coastline Operations

Table 1: **Cabotage Administration and Nigeria's Maritime Asset**

SN	Parameter	2015	2016	2017
1	Nigerian flagged vessels registered	262	370	307
2	Total tonnage of the vessels in metric tons	232,000	420,000	415,638

Source; NIMASA, 2018

With the Cabotage Act of 2003, there was a surge in the participation of indigenous players in 2015. However, there was a sharp decrease from 370 to 307 in 2017, which could be due to harsher economy condition in the country, which made so many companies in different sectors to close down their operations.

Cabotage Act 2003 creates employment for Nigerians who are crew members, ship builders and marine technologists among others. Another employment opportunity was opened to seafarers who now could have a new least of life (NIMASA, 2018).

Cabotage Act 2003 improves the economy a great deal by blocking unnecessary loop-holes on capital flight through the patronage of foreign flagged-ships, expatriates, which may be required in the building, manning of ships and other resources necessary (NIMASA, 2018).

Cabotage Act 2003 demonstrates the readiness of Nigerians to take charge of their national life. It is a demonstration of responsibility and leadership on the part of Nigeria to take charge and subdue its environment and waterways (NIMASA, 2018).

Cabotage Act 2003 under the Cabotage Vessel Financing Fund (CVFF) made available 2% provision for financing from the contract awarded under the Act influences the administration and the relevance of NIMASA and its level of sustenance (NIMASA, 2018).

Conclusion

The study noted the vast maritime resources of Nigeria and its underlying benefits if well explored. NIMASA as an agency of government was created by an Act to further supervise and monitor coastal trade. Though Cabotage Act has been in existence before NIMASA's creation, yet, the agency was saddled with the responsibility of its full implementation. Despite the vast benefits derivable from Nigerian maritime sector, foreign-flagged ships players still dominate the scene from all indications with a marginal competition from domestic players for which Cabotage Act, 2003 was formulated in the first place (Ajiye, 2013). This paper conceptualized Cabotage Act, its objectives and challenges of implementation as well as the emergence of Nigerian Maritime and Safety Agency (NIMASA), its roles and mandate cum reasons and events culminating in the enactment of Cabotage Act 2003. The paper also explored the implementation of Cabotage Act vis-à-vis NIMASA operations.

The paper also examined therole of Nigerian Maritime Administration and Safety Agency (NIMASA) in capacity building, the existing link between poor compliance by maritime players to the cabotage policy and capacity gap, which NIMASA has not been able to bridge. Cabotage regimes in some selected countries were equally explored bringing out differences in types and nature of applications. The study concluded that Cabotage Act 2003 has to a large extent influence the Nigerian Maritime Administration and Safety Agency (NIMASA) in capacity building and coastline operations though with some challenges in implementation.

Recommendations

In order to have much influence on NIMASA coastline operations, Cabotage Act, 2003 needs to be positioned based on the following recommendation

1. There is the need toimprove the institutional capacity of NIMASA in the enforcement of and close monitoring of Cabotage Act 2003. Adequate requisite resources such as human and material be under a strict supervision.
2. There is also the need to reposition NIMASA for efficient and effective enforcement of the Cabotage Act byenhancing its competence in local capacity building as well as influencing numerous prospects that the Cabotage law creates in the maritime domain
3. Synergy between NIMASA and its partnering agencies is requisite to facilitate effective and efficient enforcement of the Cabotage Act 2003.
4. Financing and appropriate disbursement of fund placed under Cabotage Vessel Financing Fund (CVFF) should be adequately made available by NIMASA and all parties concerned as CVFF is the only surestsource of

shipping financing for indigenous shippers; hence, government should not encourage further delay in considering the prompt release of fund applications the agency receives to prosecute maritime projects that will in turn leads to efficient service delivery.

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INSTRUCTION TO CONTRIBUTORS

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Articles must be written in English Language and should not exceed 6,000 words and 15 pages together with references. Typed in double-spacing on one side of A4-size paper with minimum of standard 1.5 inch margin and referencing done in APA style (6th ed.). The title page of the paper should indicate full names and addresses (i.e. institutional affiliation, if any) of the author(s). It should be a accompanied with an *abstract* not exceeding 250 words and maximum of ten (10) keywords for indexing purposes. The acceptable word processing packages are Microsoft and Word Perfect, (please indicate whichever).

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EDITORIAL COMMENTS

In line with our tradition and commitment, the Editorial Board of this journal has resolved to keep pace with your increasing demand for quality and well-researched journal. Consequently, our commitment to the maintenance of high quality, impactful and widely circulated journal led the Board to undertake rigorous-peer reviews of all the articles contained in these volumes.

Given the international status of this journal which is now indexed with highly reputable outlets including – Google Scholar; Advance Science Index; Index Copernicus International; Indexed for Cosmos Impact Factor; INFO BASE Index and Journal Factor, we cannot but keep pace with acceptable global academic standard in journal publication.

As expected therefore, the articles contained in this edition have undergone rigorous peer reviews and have been found publishable. The first article by Bakare, L. A. (et.al) evaluated the adequacy of INEC preparation for the conduct of 2015 and 2019 General Elections in Osun State; assessed its performance during the period; and analysed the challenges that confronted the commission in the study area. The study concluded that the elections were well administered by INEC but the performance of INEC was majorly hindered by the excessive monetization of politics and high level of illiteracy among the people of the state. The study recommended that the election Act should be reviewed to criminalize the excessive party financing and vote buying. The article by Abdullahi, S. A. (et.al) conducted a systematic literature review to synthesize the human resource management practices such as employee engagement (EE) while assessing two of the antecedents of employee engagement, i.e., perceived organizational support (POS) and perceived superior support (PSS), aimed at proposing area for further research as well as practicable recommendations for public service administrators. The article by Ogunbela, G. K. (et.al) examined State's contradictions in Farmers-Herdsmen and Environmental Struggle in Nigeria. The study excavated the dynamics of contradictions in the instrument of resolution engaged for the farmers-herdsmen conflict in Nigeria. The study concludes that inconsistency and contradictory views of state apparatus contributed to the lingering conflict between the crop farmer and herder communities. It therefore recommended adequate involvement of stakeholders in formulating policies so as to bring about effective conflict reduction mechanisms. Rahim, A. G. (et.al) assessed economic recession, youth unemployment and crisis of legitimation in Africa and argued that government inability to develop progressive ideas, technical capability and effective planning to address the basic expectations of the citizen particularly rising youth unemployment, breeds

thuggery, hooliganism, criminality and insurgency which are natural consequence of legitimation crisis in Africa. The paper concluded that legitimacy is vital for social and economic development in Africa. The study recommended that government should develop proactive policy measure to curtail economic recession in Africa through the promotion of fiscal and monetary policies. The article by Abogunrin, A. P. (et.al) evaluated the effect of level of acceptability of alternative work arrangements on the practice of alternative work arrangements as necessity among city workers. The paper concluded that it is a necessity for modern organizations to start thinking of alternative work arrangements in their operation as an unavoidable work schedule. The study recommended that alternative work arrangements should be introduced into workplace practice with commensurate infrastructural development. The article by Hassan, A. O. (et.al) examined the effect of in-service trainings on job performance of non-teaching staff of Osun State College of Education, Ilesa. The study concluded that in-service training positively affected the job performance of the non-teaching staff of the institution. The study recommended that 2

the college management reinvigorate in-service trainings for the workers, both academic and non-teaching. The paper by Ekwoaba, J. O. (et.al) reviewed social protection and compensation management in the Nigerian public sector. It argued that the adoption of collective bargaining and the government commitment to abide by the agreements reached with unions in the public sector remain the cardinal means for promoting peaceful labour-government relations**.** It therefore concluded that there is the need for government labour policies and laws on social protection to be implemented to the letter. It recommended that robust budgetary allocations should be allotted to the key sectors of the economy. The article by Danesi, R. A. (et.al) examined the influence of career development and career counselling on employee performance among civil servants in Osun state. The study concluded that career development and career counselling jointly have positive and significant impact on the performance of civil servants in Osun State. The study recommended that government should organize educational advancement, seminars and career counselling programs for the civil service development and high performance. The article by Ekwoaba, J. O. and Danesi, R. A. examined how the academic staff of universities union's industrial actions affect the job performance of academic employees' in the University of Lagos. The result shows a statistically significant effect of industrial action on the performance of University academic employees. The study therefore recommend that all relevant trade unions related to education should make effort to resolve issues using other techniques such as dialogue rather than embark on strike all the

time. The paper by Mahmud, U. E. (et.al) enquired into the nature and causes of the observed implementation failure of Affirmative Policy at the local government tier in Nigeria. The study found that the council's ignorance of the existence and operation of the Affirmative Policy; and unwillingness to implement the policy were responsible for the failure. It recommended among others, that the Federal Government of Nigeria should establish and institutionalize a mechanism for educating local government councils on new policies.

The article by Amosa, J. R. (et.al) investigated the effect of organisational culture on employees' organisational citizenship behaviour in Nigerian manufacturing industry. The study concluded that organizational culture in its various forms has significant impact on employees' corporate citizenship behaviour. The study recommended that organization manager should promote a culture that foster selflessness, participation and exhibition of innovative behaviour that guarantees the realisation of the organisational target. Omolekan, O. J. Omolekan, A. O. evaluated the impact of New Public Management reforms (NPM) index on LGAs performance in Nigeria. The study concluded that NPM reforms index impact LGAs performance. The study recommended that LGAs should focus on NPM reforms index to improve equity, effectiveness in revenue expansion and efficiency in spending. The article by Jamal, B. Y. critically analysed the effect of Cabotage Act on the *modus operandi* of the Nigerian Maritime Administration and Safety Agency (NIMASA). The paper concluded that Cabotage Act, 2003 influence on NIMASA's has been greatly marred by lack of institutional capacity and government interference leading to poor implementation and enforcement. The study therefore recommends that NIMASA should synergize with its partnering agencies to facilitate effective and efficient enforcement of the Cabotage Act 2003. The article by Oladoyin, A. M. and Onabanjo, L. K. analysed the impact of social media on Local Government administration in Nigeria. The paper concluded that positively, social media has significantly influenced local government administration in Nigeria. The paper recommends local government administration should continue to cooperate with the local people on how they can develop adequate strategy to strengthen positive effect of the use of social media platforms.

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