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Democracy, Legislature and Nation-Building in Nigeria's Fourth Republic

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Abstract
The role of legislature in nation-building cannot be overemphasized globally. In Nigeria, the contributions of the legislative arm of government have been characterized with controversies since the country returned to democratic rule since 1999. Some argue that the contribution of the legislature has significantly improved the democratic process in Nigeria while some have contrary views on this assumption. It is against this background that this paper evaluates the activities of the legislative arm government in Nigeria. Relying on secondary data, theoretical model of analysis is adopted to argue that the Nigerian legislature has contributed immensely towards the promotion of socio, political and economic activities in the country based on some critical local variables. With those performances, the paper observed that many Nigerians were claimed to be ignorant of those performances due to some critical factors. Consequently, the paper concludes that as one of the sensitive arms of government, Nigerian Legislatures needs to be pro-active and more sensitive in the cause of performing their constitutional responsibilities in the parliament in order to be seen as a tool for nation-building in the country.

Keywords: Democracy, Legislature, Nation-Building, Fourth Republic.

Introduction

The legislative arm of government is a major institution of the state established towards the promotion of democratic governance across the globe. It is an institution where people directly involved in the democratic process through their elected representatives. The institution is significant to democratic sustainability and serves as a means of checkmating the excesses of other arms of the government. The institution also makes law and performs oversight functions. The institution is the most representative arm of government that represents the political arena in which society's divergent interests and tendencies compete for expression, influence, and relevance. As observes by Animashaun (2014), the legislature is widely regarded as the voice of the people in all democratic settings. The legislative arm of the government has been recognized as the hearth of liberal democratic tradition and core ingredient underlining the representative character of democratic governance in the post-classical democracy.

In Nigeria, Fashagba (2009) argues that the constitutional responsibilities of the legislature cut across the federal, state, and local governments. The legislature performs major responsibilities of making law and approving financial requests of the executive. However, to limit the scope of this study, this paper dwells on the National Assembly as the only central legislative body constitutionally empowered to make law for Nigeria as a federal state with the bicameral legislature. However, since 1999 when Nigeria returned to democratic rules, the legislature is enduring un-interrupted legislative activities where the legislative powers, duties, and functions are well spelled out in section 4 of the 1999 constitution. This conferred on the National Assembly the provisions for the exercise of legislative powers in the federation to achieve good governance, democratic sustainability, and nation-building.

However, Jateline (2010) avers that controversy shrouds those constitutional responsibilities when some people believed that the nation's parliament has impacted negatively on socio-economic development in Nigeria. But, some Nigerians were of the opinion that the institution has not been too much committed to the wellbeing of the people as a pillar for democratic progress in the country. It is in line with this thought that this paper utilized the data obtained from the secondary sources to examine the topic under review. It was analyzed by using a descriptive approach to appraise the role of the legislature towards nation-building in Nigeria's fourth republic.

Review of Related Literature

Democracy

Democracy, which is derived from the Greek word demos, or people, as revealed in the literature is defined as a form of government in which the supreme power is vested in the people in the society. It

consists of practices and procedures that have been model through a long, often tortuous history base on the institutionalization of freedom. Uday (2010) notes that democracy encourages society to see freedom as the ultimate guardians of their own lives which forge their path toward an ideal set forth in the society and it is a means through which the people exercise their constitutional rights to choose their leaders and hold them accountable for their behavioral conduct in the office. Democracy also allows the people to choose between competing parties in a regular, free, fair, and credible election. It is a way of protecting basic human rights such as freedom of speech, religion, the right to equal protection and the opportunity to organize and participate fully in the socio-political life of society. Resnick (2011) argues that democracy is more than just a set of specific government institutions, but it rests upon a well understood group of values, attitudes, and practices all of which take different forms and expressions among cultures and societies. It is a form of government in which power and civic responsibility are exercised by citizens through their freely elected representatives. Democracy rests upon the principles of majority rule and it is a form of government that embraced competitive election with the basic ideology that gives absolute rights to the people in the cause of choosing their representative in a competitive election. In a democratic state, every adult always has the opportunity to be elected to a governmental position and they also have the constitutional right to vote for their preferred candidates. In a nutshell, democracy means a form of rules exercise by the people for the benefit of the people and for the betterment of the state. It is a way through which people partakes in the decisions that affect the way their community is being administered the ruling actors.

Legislature

The legislature is an assembly of elected representatives of the people with constitutional power to make laws for the generality of the state. The legislature is an important aspect of government in the act of separation model of governance. According to Steven and Matthew (2009), the legislature is generally referred to as an official body of the state, chosen through the competitive election with the constitutional mandate to make law, carry out oversight functions, and possess the power to represent various constituent units. The legislature is a constitutionally recognized body of the people with formal authority to pass laws, which are implemented and interpreted by the executive and judiciary. It is a vibrant institution vested with the power of making law for the generality of the people through which the will of the state can be perfectively achieved and attained.

Loewenberg (1995) argues that the legislature is constitutionally empowered among various institutions of the state. The legislature observes and steers governing actions which usually have exclusive authority to make and amend the constitution and carry out an oversight responsibility on behalf of the people. The legislatures are very crucial in enforcing accountability and responsibility in any democratic setting with an oversight function that prominently appears to preoccupy modern legislatures. They are most popularly elected by the people to represent a constituent unit in the parliament. They engage in an oversight function by scrutinizing the finances of the government and ensuring that the national budget is properly implemented. The institution is also engaged in the lawmaking process that involves the passing of motions into resolutions and bills into laws that depending on certain circumstances that warrant such responsibilities.

Nation-Building

Nation-building is a process of enhancing the capacity of the governmental institution towards building a state. As argues by Paul (2006), nation-building concerns with the democratic capacity of the state and its people often overlooked in favour of reconstruction of the state concerned. It is a means through which nations come into being with aims of total unification of the people within the state so that it remains politically stable and remain viable all the time. Nation-building is an effort to build institutions and practices that allow people to govern each other in a peaceful and in a prosperous way. It requires nurturing a sense of community where none previously existed or has been undermined by internal conflict that needs behavioral development of the people. As noted by Akoto (2015), nation-building is a deliberate, keenly directed and focused, and energetic projection of national culture and collective identity where its enhancement foundation comes from political participation as a pre-requisite for building a coherent society. This can be enhanced structurally by decentralization policy to widen access to the state and make it more responsive to local needs. Suri (2011) identified five principles that a nation

can be built upon. It includes joint collaboration among various institutions of the state, accountability and transparency in the policy process-making, problem-solving approach, a valid structure to build a nation, and the existence of elected representatives at all levels of government.

From the above expression, it can be concluded that legislature can be regarded as a supreme nation-builder in the state because of their representative nature in a democratic government and therefore, the legislature as an institution of government that represents the people of various constituent units with the mandate to legislate on government initiatives in the bid to prepare the state for nation-building.

Theoretical Framework

Decision-Making Theory

This article adopts decision-making approach in its analysis. The theory is propounded by Synder (1955) and focuses on the sequences of activities of the government which involves different stages in the decision-making process such as problem recognition, the definition of alternatives solutions, and selection of best options out of different alternatives. It is a theory of how rational individuals should behave under risk and uncertainty. As postulated by Synder (1955), the decision-making theory enable the policymakers to use a set of axioms in their decision-making process on how to be more rational in the bid of taking a specific decision that involves the administration of the state. The central assumption of the theory is to understand how policymakers are making the decision and its processes. Therefore, the legislature as a major institution of the state possess the required mandate of giving legislative support to the executive decisions in the bid to promote the socio, political and economic agenda of the state. As the representatives of the people, legislatures have an abundant role to play in the process of making a sustainable state objective possible because a nation cannot be built solely from the top-down but requires the active participation of ordinary citizens in the shaping of a common political will. It is the citizens who must provide the necessary legitimacy to the new state through their elected representatives which legislative arm of government represents.

Therefore, the decision-making approach adopted for this study would assist in determining the level of commitment of the legislature to the common good of the people. This is so because any decision-taking by the executive arm of government requires proper legislation from the parliament before such a decision can become a legitimate policy of the state.

Historical View of Nigerian Legislature

The history of the Nigerian legislature can be traced to when the colonial government occupied Lagos territory in 1861. The British government through the colonial government then established a Legislative Council to oversee the affairs of the Colony. According to Tom and Attai (2014), the colonial governor then hand-picked members of the legislature for the legislative council with only two members who were Nigerians, the legislative council did not perform only law-making functions but served as an advisory body to the colonial governor. In 1900, the protectorates of Northern and Southern Nigeria were established by the British Government to replace the administration of the Royal Niger Company and the Niger Coast, protectorate over the North and South respectively. Six years later, the colony of Lagos was annexed to the Southern Protectorate.

Tom and Attai (2014) note that the two protectorates were amalgamated to form the Colony and Protectorate of Nigeria in 1914 and a new legislative body called the Nigerian Council comprising thirty-six members who were randomly selected and handpicked by the colonial government to represent, business and other interests were constituted. Six of the members were Nigerians. The Council just like the Lagos Council that preceded it had no legislative power and performed no legislative functions. However, major constitutional development that affected the development of the legislature occurred in 1922 when the Clifford Constitution made provisions for the election of four Nigerians out of a total Council of forty-six members. The remaining forty-two members were selected, nominated, or handpicked by the Colonial Governor to represent the private and business interests in the country.

According to Tom and Attai (2014), the introduction of this elective principle was carried over into 1946 Richard's and the 1951 Macpherson Constitutions as each subsequent constitution tried to increase the number of elective Nigerians into the Colonial Legislative Council. But in 1960 Nigeria became independent and adopted the Westminster Parliamentary system of government with a bicameral legislature. This comprises the Senate and the House of Representatives. For the Regions, the House of Chiefs and the House of Assembly were established while at the center, the Senate and the House of Representatives remained the legislative arm of the government in the federation respectively.

As argued by Adebo (1988), the House of Representatives were made up of 312 members elected nationwide to serve for five years and a Senate of 44 members elected from the various components of the federal system. Obiyan (2007) notes that in the second republic 1979-1983, Nigeria retained its bicameral model of the legislature at the center and was renamed as the National Assembly but the States parliament became unicameral when the House of Chiefs was abolished and the same arrangement was adopted during the aborted third republic up till this moment.

The basis of representation in the National Assembly as stated in the 1999 constitution (as amended) is a division of each state in the federation to three Senatorial districts irrespective of the population of the state and its landmass while for the House of Representatives, the nation was divided into federal constituencies with each legislature representing each constituent unit throughout the federation. The National Assembly is currently made up of 469 legislatures elected with 109 Senators and 360 members in the House of Representatives.

Roles of Nigerian Legislatures as Stated in the 1999 Constitution The 1999 constitution as (amended), ascribed the following roles to the legislature in Nigeria:

a. **Lawmaking:** According to Fashagba (2009), section 4 of the 1999 Constitution (as amended) vested on the National Assembly, the legislative powers of the Federation and under the above section 4. The legislature is empowered to make laws for the peace, order and good governance in Nigeria. The legislative powers are divided into the exclusive legislative, concurrent legislative and residual legislative list. The National Assembly is empowered to legislate on matters listed in the exclusive legislative list to the exclusion of the House of Assembly of States. It shared with the State Houses of Assembly the power to legislate on matters itemized on concurrent legislative list while the State legislatures are majorly to legislate on residual legislative matters.

b. **Representation:** Obiyan (2007) notes that an effective legislative function connects people to their government by giving them a place where their needs can be properly articulated. In modern democracy (representative democracy) a small number of percentages of the people are elected by the people to represent their interest in government, therefore the constitution empowered the legislature to discharge its lawmaking and over-sight functions through the people representation.

c. **Oversight Functions:** The legislature is constitutionally mandated as the institution through which the government is held accountable. This is done by acting as watch-dog over the actions and policies of the other organs of government (executive and judiciary). According to Sagay (2010), the legislature has duty to watch and control the government to compel a full exposition and justification of all of their activities which people consider unquestionable. Sagay (2010) maintains that if this duty is effectively performed, the legislature's critical functions would produce an attitude of responsibility and restraint the executive to derail from the realization of the national goals.

Nexus between Democracy, Legislature, and Nation-Building

There is interconnectivity between the concept of democracy, legislature, and nation-building. As argued by Umar (2015), democracy is a concept that promotes people's participation in governance at all levels through their elected representatives. It provides appropriate framework for the emergence of the legislature through competition and make them become representatives of the people elected to make law for the good governance of the state. Legislature is also empowered to provide an appropriate platform

towards meeting the yearnings, needs, and aspirations of the citizens. This expression shows how crucial is the legislative arm of government towards democratic sustainability in the state. Their level of contribution to the government's decision-making processes assists in the implementation of government policy on social, political and economic development in the country. This is a real factor towards building a prosperous nation in Nigeria.

Factors Aiding Legislative Activities for Nation-Building in Nigeria

a. **Legislature and Policy Making**: The legislature essentially participates in the process of formulating and implementing public policy through instruments of motions and debates of various means in the parliament. A motion is a proposal initiated by a legislature or a group of legislatures that empowers the parliament to take certain actions or expressed itself in holding a certain view. A motion may be used simply to express the view of the legislature on any national issues. Umar (2015) avers that the motion may also be used either to get the legislature to take a particular action or to ensure that an action is taken by another arm of government or governmental agency in a certain direction.

a. **Debates on Appropriation Bill:** As claimed by Obiyan (2007), the legislature also possesses the power of appropriating financial resources for the country by allocating the nation's resources to different heads for the purpose of public service delivery. By so doing, the legislature determines the priorities of the state and therefore sets the policy agenda for the government. The legislature as a checker on the excesses of the executive arm of government possesses one of the most potent power which serves as a nexus towards nation-building in Nigeria.

b. **Scrutinization of Government Appointment:** In Nigeria, the constitution reserves the power to scrutinize and confirm major appointments of the government by the Senate of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. According to Sunday (2015), the document submitted to the Senate by the executive is, however, to be specific about the type of government appointment to be confirmed.

c. **Public Hearing:** The public hearing is another way through which the Nigerian legislature contributes to nation-building. The legislature carryout investigation on any matter or issue that may be causing public disquiet and any person connected therewith, with respect to any matter on which the parliament has constitutional powers. According to Umar (2015), the investigative powers of the legislature are broad; it encompasses powers to carry out inquiries concerning the administration of existing laws and also carry out a probe into the departments of the government towards exposing corruption, inefficiency, or waste. It also aimed at enforcing appropriate sanctions by the judiciary or other arm of government as may be necessary.

Impacts of Nigerian Legislature towards Nation-Building

a. **Law Making Functions:** The Nigerian legislature has contributed immensely to nation-building through the enactment of different laws that aided national development project since the country returned to democratic. According to Obiyan (2007), an important factor that marks out a democratic government in Nigeria is the vibrancy of policymaking process as reflected in the quality of debate at the parliament, the extent of meaningful participation of the public in the policymaking process, and the quality of the policy outcome which was not much lacking in the law-making process since the beginning of Nigeria's fourth republic. The good example of legislative contributions towards nation-building in Nigeria is the series of bills passed into law by the National Assembly and assented to successive Presidents since 1999.

b. **Representative Functions:** The Nigerian legislature represents and connects people to the government by giving them a place where their needs and aspirations can be articulated. According to Sunday (2015), Nigerian legislature since 1999 is the embodiment of the aspirations, ideals, and collective will of the people; they are the defender of the people's aspirations and constitute social contact between the citizens and the government. This serves as arbiter of the interest that builds a nation. An institution is a place where every interest is and shade of opinion has its cause to be presented.

c. **Legislature as a Check on the Executive**: The functions and responsibility of the executive arm of government are too enormous and expensive because of the wide range of government activities. However, since 1999, the National Assembly has been exercising its right to check the abuse of power, wastage of national resources, or misapplication of the appropriated funds by the executive arm of government. As avers by Ugoh (2006), the legislature has been exercising this responsibility in order to ensure that the executive is more open and transparent in the management of the nation's resources.

d. **General Administration Functions**: The parliament since 1999 has been acting as a means through which the diverse interest group, opinions, and associations are represented in government. According to Ihedioha (2012), legislature shares with the executive, the power to make and confirm top-level appointments in the country. The legislature also approves government nominees for ministerial, head of government agencies, and ambassadorial appointments. This is exclusively performed by the Senate but on some occasion, the concurrence of the House of Representatives is required for some appointment related to Niger Delta Development Commission (NDDC).

e. **Oversight Functions**: The legislature, through its oversight activities has been able to hold the Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs) of the government accountable to the public. Since the institution has the responsibility to appropriate and allocate funds to the various government institutions for their operations, Tom and Attai (2014) note that it is naturally using that advantage to oversee these institutions to ensure that citizens get value for their money and also ensure that these institutions are run in accordance with laws of the land and reposition the state towards nation-building.

Issues Hampering Performances of Nigerian Legislature

a. **Corruption and Greed:** As observed by Obiyan (2007), there have been reported cases of large-scale corruption among Nigerian legislatures. This is to the extent that any minor disagreement between them and the executive over constitutional related issues is linked with bribery before such responsibility can be performed. It is generally believed that the legislature hardly does anything without seeking benefits for its members. There are many corruption allegations against the Nigerian legislature since 1999, starting with the allegation against the Former Deputy Senate President, Ibrahim Mantu in the early 2000s and till-now series of allegations have been leveled against the nation's lawmakers in the course of their investigative and oversight functions.

b. **Ethnicity and Religion Sentiments**: As a pluralistic nation, the Nigerian legislature at the inception of the current republic always thinking of themselves and their ethnic and religious background in the course of their legislative assignments. This actually made them have less feeling for nation-building. According to Ugoh (2006), Nigerian legislatures are mere representatives of their ethnic nationalities and religious faiths. The political culture has remained captive of the primordial sentiments and base values. This, therefore, undermines the credibility, integrity, responsibility, and image of the institution charged with the responsibility of enacting laws in Nigeria.

c. **Executive Interference**: As claimed by Ugoh (2007), in the course of their legislative duties, there has always been tension between the executive and legislative relationships in Nigeria. This is because of mutual suspicion of each other in the pursuit of the popular mandate. There are many occasions through which the executive tends to impose the head of the legislative arm on the legislature in order to get things done as expected by the executive. The executive-legislative impasse experienced in the 8th National Assembly when the legislatures under Dr. Bukola Saraki and Hon. Yakubu Dogara defied the executive and party directives to elect the anointed leadership of the National Assembly attested to Ugoh's assertion.

d. **Truancy and Absence for Legislative Duty**: According to Sunday (2015), the rate at which the Nigerian legislature absence themselves from legislative duties is too rampant. In view of this

act, public opinion is unfavorable to them and the effects of this absenteeism indicate that the legislatures have been score negatively and assumed that they are in the parliament for their selfish and personal interests. Their loyalty to the presiding officials of the two chambers is preventing them from being sanctions for this conduct.

e. **Egocentric Nature of the Legislature**: With the present economic context which makes ordinary Nigerians struggling to survive for the basic needs, there is a need for a legislative framework to reposition the nation's economy to build Nigeria. However, Umar, (2015) argues that the egocentric nature of Nigerian parliamentarians did not think along with the people's plight. Instead, they always move around the government ministries, parastatals and agencies to chase contracts and other patronages to the detriment of their primary responsibility of law-making in the parliament.

Conclusions

This paper acknowledges the potential of the Nigerian legislature as a veritable instrument of nation-building. Using a decision-making approach in its analysis, the paper as propounded by Synder (1955), the paper focuses on the sequences of activities of the legislature which involves different stages of legislation towards assisting the executive arm of the government in the decision-making process such as problem recognition, the definition of alternatives solutions, and selection of best options out of different alternatives. The paper in its investigation observes that the Nigerian legislature occupies a central role in the nation's democratic framework. The paper maintains that the fundamental purpose for which the legislature was established under section 4 (1) of the 1999 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria as (amended) is to promote good governance, national growth, and development through legislative processes. The paper, however, notes that there some local variables like corruption, greed, ethnicity, and religious sentiments that are hampering smooth performances of the core mandate of the Nigerian legislatures in the bid of rebuilding Nigeria.

Recommendations

In the course of the analysis of this work, the paper acknowledged the contribution of the Nigerian legislatures to nation-building through their core legislative functions with some little shortcomings. For instance, the perception of corruption that Nigerians have against them needed to be corrected through transparency and accountability in their legislative conducts. The principal officers of the National Assembly also need to invoke the relevant rules of the National Assembly on any absentee legislatures in order to encourage their presence in the legislative duties. Also, the principle of constitutionalism which aimed at promoting strict adherence to separation of power needs to be well protected by the three arms of government. This if implemented will serves as a means of building a country where peace, unity and national integration would be center of governance in Nigeria.

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External Business Environment and Financial Performance of Small and Medium Enterprises in Arua Municipality, Uganda

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Abstract
The study investigated the relationship between the external business environment and the financial performance of Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) in the Arua Municipality. The main objective was to analyze the relationship between the external business environment and financial performance in general. The external business environment being a multidimensional construct, the study only considered, economic, legal/regulatory, technological, industrial dimensions. The specific objectives analyzed the relationship between the considered dimensions and financial performance. A sample of 103 respondents was selected from a study population of 140 SMEs in the Arua Municipality using a purposive sampling technique. Purely quantitative data was collected by the use of a closed-ended self-administered questionnaire. A cross-sectional and correlational survey was adopted. Pearson's correlations analysis was used to explore the relationship between the variables, and Multiple Regression Analysis (MRA) was applied in examining the variance in Financial Performance. The results revealed a statistically positive relationship ranging from moderate to strong based on Cohen (1988) among the various dimensions and dependent variable. Surprisingly, the results are in line with previous findings though from different socio-economic settings. MRA revealed a 61.5% variation in financial performance. The findings imply that economic, regulatory, technological, and industrial environment of SMEs is key business environments influence financial performance. Therefore, it's here recommended that the management of SMEs should understand the external SME environment for appropriate decision making. It is further recommended that; Ministry of Industry and Trade needs to regulate the environment to make it favorable for SMEs to enable them to thrive to boost the country's economy. This could be done by formulating favorable fiscal and monetary policies such as exchange rates, interest rates, favourarble legal reforms that can facilitate SME financial performance. SMEs should embrace and adopt appropriate technologies to easy their operations. Conclusively, understanding the external business environment is essential for SMEs' financial performance. One key limitation of the study is that it was a cross-sectional survey with a limited geographical scope.

Keywords: External Business Environment, Financial Performance, SMEs, Arua Municipal Council.

Introduction

Financial performance is an important business management aspect as the success of a business is measured using the availability of finances and investments it makes. It is even a more important aspect to examine among Small and Medium Scale Enterprises (SMEs) since they form over 95% of enterprises; and account for 60 – 70% of employment (Organisation for Economic Corporation and Development (OECD), 2009). Although the concept of financial performance is very common in academic literature, there is no agreement on what it is actually. Arnold (2012) stated that financial performance is a subjective measure of how well a firm can use assets from its primary mode of business to generate revenues. Similarly, Tumwine (2011) expanded the understanding of the term by stating that it's all about how organisational financial resources are controlled and utilized through budget management and accountability to achieve organizational goals and objectives. While regarding the external business environment, Ajayi (2016) clarified that it comprises all the factors that influence SME operations beyond the control of the management. In this study, an assessment was made to verify the validity of Ajayi's observations in the context of SMEs in the Arua Municipality**.**

For the operationalization of this study, the external business environment is considered as all events outside the company that has the potential to affect the company (Sofyan & Ina, 2015). These include competition, the behavior of its targeted customers and suppliers, macroeconomic dynamics, government policy i.e. the laws (Alkali, 2012; Pearce & Robinson, 2011; Mason, 2007; Yunggar, 2005). Dawson (2001) further listed external environmental factors as government laws and regulations, globalization of markets and the internationalization of business, major political and social events, technological advancements, customer expectations, supplier requirements, increasing competition, organizational growth, and fluctuations in business cycles. In this study, the external business environment was limited

to economic, regulatory, technological, and industrial environments while the financial performance of SMEs was measured in terms of profitability, sales revenue, and return on investment (ROI).

Literature Reviews

There are numerous studies conducted to demonstrate the role of the external business environment on the performance of SMEs. For instance, Ylvije and Elez (2015), a study in Albania revealed that the external environment has a great impact on enterprises' success. In a study conducted in Croatia, Dasa (2014) observed that external factors like the general state of the economy, sector, and type of customers have a significant impact on the performance of SMEs. Pasanen (2003) focused on factors affecting SMEs in Finland, found that external environmental factors affected how the enterprises performed. Aminul, Ezaz, Muhammad, and Hasmat (2008) in their study of SMEs in Bangladesh similarly found that among others, the external environment is the most significant factor in determining business success. On the contrary, Li (2001) examined the mediating role of environmental hostility on the financial performance of small ventures in China and found that environmental hostility did not appear to affect the relationship.

Furthermore, Bouazza *et al.* (2015) revealed that the growth of SMEs in Algeria is hampered by several interrelated factors including business external factors like the regulatory framework and accessing external financing. Similarly, a study conducted by Muzenda (2014) in South Africa, listed the external environment as one of the factors that affect SMEs performance. Similar findings indicating significant positive relations has been indicated in Ghana (Adu, 2016), Nigeria (Ajayi, 2016) among external business environment particularly aspects such as economic, political, legal, socio-cultural environment, demographic, natural, technological, global and financial environment in Micro, Small and Medium Scale Enterprises operators on business performance in general. However, on the contrary, Njanja *et al.*, (2012) observed that there was no significant effect of the external environmental factors on the business performance of SMEs in Kenya. Furthermore, Ishengoma and Kappel (2011) found such contradictory results in Uganda i.e. external environment relating negatively to business performance.

The foregoing literature demonstrates the existence of empirical studies conducted from different environmental settings across the globe linking external environmental aspects with business performance in general and financial performance in some cases in SMEs. However, it is also evident that the results of these studies are mixed. Whereas some of the studies report significant positive relationships (Ylvije & Elez, 2015; Dasa (2014); Pasanen (2003); Bouazza et al (2015); Muzenda (2014); Adu (2016); Ajayi (2016); others to the contrary (Ishengoma and Kappel, 2011; Njanja *et al.*, 2012) found a negative correlation, yet to contradict the matter further, Li (2001) found no relationship at all.

The contradictions in the literature have presented an academic challenge. This is an indication of lack of agreement, divergence in the opinion which ultimately is misleading when it comes to practice. It is also further observed there is scanty literature covering this subject from the least developed economy perspective (Sum, Jukow & Chen, 2004). Thus, to attempt to verify and address the contradictions in the literature, this study was conceived to investigate the relationship between the external environment and specifically the financial performance aspect of business performance. To address the scanty literature appearing from a developing world perspective, it was considered that it is appropriate to run data from Uganda in a developing world setting. So, this study was conducted in Arua Municipality, Arua district, North West (West Nile) in Uganda.

The motivation to conduct this study, in this case, is continued weak financial performance of many SMEs in Arua Municipality despite several business support initiatives provided by the municipality like provision of fiscal and non-fiscal incentives, infrastructure as well as business development services to the SMEs (AMC Business Assessment Record, 2015/2016). The weak SME financial performance is evidenced in the closure of businesses within the year of their initiation; it is observed to be survival rather than growth; many of the SMEs barely meet their financial obligations with ease (AMC Production & Marketing Department Annual Performance Report, 2016). Given the recorded importance of SMEs to the economies around the globe, it suffices to understand how good performance and growth of SMEs is guaranteed to sustainably bring about growth in the economy.

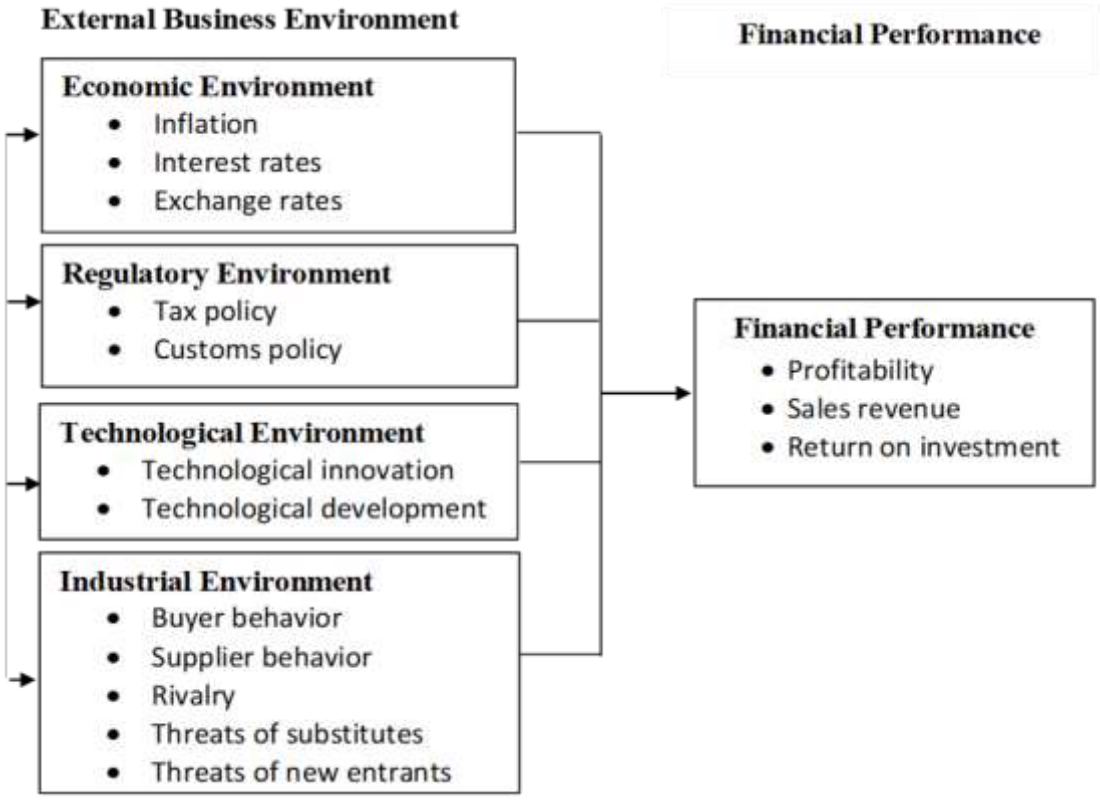


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework
Source: Developed by Review of Literature

The conceptual framework (Figure 1) presents the literature-based view of the relationship between the external business environment based on the considered dimensions and the financial performance of an SME. The external business environment is construed to comprise of economic environment measured using inflation, interest rates, and exchange rate; regulatory environment measure by policy and customs policy; technological environment indicated by technological innovations, technological development; and industrial environment which was measured in terms of buyer behavior, supplier behavior, rivalry, the threat of substitutes and threat to entry.

From the conceptual framework, it is hypothesized that the economic environment, regulatory environment, technological environment, and industrial environment have a direct relationship with financial performance in SMEs in Arua Municipality. The assumption is that if these elements of the external business environment are well regulated and businesses devise means of coping up with them, then their financial performance will likely improve. Otherwise, the inability of a business to control, predict, or adapt to the external factors that characterize its environment may lead to environmental uncertainties that will influence business performance negatively.

Economic environment and financial performance in SMEs

The economic environment is an external business environment that is of vital concern to the survival and growth of a business and determines, defines the opportunities for an enterprise (Ogundele, 2007). Moreover, Adeoye and Elegunde (2012) observed that the survival and success of every business enterprise depend fully on its economic environment. Economic environmental factors include the general economic climate, trade rates, inflation rate, labour unemployment rate, interest rates, the rate of economic development, per capita domestic product and trade deficit or surplus (Litavniece & Znotiņa, 2015). According to Alkali (2012), the external environment of a firm is also characterized by the nature of the prevailing economic system as defined by the operational state of the macroeconomic and international economic forces like foreign exchange rates, inflationary pressures, ongoing levels of global and domestic economic activity, and levels of taxation and purchasing power. Alkali (2012) further added

that economic systems tend to go through periods of faster and slower economic activities, high and low monetary and banking transactions, and varying degrees of volatility concerning interest and exchange rates.

Businesses prosper when the economy is booming, when the monetary and fiscal system is favourable, when the purchasing power is high and when living standards are generally rising (Pogarska & Edilberto, 2013). An expansionary monetary policy accompanied by an increase in the money supply also facilitates business exchange because it signals positive business activity, especially in terms of earning, spending, saving, and borrowing (Anupam, Evangelos & Dhaneshwar, 2000). A smooth flow of money also lubricates the wheels of economic activity ranging from commerce through financial transactions, to all forms of exchanges between creditors, debtors, customers and suppliers (Kunal & te Velde, 2008). Key monetary influences on microfinance enterprises in an economy are commercial bank interest rates, taxation, and general inflationary rates (Karekaho, 2009). While high-interest rates increase business costs and act as a brake on spending in the economy, inflation erodes monetary value, leading to increases in commodity prices and therefore a decline in purchasing power (Chuku, 2009). The combination of all these effects impacts adversely on sustainable business performance, especially when an enterprise fails to adapt to these factors flexibly and strategically (Kwagala, 2015).

According to Kazimoto (nd), small businesses are strongly affected by this economic volatility. Rescissions and business low downs always cause a quantum leap in the rate of small business failure. When recessions occur during a particular time, many businesses are being affected and this could end up making some to be closed since they could not cope up with the situation. Because small businesses are more susceptible to swings in the economy, they are more likely to fail during rescissions (Susman, 2007). In a study conducted by Egbuna and Agali (2013), it was revealed that economic instability and access to sources of finance are the major challenges or obstacles facing SMEs in Nigeria. Moreover, it is important for entrepreneurs of Small & Medium-Sized Enterprises to comprehend monetary elements and indicators and to utilize the information to help the marketing decision-making and planning process. For instance, if there is a variation in interest rates, then it is likely that SMEs may be involved in considering increases in cost (Adu, 2016).

The Regulatory Environment and Financial Performance

According to Adeoye and Elegunde (2012), the regulatory environment consists of the law's regulations and procedures of a country that SMEs are anticipated to comply with within the course of their operations. In carrying out their business operations, enterprises are required to pay taxes, value-added tax, capital gain tax, education tax, import duties, excise duties among others (Ajayi, 2016). Important regulations also include state actions relating to the following non-exhaustive list: contract enforcement, property rights, including intellectual property, corporate governance, taxation and financial reporting, employment and health and safety, trading standards and consumer rights, environmental protection, premises and planning rules, data protection, transport (Njanja *et al.*, 2012). According to Ajayi (2016), these regulations may facilitate successful business conduct as well as constitute handicaps to successful performance. Moreover, environmental regulations concerning the storage and use of the hazardous substance, for example, are likely to have a greater impact on certain sectors than others, for example, agriculture, manufacturing, and transport and communications businesses (Carter, Candida, Greene, Gatewood & Myra, 2003).

Critics of state regulation argue that it imposes costs on individuals and businesses that impede business start-up, investment, innovation, employment, business growth and, ultimately weaken national economic performance from which businesses, workers, and consumers all suffer (Njanja *et al.*, 2012). This, of course, will depend on pre-existing business practices at the time a regulatory change comes into effect as well as the regulatory requirements themselves (Njanja *et al*., 2012). The results of the study of Zahra (2011) also indicated that the four main causes of business failure in the Iranian context are management deficiency, lack of financial support from banks and financial institutions, inadequate economic spheres, and insufficient government policies.

Pearce and Robinson (2007) observed that the legal and political policies formulated by the Government affect the way business Enterprises are regulated and influenced in an economy. They revealed that business booms when Government policy is favorable and declines when the policy is harsh. Moreover, the business declines when its management fails to adapt to the harsh effects of Government policy. Besides, Jeng and Wells (2000) established that labour market rigidities, Government programs for entrepreneurship, and bankruptcy procedures explain variations in Business investments and their study concluded that a relationship existed between the legal/regulatory environment and performance of Business Enterprises. Meier and Pilgrim (2006) found out that in high transaction costs for registration and licensing are constrain small-scale enterprise operations and high transaction costs related to government procedures are seen to be particularly problematic.

A study conducted by Krasniqi (2007) showed that corruption is a major source of the rise in unfair competition. He further emphasized that the cost of complying with regulations and increased tax rates increases small firms' expenses while limiting their growth. Likewise, St-Jean *et al.* (2008) noted that unfair competition from the informal sector, cumbersome regulations, and tax rates are the main obstacles to small business growth. A study was done by International Finance Corporation (IFC, 2013), based on responses of more than 45,000 firms in developing countries, found that the top obstacles to their operations are a poor investment climate, especially red tape, high tax rates, and competition from the informal sector, and inadequate infrastructure, especially an insufficient or unreliable power supply.

Technological Environment and Financial Performance

Technological forces refer to the rate of scientific change and the fastest growth of technology that have potentially wide-ranging effects on society (Litavniece & Znotiņa, 2015). According to Drucker (1985), new technologies improve efficiency, enable greater production, and are a source of profit for SMEs. Also, Morse *et al.* (2007) also observed that technological capabilities benefit SMEs in several ways: they enhance SME efficiency, reduce costs, and broaden market share, both locally and globally. As noted by Lee, H. (2001), a small business that adopts greater levels of technological sophistication can be expected to grow more rapidly than a similar firm that does not.

Romijn (2001) and Yusuf *et al.* (2003) point out that low technological capabilities hinder and discourage SMEs from fully reaching their potential. As noted by Wendel (2012), countries with high levels of technological growth tend to have high levels of entrepreneurial growth. In a study conducted by Anga (2014) on the determinants of Small and Medium Size Enterprises (SMEs) in Nigeria, it was revealed that information communication technology (ICT) has a positive relationship with the performance of SMEs. Moreover, in the mainstream of modern culture, technology is considered to be one of the answers to most problems and/or restrictions in business. It is seen as the way that a business can emerge from the past and enter a brighter, more efficient future (Njanja *et al.*, 2012).

The use of technology in some form is widespread. The problem for most businesses is that they have not fully integrated the technology that they have or are trying to obtain with their business (McNamara, 2005). They "tend to be tactical, not strategic, in their technology adaptation" (Harney, 2005). The competitive advantages that certain technologies bring to existence are very important, especially where there is a highly aggressive industry. Small businesses look for new ways that will help them achieve these distinctions. Capitalizing on these technologies would help spur MSMEs forward (Njanja *et al.*, 2012). Several technologies have been introduced that will help bring about cost savings for small businesses. Another area that technology is useful for is helping small businesses in keeping track of inventory and the general bookkeeping (Njanja *et al.*, 2012). Inventory control has long been a defining factor in determining the wellness of a business. By being able to know exactly what is coming and going business is better able to plan for the future. Today, businesses can track exactly where their inventory is in real-time. That ability helps them to identify key areas that could be improved or changed to limit the time between processes or transactions (Berger, 2005).

Hurley and Knight (2013) conducted a study on the relationship between learning orientation, firm innovation, and firm performance in US firms. They found out that learning orientation is significant for innovation and performance. Ottenbacher (2005), considered innovation practices and its effects on the performance of SMEs in Australians with an investigation of 600 firms in the manufacturing sector, the

study results showed that innovation strategy is a key driver to performance of SMEs, which do not appear to implement innovation culture in a strategic and structured manner, the study concluded that SMEs performance is likely to improve as they increase the degree to which they realized that innovation culture and strategy are closely aligned throughout the innovation process.

Industrial Environment and Financial Performance

Industrial factors are general factors that can be found in the task environment which surround a business entity (Adu, 2016). The theory of economics characterizes an industry as a gathering of firms creating the same product or administrations. From a strategic management point of view, managers of SMEs must appreciate the five forces in the industry since the five or competitive forces will have an impact on the profitability of SMEs, (Johnson *et al.*, 2008). The competitive forces framework was designed by Professor Micheal E. Porter of Harvard Business School in the late 1970s, (Dalken 2014). It was built on the statement that the external environment is a significant influence in strategic development, (Mathooko & Ogutu, 2015). The five forces are; competitive rivalry, threats of substitutes product, the threat of new entrants, negotiating power of buyers, and negotiating power of suppliers.

Contention among contending firms is typically the most effective of the five competitive forces of the industrial environment (David, 2011). Competitive rivalry occurs when organizations with the same products and services aimed at the same customer target. According to Porter, rivalry arises when one or more business contenders are in a grasp or see an advantage to improve their position. The amount of competition can range from courteous to cruel. Low entry barriers to the business environment lead to competitive rivalry. According to (Johnson *et al.*, 2008) factors that lead to competitive rivalry include; competitor balance where competitors are equal size, high exist barrier, low differentiation, and high fixed cost. SMEs that succeed in competition rivalry increase market share. On one hand, SMEs that fail in competitive rivalry cannot make enough profit (Adu, 2016).

Bargaining Power of Buyers is another element of the industrial environment according to Porter (1970). According to Pearce & Robinson (2003), buyers can compel down prices, request high quality or more service, and influence competitors to fight against each other all at the expense of industry profit. Buyers are the organization's immediate customers not necessarily the ultimate consumer. If the bargaining power of buyers is high, it can affect the profitability of a sector and vice versa. Buyer's powers can be high if they can reasonably switch to challenging brands or substitutes, if they are principally significant to the seller, if buyers are concentrated or if they purchase in large volume or poses a threat of backward integration. When customers are many or buy in bulk, their negotiation power represents a major force affecting the power of competition in an industry (David, 2011).

Barriers to entry are components of the industrial environment that should be overcome by new entrants if they are to contend effectively, (Dzisi *et al.*, 2013). High barriers to entry are good for existing firms. If barriers to entry are high, then the sector is profitable. This is because competitors will find it difficult to enter the industry. However, if there is a low barrier to entry for new entrant then it can affect the profitability of a firm. In terms of numerous barriers to entry, new business entities sometimes enter industries with higher-quality products, lower prices, and substantial marketing resources (David, 2011).

According to Pearce & Robinson (2003), powerful suppliers can crush gainfulness out of an industry. Suppliers supply the association with what is essential to produce the product or service. The supply control is likely to be high when there are few suppliers, high exchanging cost, one of a kind items, supplier rivalry danger, and others. The high negotiating powers of suppliers affect the profitability of the industry. On the other hand, low negotiating powers of suppliers improve the profitability of the industry. The negotiation powers of suppliers influence the power of rivalry in an industry, especially when there are concentrated suppliers, when there are only a few good substitute raw materials, or when the cost of exchanging raw material is especially costly. Firms sometimes pursue a backward integration strategy to gain control or ownership of suppliers. However, in many industries, it is more economical to use outside suppliers or parts than to self-manufactured the items (David, 2011).

Threats of substitutes are another component of the industrial environment**.** Substitutes are products or services that offer similar benefits to an industry's product or services. Substitute products or services

can affect the profitability of a firm (Adu, 2016). This is because, when customers are dissatisfied, they can switch to other substitute products. On the other hand, if there are no substitutes, products, or service customers will find it difficult to switch to other product and this will increase the profit of a firm (Johnson et al., 2008). Factors that can lead to threats of substitutes include a new product or service equivalent, a new product replacing and existing product, consumer substitution that is when the consumer is willing to search for substitute products and others (Adu, 2016).

Research Methodology

In this study, a correlational analysis was adopted to operationalize the objectives of the study. This was selected because the researcher seeks to establish whether there is any statistically significant relationship between elements of the external business environment and financial performance. This is based on Oso and Onen (2008) who observed that a correlational design involves the determination of whether or not, and to what extent an association exists between two or more paired and quantifiable variables. Multiple regression was carried out to determine the variance in financial performance as explained by the external business environment. The study population managers or their representatives of the randomly selected SMEs. An SME for this case is a business that employs a minimum of five (5) people and a maximum of 100 people; and an annual sales/revenue turnover of at least Ugandan Shillings 360 million (UIA, 2016). A sample of 103 respondents was randomly selected from a total population of 138 businesses (Krejcie & Morgan 1970).

Results and Discussions

Primary data was collected from the respondents through closed-ended self-administered questionnaires. The data collected was entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Scientists (SPSS) software to be analyzed. Pearson's correlation analysis was conducted and the results are shown in Table 1.

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 1: Correlation analysis results

Variables	1	2	3	4	5
Economic Environ (1)	1	.			
Regulatory Environ (2)	.524**	1			
Technological Environ (3)	.298**	.360**	1		
Industrial Environment (4)	.382**	.445**	????	1	.
Financial Performance of (5)	**.690****	**.582****	**.501****	**.406****	**1**

Source: Primary Data 2018

Relation Judgment Criteria:

0.01-0.29= Weak; 0.30-0.49 = Medium/Moderate; and 0.50-1.00 = Strong: ***Cohen's (1988)***

That there was a strong and statistically significant positive relationship between economic environment and financial performance ($r = 0.690$, $p < 0.05$, $N = 103$); there was a strong and statistically significant positive relationship between the regulatory environment and financial performance ($r = 0.582$, $p < 0.05$, $N = 103$); there is a strong and statistically significant positive relationship between technological environment and financial performance ($r = 0.501$, $p < 0.05$, $N = 103$); and there was a moderate but statistically significant positive relationship between the industrial environment and financial performance ($r = 0.406$, $p < 0.05$, $N = 103$).

Multiple Regression Model

To examine the variance explained in the financial performance as explained by the external business environment based on the dimension, the model was specified as follows:

$$P1 = \beta 0 + \beta 1E + \beta 2R + \beta 3T + \beta 4I + ę$$

Where: P1 represents financial performance, β0 = Constant Term, β1 – 4 represents Beta coefficients, E represents the economic environment, R represents the regulatory environment, T represents the technological environment, I represent the industrial environment and ę represents the error term.

Table 2: Multiple Regression Model Summary

					Change Statistics				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.784[a]	.615	.599	.41802	.615	39.075	4	98	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Industrial Environment, Technological Environment, Economic Environment, Regulatory Environment

The model summary indicates that there is a strong relationship between the external business environment and financial performance. Furthermore, regarding the question of what variance of financial performance is explained by the external environment, it is found that the external environment explains quite a big variance in the dependent variable, i.e. about 60% (adjusted R-Square 0.599). If this is what external business environment can explain, it means business management has got to values factoring external environmental factors in their decision making.

Conclusions

From the study results, it is clear that at least based on the dimensions of external business averment examined, there is a need to pay attention to the external business environment. As factors uncontrollable by the business, firm management needs to monitor the scene of the external business environment to consider how to adapt and adopt them in decision making. It is further emphasized that the external environment alone explains more than 50% of what influences financial performance in the business. This highlight does not call for second thought as to what implication the external business environment can be to a business.

Recommendations

The study findings revealed that a favourable economic environment can lead to a significant improvement in the financial performance of SMEs in the Arua Municipality. Efforts should, therefore, be geared towards creating a favourable economic environment in Arua Municipality by among others formulating fiscal and monetary policies that can facilitate growth and development of SMEs like regulating the interest rates charged by financial institutions to increase demand for loans which is the major source of capital for many SMEs. Alternatively, the government can also provide simple and affordable credit facilities to SMEs through microfinance institutions and at the same time offer other incentives like tax holidays and free land. These would not only increase the number of SMEs but would also lead to the meaningful economic and social development of the country.

The study findings revealed that a favourable regulatory environment can lead to a significant improvement in the financial performance of SMEs in the Arua Municipality. Efforts should, therefore, be geared towards creating a favourable regulatory environment in Arua Municipality by among others simplifying the licensing procedures and registration of SMEs and reducing the number of rates and coverage. The local taxes and licenses should also be harmonized with central government tax bases, to avoid double taxation and conflicts with national development policies, such as job creation and private sector development. Additionally, all the regulatory procedures used by the municipal council ought to

be transparent, easy to comply, and accessible to all people regardless of their connections with the government.

The study findings revealed that a favourable technological environment can lead to a significant improvement in the financial performance of SMEs in the Arua Municipality. SME managers, therefore, ought to embrace the ever-changing technological environment by among others embracing the use of the internet including social media platforms and opening up company websites. Using these platforms, SMEs can collect and share information, identify target consumers, and better introduce products or services to meet consumers' needs. Using the platforms, SMEs can also collect information on new products desired by small segments of the market. By creating products that meet the needs of consumers in these niche markets, SMEs can command higher prices and gain a competitive advantage. Additionally, SMEs management should always allocate funds for research into the best methods of production since they reduce cost, and or allow for the creation of improved products or even completely new products.

The study findings revealed that a favourable industrial environment can lead to a significant improvement in the financial performance of SMEs in the Arua Municipality. Among others, SME managers need to respond to the ever-changing business environment by focusing on the provision of products and services that are responsive to the needs of their clients. These SMEs should also try to get customers to buy more frequently by adding value to products and services or get customers to spend more by offering premium products or services that better meet their needs and provide a better return. The SMEs should also consider offering incentives and price promotions on services that customers usually get from competitors. This way, they can keep low the severity of threats by new entrants. Arua Municipal authorities should also strengthen their fight against counterfeits products that are likely to bring about unhealthier competition among SMEs in this area.

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Hajj Management Tradition in Nigeria, 1958 - 2006

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Abstract
Hajj, the Muslim pilgrimage to Mecca and Medina and other Holy places in Saudi Arabia for spiritual rejuvenation, has been an enduring tradition in Nigeria. In spite of the injunction that Muslim faithful are to perform the Hajj at least once in a lifetime, most Africans and indeed Nigerians choose to perform the Hajj as many times as they can. Nigerian Government is actively involved in Hajj administration and management both at the national and the state levels. Various bodies; pilgrims welfare boards, have been created in 1958, 1975, and 1989 and finally in 2006 to ensure the smooth operations of Hajj. Using library, archival search and structured interviews, this paper examines the institutionalization of Hajj and its management tradition in Nigeria up to the establishment of the National Hajj Commission in 2006 taking off in 2007. The paper describes the evolution of Hajj management tradition, identifies some of the factors that had hindered Hajj operations and efforts to address them, impacts of operational challenges in Nigeria's international image and finally attempts to illuminate the challenges to be faced by the 'New' Commission to meet expectations for operational improvement.

Keywords: Hajj Pilgrimage, Management Tradition, Pilgrims' Welfare, Destitute Pilgrims, Hajj Management, Challenges.

Introduction

As elsewhere in the world, Hajj has evolved as a social barometer in Nigeria. Even when they knew that he/she had not made the Hajj, non-Muslims in Nigeria generally refer to a devout Muslim as an Alhaji or Alhaja, a tacit acknowledgement of the person having reached the peak of faith, so to speak. Hajj has also become a status symbol; it is used as a title for the affluent, even if assumed. Hajj exercise has gone on in Nigeria for more than nine hundred years (HAMON: 2004) as pre-colonial, colonial and post-colonial administrations of Hajj roll into one. The high and the low, the old and the young and the rich and the poor perform Hajj in Nigeria. Until very recently (late 1970s), the Hajj season has evoked festivity, nostalgia and expectations. The returning pilgrim was often met with fanfare. The most profound effect of Hajj as a social barometer is how it reflects on the image of the country and its reputation as a state (HAMON: 2004). Every year the Hajj exposes the country to the world by the way it has been managed vis-à-vis the global Hajj operations. Moreover, the behaviour of Nigerian pilgrims, itself, largely a by-product of the way and manner the Hajj is operated, reflected the image of the country. Historically, Hajj is one of Nigeria's earliest institutions. Whole communities were often Islamized when the monarch got converted to Islam (Smith: 1987). As Kings and Sultans performed the Hajj so frequently ((Mai Dunama, c. 1098-1150, Mai Ali b. Umar (1656, 1667), Emir Muhammad Sanusi of Kano (1937)), Hajj has come to be an institutionalized state duty. Since ordinary pilgrims partook {and still partake} in it on a large scale, it is a widely recognized customary practice. The colonial government came to meet it as a social function, recognized it so and did not interfere with peoples' acceptance of this religious duty. According to Bullard (1924), pilgrims would rather suffer in silence than complain to the (colonial) Agency about the hardships or wrongs they suffer during the pilgrimage. Reminiscent of the royal pilgrimages of the pre-colonial period were the annual pilgrimages of the Sardauna of Sokoto (Bello: 1962) who normally traveled in large entourage of dignitaries (Paden: 1986).

It has also become a tradition with various Muslim organizations throughout Nigeria to be preoccupied with Hajj matters. The Jama'at Nasril–Islam (JNI), founded in 1962 came to monitor, in collaboration with the Advisory Committee on Islamic Affairs, the conditions under which pilgrimage should be performed (Paden: 1986). The Zumratul Hujjaj formed in 1961 was very prominent in the Western Region. This Organization aims at educating the Muslims who are willing to perform pilgrimage, and to discourage unbecoming behaviours among pilgrims. Many Muslim Organizations are today concerned with Hajj. Nasrullah al-Fath Society of Nigeria (NASFAT) organizes its own Hajj operation. Ansar-Ud-Deen Society (founded in 1923), one of the oldest Muslim Organizations in Nigeria, also organizes Hajj operation. There are a few other non-organizational concerns which have gone into the "hajj business", such as '*Qiblah*', '*Al-Hujjaj*' and "*Focal Point".*

Nigerian Hajj Administration and Tradition

The annual Hajj pilgrimage is a global phenomenon; the complex nature of its operation cannot be overemphasized. Its management involves catering for the pilgrims' traveling needs, documentation, transportation, accommodation, health and general welfare. Many of the pilgrims are going on Hajj and perhaps traveling out of the country for the first time. Going for a rigorous spiritual matter, and in a more or less different society, the pilgrims need special attention. Significantly, Hajj became an important annual ritual in the states of West Africa with large Muslim populations such as ancient Bornu, Hausa (Habe) states as well as in the Sokoto Sultanate. The colonial administration in Nigeria, which was heir to the culture of Hajj among the people and official commitment on the part of their rulers, had reason to pay particular attention to Hajj as an important factor of Nigeria's diplomacy. It feared that Hajj would expose Nigerians to anti-colonial sentiments in the Middle East; hence it sought to monitor and control the movement of pilgrims to and from Saudi Arabia.

Nigerian government's involvement in the organization and management of pilgrimage started somehow in early 1953, when Alhaji Abubakar Imam, a member of the House of Representatives "tabled a motion for the establishment of a "Nigeria Office" in Jeddah to cater for the welfare of Nigerian pilgrims going to Saudi Arabia every year" (Imam, 1989; Bugaje, 1999). The motion adopted; Imam made the year's pilgrimage after which he submitted a report that was well received (Imam: 1989). His recommendations were also all implemented at the instance of Alhaji Sir, Ahmadu Bello, the Sardauna of Sokoto and the first Premier of Northern Nigeria (Bugaje: 1999). The Northern Nigeria Pilgrims Licensing Board was established in April 1958, to authorize and regularize the number of travel agencies and pilgrims' agents for the purpose of organizing and guiding pilgrims for hajj operation. In the same vein the Western Region's Pilgrims' Welfare Board was set up by law in 1958 for the same purpose. Travels and pilgrims agents operated in collaboration with these Boards; they helped the Boards to process prospective pilgrims, collected fees on behalf of the Boards and assisted the pilgrims in the rites of Hajj.

The Pilgrims Boards proliferated as states were created in 1967 with each State creating its own Board. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MFA) had a section – Office of Pilgrims Affairs –, which was devoted to the coordination of the States' Boards. There was no uniformity in the operations of the Boards in the States with worsened Pilgrims' conditions in the holy land; many were sleeping outside and some died. The problem persisted partly because the pilgrims' agents still served unofficially as middlemen even to the Nigerian Pilgrims Commission, another nomenclature for the Department of Pilgrims Affairs, MFA, after it was established in 1971. By now, Nigerian pilgrims had gained notoriety in Saudi Arabia. Their behaviour and that of the agents had become an embarrassment to Nigeria.

In 1971, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs organized a meeting of the stakeholders in Hajj matters; Islamic scholars, representatives of the MFA, the Customs and other relevant ministries, to consider the myriad of problems confronting the Hajj operations. The meeting resolved that the number of persons going on pilgrimage should be restricted, specifying some criteria to follow in order to ensure this (Oloso: 1984). It was against this background that the Federal Military Government established the Nigerian Pilgrims Board in 1975. Significantly, Hajj practice in Nigeria lost the Sardauna's unique leadership and concern it had hitherto enjoyed after his assassination during the January 15, 1966 Coup d'état. It was a boom period for private agents; pilgrims' welfare was neglected, fraud and inefficiency kept growing unchallenged just as there was a rapid increase in the volume of pilgrims. It was in response to this situation that the Nigerian government, in 1975, abolished the private agents and established the Nigerian Pilgrims Board by Decree No. 16 on 16 May 1975 with the sole power to organize the pilgrimage. Today, Hajj with its operations and management has become the single most important item in Nigeria-Saudi Arabia relations.

Nigeria and Saudi Arabia co-operate on many important issues e.g. oil and security, they are both members of international organizations (UNO, OIC, NAM) and are actively involved in South-South Cooperation and international peace and security. Yet, the annual pilgrimage continues to be the core issue in Nigeria - Saudi Arabia relations. No bilateral trade agreement treaty has been signed between them even though there is much informal trade going on – in gold, food items, Mecca wears, prayer accessories etc. – between them, the bulk of these trading activities are associated with the Hajj and

indeed revolve around the annual Hajj pilgrimage and the all year round '*Umrah* (lesser Hajj) (Oluwatoki: 2016). Hajj operations and its management with the attendant problems therein raise other issues particularly consular matters and the problems of accommodation in Saudi Arabia. Other critical issues include the health of intending pilgrims, meeting of the deadline fixed by the Saudi authorities for effective management of the entire pilgrimage and the early post-Hajj evacuation of Nigerian pilgrims. More importantly, Hajj involves much diplomatic activities between Nigeria and Saudi Arabia. Nigerian Ministers, diplomats and special envoys (most often officials of the Nigerian Pilgrims Board/Commission) pay visits to Saudi Arabia for talks on pilgrimage, seeking clarification on regulations, asking for concession over deadlines or protesting restrictions, as the case may be on Hajj matters. In the same vein, Saudi Arabia has had to intervene in airlifting stranded Nigerian pilgrims, ban Nigerians from participating in Hajj because of the outbreak of epidemic diseases – cholera and cerebro-spinal meningitis (CSM) –, or threaten to cut down on allowable number of Nigerian pilgrims if Nigeria will fail to repatriate its destitute nationals who have stayed on illegally in Saudi Arabia years after performing the pilgrimage.

Saudi Arabia has always magnanimously accommodated Nigeria whenever its operations fall short of the high and tight global operations. According to Hujjaj Baghini, Saudi Minister for Hajj (2003), there are two Ministries of Hajj in his country; one for Nigeria, one for the rest of the world (Opeloyeru, Personal Communication: 19/3/03). The new Hajj law (2006) and the Commission (2007) were two drastic measures Nigeria had to take to tackle the myriad of problems of Hajj operations in Nigeria. It was a long journey to get to the turning point (Oluwatoki, 2011). Saudi Arabia has put in place an elaborate Hajj operation that makes the pilgrimage less stressful at enormous costs. The stress of Hajj remains nonetheless and understandably so (Oluwatoki: 2018). Saudi Arabia has been playing host (since 1992) to a minimum of two million pilgrims (WAB: 2004), a great increase from the hundreds of thousands of the years up to the 1960s (Aramco World: 1992). The number of pilgrims that make the annual Hajj has passed three million since the turn of the first decade of the 21st Century (Oluwatoki, 2018).

Growth of Hajj Traffic from Nigeria to Saudi Arabia

In eleven years (1968-1978), 580,000 Nigerians performed the Hajj. In twenty-seven years (1979-2006), 1,073,728 Nigerians had performed the Hajj (OPA, 2003; Newspaper reports; Hajj News, 1(1) May, 2006; *The Guardian*, Editorial: Jan. 20, 2006). In thirty-eight years (1968-2006), 1,653,728 Nigerians had performed the Hajj. This number averages about 43,520 (actually 43,519.158) pilgrims per year reaching an all-time peak of 105,000 in 1977 and an all-time low of 5,417 for 1996. 100,000 Nigerians performed the 2007 Hajj; 85,000 Government pilgrims, 15,000 so-called international pilgrims (*The Punch*, December 4, 2007; December 17, 2007). It has not been easy to get the figures of Nigerians who have performed the Hajj from 1958 to 1967. In the early 1960s and indeed up to 1975, Hajj operations were mainly by Pilgrims Agents licensed by the Regional Pilgrims' Welfare Boards. The Nigerian Pilgrims Board was established only in 1975. Hajj operations in the early years were largely in the hands of the Agents; the Boards were at their mercy. Apart from the chaos characteristic of the Hajj operations of these years and the abuses by the Agents, proper records were not kept. In any case, many pilgrims still traveled by road and accurate figures could not be kept of how many pilgrims left for Saudi Arabia or how many of them came back in a particular year. 1977 was significant because the Hajj operation of that year was an abysmal failure; pilgrims suffered endlessly unnecessarily and many of them died. It was blamed on an uncontrollable number of pilgrims (*Nigerian Tribune*, March 25, 1978; *New Nigerian* Editorial, March 15, 1978). This problem repeated itself in 2003 and 2004.

Three separate reports on the 1977 Hajj operation by the Amirul Hajj for 1977 pilgrimage, a nine man task force set up by the Federal Military Government and Alhaji Lateef Jakande, a journalist, recommended that the Federal Military Government should cut down drastically the number of intending pilgrims to Saudi Arabia (*New Nigerian*, March 10, 1978). Federal and State Government Hajj officials were seriously indicted in these reports. The Government therefore took the unprecedented decision of pegging the number of pilgrims to go for 1978 Hajj at 50,000 (*Nigerian Tribune*, June 1, 1978). The move was made and it was generally hailed hoping that the problems of the past were gone. Skeptics were proved right when pilgrims were stranded on their outbound flight for Hajj 1978. The Obasanjo-led government had to give a two-week ultimatum for the airlifting of the pilgrims with the Chief of Staff

Supreme Headquarters, Brigadier Shehu Musa Yar'adua personally overseeing the rescue operation. Scheduled international flights of the Nigeria Airways were to be cancelled to this effect and Air Force planes had to come to the rescue. (*Daily Times*, October 18, 1978; *New Nigerian*, October 23, 1977; *Nigerian Herald*, October 27, 1978; *Daily Times*, October 22, 1978). In 1979 a ceiling of 50,000 was put on the number of pilgrims for that year.

The sudden upsurge in the number of pilgrims for 1980 (66,370) and 1981 (78,000) was due to the loss of the military fiat of the immediate past years. The civilian regime was in office, and it felt uncomfortable controlling the figures of the hajj. Moreover, party patronage made it difficult to maintain the ceiling on the number of pilgrims. Yet for 1982 and 1983, the pilgrims fell just short of the 50,000 ceiling. This might be due to the general recession in the economy. The Buhari administration pegged the number of pilgrims lower still at 20,000 in 1984. The dwindling economy called for prudence in national spending and the Government was intent on enforcing its domestic "War Against Indiscipline (WAI)" policy even in the Holy Land. The number of pilgrims actually never reached the 20,000 mark until 1991 when 30,000 Nigerians made the Hajj. The Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) was improving things somewhat. In 1990 and 1996, the figures were 9,358 and 5,417 respectively due to outbreak of Cholera and Cerebro-Spinal Meningitis (CSM); the figures fluctuated between 20,000 and 60,000 throughout the 1990s. Two factors stand out as the determinants of the Hajj traffic in Nigeria; the economic condition in the country and government control to prevent what the *Nigerian Herald* in an Editorial, (October 10, 1978) dubbed "Pilgrimage with Tears".

Tables 1, 2 and 3 show the details of Nigerian Pilgrims to Saudi Arabia in thirty-eight years.

Table 1: Number of Nigerians Who Performed Hajj between 1968 and 1978

Year	Total	Percentage Per Year for Eleven Years
1968	26,000	4.48
1969	28,000	4.83
1970	29,000	5.00
1971	30,000	5.17
1972	35,000	6.04
1973	50,000	8.62
1974	70,000	12.07
1975	92,000	15.86
1976	65,000	11.21
1977	105,000	18.10
1978	50,000	8.62
Total	580,000	100%

Source: Oluwatoki Research Survey, 2009; Culled from New Nigerian (Kaduna) March 10, 1978

Table 2: Nigerian Pilgrims per State in 1976/ 77 and 1977 /78

State	Total 1976/77	Total 1977/78	Total 1976/77/78	% Total 1976/77/78
Lagos	5,000	3,450	8,450	5.28%
Oyo	6,000	3,200	9,200	5.75%
Ogun	1,060	1,900	2,960	1.85%
Ondo	500	560	1,060	0.66%
Bendel	500	560	1,060	.0.66%
Kwara	3,500	4,060	7,560	4.72%
Benue	500	963	1,463	0..91%
Niger	2,500	3,100	5,600	3.50%
Bauchi	2,000	4,000	6,000	3.75%
Kano	13,000	25,000	38,000	23.75%
Kaduna	9,000	17,300	26,300	16.43%
Plateau	2,500	4,170	6,670	4.17%
Gongola	2.680	3.350	6.030	3.76%
Sokoto	6,000	7,570	13,570	8.48%
Borno	5,500	6,300	11,800	7.37%
Rivers	2,600	3,065	5,665	3.54%
Imo	20	4,200	4,220	2.64%
Anambra	-	1,000	1,000	0.62%
Cross River	-	603	603	0.38%
Total	65,260	94,801	160,061	100%

Source: Oluwatoki Research Survey, 2009; Culled from New Nigerian (Kaduna) March 10, 1978

Table 3: Number of Nigerian Pilgrims, 1979 – 2006

Year	No. of Pilgrims	Change from Previous Year	Percentage per Year for 26 years
1979	50,580	580	5.19
1980	66,370	15,790	6.81
1981	78,000	11,630	8.01
1982	49,849	-28,151	5.12
1983	49,390	-459	5.07
1984	19,503	-29,887	2.00
1985	19,470	-33	2.00
1986	19,468	-2	2.00
1987	19,468	0	2.00
1988	17,552	-1,916	1.80
1989	17,936	384	1.84
1990	9,358	-8.578	0.96
1991	30,000	20,642	3.08
1992	20,108	-9,892	2.06
1993	30,652	10,544	3.15
1994	54,889	24,237	5.63
1995	56,485	1,596	5.80
1996	5,417	-51,068	0.56
1997	24,193	18,776	2.48
1998	18,371	-5,822	1.89
1999	20,556	2,185	2.11
2000	48,188	27,632	4.95
2001	54,816	6,628	5.63
2002	63,484	8,668	6.52
2003	65,000	1,516	6.67
2004	65,000	0	6.67
2005	51,625	3,375	5.03
2006	48,000	3,625	4.47
Total	1,073,728		100%

Sources: Office of Pilgrims Affairs, Abuja, Nigerian Hajj Information Services www.nigeriahajj.org and the Press. **Note**: The Press has largely given higher figures than what the OPA publishes for each year. We have relied largely more on OPA numbers because they are more comprehensive.

The Government is solely responsible for Hajj operations in Saudi Arabia. In the same vein the Nigerian Government is statutorily involved in Hajj operations in Nigeria (NPCD, 1989). In fact, the government had managed the Hajj operations through an extra-Ministerial body, Office of Pilgrims' Affairs (OPA) that was solely responsible for Hajj until the establishment of the National Hajj Commission of Nigeria (NAHCON) in 2007. Going on Hajj has become a national social event in Nigeria. Nigerian pilgrims either failed to turn up to be airlifted at scheduled time or the airlines were not punctual for either or both outbound and inbound airlifts, hence, the Hajj season became a season of anxiety and embarrassment for Nigerians. Because of poor management of the Hajj and health concerns, the Saudi authorities have had to apply some sanctions on Nigeria for which the Nigerian media accused the Saudis of diplomatic sacrilege (*Daily Time*: April 29, 1996, Editorial).

Nigeria stood out notoriously as the only country that airlifted its pilgrims behind schedules. It became almost an annual ritual that Nigeria had to plead, sometimes at Presidential level for the re-opening of Jeddah airport to it. It happened twice in 1971, in 1974, 1975, 1977. In 1978, inadequate provision of aircraft hampered the in-bound flight schedules (*New Nigerian*, November 20, 1978, p. 1). The outbound journey itself took the personal intervention of the Head of State, General Obasanjo to get it accomplished. Meanwhile, this was the year in which the number of pilgrims was halved (50,000) from the previous year's number to ensure smooth operations (*Daily Times*: October 24, 1978). Delay in the issue of visas was also part of the problems for the year (*New Nigerian*: October 30, 1978). It happened also in 1981 due to delay in the issue of visa and consequently foreign exchange problems (*New Nigerian*: September 8, 1981). In 1982, in-bound airlift of pilgrims was complicated for the national carrier, Nigeria Airways, as it had to cater for the return journey of 31,000 international pilgrims in addition to the 50,000 officially approved by the Federal Government. It was ill prepared for this extra responsibility (*The Punch*: October 9, (1982). According to Babatunde (*New Nigerian*: October 23, 1982), "Nigeria came third in terms of number of pilgrims; we were number one in length of queues at the airport counters". These tormenting and frustrating queues, in his opinion, killed any morale left in pilgrims and sent them into angry demonstrations and mobbing of officials.

In 1992 and then in 1994, the same problem still resurfaced. A week after pilgrims had all left Saudi Arabia; more than 30,000 Nigerian pilgrims (out of the official 38,000) were still stranded at the Jeddah airport (*The Guardian*, July 17, 1992). Shortage of aircraft, shoddy arrangements and bureaucracy and above all, excess luggage was blamed for "the ugly spectacle of thousands of Nigerians huddled at the Jeddah airports", as *The Guardian* put it. Yet, there had been times when flights were delayed as aircrafts were waiting for intending pilgrims who failed to turn out. This happened during Hajj 1982 when Nigeria Airways lost ₦80, 000 daily for such flights not made (*New Nigerian*: September 4, 1982). This seemingly intractable problem entered the 21st century with Nigeria even with more intensity. Nigerian pilgrims were stranded in Saudi Arabia after Hajj in 2000 for more than two weeks (*National Concord*, March 3, 2001). This came after the trauma, which many of them went through before their outbound journey. The inability of the official airlines, Trans Air and Kabo to airlift the pilgrims back home at the end of the pilgrimage forced the pilgrims who ran out of cash to sell their properties – electronics, jewelries, house-hold equipment and gift items – to feed (*National Concord*, March 3, 2000). As reports mounted that stranded pilgrims were sleeping in the open field, contending with the biting weather, the Lagos State Government had to hire a foreign airline at a cost of ₦11.6 million (₤116, 000) to evacuate the 700 stranded pilgrims from the State (*The Guardian*, April 5, 2000). The State doubted the capability of Kabo Air, which was the approved official airline for the year's Hajj. It asked for the decentralization of Hajj operations. Such calls had also been made in 1978 after the year's abysmal Hajj operation. In the event, Saudi Arabian government decided "to assist the stranded Nigerian pilgrims to bring them home" (*Vanguard*, April 5, 2000). This humanitarian gesture on the part of the Saudis was apparently meant to remove the embarrassment from its shores.

Ta**ble 4: Crises Years in the Management of Hajj Operations, 1980-2006**

YEAR	NATURE OF THE CRISIS	REMARKS
1981	Pilgrims stranded in Nigeria. On inward journey pilgrims stranded in Saudi Arabia.	Bureaucratic bottleneck; delay in issuing of visas and unavailability of foreign exchange.
1982	On outbound journey aircrafts were delayed waiting for intending pilgrims who failed to turn out. Pilgrims stranded at Jeddah and Kano International airports respectively.	Pilgrims registered with private agents complicated flight schedules.
1984	Pilgrims' luggages damaged	Pilgrims protest.
1992	30,000 pilgrims stranded in Saudi Arabia (Abandoned)	Shortage of aircraft, shoddy arrangement, bureaucracy.
1994	Pilgrims stranded at Jeddah airport	Shortage of aircraft.
1996	Outbreak of Cerebro-Spinal Meningitis	Many did not make Hajj. Saudi authorities quarantined Nigerians.
2000	Pilgrims stranded in Jeddah after Hajj. Pilgrims stranded on outbound flight.	Death, pilgrims sold their goods
2001	Pilgrims abandoned in Saudi Arabia after Hajj	Irate pilgrims beat up Hajj officials
2002	Stranded pilgrims on outbound journey	2,950 pilgrims affected
2003	Stranded pilgrims on outbound journey	3,5000 pilgrims affected
2004	Stranded pilgrims on outbound journey	4,100 pilgrims affected
2005	Stranded pilgrims on out bound journey	Thousands of pilgrims affected.
2006	Failure to airlift pilgrims on out bound journey. A few pilgrims stranded in inbound journey	10,500 pilgrims did not make Hajj. 4000 pilgrims stranded at Jeddah airport after Hajj.

Source: Oluwatoki Research Survey, 2009

In any case, Saudi Arabian government considered blacklisting two Nigerian airlines from the airlift of 2001 pilgrims. Saudi authorities wrote the Nigerian Government banning two of the airlines for poor performance in recent Hajj operations. They frowned at the way and manner the airlines abandoned pilgrims and their luggage in Saudi Arabia after Hajj 2000 (*New Nigerian*: December 12, 2000). Yet, pilgrims were stranded in Saudi Arabia after Hajj 2001 with irate pilgrims beating up Hajj officials and holding them hostage (*Daily Times*, March 21, 2001). And yet, thousands of intending pilgrims were stranded in 2004 with delays of their outbound flights across the country. Historically, airlift of pilgrims is the bane of Nigeria's Hajj operation. The worst case perhaps was Hajj 2006 when 18.14 % of Nigerian pilgrims, (i.e. 10,500 out of the 57,870 pilgrims) could not make the Hajj due to the failure of the airlines to lift pilgrims for the outbound journeys (*The Guardian*, (Editorial), January 20, 2006).

Another contending area is internal transportation of pilgrims inside Saudi Arabia; Jeddah—Medina, Medina–Mecca, Mecca—Muna, Muna—'Arafat—Muzdalifa, Muna—Mecca, Jeddah—Mecca, Mecca—Medina etc. Pilgrims and Officials (Personal communication) were of the opinion that, almost as a rule, pilgrims wait at the International Pilgrims' Camp (Jeddah) for upward of ten hours before they could take off for Mecca or Medina. Pilgrims often had to wait for hours in boarded buses due, most of the time, to 'missing' or 'misplaced' pilgrims' passports. Many of the drivers chain-smoke and there are cases of communication breakdown due partly to mutual non-intelligibility between drivers and pilgrims and especially as pilgrims fail to reason with the drivers on instructions. Sometimes the non-Saudi bus drivers missed their ways with the pilgrims getting anxious. Pilgrims often could not draw the line between what problems were due to Nigerian officials' ineptness or bottlenecks that are Saudi Arabian

in origin. As the most important factor in the Nigeria – Saudi Arabia relations, the successful operation of Hajj enhances these relations and earns Nigeria more respect in its relations with Saudi Arabia. It is understandable that hitches in Hajj operation are veritable sources of strain in relations between the two states.

Many factors account for the legendary problem of airlifting the pilgrims in Nigeria. First, sometimes a contracted airline company does not have aircraft. It goes to contract another airline, sometimes one of the airlines already contracted. This causes confusion and delays. Second, as Opeloyeru (Personal communication, 18/3/03) explains, many pilgrims from Kano, Lagos and Maiduguri – the large pilgrims' centers – are traders and therefore always have excess luggage. Third, sometimes, pilgrims are not available to board at the appropriate time. These VIP pilgrims appear last to be airlifted on the outbound trip, but they want to be the first to be airlifted for the inbound journey. All these disrupt arrangements and cause enormous chaos. Hajj 2006 was the worst in the history of Hajj operations in Nigeria. At the last count more than 10,000 intending pilgrims could not make the Hajj. Equally disappointed were other thousands of pilgrims who registered with registered tour operators. Ironically, it was perhaps the most well-planned Hajj so far too. To Prof. Gwandu, Chairman, Technical Hajj Committee (THC), what happened was simply an act of God (Hajj News: May 2006). Perhaps their best was simply not good enough. But the DPA did meticulously search for airlines, screened them, involved the States' Boards in the whole process and got approval for them from Saudi authorities and there was no cause for alarm (Senator Mantu, 2006 Amir al-Hajj, *The Guardian:* Dec. 15 2005). In the event, none of the three carriers had enough aircrafts available as agreed and as at when due. The air crashes that happened around that time, involving Belview and Sosoliso airlines put the Aviation Ministry on edge and the Nigerian Civil Aviation Authority (NCAA) was uncompromising. Saudi authorities also insisted on the installation of a safety devise, Enhanced Ground Proximity Warning System (EGPWS). All these complicated the airlifting process. But all said, thousands of Nigerian pilgrims were stranded and traumatized. The 36-hour extension which President Obasanjo got from the Saudi authorities by which aircrafts carrying Nigerian pilgrims could land till 8.00am Saudi time, on Friday January 6, 2006 did not help the situation (*The Guardian*: January 11, 2006).

Many people called for the decentralization of the Hajj operations (Governor Modu Sheriff of Borno State) and that states should airlift their pilgrims (Governor Tinubu of Lagos State) (*The Guardian*: January 11, 2000; *The Guardian*, January 5 2006). The two governors intervened massively and got the many pilgrims in their respective states all and timely airlifted to Saudi Arabia. To cap it all, at the end of the Hajj exercise, 4000 Nigerian pilgrims were still stranded at the Jeddah airport (*The Guardian*: January 23, 2006). *The Guardian* (January 20, 2006) in its editorial, "The Hajj embarrassment" called for an investigation and decried the governments' involvement at all levels in the Hajj operations - "…governments' duties in pilgrimages should be limited to provision of consular and logistic support", it decried! In this respect, the details of individual pilgrim's journey, accommodation and funding should not be government's business. Three strands can be identified in the myriad of reactions to the failure of Hajj 2006. There are those who call for investigation into the incident to prevent future occurrences. Those found guilty of corruption and/or incompetence must be punished. There are those who want the *status quo* maintained. Reforms however are necessary; decentralization of Hajj operations, thus allowing the states to airlift their pilgrims. There are those who want the Government to hand off Hajj matters entirely. *The Guardian* Editorial is in this category. It was in response to these calls that the Senate passed the Nigerian Hajj Commission Bill, 2006 into law with the Commission taking off effectively in 2007. The bill repealed the Nigerian Pilgrims Act of 1989. There is a moral factor to all of this. Positive work ethics is paramount in the success of any operation and proffering solution to operational challenges

Hajj Operations, Government Sponsorship and Nigeria's Image

In Nigeria, the government at Federal, State and Local levels sponsors several people to Hajj every year. The list of sponsored pilgrims is long. It includes civil servants, party men and women, cronies, relations and friends of top government officials. Apart from Government subsidy of Hajj in various respects (Federal Government spent over ₦1 billion on the subsidization of the pilgrims accommodation, Hajj fares and other charges on Hajj 2000, for example (*The Guardian* (Lagos): January 2, 2001), the Hajj entails much diplomatic pressure for the Government. Government sponsorship of pilgrims is an

additional burden, not in the statute book and to a large extent complicating the Hajj operations. It also encourages much corruption on the part of the officials and potential to dent Nigeria's image.

Hajj management involves all aspects of Hajj operations as they relate to implementing Hajj policy. Meanwhile, Hajj operations are the ways by which Hajj administration works – the organization, the arrangement of the parts of Hajj administration that form an effective whole. Hajj management in Nigeria has affected Nigeria's image in Saudi Arabia in various ways. First, it exposes administration challenges facing its managers. Second, the rowdy behaviour of Nigerian pilgrims often caused by frustration, present the people as undignified and undisciplined. Third, the yearly failure of Nigeria to get its Hajj operations to dovetail into the global Hajj operations reflects the enormity of administrative challenges in Nigeria. Hajj is a global event that attracts international media coverage. The misdeeds of states and their nationals are in the glare of international reportage. This is apart from the fact that millions of people are witnesses to form opinions about the state and the people. For Nigeria not to be tagged administrative laggard, something had to be done. This was the essence of the National Hajj Commission established in 2006 and which took off in 2007.

Conclusions

This paper has examined the Hajj management tradition in Nigeria with its attendant challenges, the various factors that affect the annual Hajj operations that necessitated the establishment of the National Hajj Commission that took off in 2007. It describes the passion for Hajj pilgrimage on the part of the people and government involvement in Hajj operations to regulate the annual Hajj traffic to the Holy Land. Hajj has become an established system and a custom in the Nigerian society. With more than nine hundred years of Hajj exercise in Nigeria; the high and the low, the old and the young and the rich and the poor perform Hajj in Nigeria. Aside from its economic, political dimensions, Hajj has spiritual, social, psychological and mental effect on the individual pilgrim and the society. The great effect of Hajj on pilgrims is discernible in the fact of an un-abating zeal of people from all over the world, including Nigeria, heading to and from Hajj and the wish and eagerness to repeat the Hajj, several times after the conditional obligation "once in a life time" has been fulfilled. It is therefore an obligation for Nigeria's government as elsewhere in the world to take its responsibility seriously for the welfare of its nationals on the annual Hajj pilgrimage. This was the reason Nigeria took the bold step in 2006 to remedy the situation with the establishment of the National Hajj Commission. After two decades, i.e. by 2027, a scorecard to ensure that the necessary improvement in Hajj management has been achieved for the Commission would be due. Safeguarding the Hajj, as Bianchi (2004) put it, is imperative as part of humanity's common heritage.

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Impact of Cashless Policy on Organizational Performance in National Control Center Osogbo, Osun State, Nigeria

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Abstract
This study investigated the Impact of cashless policy on organizational performance: A case study of National Control Center, Osogbo. This study adopted the survey research design. A total of 100 respondents were selected for the study using simple random sampling technique. Questionnaire was used to collect primary data. Data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics. Hypotheses were tested through Pearson Product Moment Correlation analysis. The findings revealed that There is a significant relationship between cashless policy and Organizational Performance in National control Centre Osogbo, It is agreed that the cashless system will be helpful in the fight against corruption and money laundering, It was recommended that there is the need to intensify the public enlightenment programme about the cashless system so that everybody will be well acquainted with the system since it will affect everybody. Since there is a high rate of illiteracy, and all people must be brought into the system, the government should design special enlightenment programmes for the non-literates, using probably signs and symbols to educate this segment on how to operate the cashless system (post on sale vis-à-vis mobile phones).

Keywords: Cashless Policy, National Control Center, Organization Performance, Electronic Money, Electronic Banking.

Introduction

A cashless economy is one in which a agreed society is controlled to have the least needed amount of cash in circulation, the rest of which is executed electronically through the use of direct debit, mobile payments, electronic fund transfer, internet banking, multi-functional Automated Teller Machines (ATMs), point of sale stations (POSs), amongst others Oluwabiyi(2018), Nweke (2019). Simply put, a cashless economy involves a prevalent application of various computer technologies in the financial system Okoye & Ezejiofor (2018). The system offers way for goods and services to be bought by individuals without anything tangible being exchanged, using what is known as electronic cash. The word money still exists, but it is more in an electronic procedures form than previously. The benefits of acceptance of cashless economy include reduction in corruption and the cost of services by banks (such as cost of credit), improved operational efficiency, improved financial inclusion, via providing substitutions that aid easy transactions and greater reach, and enhanced efficiency of the monetary policy in managing the level of inflation and driving the growth of the economy Atanda & Alimi (2018). Other aids include increased suitability in transaction; promotion of e-commerce; decrease in circulation of fake currency, theft of cash from individuals, money laundering, and stockpiling of cash in houses by corrupt government officials Lamikanra (2019). Nevertheless, implementing cashless policy postures some risks. Since individual information and data will now reside online, it becomes gradually difficult to control internet hackers and thieves. Other shortcomings are potential increase in cybercrimes, improved sophistication in operation of hackers and scammers, increase in theft of ATM, credit and debit cards, to mention but few Ovat (2017). This emphasizes why a secure national cyberspace is important to the success of cashless policy enactment.

The modern innovation of technology for financial dealings poses interesting questions for policy makers and financial institutions concerning the suitability of current institutional preparations and availability of instruments to guarantee financial steadiness, efficiency, efficiency of monetary policy and achievement of sustainable economic growth in Nigeria. Over the sequence of history, different forms of payment systems have been in presence. Initially, "trade by barter" was mutual. However, the problems of barter such as the dual coincidence of wants required the introduction of various forms of money. Since Nigeria's Independence in 1960, there have been diverse governments, constitutional reforms, change in economic policies and banking increases, mainly directed at improving social welfare and achieving

developmental goals but there has been no considerable positive amendment in Nigeria's Human Development Indicators. This also calls to question the efficiency of the cash-less policy of the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) in some selected states in Nigeria, a particular reference to Osun State. At the end of the 1980s, the use of cash for purchasing ingesting goods in the US has constantly declined (Humphrey, 2004). Hence, most LDCs (Less Developed Countries) like Nigeria are on the shift from a pure cash economy to cash-less one for developmental determinations. Developed countries like US have enjoyed various advantages which has encouraged the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) to agree the cashless policy. At the end of the 1980s the use of cash for acquiring consumption goods in the US has regularly dropped with inflation (Humphrey, 2017). Nigeria's aim to be between the biggest economy by 2020 has driven her to gradually move from a pure cash economy to a cashless policy. Since Nigeria gained her independence in1960, there have been different constitutional reforms, change in economic and banking policies mostly aimed at steadying the economy, improving social welfare and enhancing economic growth and growth. While cash and cheques are still predominant in some parts of the world, electronic payment mechanisms and especially, mobile payments are attainment consumer acceptance in many economics due to the high perception of mobile phone technology (Humphrey, 2017).

In line with the nation's vision 20:20, which is presence among the first 20 economies by year 2020 to allow the development and modernization of the payment system, to accomplish reduction in cost of banking services, develop financial inclusion and efficiency of monetary strategy, the cashless policy was introduced in Nigeria, with a test run in Lagos in 1st January, 2012 (Sunday, 2018). On 6th January 2013, the Central bank of Nigeria (CBN) postponed the spread of the cashless policy from Lagos state to other states. Some of the contributing factors included inadequate POS, ATM, and low level of responsiveness, connectivity, and bandwidth penetration. Other challenges included low ICT penetration and other logistics issues Lamikanra (2019). Organizational performance is anxious with the overall productivity in an organization in terms of stock turnover, consumers, profitability and market share. Performance of an association is one of the major indicators which inform stakeholders in any business that the business is doing well and as a result their investment is protected. Nevertheless, of whether organizations are in the private sector or in the public sector, there is an overall agreement that human resources are critical to keeping organizations active as well as retaining a high level of organizational performance.

Statement of the Problem

The aim of any economy policies (fiscal or monetary policy) is to improve the purchasing power of every individual and the society at large. Before the overview of cashless policy by the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) in 2012, private and government sectors have been characterized with so many issues, ranging from poor handling of physical cash, high usage of cash in doing business which affect the cost of banking operation, leakages, money laundering and other financial related offence due to high cash usage within our various economic sector (private and government). Cashless policy as a method of economic management is to bring about maintainable economic growth and development as presented by the Central bank of Nigeria (CBN) has not been fully operational in the country due to; i) great rate of illiteracy, ii) in-adequate sensitization/education of the assistances of the cashless policy, and iii) in-adequate structure (such as the provision of internet influences in commercial areas, computers and Point on Sale (POS) machines) in some part of the country.

An effective and modern payment system is predictable to reduce the cost of banking services (including cost of credit) and drive financial enclosure by providing more efficient deal options and greater reach and to recover the efficiency of monetary policy in dealing inflation and motivating economic growth. In addition, the cash policy aims to control some of the negative consequences- associated with the high treatment of physical cash in the economy, including: high cost of cash: high risk of using cash, high subsidy, informal economy and inefficiency & corruption (CBN, 2012) Oluwabiyi (2018). Atanda and Alimi (2018), the worth of electronic payment goes way afar the immediate handiness and safety of cards to a greater compass of contributing to overall economic development. Consequently, this is expected to enhance efficient financial intermediation. Undoubtedly the last three decades have witnessed major advancement in payment technologies as Nigeria electronic payment (e-payment) landscape is on a new threshold with banks, switching and transaction companies, vendors of Automated Teller Machine (ATMs), Point of sale (POS) and third-party companies all pushing to expand the choice of market. Thus,

these suggest that the cashless policy is predictable to result in improved and efficient financial intermediation thereby passing about a reduction in cost of banking. Hence, this study observes bank performance and specifically determines whether significant difference exists in bank return on asset, return on equity and pays per share after the acceptance of the cashless policy in Nigeria in 2012 (Ochei 2019).

Indication from the literature expressions that GSM has considerable influence on the economy being a developing communication industry in Africa, with Nigeria valued as one of the fastest growing market in this field of communication. To reach customer loyalty, long-term viability and profitability and consequent success, institutions are insertion increasing emphasis on the customer satisfaction Buhalis (2019). The level to which the use of mobile banking by Nigerian commercial banks customers can recover service delivery in is worth discovering. The influence of mobile banking on the banks service delivery has not been greatly discovered in Nigeria. Few studies in Nigeria focus on mobile & internet banking adoption and more on ATM banking, this is because mobile banking is just gaining wider receiving in Nigeria. Apart from the physical challenges, economic data and indicators are not fully available and reliable. There is a great encounter in attempting to analyze the true influence of the cashless policy on the economy of Nigeria as only little monetary and macro-economic indicators can be found with relation to the subject matter. Numerous scholars have tried to analyze the cashless system or e-banking. However, it becomes clear that few studies present a comprehensive evaluation of cash-less banking implications in developing countries. Most disregard the economic benefits of the equation while some do incomplete examination of its negative implications. This is often due to variable panel data for monetary and macro-economic indicators. Though, this study focuses on Nigeria private sector (National Control Center), it is difficult to translate cashless studies from one country to another. This study then examines the impact of cashless policy on organizational performance in National Control Center Osogbo, Osun State Nigeria.

Objectives of the study

The general objective of this study is to examine the impact of cashless policy on organizational performance. Specifically, the objective of the study is to:

1. Determine if there is relationship between cashless policy and organizational performance in National Control Center in Osogbo, Osun State, Nigeria.
2. Examine the impact of cashless policy on the quality of service provided by National Control Center in Osogbo, Osun State, Nigeria.
3. Determine the impact of cashless policy on money laundering and corruption by National Control Center in Osogbo, Osun State, Nigeria.
4. Analyze the challenges that have hindered the adoption of cashless policy by National Control Center in Osogbo, Osun State, Nigeria.
5. Proffer possible solution to the problem that hindering the effective implementation of cashless policy by National Control Center in Osogbo, Osun State, Nigeria.

Research Questions

Based on the problem identified above, the following research questions were raised:

1. Is there any relationship between cashless policy and organizational performance?
2. To what extent does cashless policy affect the quality of services provided by organizational performance?
3. How does cashless policy impact money launder and corruption?
4. What are the challenges that have hindered the implementation of cashless policy by National control center in Nigeria?

Research Hypotheses

H01: There is a significant relationship between cashless policy and Organizational Performance in National control Centre Osogbo, Osun State, Nigeria.

H_{02}: There is significant impact of cashless policy on money laundering &corruption in National control Centre Osogbo, Osun State, Nigeria.

H_{03}: There is significant impact of challenges of cashless policy on the implementation of cashless policy in National control Centre Osogbo, Osun State, Nigeria.
H04: There is significant impact of Money Laundering and corruption on Organizational Performance in National control Centre Osogbo, Osun State, Nigeria.

Literature Reviews

Conceptual Review

Money is often called as having three functions: a unit of account function, a medium-of-exchange function, and a store-of-value function. In a cashless economy, the third is not functioning and, probably, neither is the second. Cashless economy is a global issue apart from the fact that Nigeria just launched itself into the system. Cashless economy does not mention to an absolute absence of cash transactions in the economic setting but one in which the amount of cash-based relations are kept to the barest minimum (Yaqub, Bello, Adenuga and Ogundeji, 2018). According Adewale (2019) a cashless society correctly illustrates a gradual movement of the whole payment system of an economy from the use of physical cash for all levels of personal, corporate, governmental including local and international commercial payment activities to a systemic acceptance of other non-physical cash mode payment in payments of all types of transaction both in the public and private sectors of an economy. It is an economic system in which transactions are not done mainly in exchange for actual cash (Abimbola, 2017). However, as much as there is the need to change into a society where cash will no longer be dominant in the payment system, proponents of cash money have on the other hand claim that in the developing and the underdeveloped nations physical cash money is still the most convenient means of settlement of transactions as a result of illiteracy, and Nigeria is very guilty in this regard. In a Nation with over 150 Million inhabitants, the advocates of a cashless society in Nigeria claimed that it will aid in the radical reduction in money laundering, terrorist financing and other economic and financial corruptions (Soyemi, Soyemi and Hammed, 2015). Others consider that a cashless society will inspire financial inclusion for most Nigerians since less than 30 per cent of bankable Nigerian adults own bank accounts. A larger ratio of the population rather keeps their money under their mattresses, in their pockets and perhaps in old cooking pots Sunday (2018). Scholars also pronounced that a cashless Nigeria will promote and instrument truthful financial and fiscal strategies that will reduce inflation and encourage stashes Nweze (2015). A cashless society owns the following characteristics; all the money used is delivered by private financial institutions (banks, and possibly other firms). It is imaginable that the central bank continues to operate like other banks, delivering its own deposits that might be used as money in the similar way as other bank deposits are. However, in that case the central bank has no monopoly in the issue of Money (Sunday, 2018). In a cashless society the unit of account (e.g. Dollar, euro) remnants a national affair and is providing by the state. The followings among others enhance the operative of cashless economy; e-finance, e-banking, e-money, e-brokering, e-exchanges etc.

In a present economy, the use of noncash payment approaches such as cards (credit and debit) controls the use of cash in payments. The card-built payment system has several players. On the one hand, are the sources of the card-based payment system- first of which is the card companies like MasterCard and Visa who provide their payment network for the system to purpose. The second sets of sources are the banks that act as acquirers for merchants and issuers for cardholders and influence the card payment services to the eventual users. On the other side of the system are the users- both merchants and cardholders. The reimbursements these two players originate from the structure are manifold- the suitability of electronic transactions, the affluence of credit availability, enlarged sales, increased purchasing power, to list a few (Sunday, 2018). Subsequently they are the end users of the convenience the card payment system generates; they are the ones who bear the cost of the system. Apart from these four players here is the regulator of the payment system, usually the central bank of the country. The absolute volume of these payments only remains heavily concerted in developed markets. Developing countries are just refining their payments infrastructures, allowing wider adoption and greater usage of non-cash means and channels. Ejoh et al., (2014) noted that in the new cash policy, the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) lately pegged daily cash withdrawals and lodgments by separate to NGN 150,000.00 and corporate bodies NGN 1m separately with effect from the 1st of June 2012. Other key reasons for introducing the cash policy include, driving development and innovation of our payment system in line with Nigeria's vision 2020 goal of being between the top 20 economies by the year 2020. An effective and modern payment system

is positively correlated with economic growth, and is a key enabler for economic growth. Also, to moderate the cost of banking services (including cost of credit) drive financial inclusion by providing more efficient deal options and greater reach. Furthermore, it arms at enlightening the efficiency of monetary policy in handling inflation and driving economic growth.

E-Banking

E-banking can be well-defined as the placement of banking services and products over electronic and communication networks straight to customers, Singh (2016). It is the automated transfer of new and traditional banking products and services directly to customers through electronic, communicating communication channels. Electronic banking is the donation of banking services to customers through Internet technology (Daniel, 2019). E-banking has been stated as an efficient route for delivering banking service (Al-Smadi and Al-Wabel, 2017). However, most competitive advantages of e-banking services decrease transaction cost through suitable e-banking services. Through the use of IT, banks now employ diverse channels such as internet technology, video banking technology, telephone banking, Automated Teller Machine (ATM), and WAP technology to bring their services. Report on e-banking system in Nigeria discloses that e-payment machinery, particularly the card technology, is currently enjoying the highest popularity in Nigeria banking market (Ayo, Oduwoye & Oni 2019). The inters witch statistics cogitate that Nigeria has 30million ATM card holders who mien over 100 million transactions on the machines every month. The present Nigeria's 25 banks operate over 9,000 ATM machines through the country's 36 states and Federal Capital Territory. Fundamentally, the union of technology and finance has detailed huge success and has compressed very positively on financial transactions in Nigeria banking system thereby making e-banking system to become the main technology-driven revolution for leading financial transactions.

Cashless Economy

The cashless policy (as a purpose to migrate to cashless economy) procured effect from April 1, 2012 in Lagos. The core of the policy is to shift the economy from a cash-based economy to a cashless one. Thus, it is geared near producing an able payment system attached on electronic – based transactions. Eager of making the policy succeed, a number of financial services have been presented which among others comprise mobile money payment system, opinion of sale terminals, Alerts and Automated Teller Machines (ATM). Basically, Mobile Payment System presented at the dawn of January 1, 2012 allows users to make payments with their GSM phones. It is a saving device and transfer system that turns GSM phone into a saving account policy, allowing owners to save money in it and also make transfers. The Point of Sale (POS) stations are installed by businesses and connected to the Nigerian Inter Bank Settlement System for resolves of making payments during business transactions. But opposing to what is suggestive of the term, cashless economy does not discuss to an absolute absence of cash transactions in the economic setting but one in which the amount of cash-based transactions are kept to the simplest minimum. It is an economic system in which transactions are not done mainly in exchange for real cash. It is not also an economic system wherever goods and services are exchanged for goods and services (the barter system). It is an economic setting in which goods and services are accepted and paid for finished electronic media. It is defined as "one in which there are expected to be no transactions resistances that can be reduced through the use of money balances, and that accordingly deliver a reason for holding such stabilities even when they make rate of return" (Daniel, 2019). In a cashless economy, how much cash in your wallet is practically irrelevant. You can pay for your purchases by any one of an overabundance of credit cards or bank transfer (Roth, 2018). Some structures of the functioning of the cashless economy are enhanced by e-finance, e-money, e-brokering and connections. These all discuss to how transactions and payments are affected in a cashless economy. In Nigeria, under the cashless economy idea, the goal is to disappoint cash transactions as abundant as possible. The CBN had set daily cumulative withdrawal and deposit limits of N150,000.00 for persons and N1,000,000.00 for corporate bodies (now reviewed to N500,000.00 and N3million respectively). Violation of these rules entice a penalty fees of N100.00 and N200.00 respectively (now reduced to 5% and 3% respectively) to be emotional per extra N1000.00 (Ezumba, 2011). It must be said that as at now there are previously some forms of cashless transactions that are attractive place in Nigeria by indigenous firms and have been stimulated by development in technology and infrastructure (Babalola, 2018).

Service Delivery and Mobile Banking

An accepting of the role of e-service distribution is critically important since a study has recommended that as much as $8billion in potential sales were lost on 2001 due to insufficient e-service. Lamikanra (2019). More importantly, as mainstream consumers begin to explore the world available to them on the web, they are likely to be less willing to put up with poor service. With the appearance of the mobile banking, customer effort has to be presented on the mobile electronic facilities platform. A key element of enlightening customers focus is the implementation of tools that allow development of better relations between banks and their customers (customer bank relationship). The banking industry today is witnessing heavy IT uprising to the extent that Customers now have freedom to pay bills; plans payments while held in traffic jams, obtain updates on banks transaction other. Mobile banking also received other financial services like share trading, sophisticated enquiry-based banking services for transaction alerts, minimum balance alerts, account balance enquiry, cheque book request, and bill payment alerts. Several banks in Nigeria have hurled the mobile banking services that enable customers to carry out simple transactions based on Short Message Services (SMS) technology with customer's mobile phones attending as the terminals. Such transactions include account balance investigations, funds transfers between customer's own accounts and to other account with the same bank, transaction trailing and third-party payments, such as bill payments, cheque book request and balance confirmation. The security controls used are PIN code and pass code documentation. Mobile banking services have a very thrilling potential within Nigeria, given the low infrastructural necessities and rapidly increasing mobile phone diffusion. Furthermore, increased service quality on mobile banking amenities can improve more effective mobile banking service product and can help them to achieve higher levels of customer satisfaction.

Challenges of Mobile Banking

Mobile phone operability: Here stand enormous amount of diverse mobile phone plans and it is a big trial for banks to offer mobile banking solution on certain type of device. Certain of these devices support Java ME and others provision s Application Toolkit, a WAP browser, or only SMS. Initial interoperability matters however have been limited, with countries like India using portals like R-World to enable the limitations of low-end java-based phones, while focus on areas such as South Africa have evaded to the USSD as a basis of communication attainable with any phone. The wish for interoperability is largely dependent on the banks themselves, where connected applications (Java based or native) provide better security, are easier to use and permit development of more complex skills similar to those of internet banking while SMS can provide the basics but becomes problematic to operate with more multidimensional transactions. Security of transactions: Security of financial transactions, being performed from some distant location and show of financial information over the air, are the most complex challenges that need to be talked jointly by mobile application developers, wireless network service providers and the banks' IT departments.

Advantages of Mobile Banking

- Mobile banking sensibly reduces the cost of version services to customers.
- For service providers, mobile banking suggestions the next unquestionable way to achieve growth by offering suitable services to attract new customers or retain old ones.
- Mobile banking helps attentive customers on trends trendy in their accounts in order to minimize fraud.
- It also encourages them and wishes customers well on superior occasions like birthdays that customers value a lot.

Channels of Cashless Banking

Some remaining cashless banking channels recognized all over the world are mobile banking, internet banking, and telephone banking. They are clarified below.

Mobile Banking

The term Mobile banking denotes to the provision of banking and financial facilities with the help of mobile telecommunication plans. It is a system that permits customers of a financial institution to behavior a number of financial transactions completes a mobile device such a mobile phone. It includes the use of mobile phone for settlement of financial transactions. Mobile banking is popular and thrilling

to the customers given the low infrastructure necessities and rapidly increasing mobile phone diffusion in Nigeria. Siyanbola (2018), services enclosed by this product include account enquiry, funds transfer, phone vending, changing password, and bill payments. Most commercial banks in Nigeria now engage in Mobile banking; Banks like First Bank, Ecobank, Guarantee Trust Bank, United Bank for Africa and others have instigated using mobile banking to serve their customers. Mobile banking as a mode of e-banking mostly uses mobile phones as the electronic devices. Mobile phone stretches customer the chance to operate their account with bank as long as their phones and network services provider support the short messaging service (SMS) which would allow the customer check account balance. (Abubakar, 2017).

Internet Banking

Internet banking is also mentioned to as online banking. It includes conducting banking transaction on the internet (www) using electronic outfits such as the computer without staying the banking hall. Internet banking, like mobile banking, uses the electronic card substructure for executing payment commands and final payment of goods and services over the internet between the merchant and the customers (Siyanbola, 2018). The technology of e-banking has a space of possible applications. Online banking for example offers the opportunity of disbursing bills and performing transactions of any kind. The availability of online information has if banking and client with a powerful vehicle for research. (Abubakar, 2017).

Point of Sale Terminals

This mode of e-banking handles Cheque confirmation, credit authorization, cash deposit and withdrawal, and cash payment. It improves electronic fund relocation at the point of sales. Thus, customers account would be debited directly with the cost of purchase in an opening such as a petrol station or supermarket. The suggestion of this is that customers can make payment for goods and services without necessarily coming in contact with bodily cash as the purchase price would be debited on the buyer's card and credited on the seller's account. (Abubakar, 2017).

Automated Teller Machine (ATM)

The Automated Teller Machine (ATM) was presented into Nigeria market in 1989, as a matter of fact the very first Automated Teller Machine (ATM) in Nigeria was first fixed by National Cash Registers (NCR) for the defunct Society General Bank in 1987. ATM is a computer-controlled device that allots and provides other services to customers who classify them with a personal identification number (PIN). The physical posture of cash as well as frequent visit to the banks is being reduced. The ATM is the most popular e-transaction solution in Nigeria and is popular because of its convenience. With ATM, it is a lot easier to withdraw money or to check account balance. Alao (2019), ATMs are a cost-efficient mode of yielding higher productivity as they attain higher productivity per period of time than human tellers (an average of about 6,400 transactions per month for ATMs likened to 4,300 for human tellers. Also, as the ATMs continue when human tellers stop, there is repeated productivity for the banks even after banking hours. The principal advantage of ATM is that it dispenses cash at any time of the day even as it needs not to be positioned within the banking premises but in stores, shopping malls, fuel stations etc, unlike the traditional method where customers have to queue for a very long period of time to withdraw cash or transfer funds. However, despite its popularity, the ATM has done very little in reducing the amount of cash in the economy. This is because most Nigerians use ATM only for cash withdrawal. Although ATM machines can perform other functions like fund/cash transfer, mobile phone credit recharge and bills payment, cash withdrawals and balance inquiry remain the most popular applications sort after by users in Nigeria. This is largely due to ignorance and the absence of merchants. Because ATM machines are mainly used for cash withdrawals, they do not go far enough in turning Nigeria into a cashless economy. ATM only makes more cash available in the economy since of the ease at which depositors can withdraw cash. To turn Nigeria into a cashless economy Nigerians, need more than just ATM cards, Nigerians need credit/debit cards. (Ekwueme, 2018)

Empirical Review

Various studies on cashless policy and electronic payments and banking have been carried out since the inception of the policy in 2012. Muhammad (2017) in an article titled examination of value creation of electronic banking in Nigeria inspected tendencies of banking habit in Nigeria across banking regimes of regulation and deregulation hinged on past viewpoint of banking development in Nigeria, from independence to 2012. Relevant secondary data casing 1960 to 2010 were collected from Central Bank

of Nigeria annual reports and examined using the descriptive trend analysis. Muhammad (2017) finding recommends a static behavior across the monetary policy regimes and thus warned rushing the cashless program until events are in place to inspire and push fast the banking culture change for the success of the cashless Nigeria program. Nwankwo and Eze (2018) determined the extent to which automated payment affect cashless economy of Nigeria using a descriptive research design. Nwankwo and Eze (2018) designates that the electronic system of payment has a great suggestion in cashless economy of Nigerian but that it will lead to significant decrease in deposit enlistment and credit extension by Nigerian deposit money banks. They decided that cashless system of payment need to be inspected and the e-payment system developed system, so that people will be used to it before talking of cashless economy. This is for; bulk of the Nigerian economy is driven by SME and trivial traders. To recall this policy of cashless economy in Nigeria, the authors suggested that the migration of our payments system near a cashless society would require some improvements and a lot of effort and sensitization particularly for low income group, who are now deeply rooted in using cash and see it as a suitable and easy way of getting and making payments.

Research carried out by Humphrey (2017) titled "The Influence of Cashless Policy on Small Scale Businesses in Ogoni Land of Rivers State, Nigeria" The purpose of this study is to examine the impact of cashless policy on small scale businesses. The study approved out in Ogoni of Rivers state, using the purposive sampling technique, 250 owners and operators of small-scale businesses were selected and achieved questionnaire. The data collected were coded and analyzed using frequency table and percentage, while regression analysis was used to test the framed hypotheses using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). The results specify that: small scale businesses in Ogoni land are predominately involved by sole proprietorship with meager income with a significant statistics of them having a very poor banking habit; it was also initiate out that small scale businesses statistically do not trust on heavy capital outlay; couple with the fact that provision of services is their main business action makes bank transaction, ATMs procedure and online banking of less or no significance since their operation is grossly hinged on "cash and carry basis"; the findings from the study also propose that operators of small scale business have zero tolerance to ICT practice in both the operations and transactions of their businesses; and this establish a major challenge to the adoption of cashless policy in the study area and usually, there was a negative significant effect of the introduction of cashless policy on the processes and growth of small scale businesses in Ogoni land. Based on the findings some recommendations among others made are: the need for government to harness efforts which should be directed at enlightening the activities of small scale businesses through concerted policies, regulations and actions that will encourage and empower small scale businesses monetarily thus making the sector lively and productively ready to withstand a cashless economy.

Alao (2019) titled "Cashless Policy and Customers' Satisfaction: A Study of Commercial Banks in Ogun State, Nigeria" The arrival of cashless policy into the Nigerian banking sector has carried mixed feelings to all stakeholders in the sector. The development has elated interval to a segment dominated by the operators (bankers), while the other segment dominated by the customers has protested about the trials associated with the operation of the policy. Therefore, this study seeks to investigate the customers' satisfaction of the recently introduced cashless strategy in Ogun State, Nigeria with a survey of bank customers in Abeokuta. Data was composed with a well essential questionnaire and analyzed with descriptive statistics, while hypotheses framed for the study were tested with correlation co-efficient. The findings of the study disclose that cashless policy contributed significantly to customers' satisfaction in Ogun State. Also, the study revealed that cashless policy donated significantly to customers' satisfaction through electronic channels. Finally, the study established that the cashless policy is customer friendly and progressive. Hence, it was then recommended, among others, that infrastructures should be amended upon to ensure easy operation of the policy in Ogun state

Ayo *et al*. (2019) empirically studied the impact of mobile banking on service transfer in the Nigerian Commercial Banks concluded the use of questionnaire. He found out that the overview of e-banking services has enriched banking efficiency in rendering services to customer. His findings show that mobile banking develop banks service delivery in a form of transactional suitability, savings of time, quick transaction alert and save of service cost which has recover customer's relationship and satisfaction. To

this end, he acclaimed that banks management should create awareness to notify the public about the benefits resulting on the e-banking service products, collaboration among banks should perfectly maintained, skilled manpower and computer wizard should be employed by every banks, in other to avoid fraudulent personal and hackers from functioning the banks data and stealing money from the banks accounts. Finally, provision and upkeep of public network system such as telephone (Nitel) and the availability of these basic infrastructures is fundamental to the efficient functioning of the mobile banking services. Singh (2015) titled "Benefits and Challenges of Nigeria's cash-less policy" Financial sector improvement is a vital ingredient in the economic growth and development procedure. This is obviously underscored in the literatures involving financial sector growth with economic growth. In acknowledgment of this fact, managers of the Nigerian economy have directed the banking sector as a station for applying economic rule improvements and policy shift. The latest of such economic improvements in the financial sector is the formal overview of cash-less financial policy in January, 2012. What are the aids and challenges of this policy vis-à-vis the cash-based policy? Specifically, will other Point of Sales card acceptance services stakeholders invite a significant part of banks' income in cash-less economy? After factoring in other POS stakeholders share of income, the study found banks' income higher in cash-less setting than in cash-based preparation. Thus, the cash-less policy offers immense benefits to the banking sector. It is recommended that appropriate infrastructures and lawful support be provided to enable the religious implementation of the policy

Jatau and Dung (2016) in their paper titled the Central Bank of Nigeria's cashless policy: a main panacea for removing corruption and attractive sustainable development in Nigeria aimed at unveiling how electronic payment which is the constituent of the cashless policy can be instrumental in removing corruption in Plateau State and Nigeria at large, hence, attractive supportable development. They noted that the cashless policy includes approving of electronic processes to documenting all payments (e-payment) thereby providing an effective data base for optimal revenue generation. The process is capable of reducing financial corruption because funds are no longer channeled through cash which is easily diverted but once paid into the revenue account directly by the payers' withdrawal is only made by authorized signatories who provide audit trail that will enhance monitoring and auditing. This encourages transparency and accountability; thus, making fund available for developmental projects they concluded. Yaqub, Bello, Adenuga and Ogundeji (2018) in their paper titled the cashless policy in Nigeria: prospects and challenges pointed out the prospects and challenges of such policy, in a developing economy like Nigeria. In concluding their exploratory study, Yaqub *et al.,* (2018) posits that the move towards a cashless Nigeria brings with its numerous benefits but there is still the need to create more awareness to entice the numerous unbanked Nigerians into the banking system. Okoye and Ezejiofor (2018) examined the significant benefits and essential elements of cashless policy, and the extent to which it can enhance the growth of financial stability in the country. The descriptive research plan was adopted for the study with a sample size of 68 questionnaires attained at using the convenience sampling technique. The data collected was subjected to face validity test, and was tested with ANOVA and chi - square (X^2) technique and the results designate that: majority of Nigerians are previously aware of the policy and majority agree that the policy will help fight in contradiction of corruption/money laundering and reduce the risk of carrying cash. Major problems envisaged to hamper the implementation of the policy are cyber fraud and illiteracy. Based on the findings Okoye and Ezejiofor (2018)] recommended that government should adopt a different strategy to educate the non-literate Nigerians about the cashless economy; and a framework must be worked out to deliver cyber security in Nigeria. Ajayi and Ojo (2016) observed the effect of cashless monetary policy on Nigerian banking industry using a sample 370 Guaranty Trust Bank (GTBank) staff in Ekiti State, Nigeria selected based on Taro Yemane's formula for sample size. The data composed was analyzed using frequency table and percentages while the non-parametric statistical test, Chi-square was used to test the expressed hypothesis. The results of the study showed that there are significant reasons and benefits inherent in the application of cashless policy as it facilitates ease of operations and reduces queue and congestion in the banking hall, among others. However, inadequate technological infrastructures, high rate of cyber-crime and high rate of illiteracy, among others are hindering the full implementation and benefits of the policy during the period of the study. It was therefore recommended that government should put in place a law preventing cyber-crime and intensify public enlightenment campaign about the cashless system. Bank officials should also be properly trained about the operations of the policy in order to be efficient with the services rendered to customers. Baddeley

(2019) examined the benefit and advantages of the cashless policy and identified (increased convenience, reduce cash handling cost, reduce risk of using cash) as benefits and advantages, while noting challenges hindering the successful achievement of the policy's objectives to include amongst others (inadequate infrastructure, high rate of illiteracy, lack of unique national identity).

Amedu (2018) examined the impact of cashless policy on the profitability of Nigerian banks beside the backdrop that these banks in a cash-based economy are known for their enormous profits even in the face of associated high cost of operations. To achieve the objective of the study secondary data were collected and analyzed using content analysis likening profits under cash-based policy with a cashless command. The results exposed that cashless economic policy positively influence on banks' profit finished reduction in cost of processes and banking the unbanked populace (Amedu, 2018) concluded. Ejoh, Adebisi and Okpa (2017) examined the cash-less economic system so as to assess the relationship amid Information and Communication Technology (ICT) and the application of cash-less policy. In order to achieve the primary objective of the study, the study used structured questionnaire as earnings of data collection from 120 respondents randomly selected. The data was analyzed using simple percentage procedure, and the collated data tested using chi-square technique. Their study revealed that there exists a significant relationship between ICT and cash-less policy application in the Nigerian financial environment. Based on the findings it was recommended that the federal government of Nigeria should collaborate with all the states ICT centers and other private institutions to provide mass ICT education for the computer illiterates and banks should invest more in e-banking technology in mandate to enhance public awareness which would in turn encourage cash-less economy in Nigeria.

Methodology

Research design is the structure, which stipulates the information to be collected, the basis of data and the data collection process (Asika, 2001). In other words, a research design includes the methodology and measures employed to conduct scientific research. Descriptive survey research design was applied for the study. The descriptive research design was initiate suitable for the study because it describes the present situation of variables; and affords the researchers to collect data from the respondents without manipulation of any variables of interest in the study. It also guaranteed equal chance of participation in the study on the measure of the respondents. The population for the study is complete up of two hundred (200) employees of the National Control Centre of Transmission Company, Osogbo, Nigeria. The population embraces both male and female employees that had spent at least two years with the selected organization. A stratified sampling technique remained used to select a total of two hundred respondents. The stratified sampling technique was adopted for sample selection to reflect the junior, senior, administrative and managerial staffers. Simple random sampling was also adopted for the study. In simple random sampling, every member of the population has equivalent chance of being selected for a study. We used this technique because the population has similar characteristics (homogeneous population), the sampling frame is available and the population size is determinate or finite (Akinola, 2018). Participants for the study were made up of 200 respondents in different positions of National control Centre, Transmission Company in Osogbo, Nigeria. A set of self-structured standardized questionnaires titled: "Cashless Policy and Organizational Performance Scale" which captured all variables under study was developed and administered for data gathering. The Cashless Policy questionnaire has the Cronbach alpha value of 0.86 and Organizational Performance Scale has Cronbach alpha value of 0.82. The four point modified Likert response rating scale was adopted for the study, reaching from Strongly Agree (4 points), Agree (3), Disagree (2) and Strongly Disagree (1). The questionnaire was run at the premises of the National Control Centre of Transmission Company of Nigeria, Osogbo, Nigeria. The researcher guarantees the respondents' anonymity and confidentiality of information to be supplied and the information will be collected for research purpose. The statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) will be used to analyse data collected. It will assist in describing the data grouped more succinctly and making inferences about the characteristics of the populations on the basis of the data composed from the sample. The study made use of Pearson Product Moment Correlation to hypothesize the relationship between the dependent variables and the independent variable. Decision rule for the three hypotheses are, if the calculated value of p is better than the critical value, reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis. If else, then accept the null hypothesis and reject the alternative hypothesis. The level of significance (t) is 0.95(0.05).

Testing of Hypotheses

Hypotheses One: *There is a significant relationship between cashless policy and Organizational Performance in National control Centre Osogbo*

Table 1: Relationship between cashless policy and Organizational Performance

Variables	N	M	SD	Df	r	P
cashless policy	100	1.8700	.98119	98	-.215*	<.01
Organizational Performance	100	2.7500	1.20918			

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2019

The results in Table 1 show clearly that there was negative marginal correlation between relationship between cashless policy and Organizational Performance (r (98) =-.215*, p<.01). Therefore, the hypothesis one was supported by the result of the study and it was accepted. It suggests that there is a significant relationship between cashless policy and Organizational Performancein National control Centre Osogbo.

Hypotheses Two: *There is significant impact of cashless policy on money laundering &corruption in National control Centre Osogbo*

Table 2: Relationship between cashless policy on money laundering &corruption

Variables	N	M	SD	Df	R	P
Cashless policy Implementation	100	1.8700	.98119	98	.509**	<.01
Money Laundering and corruption	100	1.4400	.74291			

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2019

The results in Table 2 show clearly that there was positive correlation between cashless policy on money laundering &corruption (r (98) =.509**, p<.01). Therefore, the hypothesis two was supported through the result of the study and it was accepted. It implies that there is significant impact of cashless policy on money laundering &corruption in National control Centre Osogbo

Hypotheses Three: *There is significant impact of challenges of cashless policy on the implementation of cashless policy in National control Centre Osogbo*

Table 3: Relationship Between Impact of Cashless Policy on the Implementation of Cashless Policy

Variables	N	M	SD	Df	r	P
Cashless policy Implementation	100	1.8700	.98119	98	.604**	<.01
Challenges of Cashless policy	100	1.3600	.65935			

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2019

The results in Table 3 show clearly that there was positive correlation between impact of challenges of cashless policy on the implementation of cashless (r (98) =. 604**, p<.01). Therefore, the hypothesis three was supported by the result of the study then it was accepted. It implies that there is significant impact of challenges of cashless policy on the implementation of cashless policy in National control Centre Osogbo.

Hypotheses Four: *There is significant* impact of *Money Laundering and corruption on Organizational Performance in National control Centre Osogbo*

Table 4: Relationship Between Impact Money Laundering and Corruption on Organizational Performance

Variables	N	M	SD	Df	r	P
Money Laundering and corruption	100	1.8700	.98119	98	.411**	<.01
Organizational Performance	100	1.3600	.65935			

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2019

The results in Table 4 show clearly that there was positive impact of Money Laundering and corruption on Organizational Performance (r (98) =. 411**, p<.01). Therefore, the hypothesis four was supported by the result of the study then it was accepted. It implies that there is significant impact of Money Laundering and corruption on Organizational Performance in National control Centre Osogbo.

Discussion of Findings

The result of hypothesis one showed clearly that there was positive marginal correlation between relationship between cashless policy and Organizational Performance (r (98) =-.215*, p<.01). Therefore, the hypothesis one was supported by the result of the study and it was accepted. It suggests that there is a significant relationship between cashless policy and Organizational Performance in National control Centre Osogbo. This means that the more the company goes cashless, the more it performs.

For hypothesis two there was positive correlation between cashless policy on money laundering & corruption (r (98) =.509**, p<.01). Therefore, the hypothesis two was supported by the result of the study and it was established. It implies that there is significant impact of cashless policy on money laundering &corruption in National control Centre Osogbo.

From the above specified analysis, it seems that much has already been done on the issue of awareness of cashless economy. It also seems that many people actually agree with the government on the usefulness of the cashless economy. It is agreed that the cashless system will be useful in the fight against corruption and money laundering. One most significant contribution of the cashless economy is that it is expected to reduce the risk related with carrying cash. Dynamism in financial system is demonstrated by the nature and quality of payment products exhibited in the system. These products range from common paper money, cheque and cash to electronic payments. Products such ATM, Smartcard, telephone banking, internet banking etc will, no doubt, decrease or totally eradicate cost of cash management.

Hypothesis three showed clearly that there was positive correlation between impact of challenges of cashless policy on the implementation of cashless (r (98) =. 604**, p<.01). Therefore, the hypothesis three was supported by the result of the study and it was accepted. It implies that there is significant impact of challenges of cashless policy on the application of cashless policy in National control Centre Osogbo.

Hypothesis four showed clearly that there was positive impact of Money Laundering and corruption on Organizational Performance (r (98) =. 411**, p<.01). Therefore, the hypothesis four was supported by the result of the study and it was accepted. It implies that there is significant impact of Money Laundering and corruption on Organizational Performance in National control Centre Osogbo.

Conclusions

After the critical examination of the center's responses that are directly affected by the implementation of this policy and the various reviews of relevant literatures, the following recommendations are thereby made in order to attain success of the policy in general. The relevant stakeholders should intensify their efforts in achieving a successful implementation of the cashless policy. The officials must be properly educated about the operations of the policy in order to be effective with the services rendered to the customers using this service and also in order to give answers to the questioning minds of the customers about the policy. A main problem in the working of the cashless economy is internet connected fraud.

Nigeria is a major hub of electronic fraud and this can only be anticipated to increase as we march into the cashless economy.

Recommendations

It is recommended that a country as large as Nigeria should have a signed law preventing cybercrime. Nigeria must make concentrated efforts to design an internet security framework to check online fraud so that the public can be certain and threatened against cyber-attack and fraud. There is the essential to strengthen the public enlightenment programme about the cashless system so that everybody will be well accustomed with the system since it will affect everybody. Since there is a high rate of illiteracy, and all people must be brought into the system, the government should design unusual enlightenment programmes for the non-literates, using probably signs and symbols to inform this segment on how to operate the cashless system (post on sale vis-à-vis mobile phones).

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Leadership Failure and Socio-Political Ferment in Nigeria's Fourth Republic

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Abstract
Nigerians were enthusiastic that their future would be glamorous and dream-fulfilling when the Fourth Republic was born in 1999. It was hoped that the new political entrants into the nation's political terrain would be accommodating, approachable and push-ful as they occupied leadership positions across the federation. However, the citizens have become disillusioned and despondent due to poor leadership qualities and avarice being displayed by those who have been parading themselves as leaders. This article therefore addresses the leadership failure as exhibited by the leaders, the state of anomie in the country and how to overcome the development.

Keywords: Nigeria, Fourth Republic, Leadership, Leadership Failure, Ferment.

Introduction

Qualitative leadership is a *sine-qua-non* for the growth and development of any given human society, particularly, a nation. Metaphorically leaders serve as the pilots or drivers of a moving aircraft or vehicles (country, organization or family). They are the ones leading other members of the entity they guide or control towards the fulfillment of their collective yearnings, goals and aspirations. Thus, Ajayi says that "a leader is a member of a group who has the ability to influence and making them do what else, they would not have done…whose activities cover the utilization of both human and material resources". He further posits that a leader as "an individual or a member of an organization, who attempts to wisely utilize both the human and material resources at his/her disposal in the most prudent way to achieve the group or organizational goals". For Cowley, a leader is the one who succeeds in getting others to follow him. There arises the need to define the concept of leadership. According to Morphet et al, quoted by Okusanya and Odunlami, leadership implies influencing of the actions, behavior, beliefs and feelings of one actor in a social system by another actor with the willing co-operation of the actor being influenced. Stogdill, conceptualizes leadership as those activities engaged in by an individual or members of a group, which contribute significantly to the development and maintenance of role structure and goal direction necessary for effective group performances. The above connotations of leaders and leadership help us to understand that there exist leaders and followers as well as organizations or groups which are aspiring to achieve certain goals or dreams for which they exist. In relation to this study, the leaders here refer to the elected and appointed politicians and officers who anchor the executive, legislative and judicial organs of government while the organization is Nigeria. Thus, the lawmakers, the President, governors, ministers, commissioners, and other top government functionaries like permanent secretaries and director generals are expected to lead those under them, judiciously allocate and utilize the nation's resources (both human material) in order to promote the development of the country and better the lots of the citizenry.

It is imperative to state the Nigerians were weary and embittered by the draconian rule of the successive military oligarchies that called the shots at the nation's presidency and state government houses before the rebirth of democratic rule in 1999, which coincided with the Fourth Republic. The general belief of the electorate was that with the new civilian dispensation, there would be overhauling in the economic, social, political and other spheres of the people's life. The military officers who had ruled the country were neither technocrats nor professional economic managers. They were not more than political hijackers who derailed the country's socio-economic and political moving train. Consequently, they were unable to provide the kind of leadership needful for the advancement of the nation. The advent of the Fourth Republic was therefore a welcomed development in the nation's political terrain. It was envisaged that the new political leaders, as civilians, elected to their respective political offices would be cautious in their actions, decisions and how they relate with the general public, especially, the electorate+. They were expected to bring a new lease of life to the followership and launch the good image of the country in the comity of nations. However, the new leaders have demonstrated to be even worse than the military who took over the reins of government through the barrel of the gun. Their bizarre attitude has frustrated

the masses who were looking expectantly to the greedy and self-centered leaders that preferred opulent lifestyle characterized by outrageous profligacy. Hence, the reactions of the oppressed form the main crux of this discourse.

The Leadership Insensitivity and Bad Governance

Leaders exist as coordinators of all the segments of life in the country. The most important area that needs to be handled with all seriousness is the economy, on whose pivot the compasses of the other sectors rotate. The new economic managers are thought to be well grounded in economic matters and are expected to turnaround the extractive, aviation, transport, railway, industrial, agricultural, financial, oil and gas sectors of the economy. When this is successfully done, there would be sound economic resources to finance other sectors of the nation's economy. The attitude of the new so-called leaders has shown that they are not prepared to revamp the economy in the interest of the electorate and generality of Nigerians. Indeed, most of the economic decisions being made are detrimental to the citizenry. An obvious example is the failure of privatization and commercialization of public enterprises. This poor policy started during the regime of General Ibrahim Babangida's by Decree (of 1988) which set up the Technical Committee on Privatization and Commercialization (TCPC). While the country's working class and patriots were opposed to the sale of "Nigeria"; the agitation in the ruling circles was how the cliques of the ruling class and their foreign masters would participate in the "Auction of Nigeria". This anti people agenda was vigorously pursued by the politicians who assumed power in 1999. The Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) was opposed to this development as it believed that: The Establishment of state-funded (and state controlled) enterprises (in a developing economy) is not an accident; it reflects the needs of a backward, "third" world, underdeveloped country to rise to the challenge of enhancing the well-being of its people" (ASUU, University of Benin National Executive Council (NEC) Meeting: Nov. 17 – 18, 2001). The forum of academic egg heads in the country bluntly rejected the reason (advanced by the government for embarking on privatization and commercialization of state-owned ventures. The Bureau of Public Enterprises (BPE) set up by former President Olusegun Obasanjo-led administration in 1999 had claimed that public enterprises were inefficient. While reacting to this claim, ASUU's i sustained position that "The ostensible reason being brandished for privatization (is) that public enterprises are not efficient … is false".

The ASUU 2001 Benin NEC Communiqué summed up what Privatization means as:

- Handing over out public wealth to interests that have exploited and deprived Nigerians over the years.
- Handing over Nigeria's independence to the same forces that colonized and plundered our people for centuries.
- Increasing mass poverty for our people.
- Making access to basic facilities and resources impossible and unaffordable for over ninety percent of our population.
- Rewarding some Nigerians including politicians, public office holders, some military generals and others in private business closeness to power.

It is unfortunate that while billions of naira funds realized from privatization of public enterprises were looted; thousands of workers lost their jobs, as the buyers of the formerly state-owned business firms were out to maximize their profits. In addition, most Nigerians could no longer pay the high prices charged on the commodities and services of the enterprises affected. The effects of the leadership failure in the country is similarly observed in other sectors of the economy, such as agricultural, which has not been able to provide food security for the millions of Nigerian citizens. It is worrisome that heavy annual budgets are provided on paper but they appear to h end up in private accounts of the political class and their cronies, i who parade themselves as business moguls. Consequently, the vast majority of Nigerians cannot afford two meals per day not to talk about three square meals. Even the indigenes of oil and gas producing communities, are subjected to untold hardships due to environmental degradation and increasing prices of petroleum products and premium motor spirit or petrol. Even with the partial implementation of the new national minimum wage in late 2019, the pains being inflicted on the people are yet to be mitigated. It is disheartening that the government had to subsidize fuel prices before the emergence of President Muhammadu Buhari in 2015 whose administration suspended the subsidy. But

his government later reverted to the payment of same in 2017 as a result of persistent scarcity of petrol. The bane of this sector of Nigeria's economy is the lack of political will to set up more refineries and repair the existing ones because only a few privileged generals and business moguls hold concession license to own oil wells whose crude oil is exported for refining, and re-imported, at the detriment of the suffering poor masses. The vandalism of pipelines, government's failure through the Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation (NNPC) to sustain the average period a refinery should go down for turnaround maintenance (which is three years), corruption and official sabotage account for fuel scarcity as they are reason for the non-performance of the refining plants. In his own submission, Dr Ibe Kachikwu, a former Group Managing Director of the NNPC and Minister of State for Petroleum, while discussing with the federal lawmakers regarding the persistence of fuel scarcity in the country in 2015, listed the factors that "have been responsible for inability of the NNPC to keep retail outlets wet with petrol nationwide to include refusal by the major oil marketers to import, diversion of the product by marketers, pipeline vandalism, panic buying and non-computerisation of the distribution network to monitor trucks".

Nigeria leadership's lack of good economic management is well pronounced in poor industrialization of the nation. The extractive sector therefore remains largely undeveloped. Furthermore, the nation's currency has been grossly devalued leading to hyper-inflation since Nigerians rely practically on everything imported – food items, electronic gadgets, shoes, clothes, vehicles, aircraft etc. This similarly has affected the importation of independent oil marketers who could no longer gamer the financial muscle required to import petroleum products due to high exchange rate. The poor performance of the economy ushered in the recession that characterized the sector. Tony Manuaka of the *Tell Magazine* has this to say with regard to the economy sliding into recession:

> *Already, the danger signals are there. In the last one year, the nation's foreign reserve has declined from $40 billion to $30 billion in the face of dwindling oil revenue. Inflation rate, though still at single digit has risen to 9.4 percent, high interest rate of between 20 and percent, unemployment rate which rose from 7.5 percent in the first quarter of 2015 to 8.02 in the second quarter, and high misery index are dragging the economy down…*

Lending credence to the above is Professor Nwabueze Achime of the Economics Department, University of Benin who avers:

> *One of the major signals of recession is unemployment. When people are unemployed, businesses are collapsing; many borrowed money from banks for businesses and they are unable to pay because of the high interest rates of 25 to 30 percent. These are some of the issues that can lead to the possible collapse of a nation's economy. These can lead to recession and later to depression.*

The leaders parading the nation's political corridor have disappointed and failed the people, as they mostly involved in official corruption and maladministration. Nigerians expect their newly emergent leaders to be proactive in dealing with corruption. The politicians and other public office holders are to live above board by being transparent, honest and accountable to the electorate and the generality of the people. It is sad that the state governors, ministers, commissioners, local government chairmen, lawmakers at the state and federal levels, and even appointed public office holders in the ministries, commissions, agencies and institutions of higher learning were out to rob the masses through official corruption. They no longer regard themselves as servants but bosses to the masses who were their principals. The followers were being despicably looked down upon particularly during Dr Goodluck Ebele Jonathan presidency. While the poor masses became more oppressed and depressed, for lacking basic needs of life such as food, clothing and shelter, the few people in power have turned rogues looting the treasury, using their exalted positions and offices as conduit pipe in perpetrating scandalous and brazen crime against humanity. Alison – Madueke stands out as the most corrupt office holder during her ministerial appointment to supervise the Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation. The state governors stole the nation's money in billions thereby depriving the masses their right to good quality life. Maladministration has been a bane in the country as the various regimes have kept over blotted cabinets. This unhappy trend in the nation's political history began in 1999 when Olusesgun Obasanjo took over as the nation's second executive president. According to Iseribhor Okhueleigbe "Since 1999

when the government of Obasanjo came to power, a good number of Nigerians have called on the federal government to trim down its cabinet which, according to them, is rather unwieldy and as such a drain pipe on the state, which can really not boast of unlimited funds". The disgusting thing about the scenario is that as at 2015, there were 42 ministries while the president also enjoyed the services of at least 24 special advisers, some of whom were simply duplicating roles. The Jonathan administration was said to have spent more than ₦1.3billion of taxpayers' money annually on the maintenance of his 42 ministerial appointees. The nation's treasury is being leaked wasted through avoidable huge expenses on the National Assembly (NASS), sharp practices that included inflation of contract costs, unnecessary large sizes of government agencies at all levels, the perks for offices, , which were rather duplication of what had been paid to occupying public officers. Nigerian Senators was believed to have been paid ₦29, 810,940 annually (₦ 2,484,245.50 per month) and ₦ 27million quarterly allowances, besides irregular allowances such as estacode and duty allowances. For members of the House of Representatives, the annual pay was ₦20.4 million, apart from other allowances.

When Muhammadu Buhari eventually won the 2015 presidential election, the popular expectation was that his administration would tackle this administrative wastage. But nothing has been done to either cut the bogus salaries and allowances or reduce the numbers of ministers, advisers, consultants and the so-called personal assistants (PAs). Till now, the politicians and appointed public office holders have been so insensitive to the plight of the masses who now live below poverty line. The Fourth Republic leaders have failed the followership due to their profligacy. While most Nigerians are wallowing in abject poverty, their governors live in sheer opulence, discarding old governors' lodges to build new state-of-the-art mansions that cost the state billions of naira. For instance, Jonah Jang, a former governor of Plateau State embarked on ₦15billion Governor's house project, which he did not complete before leaving office for Simon Lalong, his successor, who described such a white elephant project as amounting "to a misapplication of scarce fund".[i] Furthermore, politicians like government officials have a penchant for acquiring fleets of exotic armoured –plated SUVs and private jets. For example, Godswill Akpabio, former governor of Akwa Ibom State elected in 2007, acquired a state-of-the-art jet that cost the state $45million.

In the same vein, Chibuke Rotimi Amaechi, former Rivers State governor bought a Bombardier Global 5000 jet at the cost $50million. The late Danbaba Suntai, former Taraba State governor, acquired a Cessna 208, 5N-BMJ jet which nearly took his life in 2012 while flying the aircraft personally to Yola, Adamawa State. Unfortunately, Suntai later died as a result of the fatal injuries he sustained in the air crash. He was also reported to have two other aircraft and a helicopter at the expense of the state. Rauf Aregbesola, the former Governor of the State of Osun, the avowed enemy of workers of the State, claimed to have bought a helicopter for security surveillance converted it to his "personal jet". Still on the list is Gabriel Suswam, former governor of Benue State, who was said to have donated eight SUVs to Samuel Ortom, current governor, Benson Aboun, his deputy, and their wives f Suswam's penchant for exotic vehicles made him acquired many SUVs for himself, friends, political associates and traditional rulers while his tenure lasted. The above-mentioned examples of wastage of scarce state resources is nothing but a display of impunity and executive recklessness. The governors and other political office holders' misdemeanour have led to the depletion of the nation's treasury, which arouses the negative sensibilities of the masses. The unsavoury aspect of the whole mess is the weak various State House of Assembly that have turned themselves into mere rubber stamps and further caused anguish for the electorates. The spending sprees attitudes of most State Governors have led to their inability to pay t workers' salary. The Federal Government, under President Buhari had to provide bail out to rescue many of these states in settling backlogs of unpaid salaries and allowances. While reporting in July 2015, Atokojo comments:

> *In Kano State, teachers have not been paid salaries for three months while Kasina State owes workers for one month. Also, Kwara and Ondo States have not paid their workers since May. Oyo State has not paid workers for three months just as Kebbi State has been paying workers a minimum wage of ₦7,000 per month. Ogun State has not paid since May, while it has not paid pension deductions made by the state government in the last 52months to the Pension Fund Administrator, PFA. In Plateau State, civil servants have not been paid salaries for six months; Rivers State one month; Zamfara State, one month.*

The fallout of this economic woe on the state workforce could be better imagined than experienced. Besides, the fact that salaries were not forthcoming, some of the governors failed to release cooperative deductions of workers to their appropriate cooperative bodies. The situation has been worsened by the refusal of some governors to stop such deduction. This arrant arrogance of power exacerbated the already poor living conditions of the affected workers, who find it extremely difficult to pay school fees of their children and wards, raise loans to purchase personal cars and developing their landed properties. They even find it so difficult to feed themselves and their dependants. In such a situation, many families had broken and the members facing social privations. The Fourth Republic leadership has failed the nation in regards to education. This important sector has been neglected at all levels – nursery, primary, secondary and tertiary. The successive state governors and presidents have devoted only paltry sums in the yearly nation's budgets to the education sector. In their frantic drive to privatize the education, the successive governments have turned deaf ears to the cries and appeals of the citizens. Indeed, ASUU at various times especially during its bimonthly NEC meetings devoted quality time to address the "State of the Nation" and communiqués of such discussions published and even sent to the federal government arms – presidency, federal ministry of education, National Universities Commission, the governors etc. But the general belief of the new crop of leaders is that everything including education which is an essential social service should be deregulated, privatized and commercialized.

Omotoye Olorode, an ASUU musketeer could not hide his disappointment and disdain about the nonchalant attitude of the government towards education. Omotoye posits with acerbity:

> *Regarding looting, privatisation and deregulation, the sector that had perhaps suffered the greatest assault especially in the last decade is the education sector. For, really, looting is 'forceful' take-over and ownership of resources created by agencies other than those that take them over. By underfunding and deliberate neglect of the public funded education sector in the last decade, the sector had been forced into the private-sector had been forced into the private-sector mode substantially. This is in spite of the generalized poor quality and inaccessibility (to most Nigerians) of the privatized sector of education: nursery, primary, secondary and tertiary.*

The condition of the nation's educational institutions is nothing to write home about. Dilapidated structures, gross inadequate instructional materials, sub-standard science equipment, overcrowded classrooms, absence of public address system to teach large classes and absence of expatriate scholars in the university system characterize the nation's ivory towers. Most state-owned tertiary institutions are the worst hit by the visitors' apparent hatred and reluctance toward funding education. As a result, the number of lecturers is grossly inadequate while those on the ground operate under stress due to excessive workload. No wonder Professor Idowu Olayinka, a former Deputy Vice-Chancellor (Academic), University of Ibadan, now the Vice-Chancellor of the University comments in his response to funding of education in 2015:

> *Funding is critical to anything in life. Right now, we don't have up to 20 foreigners on our academic staff list. To bring somebody who is earning $20,000 per month, from overseas to come to Ibadan, the question is, can we afford it? To buy the needed equipment requires a lot of money. You may see new buildings all over in terms of facilities, we still have a long way to go. The 10 leading universities in the US are private universities and are funded massively. In terms of facilities, we are not able to compete with universities abroad. This is often the basis for agitation by the Academic Staff Union of Universities, ASUU and the Federal Government for improved funding of our universities.*

The general outcome is that the few who have the financial ability send their children to neighbouring African countries, especially Ghana to acquire university education, while the super-rich send theirs in to world class universities the US, United Kingdom, Canada and others. The country educational system has therefore ended up producing poor graduates, most of unemployable. It is rather shameful that the lawmakers at both state and federal levels have failed dismally in their oversight functions which include calling the power-drunk executive officers – governors and president(s) – to order. This may be attributed to their greed for money and other exotic materials, which cause them to lose their conscience as the

representatives of their own people. While they have amassed ill-gotten wealth to sponsor their own children abroad, the children of the poorly remunerated, unpaid workers and the downtrodden had to drop from schooling for lack of money and other things needed for good education as a result of abject poverty. Security matters form another dimension of the failure of Nigeria's Fourth Republic leadership. It is remarkable however that the Niger Delta militancy was handled successfully by the late President Umaru Musa Yar'Adua. He paid quality attention to the perennial bombings, pipe-line vandalization and kidnapping (and at times killing) of expatriates by holding talks with the stakeholders in the Niger Delta region, including the ring leaders of the angry militants. "Convinced that enduring peace in the Niger Delta remained crucial to any efforts towards the development of Nigeria's oil and gas sector, the president believed that whatever the cost for the post-amnesty process, the end would ultimately justify the means. For that reason, he put everything on the line for it to succeed". The Boko Haram onslaught was a major source of worry to the Goodluck Jonathan presidency. The carnage unleashed by the rampaging sect painted the nation black in the international community. Though huge amounts of money were purportedly expended, Jonathan could not repress the terrorist group as a result of massive corruption that permeated the allocation of fund among the military rank and highly connected politicians. The leaders failed dismally the masses as life and property were no longer secured. In fact, the lack of experience of Rtd.Colonel Sambo Dasuki, Jonathan's National Security Adviser, NSA, did not help the situation. As Godwin Onyeacholem has noted, "Some analysts had insisted that Sambo whose highest political position in the Army was the ADC to President Babangida and had never commanded a division or becoming a Chief of Defence Staff was not qualified to be appointed as Nigeria's NSA, a position that has been previously occupied by Generals."

Boko Haram insurgency therefore became a major security challenge to be tackled by Muhammadu Buhari, whose administration rolled out armoured tanks and engaged in aerial bombings of the hideouts of the blood thirsty murderers. This is in order to end their onslaught and also to secure the release of the Chibok girls abducted in April 2014. These goals were partially achieved through force and diplomatic negotiation. While efforts were on to totally halt the horrendous killings and get the remaining girls liberated, the Boko Haram henchmen assaulted Dapchi in Yobe State on February 19 and forcibly took away 110 secondary school girls. However, the subsequent "release" and the reactions that greeted it suggests that the Dapchi kidnap was a mere set up of the federal government, a script dramatized to record cheap political scores. There are also the Fulani herdsmen's threats, killings and destructions of farmlands across the federation. Benue and Taraba States have been the hardest hit by the Fulani *Bororoje* onslaught as many settlements have been sacked and thousands of innocent souls sent to their early graves. The sad note is that Buhari's presidency is in a fix as to how to rescue Nigerians from the general insecurity pervading the already politically fragile country. The generality of Nigerians-students, workers, retirees, the unemployed youth in their millions, businessmen and women, industrial magnates have become disillusioned and hopeless due to the leadership failure. The story is not different in the areas of social services like transportation, aviation, health, housing and so on. The masses ply bad roads that claim hundreds of human lives on daily basis while the nation's aviation carriers had been sold off, leaving air travellers at the mercies of private airline operators who fly rickety and outdated aircraft.

The Nigerian Society and its State of Anomie in the Fourth Republic

The failure of Nigerian leaders in the so-called new democratic dispensation has aroused the anger of the citizenry. This has been demonstrated through sectarian killings as many people have been killed during senseless religious riots embarked upon by the Muslims against the Christians. This has been the situation in the Northern parts of the country where Islamic fundamentalism has led to heavy loss of lives and properties. The Boko-Haram insurgency has worsened the situation as its henchmen and suicide bombers attack and kill both Christians and Muslims due to the gross incompetence of government. In the same vein, industrial actions by workers have become a recurrent decimal. This situation results from poor conditions of service, which find expression in low wages, backlogs of unpaid salaries and allowances, dilapidated working environments, power outages among other factors. Consequently, teachers, ministry and health workers, academic and non-academic staff of tertiary institutions, judicial workers even the police have embarked on strike actions at one time or the other thereby grinding the socio-economic activities of the country. There have also been protests by senior or retired citizens as their former employers (mainly the government) have reneged on their promises to pay them their severance

allowances or gratuities as well as their monthly pensions. It is rather sad that those who had served their country meritoriously for about three decades are suffering to collect their benefits while the politicians in power smiles to the banks to claim millions of naira for serving the nation for four or eight years; after all the financial atrocities they had committed while in office. The outcome of leaders' failure as aforementioned and their inability to create jobs have paved the way for social vices like, armed robbery, kidnapping, money rituals, internet fraudulence, prostitution, larceny, street fighting, and so on.

Furthermore, the greed that permeates the appointments of federal officers like ministers, permanent secretaries; director-generals; chairmen of various boards of parastatals, commissions, and agencies, as well as service chiefs of the nation's armed forces; Inspector-General of Police, Comptroller-General of the Customs and Immigration Services and so on has left much to be desired. Such appointments have often favoured the northerners while the southerners have always decried the imbalances that characterize allocation of sensitive political, administrative, strategic and security positions. The situation is exacerbated by the lop-sidedness that pervades the locations of federal projects, revenue allocation and other resources. The absence of equitable distribution of offices and resource has largely been responsible for the existence of ethnic militancy in the south-south and south-east geo-political zones and to some extent in the south-west. Examples in the South-South include: the Niger Delta militants like the Egbesu Boys, Movement for the Emancipation of the Niger Delta (MEND) and lately the Niger Delta Avengers. In the South-East, the Movement for the Actualization of the State of Biafra led by Ralph Nwazourike and the Independent People of Biafra (IPOB) championed by Nnamdi Kanu are giving the federal government serious headache while in the South-West, the Oodu'a People's Congress led by the newly installed *Aare Ona-Kakanfo* of Yorubaland Chief Gani Adams represents the Yoruba interests. The emergence of these ethnic movements was results of the marginalization and exploitation of the Southerners by their Northern counterparts regarding inequitable distribution of juicy political-administrative positions, siting of federal projects and resource allocation. Indeed, the Niger Delta restiveness is aggravated by the degradation of their environment arising from oil exploration and gas flaring. Unfortunately, the governors of South-South feel unconcerned and are only interested in the fabulous billions of Naira derivation funds from monthly federal allocation. The militants therefore engaged in frenetic bombings and vandalization of pipelines and oil installations, kidnapping, torture and at times murder of oil workers, especially expatriates as well as hostage taking before the amnesty programme initiated by the late President Yar'Adua, through which some level of peace returned to the beleaguered zone.

The truth is that the nation is full of a galaxy of rogues who parade themselves as leaders and politicians. The political parties and ruling class are made up of rapacious individuals and band wagons, lacking moral rectitude, conscience, transparency and accountability. Credible politicians have become essential commodities and those who parade the corridors of power are there in order to achieve their selfish ends. They are rogues, highly insensitive to the ordeal of their followers. Little wonder. they engage in political prostitution, by moving from one party to another, in order not to jeopardize their selfish interests by remaining in a party that is not in power. The present nature of party configuration in the country is a testimony that the political vandals merely change political camps for achieving their selfish goals. Or what is the difference between the ruling All Progressives Congress and People's Democratic Party in terms of membership and their disposition toward the welfare of the masses? It is apposite to quote Emeritus Professor Akinjide Osuntokun who remarks with disdain:

> *…But we have never witnessed the kind of political prostitution going on now in current Nigerian politics where a former presidential flag bearer of one party would unashamedly cross over to get elected into office of governor on the platform of a party he ran against flippantly saying that there is not much difference between the two parties! What dishonesty! If politicians expect to be taken seriously, they must stay the course and show that they are not in politics for their bellies alone. There must be a higher calling than just making money and living well without work as most of our politicians tend to do.*

Even when they lose elections, they spend the people's money at election tribunals, and unfortunately, the judiciary is not better than the executive and legislative organs. The land is badly infested with political raga muffins who are hell bent on staying in power at all cost. The so called Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) worsens the situation as it has been turned into a rigging machine.

Toward Overcoming the Malady

It is important to suggest how to overcome this leadership crisis confronting the country. The ruling political class should made to know that they are elected or appointed to hold office in trust for the electorate. Nigeria is a commonwealth of the citizenry and not to be squandered by prodigal elements that are blinded by outrageous life style and self-aggrandizement. Their profligacy and arrogance of power should be curtailed through downward review of their salaries and allowances. There is no doubt that Nigerian ministers, presidents, federal lawmakers and state governors earn highest salaries in the world. This financial wastage must be speedily addressed and the bogus salaries and fringe benefits drastically reduced. The financial attractiveness and inducements attached to elective and appointive political offices motivate the politicians to engage in do-or-die politicking and unleash mayhem on those perceived to be stumbling block on their way. Moreover, it is pertinent that the nation should discontinue with the current presidential system of government modelled after that of the United States of America. The bicameral system of legislature leads to a lot of waste of resources-human, financial and materials. The upper chamber or senate is composed of people who are fantastically remunerated. Their existence amounts to nothing but duplication of duties that the lower house or House of Representatives can handle even better. Furthermore, the lawmakers should have their salaries pro-rated, that is, they should be paid in accordance with the number of sessions they attend to state matters or affairs, either at the state or federal level. There are many among those parading themselves as lawmakers who are habitual absentees while many have never contributed intelligently to the process of law making nor sponsored a single bill. Many people even sleep and are fond of snoring in their so-called hallowed chambers. The situation is more complicated by the fact that a sizeable number among them are poorly educated who hardly grasp what is being discussed. The basic truth is that most of them see law-making as money spinning venture while some are semi-literate and lack good command of English. This therefore borders on the quality of the people being elected or rigged into office as law makers.

In addition, the leaders should reflect on their stewardship by allowing their conscience to prick their hearts. No matter the level of constitutional reform or reduction in their salaries, the most important thing is that they must know that they are in the office not because they are the best but by sheer providence. Hence, they should take into cognizance the need to handle the welfare of their principals – the electorate – in all ramifications with all seriousness it requires. They are the ones who have to decide on turning a new leaf in their attitude to governance, towards ensuring that the masses get their fair share of the nation's resources through their judicious allocation and utilization. The judiciary which ought to be the defender of the masses has failed as the lawyers and more unfortunate the judges have become so corrupt that dispensation of justice has been relegated to the background. Hence, the politically influential and money bags with their ill-gotten wealth are favoured even when there are evidences proving that they are guilty. Therefore, the leaders should allow conscience to guide them in the running of the nation's affairs. This is necessary because the present leaders seem to be worse and merciless than those of the 20th century. Writing in 1983, the Nigeria's late literary icon, Chinua Ache avers:

> *The trouble with Nigeria is simply and squarely a failure of leadership. There is nothing basically wrong with the Nigerian character. There is nothing wrong with the Nigerian land or climate or water or air or anything else. The Nigerian problem is the unwillingness or inability of its leaders to rise to the responsibility, to the challenge of personal example which are the hallmarks of true leadership.*

The above quotation aptly sums up the leaders' attitudes which has not reflected any positive change since thirty years when Achebe wrote.

Conclusions

This study describes leadership crisis as the major challenge of Nigeria. The leaders have performed woefully to the chagrin of the masses. Though, pummelled under the various military autocracies that occupied the country's political stage prior to the birth of the Fourth Republic, the electorate and generality of the people hoped to have enhanced quality of life in the new democratic experiment. However, the reality soon dawned on them that they have got it wrong as the ruling class sooner than later subjected them (the electorate) to abject poverty and utter neglect of their welfare in every sector of the economy. The public enterprises were got rid of leading to heavy job losses, embezzlement of the financial proceeds and the masses' inability to access quality health services, food, good accommodation, and qualitative infrastructural facilities. There exists also general insecurity that threatens the citizens on daily basis. The solutions projected above can bring about a good country controlled by selfless and committed leaders. The economy, is advised, should be industrialised and diversified while quality education, medical provision, job opportunities, reliable security agencies, among other things, would help the followers to have trust in their leaders. This will therefore reduce the tension and hostility in the country. This step should be included in policies and programmes that are people oriented which must be implemented with sound political will.

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Legal Education in Nigeria: Trends in Quality Assurance

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Abstract
Bearing in mind that the extent of the quality inserted into the input and process variables of an education system have far reaching implications on quality of its output; a system approach to quality assurance demands that dimensions of input, process and output should be taken seriously. It is in realization of this that this paper, which is a doctrinal research aims at evaluating the developments in the concept of quality assurance in relation to legal education system in Nigeria. In order to appreciate the trends, the processes of admitting applicants into law faculties of Nigerian universities; employment and promotion of law teachers; external examiners' s ystem and accreditation process are examined. It is found that while quality assurance activities are being enhanced, improvements in the worth of graduates from the system is not, so far reputed to be consistent with the resources exerted to assure quality. These beckons for rejuvenation and strengthening of the momentum. Accordingly, recommendations are made for more collaborative efforts and improved material, financial and human resourcing between the regulatory agencies statutorily empowered to assure quality; and setting up of observatory on quality assurance. This is indispensibe if we must ensure production of competent lawyers to meet the challenges of globalization.

Keywords: Legal-education, Quality-assurance, Accreditation, Nigeria.

Introduction

This paper assesses the trends in the concept of Quality Assurance (Q.A) with focus on Nigerian legal education system. In order to appreciate the trends, the paper apparises the processes of admitting candidates into law faculties of Nigerian universities; appointment and promotion of law teachers, external examiners' system and accreditation process. The paper establishes that while the Q.A activities are somewhat on the up and up, the improvement in the worth of graduates from the system is not really perfectly consistent with the resources put forth to assure quality. The paper concludes with suggestions that the momentum should be revitalized and strengthening; and that there should be more collaborative efforts to improve resourcing between the Council of Legal Education; the National Universities Commission and the Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board–the regulatory agencies that are statutorily empowered to assure quality of legal education.

History of Quality Assurance in Legal Education

The developmental history of Quality Assurance in legal education in Nigeria began in April 1959. That was when the government appointed a Committee on the future of the legal profession in the country, with the mandate *inter alia* "to consider and make recommendations for the future of the legal profession in Nigeria with particular regard to legal education and admission to practice".

Fears were being expressed about the quality of legal education, because at that time there were no Nigerian institutions of higher learning offering law as a course of study. Thus, any Nigerian who aspired to practice law in the country had to be trained in the United Kingdom. But there were deficiencies in the English trained lawyers practicing in Nigeria, as among other things, a person could be qualified as a legal practitioner without knowing anything about Nigeria's customary law, and without offering any course on Nigerian legal systems, or any acquaintance with Nigerian local legislations. In addition, most of the lawyers were trained in the United Kingdom only as barristers, whereas on enrolment at the Supreme Court in Nigeria they were entitled to practice both as barristers and solicitors without any further training in respect of their deficiencies. It was therefore, not easy for them to render efficient service as legal practitioners.

As a result, the government setup the Committee which consisted of all the Regional Attorneys-General, the Solicitor-General of the Federation, the Legal Secretary of the then Southern Cameroon, six other distinguished legal practitioners and Mr. E.I.G. Unsworth QC the Attorney General of the Federation as the chairman. It was the report of the Committee that led to the establishment of the first full fledged law faculty at the University of Nigeria, Nsukka in 1961; and in three other universities, namely, University

of Lagos, University of Ife (now Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-ife) and Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria by 1962. The report also led to the establishment of the Council of Legal Education; and the Nigerian Law School in 1962. For deatailed history of legal education in Nigeria, see: (Okonkwo, 2000: 1-37); (Oba, 2007: 14-38); (Egbewole and Yusuf, 2010: 357); (Arewa, 2010: 395, 440); (Obilade, 2002: 271-272).

The Role of Accreditation in Quality Assurance

It is important to state from the outset that Quality Assurance is not synonymous with accreditation as it may be erroneously conceived. Accreditation can be broadly defined as a process leading to the granting of official approval to a law degree programme of a university, after meeting a set of minimum criteria or after a successful assessment exercise. It could also mean the process by which the quality and standard of law faculties are assessed. Quality Assurance on the other hand, and in relation to legal education system, is an umbrella concept for a host of activities that are designed to enhance the value of input, process and output of the legal education system. Okebukola (2010) defines quality assurance as a label for the process of ensuring fitness or suitability for purpose. Thus, accreditation may be said to be one of the activities in quality assurance.

In Nigeria, two main national regulatory agencies are statutorily empowered to assure quality of legal education. These are the National Universities Commission and the Council of Legal Education (National Universities Commission Act: 1974), (Legal Education, Consolidation, etc, Act: 1992). Laws setting up Universities and the Nigerian Law School superintended by the two agencies also accord them concurrent powers to assure quality (University of Ilorin Act). Accreditation exercises by the NUC are based on the approved Minimum Academic Standards made pursuant to section 10 of the Education (National Minimum Standards and Establishment of Institutions) Act. Failure to comply with the standards are to be detected and "made known to the proprietor who would…take appropriate steps to correct the deficiencies" while programmes which are not accredited are to be subjected to periodic visit to ensure that the deficiencies are rectified. Presently, the Council of Legal Education limits its involvements into the universities to conduct of periodic visitations and fixing of the quota of intakes by each law faculty. This is based on the availability of facilities and strength of the academic staff. But it also has the power to withdHraw recognition from a law faculty that falls short of its standards (Legal Education, Consolidation, etc, Act: 1992).

Basics of Quality Assurance in Legal Education

Quality assurance, in relation to legal education is an all-encompassing principle for multitude of undertakings patterned to enhance the value of input, process and output of legal education. It has been described as course of actions to ensure suitability for purpose (Okebukola: 2010). And it has components which are both internal and external to the law faculties. The internal components of quality assurance include the internal examination, academic and management audit system. A law faculty engage in these activities to be assured that it is on course to fulfilling its mission in terms of quality of input, process and output. External validation is also necessary in order to be sure that the law faculty is at per with others with same mission. Agents external to the faculties are players in external validation while the key activities are accreditation, periodic monitoring and evaluation by regulatory agencies, visitation panel and external institutional audit.

The processes of quality assurance examine the efficacy of the basics of teaching, learning and service activities of a law faculty. For instance, the quality of law graduates can be measured by how well they are being prepared to serve the society, and for meeting the challenges of legal practice. It can also be evaluated by finding out how efficient the law teachers are, and the adequacy of the facilities needed for learning. The efficacy of quality assurance may be known through supply of information to concern parties about the worth of legal education delivery system.

Dimensions of Quality Assurance

It has long been realized that the extent of excellence inserted into input and process variables of education, including legal education system, have far reaching implications on the quality of its output (Obanyan: 2004), (Oladosu: 2010: 147). In view of this, a system approach to quality assurance demands

that dimensions of input, process and output should be focused on. The input segment includes students, teachers, facilities, curriculum, non-teaching staff, finance, instructional materials and other resources. As regards the process dimension emphasis is on teaching and learning methods, evaluation and examination, system of external moderation, internal efficiency *et cetera*, while the output includes a skilled, employable lawyers, responsible citizens/lawyers with positive change in behaviour. Dimensions of quality assurance in relation to Nigerian univertity's law faculties would now be described below in material details.

1. Input Dimension

a. Quality of Students

The quality of candidates aspiring to have legal education is a core element in the consideration of quality graduates. For candidates seeking admission through the Unified Tertiary Matricularion Examination (UTME) five 'O' level Credits, to include English Language and Literature-in-English in the Senior School Certificate Examinations (SSCE) is the minimum qualification for entry into the degree programmes in law. Candidates also sit for the UTME conducted by the Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board (JAMB) established by the JAMB Act in 1978. But apart from the "acceptable" minimum UTME score which is set as the national cut off point, universities are at liberty, and almost all have set higher marks for their law faculties, and using same for eligibility to sit for another set of tests referred to as post-UTME screening. At the University of Ilorin only candidates scoring 270 marks or higher out of 400 marks are eligible to sit for its post-UTME screening in its Common Law programme (www.unilorin.edu.ng/index php admissions). The quality of candidates finally admitted, which ultimately determines output, is based on the thoroughness of the conduct of the UTME and post-UTME. Indeed, it has been observed that since the post-UTME or Pre-admission screenings exercise began in UNILORIN, there has been a drop in the attrition rate after the first year. This is due principally to the admission criteria employed which has led to the choice of better qualified candidates (Ayorinde and Olasehinde-Williams 2010:304).

b. Quality of Law Teachers

In Nigerian law faculties, quality of the lecturers is addressed, first at the point of recruitment; and subsequently through evaluations for promotion and in-service training. The NUC's Approved National Minimum Academic Standards (Law) for Universities, which is made pursuant to section 10 of the Education (National Minimum Standards and Establishment of Institutions) Act 1985 prescribes the least qualifications for direct appointment; and conditions for career progression of law teachers from the position of an Assistant Lecturer through Senior Lecturership to the Professorial cadre. To be appointed as an Assistant Lecturer in a law faculty in Nigerian university, a candidate must hold a good Honours (Upper Division) Degree in law from a recognized institution; and must have been called as a Barrister and Solicitor of the Supreme Court of Nigeria. However, such new lecturers are usually confined to tutorials and students' assignments for the first two sessions of the appointment (NUC Approved MAS for Universities: 1989: 19). But to be appointed as a Lecturer II, the candidate must possess the qualification of an Assistant Lecturer, plus at least a Master Degree in Law. In addition to academic qualifications, individual universities through its Appointment and Promotion Committees have specified conditions, such as number, quality and proportions of publications in peer reviewed journals; administrative experience among others for academic progression (Chapter 9 of the Revised Regulations Governing Conditions of Service for Senior Staff, cited in the call circular for year 2020 promotions exercises for promotion of academic staff etc dated 18th May 2020). It must be added that, to further assured quality, most law faculties are now intensifying efforts towards arranging exchange programmes. Lecturers are being sponsored to learned conferences, seminars, retreats, and for higher degrees locally and internationally within the limits of the dwindling budget of the university.

c. Infrastructural Facilities

To assure quality, minimum standards have also been set for some basic infrastructural facilities within the law faculties. It is against these standards that the quality of facilities is assessed. For instance, it is required that a law faculty should be a separate and distinct complex, exclusively for law programmes; and the building should be provided with functional conveniences for staff, students and visitors. A law

faculty is also required to have well furnished and electronically equipped classrooms, a separate law library which must be ICT compliant and fully supported with e-library. It should also have at least subscription to basic legal data bases such as Hein on line, West Law, Lexis-Lexis etc; sufficient law reports, current books and journals. The law libarary must be well spaced, enough to accommodate at least one-third of the projected ultimate students' population; and be manned by a professional librarian with a university degree in Law. There must be a well-spaced and well-equipped moot court room specifically designed to suit the purpose. There should also be tutorial rooms, student-common room, exclusive and well-equipped staff offices, as well as an auditorium that can accommodate the ultimate projected students' population. However, hardly can any of the existing law faculties, both in the private and public universities boast of running a functional faculty of law in the light of these standards; or even relatively available facilities as to engender the dreamt quality legal education that would be relevant in the 21st century (Egbewole & Yusuff: 2010:372).

d. Curriculum

As part of the Minimum Academic Standard (MAS), a minimum content load is specified for the curriculum. These are the core courses that must be passed regardless of whether the student studies Common Law or conbined Common and Islamic Law and; regardless of the university which the student attend in Nigeria. The MAS prescribes twelve compulsory core law courses, ten optional law courses, and seven non-law courses which "may be so important in the life of a lawyer" as to be made compulsory for the five year law programme. The twelve compulsory core law courses are: i. Legal Method ii. Nigerian Legal System iii. Constitutional Law iv. Contract Law v. Criminal Law vi. Law of Torts vii. Commercial law viii. Law of Evidence ix. Land Law x. Law of Equity and Trusts xi. Company Law; and xii. Jurisprudence and Legal Theory. For those offering combined law at the University of Ilorin, the following courses, namely i. Introduction to Islamic Law ii. Islamic Constitutional Law iii. Islamic Law of Crimes and Torts iv. *Mu'amalat* (i.e. Islamic Law of Transactions) v. Islamic Family Law vi. *Mirath & Wasiyyah* (i.e.Islamic Law of Intestate & Testate Succession vii. *Usul-Al fiqh* (i.e. Islamic Jurisprudence viii. Islamic International Law ix. Mura'faat (i.e. Islamic Law of Evidence) x. Islamic Law of Banking v. Islamic Property and Company Law, are in addition compulsory law courses.

The ten optional law courses include i. Administrative Law ii. Family Law iii. Revenue Law iii. Industrial Law iv. Banking and Insurance Law v. Public International Law vi. Conflict of Laws vii. Introduction to Islamic Law viii. Conveyancing ix. Criminology x. Healthcare law. The seven compulsory non-law courses are i. Use of English ii. History & Philosophy of Science iii. Logic & Philosophic Thought iv. Nigerian People and Culture v. Introduction to Computer and Applications and vi. English Literature. There are also optional non-law courses and such other non-law courses as a law faculty may determine from time to time. Thus the list of optional law and non law course are left opened, with the expectation that the faculties will add to the minimum, with a view to further enriching their curriculum; and so that courses that are no longer relevant may be eliminated and new ones added in response to national and global developments.

However, the law curriculum at the moment does not seem to prepare the students to fittingly respond to the era of globalization. This is because, while the future of legal profession lies in international practice, Nigerian trial lawyers seem not to be suitably learned in the law of other countries even if allowed to practice there. Nigeria's legal education should therefore include such courses as comparative legal systems. The faculties should take steps to continually add to the minimum to further enrich their curriculum in response to national and global development. Taking advantage of this expectation, the University of Ilorin law faculty, has added courses such as Environmental Law; Alternative Disputes Resolution/Commercial Arbitration; Research Methodology and Field Work *et cetera*. In addition, apart from a bit of acquaintance of Islamic law which the combined law graduates can boast of, other law graduates know near to nil of customary law and Islamic law apart from their "repugnant" aspects (Oba, 1999-2003), (Aguda: 1989: 249-266), (Tilley-Gyado, 1993-1995). Yet all lawyers have an unhindered right of audience before the *Shari'ah* and customary courts. It is undreamed of how a Nigerian lawyer who is ignorant of his own native laws and customs can be an instrument of social change.

e. Quality of Research Activities

It has been realized that in order to assure quality of legal education, there is the need to have competent law teachers that not only excel in quality teaching; but are also true legal researchers disposed to doing forefront research; and can standtall among the best researchers in the world. To this end, most law faculties have, in addition to quality teaching, community service and administrative experience laid greater emphasis on the requirements of publications in reputable learned journals.

To assured quality of academic publications, strict guidelines are being adopted for assessing the quality and spread of such publications on the basis, for instance, that to be promoted to the rank of a Senior Lecturer, Reader and Professor respectively not less than 10, 20 and 30 per cent respectively of the publications must be in established foreign/international journals (UNILORIN: Call circular Ref. UIL/R/E/277/XIII, for Year 2020 promotion exercise for promotion of academic staff positions etc dated 18th May 2020). This is designed to ensure that law/academic research in Nigeria matches the highest standards. Egbewole and Yusuf (2010) have however noted, with dismay that research activities among vast majority of Nigerian law teachers are more towards theoretical or doctrinal researches. They are of the view, and rightly too, that most of their colleagues are more involved in mainly library-based research to the detriment of empirical legal research which the learned authors believe, citing Hadfield (2009:20) "are the hottest trend in legal scholarship" and more beneficial to the society at large because it looks into the implications of the law on the real world, rather than to just look at the theory.

Undeniably, most of the papers being refereed to by Egbewole and Yusuf (2010) are not insightful, methodical, and more often than not, are found irrelevant; and that is why, not even fellow academics rely on them. Also, relatively few courts and counsels, or even policy makers, legal or otherwise rely on such researches. Indeed, at the level of the Courts, academic papers are seldomly regarded as very relevant. Only a naïve counsel would goof to refer to findings in academic journal articles at oral arguments. In addition, only a few law scholarships serve meaningful teaching instructional or pedagogical use when it come to teaching law students, as most of the lecturers are so obsessed in their own academic pursuits that they are more often than not unconcerned with students' instructional needs.

2. Process Dimension

a. Teaching Methods

To make teaching and learning experience yield the expected results several approaches to teaching are now being adopted in most law faculties. Formally, teaching used to be principally by the lecture's method, whereby the teacher talks or delivers a predetermined body of knowledge to his students, while the students listen and jot down points or take notes. The teacher entertained questions either to emphasize or make certain points clearer. However, in realization that this method was more teacher centred, most law faculties have, over the years made conscious efforts to whittle down the method.

The trend in the law faculty of the University of Ilorin lean towards the discussion-interactive method, which is in contrast with the lecture's method. This is students centred approach in which the students actively participate in teaching-learning activities. It is a "do it yourself" approach in which the class is arranged into small or large groups for discussions and presentations on a pre-determined topic. Moot and mock trials as well as tutorials are now more than ever before being emphasized, so that as much as practicable, the students are actively involved while the teacher remains the "chairman". However, transactions in classrooms, moot and mock trials are hardly subjected to direct quality check, while teaching/learning is only assessed indirectly through student's assessments of their lecturers and the performance of students at the end of the course.

b. Examination/External Moderation System

In line with the minimum academic standards, the system of examinations/course unit system is the most widely used course evaluation methods adopted by all law faculties in Nigeria. This is as opposed to the English traditional method of lectures/tutorials with sessional examinations and in which the fate of the learners is determined by a single examination. In addition, the system of Continuous Assessment of Students through occasional written tests and/or term papers to be allocated between 30%-40% of the total grading in each course is the trend (Chukkol 2000: 63). The immediate advantage of this system is

that it makes students to work continuously hard throughout the session. This is because their fate is not determined by a single examination taken at the end of the session, as they are required to take at least two examinations in a session. Added to these are the continuous class works and assignments given to them during each of the semester. At University of Ilorin, it is a requirement that continuous assessment forms at least 30% of the total scores in each subject of study.

In addition, since the 2009/2010 academic session, the Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA) of 1.5 has been laiddown as a minimum requirement for goodstanding and award of Degree at the law faculty of university of Ilorin. This has effectively abolished the Pass degree. Students who have insufficient credit earned or lower than the designated GPA are advised to withdraw from the faculty. And in line with the MAS documents all question papers and examination scripts of final year students are externally moderated.

3. Output Dimensions

The output dimension of quality assurance has to do with the results or consequences of the input and process dimensions. The output dimesion include skilled and employable law graduates, responsible citizens/lawyers with positive change in behavior; and of course, ability to conduct excellent advanced research in law. This paper however focuses on what has been put in place to elevate the quality assurance profile of these outputs.

Skilled/Employable Lawyers and the Relevance of Continuous Legal Education

The legal profession has come to appreciate the value of refreshers' programme, otherwise referred to as the Mandatory Continuous Legal Education (MCLE), or Continuing Professional Development Program (CPDP). This has been instituted throughout the career of a member of the legal profession in order to further assure quality and professional competence. Thus, by virtue of rules 15 (a) and 7(1) of the MCLE Rules, 2008 made pursuant to Rule 11 of the Rules of Professional Conduct for Legal Practitioner 2007 it is now required of all lawyers-whether academics or in active legal practice to subject themselves to Mandatory Continous Legal Education.

The compulsory refreshers program is essentially a post-call orientation, organized by the Nigerian Bar Association (NBA), International Bar Association (IBA), the Continuous Legal Education Association of Nigeria (CLEAN); and other professional bodies and legal entities such as the National Human Rights Commission and the Legal Aids Council (LAC) *et cetera*. It is done in the forms of lectures, conferences, workshop, seminars, presentations of valuable information on legal profession, consistent study and assimilation of case laws, law reports, magazines and new legislations at all aspects and levels.

To assure quality, Rule 7(2) of the MCLE Rule requires that, for a lawyer to be entitled to teach any law course and in any recognize law faculty or at the Nigerian Law School, whether as full-time or as a part-time law lecturer after the commencement of the rules, he must obtain a certificate from the Institute of Continue Legal Education (ICLE). This is after completing a basic course on law teaching skills totaling at least 24 hours of instruction. The course covers such topics as curriculum development, clinical legal education, teaching methods, assessment methods, and ethics for law teachers. Rule 7(1) provides that to be entitled to practice law before any court or tribunal as a legal practitioner, every person enrolled to practice in Nigeria after the commencement of the rules must obtained a certificate from the ICLE established by the NBA after completing a basic course on trial advocacy totaling at least 24 hours of instruction. In addition to the requirements above,–every lawyer enrolled in Nigeria is required to complete 30 hours of mandatory CLE activities during every two-year reporting period, while every Senior Advocates and Benchers must complete 24 hours of mandatory continous legal education during every three-year reporting period.

The standard by which participants of continous legal education are being assessed takes the form of credit rating by which attendance at specific programmes gives a lawyer an edge over a colleague who has not attended any program within the reporting year. In addition to these, lawyers have to learn, not just from themselves, but also from other professionals such as medical-practitioners; the clerics, educationist, political scientists, historians and the sociologists. to mention but a few, since there is the

need for lawyers to be knowledgeable from a broader background to practice law (Solanke:1997: 45, 63), (Oba 2007: 35).

b. Responsible Citizens/Lawyers with Positive Change in Behaviour

To further assure the quality of the output of legal education, a number of ethical codes or rules of professional conducts has been laiddown. For instance, a legal practitioner is under section 9 of the Legal Practitioners Act to exercise professional competence. He is not immune from liability for damage attributable to his negligence while acting in his capacity as a legal practitioner. And any agreement purporting to exclude or limit his liability is of no consequence. Rule 4 of the Rule of Professional Conduct requires a legal practitioner to *be candid and fair* as the court is entitled to rely on his assistance in ascertaining the truth of any matter. As an officer in the temple of justice, a legal practitioner must make the fullest disclosure of evidence, even where such disclosure will be adverse to his case. He must not knowingly mislead or standby and allow the court to be misled. When engaged in public prosecution his primary duty should be to see that justice is done (*Enahoro v The State:*1965), (*Odofin Bello v The State*: 1967). Suppression of facts capable of establishing the innocence of the accused is unethical under Rule 9(d) of the Rule of Professional Conduct.

Furthermore, a lawyer must decline to conduct a civil case or defend it, when he is convinced that it is intended merely to harass or injure the opposite party, or to work oppression (RPC: Rule 22). Thus, it is an abuse of legal process to issue a writ knowing that there is no real cause of action. Indeed, a legal practitioner may be required to refund the costs to which his client has been put. It is also an unprofessional conduct for a lawyer to instigate litigation either directly or through agents (RPC: Rule 25). He is duty bound to open a separate bank account for the keeping of money received on behalf of his clients; and should not make withdrawal from it unless permitted by the rules. He must avoid all forms of sharp practices and keep promises (RPC: Rule17). It is important to add that a breach of any of the above rules may under section 11 of the Legal Practitioners Act lead to striking off, of the name of a legal practitioner from the roll of call, or suspension from legal practice for a specified period of time, or any other direction as the circumstances of the case may require.

Conclusions

The main thrust of this paper has been to explain the prevailing system in quality assurance in of legal education especially at the law faculties across Nigeria. Aspects of inputs, processes and outputs have been examined in some relevant details. It appears feasibly on papers, that no system of education or profession assures quality as much, authough improvement in the worth of law graduates are not known to be perfectly consistent with the resources put forth to assure quality. Accordingly, there is the need for more collaborative efforts and improved resourcing between the Council of Legal Education; the National Universities Commission and the Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board and; setting up of observatory on quality assurance.

In addition, we must endeviour to continue to constantly reconsider the minimum academic standards in a way to assure excellence in the quality of legal education. In the main time, we must strive to comply strictly with, or surpass the existing standards, we must be disciplined law lecturers, and renewed our commitment to quality teaching and scholarship. This are *sine qua non* if we must ensure production of high-level human resources to meet the challenges of globalization. It is strongly believed that if suggestions made herein are taken seriously and reflected in our attitude, they will go a long way in assuring quality of the output of the legal eduaction system. But while a hundred percent success can not be claimed the existing safeguards arguably represents a bold step in the direction of achieving a quality legal education in Nigeria.

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Access to Court and Access to Justice: Piercing through the Conceptual Ambiguities and Matters Arising

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Abstract
There is conceptual problem on 'access to court' and 'access to justice. Thus, there is need to clarify the conceptual ambiguity arising from the wrong impression that many have on the concept of access to court and access to justice. This paper therefore examined the concept of right of access to court and right of access to justice taking into consideration various opinions of writers who have written on the subject matter. To achieve the above stated objectives, the research methodology employed in this paper is qualitative. Hence, the paper adopted doctrinal approach which entails library – based analysis of the content of both the primary and secondary sources of information. The primary sources in this regard include the various international instruments such as the United Nations Human Rights Treaties in Africa Situation, 1996; Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948, Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms 1985, African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights (Ratification and Enforcement) Act, as well as national legislations such as the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999 (as altered), the Constitution of Uganda and the Constitution of the United States of America, and case laws. The secondary sources on the other hand are textbooks, journal articles, law reports, newspapers and internet materials. The paper found that the Constitutions of many countries guarantee right of access to court and right to access to justice but in practice, some of the Constitutions protect the right of access to court more than the right of access to justice. The study also found that the judiciary in most commonwealth countries is not inclined to adopt liberal approach while interpreting the provisions of some statutes or enactments which purport to impose limitation on the fundamental right of access to justice, they prefer to throw away genuine cases based on avoidable mere technicalities. This paper concluded that for people to enjoy effective and efficient access to court and access to justice, the courts should adopt liberal approach in interpreting the constitutional provisions on right of access to court. This will enhance proper dispensation of substantial justice to all citizens on equal basis without any form of discrimination or bias.

Keywords: Access, Court, Justice, Human rights, Ambiguity.

Introduction

The constitution guarantees right of access to court in many countries including Nigeria, [1] United States of America[2] and Uganda[3] as the last hope of common citizen. Court serves as the venue where aggrieved persons ventilate their grievances. Therefore, to properly dispense justice to all manner of persons in accordance with the law, easy accessibility of court must be guaranteed.[4] According to Justice Hugo Black of the United States Supreme Court in the case of *Barenblatt v. United States*,[5] court is like a refugee camp for the helpless ones who are victims of prejudice and public excitement. The constitutional provisions that guarantee access to court will be obsolete and meaningless if the citizens encounter unnecessary obstacles or difficulties before having access to court. It has also been held in the case of *Yusuf v. Obasanjo*[6] that fair hearing includes but not limited to free access to court and access to justice at any given time without unlawful hindrance or interference. Consequently, a person can be said to have been denied his right of access to justice if the person is not accorded his right of access to court as held in the case of *Unongo v. Aku*.[7]

Right of access to court is not an ordinary right (like the rights enumerated under chapter II of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria). It forms part of the fundamental rights adumbrated under chapter IV of the said Constitution[8] and the Constitution of the United States of America (hereinafter

[1] See section 6 of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999 (as altered).
[2] See article III of the Constitution of United States of America.
[3] See article 28 (1) of the Constitution of Uganda, 1995
[4] Ese, M; 'The Nigerian Constitutional Law' (Princeton Publishing Company, Lagos, 2015) 114
[5] (1957) 274 US 357 at 367
[6] (2003) 16 NWLR (pt. 847) 554 at 603 – 605
[7] (1983) 2 SCNLR 332.
[8] See section 46 (1), 1999 Constitution (as altered)

referred to as USA).[9] This paper is therefore intended to examine and to clarify the discrepancies associated with the concept of access to court and access to justice. The paper also analyzed the differences between the two terms and the importance of the distinction between them by making reference to some selected commonwealth countries such as Nigeria, Uganda, Tanzania, South Africa and United States of America.

Meaning of Access to Justice

Access to justice is the ability of both the low- and middle-class people to get the necessary legal aid and information they need at any particular time.[10]

The term "access to justice" is a generic word.[11] It engages a wider meaning which includes but not limited to right of access to court, right to legal representation by individuals who could not afford legal service because of high cost, avoidance of unnecessary delay and technicality in the legal system, right to fair hearing, right to be heard by impartial judge and right to know the outcome of trial or proceedings and the like.[12]

Access to justice also emphasizes the need to minimize or put an end to inadequacies and limitations associated with legal system by calling for reform of justice system, simplifying procedural and formal requirements and implementing mechanisms for group and third-party claims.[13]

With the advent of Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms in 1985, the idea of broader conception of access to justice came up.[14] The approach looks beyond equality of opportunity for underprivileged or underrepresented litigants.[15] It focuses on how to achieve equality of outcomes by addressing the problems militating against people who are struggling to have access to judicial system.[16]

It can be deduced from the above definitions that access to justice encompasses or absolves other approaches such as alternative dispute resolution like arbitration, mediation, conciliation and other measures in an effort to solve legal problems before getting to litigation stage in court of law. Furthermore, access to justice has been described as a basic principle of law.[17]In the absence of access to justice, people will not be able to have their voice heard, exercise their rights, challenge discrimination or hold decision-makers accountable for their actions.[18]

The substance of right of access to justice basically involves the availability of accessible, affordable, timely, effective and efficient means of redress or remedies. The remedies may be derived through formal court system or through other avenue lawfully and legally permitted in the society by the enabling law.

Access to justice is more than mere improving an individual's access to courts with legal representation. It involves the ability of people to seek and obtain a remedy through formal institutions of justice for their grievances in compliance with human rights standards. Right of access to justice is a right recognised globally through various instruments, laws or enactments.[19]

Meaning of Access to Court

[9] See article III of the Constitution of the United States of America

[10] Michael, D. 'Justice for All' Canadian Bar Association National: Legal Insights & Practice Trends available at https://www.nationalmagazine.ca> assessed on 27 January 2020

[11] Ibid

[12] Bogart, W.A., et al, 'Access to Justice for a New Century: The Way Forward' (Law Society of Upper Canada, Toronto, 2005) available at https:www.aclc.com/what-is-access-to-justice accessed on 27 January 2020

[13] Roderic, A.M., 'Access to Justice in Canada Today' (Law Society of Upper Canada, Toronto, 2005) 19

[14] Macdonald, R.A., 'Access to Justice in Canada Today' (Law Society of Upper Canada, Toronto, 2005) available at https: www.aclc.com/what-is-access-to-justice accessed on 27 January 2020

[15] Ibid

[16] Currie, A.B., 'The Legal Problems of Everyday Life: The Nature, Extent and Consequences of Justiciable Problems Experienced by Canadians' (Ottawa Department of Justice, Canada, 2007)

[17] Ibid

[18] Ibid

[19] See United Nations Development Programme, Programming for Justice: Access for All: A Practitioners Guide to a Human Rights-Based Approach to Access to Justice, Bangkok, UNDP, 2005 available at www.europeandcis.undp.org accessed on 4 December 2019

Access to court simply refers to individual's formal right to litigate or defend a suit.[20]It also means the right to have your day in court.[21] Being a global phenomenon, the right of access to
Court may be perceived from various perspectives. According to his Lordship, Per Justice Thurgood Marshall of the Supreme Court of the United States of America, the right of access to court means:

> *"The fundamental constitutional right of access to the courts in one sense, and non-controversial part of our constitutional Law; barring usual circumstances any one can bring a lawsuit, or be heard in his or her own defense".*[22]

It is discernible from the above definition that the right of the citizens to have uninhibited access to court is constitutional in nature. It can also be said that, even before the existence of the constitution of any nation, right of access to court formed part of the tradition of the people especially in Africa traditional society.[23] In addition, any attempt by anyone to put barrier on the right of a citizen to maintain a lawsuit or be heard in a court of law will amount to infringement of the citizen's constitutional right of access to court. By its nature, the government or any constituted authority or individual person cannot interfere with the right of a citizen to approach courts of law to seek relief being a constitutional right. Justice Marshal has described the right as the "very essence of civil liberty".[24]

Access to court was viewed in another perspective as:

> *"The ability of citizens to turn to impartial arbiters to resolve disputes over access to information and participation in decisions that affect the environment. Such impartial arbiters include mediators, administrative courts and formal courts of law among others".*[25]

From whatever perspective that the term "access to court" is viewed, it is submitted that, considering various definitions discussed above, every citizen is entitled, as of right, to have his/her complaint entertained at all times by the courts of law. People are entitled to legal protection by court of law at cheaper rate. It will amount to denial of right of access to court if the cost of litigation is on the high side. The European Convention on Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms[26] and the case law of the European Court of Human Rights (ECHT) have given important guidance on the right of access to court particularly, on prohibitive cost of applying to court.[27] In the case of *Airey. Ireland*,[28]Ms Airey had argued that the prohibitive cost of applying to the High Court for a judicial separation had infringed her right of access to the courts. On examination of Article 6(1) of the Convention, the European Court of Human Rights dismissed the State's central argument that Ms Airey enjoyed access to the High Court just because she had a constitutional right to appear in person in the High Court to plead her own case. The court further held that the convention is intended to guarantee not rights that are theoretical or illusory but rights that are practical and effective.

Similarly, Lord Macaulay who headed the Law Commission of India about more than a Century ago, declared that the preamble to the Bengal Regulation of 1795 was absurd when it stated that "high court fee" was intended to drive away vexatious litigants.[29]He further stated that such increase in the filing fee will also drive away honest plaintiffs who are unable to pay court fee. Therefore, argument that court fee

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[20] Available at www.aclc.com/what-is-access-to-justice accessed on 4 December 2019

[21] Ibid

[22] *See Bounds v. Smith (1977) 430 U.S. 817.* Also available at http://www.encyclopedia.com accessed on 4 December 2019

[23] Akintunde, E., 'The Principle of African Customary Law' (Emiola Publishers Limited, Ogbomoso, 2005) 51
See also Mbiti, J.S., 'African Religions and Philosophy' (Heinemann, London, 1969) 211 where it was opined that the traditional chiefs and rulers have the duty of keeping law and order and executing justice in their areas.

[24] *See Marbuty v. Madison (1803)5 U.S. (1 Cranch) 137*. See also Carol, R.A., "A Right of Access to Court under the Petition Clause of the First Amendment: Defining the Right" Ohio State Law Journal, 1999, vol. 6, No.2 available at http://hdl.handle.net/1811/64998 accessed on 5 December 2019

[25] John, E.B; 'Best Practices – Access to Justice: Agenda for Public Interest Law Reform' available at *https://www.* best – practices _ access to _justice_7_0. doc accessed on 25 December 2019

[26] Council of Europe Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms, done at Rome, on 4 November, 1950, CETS No. 005, entry into force on 3 September, 1953, ratified by Ireland on 25 February, 1953

[27] See Article 6 (1) of the Convention

[28] 6289/73 (1979)2 EHRR 305 (9 October, 1979, (1981) ECHRI (6, February, 1981)

[29] Jgannadha, M.R., 'Access to Justice' available at https://www.dellihighcourt.nic.in accessed on 23 December 2019

be increased to prevent vexatious litigation should not be accepted as it does not only deprive the citizens their right of access to court, it also amounts to denial of right of access to justice.

In the case of *P.M. Ashwathanarayana Settee v. State of Karnataka*, [30]Venkatachaliah, J (of the Supreme Court of Indian as he then was) observed that:

> *"The court fee as a limitation to access to justice is inextricably intertwined with a highly emotional and even evocative subject simulative of visions of a social order in which justice will be brought within the reach of all citizens of all ranks in the society, both those blessed with affluence and those depressed with poverty"*.[31]

The effect of the above dictum is that all civilized governments in the world need to recognize the significant role that high filing fee plays in the life of the people who intend to access justice through court of law. Every state or country also need to realize the need to make courts accessible to every citizen by making the cost of accessing the courts so simple and affordable, otherwise, only the reach citizens would have the financial ability to approach court for redress.

The Nigerian Constitution like other commonwealth countries makes establishment of courts mandatory[32] likewise the Constitution of the United States of America.[33]The purpose of establishing courts is to make the process of adjudication fair and accessible to people on equal basis and at all material times. Thus, the court has jurisdiction to entertain and determine disputes between individuals on one hand and between individuals and the constituted authorities on the other hand. Therefore where any person feels that his right is or has or likely to be threatened, he can approach the court of law for redress without fear or favour.[34] Per Galinje, J.S.C., once held that courts are established for the purpose of settling disputes between parties appearing before them once and for all.[35] He added that once a case has been rightly and properly adjudicated, the dispute should not be revisited by way of technicality or under any disguise.

Therefore, it can be said that access to court is not analogous to access to justice and as such, the two cannot be used synonymously. The concept of access to justice is wider than the concept of access to court as justice is needed in every human affair. Be that as it may, denial of access to court may lead to denial of access to justice. The fact that a person lawfully accesses court does not mean that he will obtain justice because his right of access to court may be impaired by unnecessary technicalities that are prevailing in the formal court of law which may eventually lead to denial of access to justice. Access to justice is denied where people fear the system for dispute resolution, see it as anomaly and decide to ignore it.[36]Thus, legal impediments such as *locus standi*, statute of limitations, pre-action notice, error in signing of court processes and similar obstacles should be liberalized to enhance physical access to justice. Everybody should be given equal right and opportunity because where there is favoritism in the application and enforcement of law, justice is denied.

One important agency that can be deployed to facilitate quick access to court and effective access to justice is the Legal Aid Scheme which has been established in Nigeria to assist the indigent citizens to access court when necessary and to secure the services of Legal Practitioners to enforce their legal rights.[37] However, a careful perusal of the provisions of the Legal Aid Act, L.F.N; 2011 indicates that the Act limits the grant of Legal aid services to certain subject matters or proceedings enumerated in the Act

[30] (1989) Supp (1) SCC696

[31] Ibid

[32] See Chapter VIII, part 1, sections 230-296, Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999 (as altered).

[33] See Article III of the Constitution of United States of America.

[34] See chapter IV of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria and Article III, sections 1 and 2 of the Constitution of the United States of America and section 28 (1) of the Constitution of Uganda, 1995.

[35] See the case of *Oba J.A. Awolola, the Ededa of Eda – OniyoEkiti v. The Governor of Ekiti State* (2018) LER S.C. 194/2008

[36] Sambo, A.O., 'Limitation of Judicial Powers of Courts' Budgets and Its Effects on Courts Financial Independence and Access to Justice', Pensee Journal, (2014) vol.76, No.2, p.6

[37] See the preamble to Legal Aid Act, Cap. 205, Laws of the Federation of Nigeria, 1990 which is now Legal Aid Act, No. 17, Cap. A21, Laws of the Federation of Nigeria, 2011. See also, Nlerum, S.O; 'Access to Justice and Human Rights Protection in Nigeria: Problems and Prospects' available at http://dx.doi.org /10.1590/S1806-64452005000200007 accessed on 19 February 2019. General Olusegun Obasanjo was the first person to promulgate Legal Aid Decree in Nigeria on 26th November, 1976. See the Nation, vol. 11, No. 3773 of 22/11/2016, p.27.

which excludes some subject matters or causes of action.[38]This is not good enough to enhance quick access to justice. The congress of the United States of America also created Legal Services Corporation in 1974 in order to respond to the necessity to provide equal access to the system of justice.[39] The sponsors of Legal Services Corporation observed that provision of legal aid or legal assistance to those who face economic problems will reduce barriers militating against adequate opportunity to access justice through judicial process by the low-income persons.[40]

In order to pave way for easy access to court and access to justice, the European Convention on Human Rights also guarantees to person charged with criminal offence, the right to have legal representation including the right to access to free legal assistance if he has no sufficient means and the interest of justice so requires.[41] A person cannot benefit from this provision of the convention unless it is established that: the person does not have "enough means" (financial criterion) and free legal assistance is required" in the interest of justice" (substantive criterion).[42]

Notwithstanding the provisions of the laws mentioned above, viz-a-viz the Nigerian Constitution, the Constitution of the United States of America and the European Convention on Human Rights, some problems are impeding the actual access to justice by the prospective beneficiaries. For instance, in Nigeria, one of the major reasons why Legal Aid Act was promulgated is to ensure that every citizen, whether rich or poor, have equal access to justice through legal representation or legal aid services. But the Act limits the subject matters or proceedings upon which legal aids or services can be granted to the citizens without stating any reason, and this amounts to a clog in the wheel of administration and dispensation of justice. It also betrays the purpose for which the Act was promulgated. This submission is in accord with the view of the International Commission of Jurists at its conference on the Rule of Law in a Free Society held in Delhi in 1959 where it was observed that:

> *"Equal access to law for the rich and poor alike is essential to the maintenance of the rule of law. It is therefore essential to provide adequate legal service and representation to all those threatened as to their life, liberty, property or reputation who are able to pay for it".*[43]

Access to Court and Access to Justice: The Interface

In this paper, the literal and technical concepts of access to court and access to justice have been examined. The paper shows that the concepts of access to court and access to justice have different connotations. While access to court simply means the formal right to litigate or defend a suit in the court of law without unlawful hindrance or interference, right of access to justice is wider in meaning and scope than right of access to court. Access to justice involves putting in place machineries that can eliminate or minimize inadequacies associated with legal system prevailing in the formal court of law. Most constitutions of various countries including Nigeria, Uganda and United States of America recognise the right of access to court and right of access to justice has different legal concepts but there is strong legal relationship between the two concepts. Access to court is one of the legal ways by which justice can be obtained. Effective implementation of right of access to court will enhance efficient access to justice. However, the Constitutions of some countries do not establish mechanisms that can prevent injustice that may arise as a result of mere technicality due to strict compliance with the constitutional provisions on right of access to court. It has been held in the case of *Oba J.A. Awolola, The Ededa of Eda-Oniyo of Ekiti v. Governor of Ekiti State & 2 Ors*[44] that courts are established to decide the rights and obligations of the litigants once and for all without resort to technicalities. For instance, in Nigeria, the Constitution provides that the proceedings of any court of law or tribunal including its decision shall be held in public except as

[38] See the 2nd Schedule to the Act.

[39] See The Legal Services Corporation Act of 1974. See also Rebecca, B.P., 'Making Justice Equal' available at https://www.americamprogress.org /issues/criminal-justice/…/12/making-justice-equal accessed on 20 December 2019

[40] *Ibid*

[41] See Article 6 (3) (c) of the Convention. See also Article VII (i) (c) of the African Charter of Human and People's Rights (Ratification and Enforcement) Act, Cap. A9, Laws of the Federation of Nigeria, 2004 which provides that every individual shall have the right to have his cause heard. This comprises the right to defence, including the right to be defended by counsel of his choice.

[42] *Ibid*

[43] Omidoyin, T.J. 'Epileptic Legal Aid Scheme in Nigeria: A Breach of Right to Fair Hearing in Nigeria', Journal of Law and Constitutional Practice, 2017, vol. 10, p.32.

[44] (2018) LER SC 194/2008

otherwise provided by the Constitution itself.[45] Therefore, if the court is constrained to sit in the public and decides to sit in judge's chambers to take evidence of witnesses or delivers its judgment in the chambers, the entire proceedings of the court including the judgment so delivered shall be null and void for non-compliance with the provision of the constitution even if no miscarriage of justice is occasioned to any party before the court. In the case of Nuhu *v. Ogele*,[46] The subject matter of dispute in this case was title to land. The case was initiated at the Upper Area Court, Ilorin, Kwara State but there was appeal against the judgment of the court up to the Supreme Court which lasted for more than a decade. At the Supreme Court, the Appellant argued that the trial court delivered its judgment in the judge's chambers instead of open court contrary to the provision of section 33(3) of the 1979 Constitution and prayed the Supreme Court to declare the entire proceedings of the trial court including its judgment as null and void. The Supreme Court acceded to the Appellant's prayer; it allowed the appeal, declared the proceedings and judgment of the trial court null and void and of no effect whatsoever. The decision was based on mere technicality because the Supreme Court held that it does not matter whether any party suffered miscarriage of justice in the case or not. The court held that, what matter was that the provision of the Constitution had been contravened. Pat-Acholonu J.S.C. (as he then was) who delivered the lead judgment held that:

> *''the provision of the Constitution applies to even the Area Courts or Customary Courts, all inclusive. There is simply no escape route for any court from the operation of the constitution.''*

The above scenario shows that the Constitution favors right of access to court than right of access to justice.[47] In the normal circumstance, once it is established that no miscarriage of justice is occasioned by any party to a suit, the court is required to adopt the principle of substantial justice without resorting to technical justice. Furthermore, the case revealed that, the fact that a person succeeds in accessing court does not mean that he will access justice as the two are not the same thing. The case which had been on for about ten years was ordered to be retried denovo, not minding the injustice that might have been suffered by the plaintiff in that case.

Under the Constitution of Uganda, there is similar provision requiring public hearing or trial. For avoidance of doubt, the Uganda Constitution provides that:

> *''In the determination of his civil rights and obligations or any criminal charge, a person shall be entitled to a fair, speedy and public hearing before an independent and impartial court or tribunal established by law''*[48]. (Underlining supplied for emphasis)

Under the Constitution of the United States of America, the accused person is entitled to enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favour and to have assistance of counsel for his defence.[49] The assistance of counsel envisaged by the said Constitution is practical assistance not theoretical one. The counsel that will be assigned to an accused person in accordance with the constitutional provision should be a competent legal practitioner who has the required skills and knowledge to handle the accused person's case. In the case of *Gideon v. Wainwright*,[50] the Supreme Court of the United States held that in criminal case, any person that is too poor to hire a lawyer cannot be assured a fair trial unless counsel is provided for him. The court emphasized that right to counsel applies in all criminal proceedings where the loss of liberty maybe involved. Notwithstanding this decision, many defendants who cannot afford counsel in the United States go unrepresented or do not receive adequate and appropriate legal representation leading to denial of right to access to justice. Defendants with publicly appointed attorneys or legal practitioners are more likely to be detained before the commencement of trial and are more likely to be jailed.[51]

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[45] See section 36(3) of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999

[46] (2003) 12 SCNJ 158 at 179

[47] Ibid. See also the cases of *Edibo v. State* (2007) 5 SCNJ 325 at 335 & 343 (SC) and *Salawu v. Adza* (1997) 11 NWLR (pt. 527) 4 at 21 paras F-G and *Oviasu v. Oviasu* (1973) 11 S.C. 3 15.

[48] See section 28(1) of the Constitution of Uganda, 1995

[49] See Article VI of the Constitution of the United States of America.

[50] 372, U.S. 335. See also Article VI, U.S. Constitutional Amendment (6th amendment). See also *Argersinger v. Harmlin* 407 U.S. 25, 37 (1972)

[51] See Bureau of Justice Assistance Contracting for Indigent Defense Services: A Special Report (U.S. Department of Justice, 2000) available at http://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/bja/181160.pdf accessed on 22 January 2020

In the case of *State of New Jersey v. Terrence Miller,*[52] Terrence Miller met his Legal practitioner (appointed for him by the court for his defence) for the first time on the morning of his first hearing on drug charges. The legal practitioner, who had not handled a criminal case in seven years, was assigned to Miller's case about four days to the hearing of the case. He was only able to speak to Miller for a few minutes before the commencement of the trial, still, the presiding Judge denied Miller's lawyer's request for adjournment to prepare for his client's defence and Miller was convicted in just a few days. On appeal against the conviction, an appellate court in New Jersey affirmed the conviction on the ground that Miller failed to prove that the trial would have gone differently, had he met his legal practitioner earlier. The above cases further establish the fact that the Constitution of the United States of America also promotes right of access to court more than it promotes right of access to justice.

To further draw the line of distinction between the concept of access to court and access to justice, it is necessary to examine the case of *Mwenda v. Attorney General.* [53] In this case, Journalist Andrew Mwenda, in a radio live talk show made several critical comments against the Ugandan Government. He also expressed that the government was partly to blame for the death of Sudan's former first Vice President, John Garang, who was killed in a helicopter crash after his visit to Uganda. The state charged Mwenda with the crime of sedition under sections 39(1) (a) and 40(1) (a) of the Uganda Penal Code. The state alleged that the remarks made by Mwenda had the intention to bring into hatred and contempt or to excite disaffection against the president, the government and the Constitution. Mwenda and the Eastern African Media Institute (EAMI) challenged the constitutionality of the sections of the Penal Code on the ground that they were contrary to articles 29 (1) (a) of the Constitution and that both sections were not demonstrably justifiable in a free and democratic society as established in article 43 (2) (c) of the Constitution. In a unanimous decision of the Constitutional Court of Uganda, Chief Justice Letitia Mukasa Kikonyogo held that the sedition provisions are too vague and inhibited the enjoyment of the right to freedom of expression under article 29 of the Constitution. The Court further stated that the state had the burden to prove that sections 39 and 40 of the Penal Code were a justifiable limit to the right of freedom expression under a free and democratic society. The court concluded that the two sections were null and void to the extent of their inconsistency with the provision of article 29 of the Constitution. The above judgment emphatically upholds the rule of law and protection of the constitutional provisions. It also paved way for effective and proper implementation of right of access to justice.

The right of access to justice has, for a very long time in many jurisdictions, been considered as one of the major rights that every citizen is entitled to enjoy in a democratic and civilized society without let or hindrance. In contrast, the importance of right of access to court was elucidated by Scrutton, J in England in *Re Boaler*[54] where his Lordship stated that every subject of the king has unassailable right to appeal to the king if he alleges that a wrong punishable criminally has been done to him or has been committed by another subject of the king. He added that the right must be watched and protected jealously by the court. It is therefore necessary for the court to ensure that the legal link or relationship that exists between the two legal concepts is properly guarded so that one is not compromised in lieu of the other. It is the access to justice that gives life to access to court. Without access to justice, access to court would become meaningless as injustice, oppression and arbitrariness would become the order of the day.

This position can be corroborated by the dictum of Mokgoro, J of the Constitutional Court of South Africa who held that:

> *''The right of access to court is indeed foundational to the stability of an orderly society. It ensures the peaceful, regulated and institutionalized mechanisms to resolve disputes without resorting to self-*

[52] Suit No. A6243-07T4, Superior Court of New Jerssey, Appellate Division, June 13, 2011 available at http://caselaw.findlaw.com/nj-superior-court-appellate-division/1570547.html accessed on 21/01/2020. See also Andrew, C., 'How Much Does a Public Defender Need to Know About a Client, The Atlantic', October 23, 2013 available at http://www.theatlantic.com/national/archive/2013/10/how-much-does-a-public-defender-need-to-know-about-a-client/280761/ accessed on 27 January 2020

[53] (2010) UGCC 5 (Constitutional Petition no. 12 of 2005). Also available at https//namati.org> accessed on 13 May 2020

[54] (1915) 1 KB 21 at 26. See also Chester v. Bateson (1920) 1 KB 829; R & Paul Limited v. The Wheat Commission (1937) AC 139; Pyx Granite co Ltd v. Ministry of Housing and Local Government and others (1960) AC 260 and Raymond v. Honey (1983) AC 1

> *help. The right of access to court is a bulwark against vigilantism, and the chaos and anarchy which it causes''*[55]

The same position was held by Justice Samata of the Tanzanian Court of Appeal when he stated that a person's right to unimpeded access to court cannot be limited by mere express enactment except by the legislation which is not only clear but which is also not in violation of the constitutional provisions.[56] To this end, strict adherence to the constitutional provisions or to other enactments should not be allowed to frustrate the exercise of right of access to court and access to justice. The court should be ready to take bold decisions while interpreting any provision of any law that appears to prejudice the achievement of the legitimate objectives of right of access to court and access to justice.

Conclusions

The paper has examined the concept of access to court and access to justice literarily and technically. Attempt was made in the paper to draw line of distinction between the two terms. The work also indicated that the constitutions of some countries attach much importance to right of access to court than right of access to justice. It is therefore suggested that relevant and necessary machineries should be put in place to ensure that right access to justice is not prejudiced through strict adherence to the provisions of the constitution where such adherence is premised on mere technicality. The courts are advised to pursue the course of substantial justice since courts are not meant to punish parties for inevitable error that may be committed by them or by their counsel. There is need to minimize or put an end to inadequacies and limitations associated with legal system by calling for reform of justice system, simplifying procedural and formal requirements and implementing mechanisms that will put an end to technical justice.

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[55] See Chief Direko Lesapo v. North West Agricultural Bank and Another (2000) SA 409 (CC)
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Juridical Perspective on the Regulation of Online Dispute Resolution in Nigeria

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Abstract
Online Dispute Resolution (ODR) is a method of online dispute settlement that utilizes the traditional Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) mechanisms such as arbitration, mediation, conciliation and negotiation for resolution of disputes. Presently, ADR practitioners in Nigeria are yet to actively embrace the use of ODR to resolve disputes and by necessary implication Nigeria seems to be lagging behind other developed countries such as United Kingdom and the United States of America in the application of this dispute resolution. Taking the United States of America and the United Kingdom as models, while the United Kingdom favors a government regulatory market for ODR, the United States of America is inclined towards a free market approach and promotes minimal state regulation. Unlike Nigeria, both countries actively practice ODR and have provisions in their laws that make direct reference to it. Both countries also represent foremost economies with distinct views about how to regulate ODR. Therefore, Nigeria has the potential to catch up with this global trend if she embraces ODR in the manner in which it is practiced in the United States of America or the United Kingdom. There are numerous benefits such as preservation of anonymity, cost and time saving, convenience, flexibility, access to justice and faster case resolution, if Nigeria adopts ODR. In fact, the global reality presented by Covid-19 is such that makes virtual and online dispute resolution imperative. This article employed both the doctrinal and non-doctrinal research methodology. As a result, it adopted ideas and information gathered from primary and secondary sources of legal materials and also obtained comments and opinions from respondents during the just concluded Annual Conference of the Chartered Institute of Arbitrators United Kingdom (Nigeria branch) held in Abuja, Nigeria where participants gathered from different parts of Nigeria and the world to deliberate and brainstorm on emerging issues and challenges in Arbitration and ADR in Nigeria and Africa. ODR is dispute resolution technologically that is keeping pace with the technological advancement in this technological age. The inability to keep pace may render practitioners and service providers to be living in the past that may not enhance growth and development in this technological 21st century.

Keywords: Online Dispute Resolution, Alternative Dispute Resolution, Information and Communications Technology, Nigeria.

Introduction

A favorable legal regime on Online Dispute Resolution (ODR) in Nigeria will improve the dispute resolution environment in view of the fact that ODR is the link between the traditional ADR mechanisms such as arbitration, mediation, negotiation etc. and technology.[57]As a matter of fact, these traditional mechanisms of the face to face / physical presence for resolving disputes are now increasingly considered time consuming (in view of the delay/adjournment to achieve physical presence of both parties), expensive, and with jurisdictional problems.[58]

The emergence of ODR can be traced to 1990's,[59] at a time that witnessed the sudden increase in e-commerce.[60] At the beginning, ODR concentrated on problems such as distance as well as nature and size of the dispute[61] but it had further developed recently and has continued to improve with the advancement in science and technology.[62] For instance, the first modern ODR system which is believed to be the Virtual

[57]Aashit S, 'Using ADR to Resolve Online Disputes', (2004) Richmond Journal of Law and Technology, 10(3), 1-14
[58] Todd C. and Albert V., 'Alternative Dispute Resolution: Why It Doesn't Work and Why It Does', (1994) Harvard Business Review Journal, 1(3), 1-23.
[59]Ethan K, 'ODR: A Look at History', https://www.mediate.com>pdf>katsh accessed on 15 March 2018.
[60] Colin R, 'Online Dispute Resolution for Business: B2b, Ecommerce, Consumer, Employment, Insurance, and other Commercial Conflicts' (John Wiley & Sons, USA 2002) 21.
[61] Joint Technology Committee, 'Case Studies in ODR for Courts: A view from the front lines' www.ncsc.org>pdf>committes>jtc accessed on 15 March 2018.
[62]Mohamed S, Ethan K, and Daniel Rainey, 'Online Dispute Resolution: Theory and Practice', (Eleven International Publishing, The Hague, Netherlands 2016) 9-21.

Magistrate[63] was created in 1995 through grants from the National Centre for Automated Information (NCAIR).[64]However, in recent years, a number of happenings that suggests the beginning of a new era for ODR emerged.[65] One good example is that ODR has gone mobile.[66]Likewise, an application called Youstice[67] has made it easy for consumers and traders to resolve shopping complaints. An e-justice revolution which ultimately exposed the connection between ODR and ADR is also ongoing in the United States of America, the United Kingdom and many other parts of the world.[68]

This article considers whether ODR is necessary in Nigeria in view of the fact that the traditional ADR mechanism(s) for resolving disputes already exists and takes a cursory look at the nexus between ODR and ADR. It assesses how ODR is applied to disputes and reflects on the current state of its legal framework. It also focuses on other areas of interest such as the shortcomings, benefits, arguments in support and against the regulation of ODR in Nigeria and the approach of developed countries to the regulation of ODR within their various jurisdictions. The paper also examined how ODR should be practiced in Nigeria, drawing lessons from other countries where ODR is already practiced successfully.

The Essence of ODR with Presence of ADR in Nigeria

Legal systems are now being drawn against a crucial choice of either to adopt the traditional dispute resolution methods of resolving disputes such as arbitration, mediation, conciliation and negotiation that have fared well for hundreds of years or to find a new method which is well thought-out to be better suited to a world not attached or permanently fixed to jurisdiction and identity.[69]

It had been argued that Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) is a better and more modern way of dispute settlement and in fact seen as a default process than the other right prone mechanisms (like litigation which is an adversary method of dispute resolution) in these contemporary days.[70] Thus, if ADR is already in place then it is pertinent to bear in mind that ODR becomes imperative in Nigeria because it primarily involves ADR processes largely supported by the speed and convenience of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) and the internet which are eminently suited to the needs of e-commerce.[71] The idea of ODR emerged from the synergy involving ADR and ICT as a method of resolving disputes arising online and for which the traditional physical means of dispute resolution were inefficient or unavailable.[72]

It is pertinent to bear in mind that ADR movement was driven by the shortcomings which specifically bedeviled the traditional court system[73] and ODR has been a broader reaction against the restrictions of the offline world.[74] ODR is often confused with, or seen simply as an online form of ADR[75] with the

[63]Robert G, 'A Brief History of the Virtual Magistrate Project: The Early Months', (paper presented during the Online Dispute Resolution Conference, Washington DC 1996) 1-10.

[64] Ethan K and Janet R 'Online Dispute Resolution: Resolving Conflicts in Cyberspace', (Wiley Publishers, USA 2001) 56.

[65]Ethan K, 'Online Dispute Resolution: Some Implications for the Emergence of Law in Cyberspace', (2007) Journal of International Review of Law, Computers and Technology, 21 (2), 97-107.

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[70]Ayinla L.A and Adejare E.O, 'Espousing ADR: The Philosophies and its Perpetual Significance in Nigeria', CLJ (2017) 1 LNS (A) xlv, 1-31. See also Ayinla L.A and Oniyide T, 'The Autonomous Nature of Party Autonomy in Arbitration: An Interrogation of Perspectives, CLJ (2017) 1 LNS (A) lvi.

[71]Aashit S, 'Using ADR to Resolve Online Disputes',(2004) Richmond Journal of Law and Technology, 10(3), 1-14

[72]Ethan K, 'The Online Ombuds Office: Adapting Dispute Resolution to Cyberspace' http://www.umass.edu accessed on 18 March, 2017.

[73] Todd C and Albert V, 'Alternative Dispute Resolution: Why It Doesn't Work and Why It Does', (1994) Harvard Business Review Journal, 1(3), 1-23. See also Ayinla L.A, 'ADR: A Global Reversion to Customary Law. In Administration of Justice in the Customary Courts of Nigeria, N.M Jamo and A.M Madaki, 2009 (eds.)299-317, published by Private Law Department, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria.

[74]Kaufmann-Kohler G, and Schultz T, 'Online Dispute Resolution: Challenges for Contemporary Justice' (2004) Journal of Information and Communications Technology Law, USA, 2(5), 5.

[75]Casey L'ADR and Cyberspace: The Role of Alternative Dispute Resolution in Online Commerce, Intellectual Property and Defamation' (1996) Ohio State Journal on Dispute Resolution, 5 (2) 193-222.

primary goal of reducing or even eliminating entirely the need for parties' physical presence at a meeting or hearing.[76] But it constitutes an implementation of existing forms of ADR that enables its use on the internet,[77]hence, its relevance in Nigeria cannot be glossed over. In addition, though the main assumption of alternative methods of dispute resolution which is the presence of a third party during the process of reaching an agreement remains unchanged, ODR has enabled it attain a different character because of the use of modern forms of communication.[78]

ADR, currently in use in Nigeria, applies to tools and processes that allow parties to resolve their disputes outside of what is typically considered to be a courtroom and without a magistrate, judge, or other government provided decision-maker.[79] It is such that private parties agree to work outside the traditional adversarial set-up of the courts by using mechanisms such as arbitration or mediation to resolve issues and engage the assistance of an unbiased intermediary in the resolution process.[80] The ADR movement became popular in the seventies in reaction to court deficiencies.[81]The adoption and application of ODR will afford the parties a number of different ADR methods such as negotiation, mediation, and arbitration,[82]which is modified for online use and confers a number of advantages not available through traditional ADR.ODR services closely resemble the conventional ADR processes but provide the service in a more convenient online forum.[83] This is because service providers have greatly developed the dispute resolution process through the use of technology.[84]

The pace of traditional mediation and arbitration processes appears often too slow and costly to provide effective resolutions in the world of online transactions[85] and in response to these realities is a global move to develop online resolution platforms and systems to offer resolution options more suitable to this evolving wireless and technologically advancing world.[86] ODR should be adopted in Nigeria due to its ability to operate beyond physical borders in a very far-reaching way[87] which in turn, speeds up the dispute resolution process to reduce all forms of costs directly and indirectly associated with ADR.[88] It is commonly perceived as a logical and necessary advancement of dispute resolution that functions more quickly and efficiently than the traditional process.[89] It is also its own distinct category of dispute resolution mechanism that encompasses a broad range of artificial intelligence capabilities used to resolve a variety of dispute types and involves artificial intelligence deployed online to resolve dispute.[90] ODR combines the effectiveness of ADR with the comfort of the internet[91] and is neither in competition with

[76] David L, and Ariel A, 'Online Dispute Resolution Through the Lens of Bargaining and Negotiation Theory: Toward an Integrated Model', (2007), Cornell University Law Review Journal, 38(1), 101-142.
[77]Ethan K'ODR: A Look at History', https://www.mediate.com>pdf>katsh accessed on 15 March 2017
[78]Karolina M, 'Online Dispute Resolution: The Future of Justice' (3rded, Cracow Publications, Poland 2015) 76-86.
[79] Ibid at 88
[80]Ibid.
[81]Kaufmann-Kohler G, and Schultz T, n. 17
[82]Eunice R, 'Alternative Dispute Resolution', (paper presented at the Annual Delegates Conference of the Nigerian Bar Association, Abuja 2004), 1-16.
[83]Robert J. C, 'Online Dispute Resolution: Stinky, Repugnant, or Drab', (2017) Cardozo Journal of Conflict Resolution, 18(1) 717-758.
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[86]Niki B, 'Online Dispute Resolution' https://www.cpradr.org/strategy/online-dispute-resolution accessed on 20 September 2017.
[87] Joseph Nwazi, 'Assessing the Efficacy of Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) in the Settlement of Environmental Disputes in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria', (2017), Journal of Law and Conflict Resolution, 9(3), 26-41.
[88]David R. P, 'Online Dispute Resolution: Overcoming the Problems and Shackles of Territory', (Canadian Forum Publications, Canada 2001) 1-13.
[89]Karolina M, n. 21
[90]Arno R. L and John Z, 'Developing an Online Dispute Resolution Environment: Dialogue Tools and Negotiation Support Systems in a Three-Step Model', (Wiley Online Library, USA 2002) 287-297.
[91]Ibid at 337

nor a substitute for ADR.[92] Rather, it is a natural response to the emergence of new area of interest of human activity and consequently, new types of conflicts.[93]

ODR has different forms and engages the ADR processes assisted by the speed and convenience of ICT and the internet to suit the needs of e-commerce.[94] It engages parties in a number of different ADR methods such as negotiation, mediation and arbitration which are adapted for complete online use[95] and by so doing, confers a number of advantages not available through the process of traditional ADR to dispute resolution in Nigeria. All the above have assisted ODR to provide a more convenient online forum to dispute resolution service thereby influencing the present state of application of ODR in Nigeria.

The Degree of the Application of ODR in Nigeria Presently

There is no specific legislation on the regulation of ODR in Nigeria till date.[96] Nevertheless, it appears that the legal framework of ADR makes provisions for the use of ICT and internet to resolve dispute through the ADR mechanisms. For instance, while it may be argued that the constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999 (as amended) has not made express or clear provisions on ODR, it has relevant and useful provisions in the determination of disputes through online means using any of the ADR mechanisms.[97]This is because the combined effect of section 18(2) and 19(d) of the constitution shows that there is nothing unconstitutional in resolving disputes through arbitration and conciliation using the internet. Section 18(2) makes it the duty of the government to promote science and technology.[98] This is by way of drawing inference. However, by necessary implication, the current state of development in ADR shows the need to imbibe and inculcate the use of ICT through internet for settlement of disputes. The provision of section 18(2) is further supported by the provision of section 19(d) where the government is expected to direct its policy to settlement of international disputes through negotiation, mediation, conciliation, arbitration and adjudication.[99] Therefore, the community reading of section 18(2) and 19(d) of the constitution imposes a duty on the government of Nigeria to promote settlement of disputes through ADR mechanisms by online means which is an aspect of science and technology referred to in section 18(2) or by extension having to do with the cyberspace.

Likewise, the Arbitration and Conciliation Act CAP A.18, Laws of the Federation of Nigeria 2004 (hereinafter referred to as "The Act") does not specifically provide for ODR but contains provisions on ADR and dispute resolution generally that appears to support the use of technology to resolve disputes and may in the long run, serve as guide on the implementation and application of ODR in Nigeria. An example is section 1 of the Act which recognizes that an arbitration agreement must be in writing, such written nature may take different forms such asas telex, telegrams, e-mail or other means of communication relevant to ODR.[100] The expression "Writing" mentioned in section 1 of the Act has been

[92]Shekhar K, 'Virtual Venues: Improving Online Dispute Resolution as an Alternative to Cost Intensive Litigation', (2009), John Marshall Journal of Information Technology and Privacy Law, 27(10, 81-94.

[93]Joel B. E, 'Are we ready for Mediation in Cyberspace', (2001) Brigham Young University (BYU) Law Review Journal, USA, 5(4), 1305-1308.

[94] Roland G, 'Online Dispute Resolution and Autism Spectrum Disorder: Levelling the Playing Field in Disputes Involving Autistic Parties', (2015), Western Journal of Legal Studies, 6(2), 1-17.

[95] Maria L, 'The Role of Alternative Dispute Resolution in Government Construction Contract Disputes', (1994), Hofstra Law Review Journal, 23(1), 205-224.

[96] Doug L and Frank F. 'Online Dispute Resolution (ODR) within Developing Nations: A Qualitative Evaluation of Transfer and Impact', (2014), Open Access Law Journal, 3(1), 106-116

[97]Abdulrauf A and Daibu A, 'New Technologies and the Right to Privacy in Nigeria: Evaluating the tension between Traditional and Modern Conceptions', (2016), NnamdiAzikiweUnuversity Journal of International Law and Jurisprudence, 2(5), 113-124.

[98]Mashi S, Inkani A and Yaro A, 'An Appraisal of the Role of Science and Technology in Promoting National Development Efforts in Nigeria', (2014), The International Journal of Engineering and Science (IJES), 3(2), 56-67

[99]Oyeniyi O, 'The Legal Framework for the Institutionalization of International Commercial Arbitration in Nigeria: A Critical Review', (2013), AfeBabalola University Journal of Sustainable Development Law and Policy, 1(1), 132-147.

[100]Chukwunweike O, 'Expanding the Frontiers of Judicial Review in Nigeria: The Gathering Storm', (2011) Nigerian Juridical Review, 10(1), 1-21.

interpreted to include other channels of telecommunication such as electronic communication generated through data message or by a document transmitted from one party to another.[101]

Furthermore, the High Court Laws and Civil Procedure Rules nowadays encourage litigants to settle their differences by embracing ADR.[102] This is in view of section 274 of the Constitution that conferred on the Chief Judge the power to make rules to regulate the practice and procedure of courts in each state.[103] By virtue of this power, some State High Courts have included in their rules provisions that favour the use of ADR to promote amicable settlement[104] and these provisions appears to support the use of technology to resolve disputes thereby assisting in the implementation and application of ODR in Nigeria. The courts may with the consent of parties, refer their dispute to ad-hoc or institutional ADR institutions connected to the court system[105](court connected ADR mechanisms) such that if successful, the harmonized terms of settlement will be entered as consent judgment.[106] For example, Order 3 Rule 11 of the Lagos State High Court (Civil Procedure) Rules 2012authorizes lawsuits to be checked by the appropriate registry official such that suitably short-listed cases may be assigned for amicable resolution and transferred to the Lagos Multi Door Courthouse or other suitable ADR Institutions for resolution.[107] Similarly, Order 61 Rules 1–19 of the Borno State High Court (Civil Procedure) Rules 2012 enjoins parties and the Court to resort to the use of ADR in deserving situations.[108]The same position is obtainable under the Kwara State High Court (Civil Procedure) Rules 2005.[109]It should be pointed out that the rule of court becomes relevant to ODR at the point of filing an application for Recognition and Enforcement of arbitral award obtained in an ODR proceeding. Consequently, the High Court is fundamental to ODR because it provides avenue for the parties to arbitration agreement to harness the fruit of the arbitration proceeding.

Besides, the comments and opinions gathered from respondents during the annual conference of the Chartered Institute of Arbitrators United Kingdom (Nigeria branch) held in Abuja, Nigeria on the 24th to 26th October, 2018 revealed that although a substantial number of ADR practitioners in Nigeria have heard about ODR, there is still need for practitioners to embrace the use of ODR in resolving disputes in view of the large numbers of online transactions across borders in Nigeria. It also revealed that ODR is not regulated in Nigeria and there is a high expectation for the regulation of ODR. It revealed that the Arbitration and Conciliation Act and other existing laws on ADR are inadequate to enhance an effective legal regime of ODR in Nigeria but can be effectively reviewed to accommodate ODR. All the above comments and opinions are relevant and will go a long way to assist Nigeria if they are implemented and applied to the legal framework of ADR in Nigeria.

It should also be pointed out that there are shortcomings in the non-active practice of ODR in Nigeria. These shortcomings include parties incurring more cost in travelling,[110] longer period in resolving

[101] Umahi T and NwanoT, 'Procedural Aspect of Arbitration in Nigeria', (2012), Enugu State University of Science and Technology Law Journal, 1(1), 1-28.
[102] Ajigboye O, 'The Concept of Multi-Door Court House in Nigeria: Rethinking Frank Sander's Concept', (2014), SSRN Electronic Journal, 1(1), 1-18.
[103] S. 274 of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999.
[104] Order 25 Rule 1 of the High Court of Lagos State (Civil Procedure Rules) 2004; Order 33 Rule 2 (c) of the High Court of Kwara State (Civil Procedure) Rules 2005; Order 17 Rule 1 (a-d) of the High Court of the Federal Capital Territory Abuja (Civil Procedure) Rules 2004. See also Ayinla L.A, 'ADR in Nigeria, the Possibilities and Hindrances: A Critique (Germany: Lambert Publishing, 2016)
[105] Olufemi O and Imosemi A, 'Alternative Dispute Resolution and the Criminal Judicial System: A Possible Synergy As Salve to Court Congestion in The Nigerian Legal System', (2013), Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review (Nigerian Chapter), 1(10), 59-69.
[106] Okpaleke C, Otegbulu C and Emele R, 'Mitigating Risk Impact of Disputes on Real Estate Business and Investment in Lagos: The Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) Approach', (2014), Covenant Journal of Business and Social Sciences (CJBSS), 6(1), 1-23.
[107] Order 3 Rule 11 Lagos State High Court (Civil Procedure) Rules 2012.
[108] Order 61, Borno State High Court (Civil Procedure) Rules 2012
[109] Order 21 Kwara State High Court (Civil Procedure) Rules 2005.
[110] George H. F, 'Alternative Dispute Resolution and Emerging Online Technologies: Challenges and Opportunities', (Hastings Publications, New York 1997) 695-712.

disputes,[111] destruction of anonymity,[112] inconvenience,[113] interference from lawyers,[114] increase in the strain on the legal system and wastage of judicial resources,[115] increase in the potential to exploit the 'home court advantage',[116] lack of flexibility,[117]use of strict rules of procedure and evidence in the traditional ADR method,[118]the traditional ADR mechanisms currently in use appears not suited to dispute where parties may not emotionally be able to be in the same room and not also suited to accommodating physical disabilities,[119] decrease in parties access to justice,[120] decline in the flow and quality of information[121] etc. Notwithstanding these shortcomings, there are also arguments in support of ODR includes preservation of anonymity, cost and time saving, convenience, flexibility, access to justice, faster case resolution and compliance with 21st century advancement in ICT[122] etc. In order to overcome these shortcomings to achieve an effective practice of ODR, it is imperative that Nigeria draws lessons from the practice of ODR in other jurisdictions.

Entrenching the Practice of ODR in Nigeria: Making Deductions from other Jurisdictions

ODR is already in use in jurisdictions[123] such as the United States of America, United Kingdom and India. This paper argues that Nigeria can draw valuable lessons from these practices by adopting them where relevant into its framework.

eBay is a service provider in the United States of America that utilizes online method to resolve certain types of dispute. It is an American multinational e-commerce corporation based in San Jose, California that facilitates consumer-to-consumer and business-to-consumer sales through its websites[124] and resolves more than 60 million disputes amongst traders every year.[125]A specific area of dispute that eBay covers, is non-payment by buyers on the basis that items supplied did not match the description. In this situation, the parties are at first encouraged to resolve the matter amicably by online negotiation.[126] To do this, the online process assists them by giving a clearly structured practical advice on how to avoid misunderstandings and reach a resolution. eBay provides guidance on the standard by which the merit of complaints are assessed.[127] If the dispute cannot be resolved by negotiation, eBay offers a resolution service in which after the parties enter a discussion area to present their argument, a member of eBay's staff determines a binding outcome under its Money Back Guarantee.[128] The claim must however be escalated to eBay within 30 days from the estimated delivery date and to encourage a full opportunity for

[111] Ibid

[112]Lan Q, 'Online Dispute Resolution Systems: The Future of Cyberspace Law', (Santa Clara Law Publications, USA 2001) 858

[113]Maximilian A and Prescott. J, 'Online Case Resolution Systems: Enhancing Access, Fairness, Accuracy, and Efficiency', (2016) Michigan Journal of Race & Law 7(3), 219-220.

[114]Colin R, 'Technology and the Future of Dispute Resolution', (Dispute Resolution Magazine of the American Bar Association 2015) 6.

[115]Christine H, 'Online Dispute Resolution and Avoidance in Electronic Commerce', (paper presented at the Uniform Law Conference, Canada 1999) 1-10.

[116]Richard M, 'Internet Dispute Resolution (IDR): Bringing ADR into the 21st Century', (2001) Pepperdine Dispute Resolution Law Journal, 4(4), 279.

[117] Bruce M, 'Smoothing Some Wrinkles in Online Dispute Resolution', (2008), International Journal of Law and Information Technology, 17(1), 83-112.

[118] Shannon S, 'Online Dispute Resolution and Justice System Integration: British Columbia's Civil Resolution Tribunal', (2017), Windsor Yearbook of Access to Justice, 34(1), 112-129.

[119]Robert A, 'Is there a future for Online Dispute Resolution for Lawyers', (Law Sites, Massachusetts 2016) 1-14.

[120]Roger S, 'Online Dispute Resolution: Ten Lessons on Access to Justice' https://www.judiciary.gov.uk>2015/02 accessed on 19 September 2017.

[121]Orna R and Ethan K, 'Reshaping Boundaries in an Online Dispute Resolution Environment', (2014) International Journal of Online Dispute Resolution, 1(1), 1-15

[122] Mohamed S, Ethan K and Daniel R, 'Online Dispute Resolution: Theory and Practice', (Eleven International Publishing, The Hague 2012) 1-571.

[123] Colon-Fung. I, 'Protecting the New Face of Entrepreneurship: Online Appropriate Dispute Resolution and International Consumer-to-Consumer Online Transactions', (2007) Fordham Journal of Corporate and Financial Law, 12(2), 1 – 256.

[124]Bijal Z and Prashant A, 'Ebay is the World's Online Marketplace', (2014), IOSR Journal of Business and Management, 11(7), 23-29

[125]Civil Justice Council, 'eBay-style online courts could resolve smaller claims' www.bbc.com accessed on 22 September 2017.

[126]Emma D, 'What To Do When an EBay Buyer Opened A Case against You', (Emmadrew Publications, Orlando 2017) 1-10

[127] Peter D, 'The Impacts of eBay on an Information Based Economy', (2007), International Journal of Management and Enterprise Development', 4(6), 609-613

[128]Ibid.

self-resolution, no earlier than 8 days since the complaint was first raised with the seller.[129]Disputes over feedback are dealt with by an independent company called Net Neutrals.[130] Using a separate discussion space for each dispute, a trained independent neutral reassesses the evidence from both parties, invites fresh arguments, and determines whether the feedback meets one of four conditions for removal.[131] The process takes seven days and eBay takes out the feedback pending the outcome. After arguments are exchanged, 21 jurors are indiscriminately selected from a volunteer team of experienced users of Marketplaats and shown the details of the dispute. The buyer is given seven days to react and the seller is also given two days to rebut after which the jurors have ten days to re-evaluate the dispute and issue a decision as to whether the feedback should be withdrawn. Marketplaats acts in accordance with the majority decision.[132]e-Bay technology is relevant and Nigeria can draw valuable lessons by applying it to its dispute resolution legal framework.

Nominet[133] is another method in which ODR is practiced in the United Kingdom. It is a domain name registry company which has run the United Kingdom domain name since 1996 and the Wales domain names since September 2014.[134]It established a Dispute Resolution Service (DRS) to provide a means of resolving .uk domain name disputes without recourse to court.[135] To pursue a claim under the DRS, complainants are required to show that they have rights in a name that is the same or similar to the disputed domain name and that the registration has been abusive.[136] The first stage of the DRS requires a complainant to complete a form on Nominet's website wherein it would specify the materials submitted and what remedy is being sought. The form is then sent to the registrant of the domain name. Nominet assigns a mediator who contacts both parties by telephone to seek a solution and if the case does not settle via mediation, the complainant then pays to have an independent expert appointed. The expert's decision will be based solely on the materials presented by the complainant and the registrant.[137] Though appeals from the Expert's stage are permitted, they are rare and the expert's decision and that of any appeal are published on the Nominet website.[138]Nominet technology appears useful in developing and implementing ODR in Nigeria and would enable the resolution of more disputes[139] compared with the traditional/face-to-face ADR mechanisms currently in place if it is adapted into the legal framework.

In the same vein, Cybersettle[140] is an ODR service provider that is based in the United States of America. It developed software that provides 'blind bidding'[141] service which is a process designed to speed up negotiation when all that is in dispute is 'how much is owed'.[142] The way cybersettle works is that the claimant and defendant each present the uppermost and lowest possible settlement figures that would be acceptable to them and these amounts are not revealed but if the two ranges overlap, a settlement can be achieved, the final figure usually being a split down the middle.[143] The city of New York has used this

[129]Alvin E, 'Last-Minute Bidding and the Rules for Ending Second-Price Auctions: Evidence from eBay and Amazon Auctions on the Internet', (2015) American Economic Review Journal, 1(3), 1-18.
[130]DeMars and Associates Ltd, 'Online Dispute Resolution' www.demarsassociates.com accessed on 20 May 2017.
[131]Miltan M, 'Why is eBay the Most Successful Online Auction', (2010), Global Journal of Management and Business Research', 10(9), 62-65.
[132]Richard S, 'Online Dispute Resolution for Low Value Civil Claims', (Civil Justice Council, United Kingdom 2015) 1-33.
[133]Adrian S, 'Nominet's new rules on .uk domains could mean the end to users' privacy', The Guardian Newspaper (United Kingdom 11 June 2014) https://www.theguardian.com accessed on 22 September 2017.
[134]Nominet Council, 'Nominet confirms launch of cymru and .wales in September' https://www.nominet.uk accessed on 20 May 2017.
[135]Laurence K, 'Guidance Note: Nominet Dispute Resolution Service for Domain Names', (Scribd Publications, San Francisco 2007) 1-4.
[136] Leigh S, 'Nominet Dispute Resolution Service Decisions Subject to Review by the Courts', (2012), Journal of Intellectual Property Law and Practice', 7(3), 164-165.
[137]John D, 'A Place to make Amends', (2008), The Journal of the Law Society of Scotland', 21(6), 4-12
[138]Tony W, 'Dispute Resolution Service – Expert's Overview' https://www.nominet.uk accessed on 22 May 2017.
[139]Patrick K, 'Emerging Patterns in Arbitration under the Uniform Domain-Name Dispute-Resolution Policy', (2002), Berkeley Technology Law Journal, 17(1), 181-204.
[140]Diane Levin, 'Cybersettle makes the Case for Resolving Disputes Online', (Mediation Channel, USA 2008) 1-4.
[141]Dinesh S, 'Auctions and Bidding', (1987) Journal of Economic Literature, American Economic Association, 25(2), 699 – 738.
[142] David A, 'Brother, Can You Spare a Dime? Technology Can Reduce Dispute Resolution Costs When Timea are Tough and Improve Outcomes', (2011), Nevada Law Journals, 11(1), 523-559.
[143]Gavin K, 'Strategic Negotiation', (Gower Publications, United Kingdom 2018) 1- 50

system to speed their settlement process for a backlog of more than 40,000 personal injury claims[144] and similar systems have been developed in the past such as 'The Mediation Room' in the United Kingdom.[145] Consequently, Nigeria can also draw valuable lessons by adopting the Cybersettle technology which is an ODR platform within the legal framework of ADR in Nigeria so as to expedite negotiation and guarantee speedier resolution of disputes[146] compared to the traditional / face-to-face ADR mechanisms currently in place.

It is pertinent to note that in India, parties are allowed to appoint arbitrators, mediators or conciliators and conduct proceedings including giving evidence online. They are also allowed to actively participate in the online ADR process regardless of their locations once the arbitration clause specifies same.[147] The situation is similar with Europe. For instance, the European commission has an ODR program that allows a customer who has an unsettled dispute with a trader, irrespective of their location within Europe, to enter the ODR platform free of charge.[148] While on the platform, the customer will complete and submit an online complaint form, send the completed form to the relevant trader who then recommends an ADR entity to the customer from the list of ADR providers.[149] Once the customer and trader have agreed on the use of a certain ADR body to handle their dispute, the ODR platform transfers the complaint to that entity that is required to assess the claim online and to also reach an outcome on the complaint within 90 days.[150]

Another ODR program that Nigeria can draw significant lessons from is the Rechtwijzer program[151]in the Netherlands. The program, which earned global approval, was developed by HiiL and the Dutch Legal Aid Board to provide dispute resolution for relational disputes such as divorce and separation, landlord-tenant disputes and employment disputes. Its platform helps people to learn about their legal options and then engage in a dialogue with each[152] other and if they are unable to resolve the dispute on their own, the platform provides mediation, adjudication and neutral review of any agreements.[153] In February, 2017, Amazon Alexa got a new technology called "My Mediator" currently only available in California[154] which is intended to answer questions on how to resolve certain consumer disputes in areas such as Real Estate, Probate and Partnership.[155] Though not quite a robot mediator, that technology is undeniably having an enormous impact on mediation and other alternative dispute resolution[156]mechanisms that can assist in the development of ODR in Nigeria.

ODR as a Panacea to Enhance Progress in Nigeria

ODR is necessary for development in Nigeria because it can enable the Nigeria legal system adapt to the changing needs of the society, particularly in the area of dispute resolution. If ODR is incorporated into the legal framework of ADR in Nigeria, it would assist Nigeria meet up with global best practices on the use of ICT to resolve disputes thereby reducing the caseload on the various courts and save precious judicial time. It would further save considerable time, energy and cost in the dispute resolution field and integrate a technology-oriented strategy capable of meeting high schedule constraints in the dispute resolution process. ODR would bring about a revolution in technology capable of improving the entire

[144]Civil Justice Council, 'Online Dispute Resolution for Low Value Civil Claims' https://www.judiciary.gov.uk accessed on 23 March, 2018.
[145]Ibid.
[146] Paul K, 'Cybersettle and the Value of Online Dispute Resolution', (2010), Yale Journal of Commerce and Comparative Analysis, 13(() 23-51.
[147]Ujwala S, 'Conciliation as an Effective Mode of Alternative Dispute Resolving System', (2012), IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science, 4(3), 1-7
[148]Pavel L, 'Online Dispute Resolution to Resolve Consumer Disputes from the Perspective of European Union Law: Is the Potential of ODR Fully Used?', (2016), Masaryk University Journal of Law and Technology, 10(1), 113-127
[149] Pablo C, 'Accredited Online Dispute Resolution Services: Creating European Legal Standards for Ensuring Fair and Effective Processes', (2008), Information and Communications Technology Law Journal, 17(3), 221-237.
[150] Walker M, 'Europes Online Dispute Resolution Platform: An Update for Retailers', https://www/walkermorris.co.uk accessed on 23 March 2018.
[151]HiiL Committee, 'Rechtwijzer 2.0: Technology that puts justice in your hands' www.hiil.org accessed on 20 September 2017.
[152]Ethan K and Rabinovich E, 'Online Dispute Resolution and Prevention', (Oxford University Press, USA, 2015) 25-44.
[153]Ibid
[154]Jim W, 'My Mediator' https://www.amazon.com accessed on 15 April 2017.
[155]Ibid.
[156]Pritika M, 'Recent Developments in Online Dispute Resolution', (Mediator Academy Publication, USA 2017) 1-2.

justice system and enable Nigeria manage its legal framework on ADR in such a way that conforms with the present-day social concepts and values to adapt itself to the fast-changing society rather than lag behind. It would pave the way for advancement in science and technology[157] which permits the user to see, hear and talk with someone far away with the same facility and ease as if he and the other party are both present[158] thereby making transactions easier and flexible. It would prevent Nigeria from lagging behind with respect to global trend and developments in ICT.[159]

ODR is also necessary for development in Nigeria because it would enable Nigeria apply its legal framework on ADR in a manner that it will become accustomed to modern trend; assist in the development of existing law; fit itself to changing or novel circumstances; enable Nigeria respond to and keep pace with advancement in science and technology as well as societal changes and ensure access to justice. It would also save cost and be beneficial to the efficient, fair and economic disposal of the entire dispute resolution process; enhance an improvement in technology by enabling evidence to be taken and tested adequately and enhance more access to justice thereby building confidence in the dispute resolution arena.

ODR in the Face of the Present Global Reality

The present reality as presented by the occurrence of the global pandemic, particularly Covid-19 is such that has made physical contact and physical presence in court for the resolution of dispute to appear utopia and impracticable in view of lockdown and social distancing. This is basically to control and eliminate the spread of the deadly virus as humanly possible. The outbreak of the virus has led to the slow pace of legal, social, political and economic life globally. Thus, the reality presented by the scourge is such that makes virtual and online practice to be imperative.

Conclusions

This article provided an understanding of the concept of ODR including the justification for its use despite the existence of the traditional ADR mechanisms. It also provided an understanding of the modalities for the implementation and application of ODR to dispute resolution in Nigeria. The conceptual analyses revealed that ODR is neither autonomous nor in competition with the traditional ADR mechanisms but a natural response to the emergence of new sphere of human activity through the speed and convenience of ICT. The paper also alludes to the fact that the present global reality as presented by the outbreak Covid -19, is such that has made virtual and online dispute resolution to be imperative. The article concluded that there is a need for a legal regulation of ODR in Nigeria. It also concluded that regulation of ODR in Nigeria will promote the development of e-commerce and stimulate the growth of the technology industry.

Recommendations

It is recommended that a law that expressly legalizes ODR through ICT tools should be made or the existing legal frameworks on ADR be amended to incorporate ODR. This is particularly so because the mere fact that the legal frameworks of ADR contain provisions that supports the use of technology to resolve disputes does not suggest that it is sufficient for ODR. This article also recommends that ADR practitioners should embrace the use of ODR in resolving disputes in view of large numbers of online transactions across borders in order to keep pace with modern trend. Finally, it is recommended that Nigeria should prioritize the development of legal standards for ODR to keep pace with international best practices.

[157]Isioto N, Philip-Kpae F and Dickson R, 'Factors Affecting Technological Growth in Nigeria and the Way Forward', (2017), International Journal of Mechanical Engineering and Applications, 5(5), 269-274.

[158] KayodeOnipede, 'Technology Development in Nigeria: The Nigerian Machine Tools Industry Experience', (2010), LadokeAkintola University of Technology Journal, 1(2), 85-90.

[159]Sani M, Amina I and Abdu Y, 'An Appraisal of the Role of Science and Technology in Promoting National Development Efforts in Nigeria', (2014), The International Journal of Engineering and Science (IJES), 3(2), 56-67

Role of Mediation in Resolving Construction Disputes: A Study of Mediation Centre in Kwara State

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Abstract
This paper examines the benefits of Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) mechanisms specially designed for dispute resolution emanating from the construction industry. ADR was introduced to fast-track construction dispute cases, enable delivery of projects as and when due, and foster relationships among stakeholders in the industry. Unfortunately, the ADR Centre established in Kwara State is yet to utilize this opportunity for resolution of construction disputes occurring in the State. This paper found the need for the use of ADR process to settle all the construction disputes awaiting trials in courts at the ADR Centre established for Kwara State. Literature was reviewed to show the impact of mediation mechanism on construction dispute resolution in the UK construction industry and the lessons for ADR Centres in Nigeria, Kwara State ADR Centre to be specific. The findings of the paper revealed that the Centre has not been able to provide more enlightenment to the public on the relevance of ADR Centre for speedy and effective delivery of construction dispute resolution. Given the fact that the use of litigation in the resolution of construction disputes has occasioned delay hence the need to result to ADR for effective construction dispute resolution. The paper suggests that the use of ADR will bring about cost-effective and time-bound resolution mechanism that will make the industry rise among its counterparts.

Keywords: Alternative Dispute Resolution, Mediation, Construction Disputes, Kwara State, UK.

Introduction

Generally speaking, construction industry contributes immensely to the socio- economic development as well the fulfillment of the societal needs given the number of construction projects awarded daily either by individuals or government. However, the most striking aspect of this is that many of these projects have been abandoned due to disputes.[160] The concern of this study is that disputes emanating from construction contracts are yet to be properly addressed within the existing ADR legal framework for dispute resolution in Kwara State. This has led to a number of abandoned projects in the state.[161] The inadvertent delay of construction cases occasioned in courts has resulted into loss of time, cost and quality of these projects. Litigation has been the preferred form of dispute resolution in construction projects because it allows the court to determine and enforce party's right or obligation. However, litigation has proved to be time consuming and expensive and this has given rise to the use of arbitration in construction disputes. Arbitration in terms of cost and time is more beneficial than litigation. It almost shares the same features as litigation, hence the need to introduce other Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) in the construction industry. Nowadays, resolving disputes with alternative forms of dispute resolution has been on the rise in the construction industry because of the complex nature of construction disputes and the high cost of resolving disputes through litigation and the damage that these have impacted on the parties' business relationships.[162]

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[160] Ibid.

[161]According to a former Director-General of the Bureau of Public Procurement, Emeka Eze, there are 19,000 such projects in various stages of abandonment. One often cited tragic example is a large scale water supply project started by a former Governor of Kwara State, the late Muhammed Lawal. Recently is the Garin Alimi Overhead Bridge, Garage-Offa road, Kwara State, Nigeria among others.

[162]Wantong Zhao, "The Root Cause of Claims and Disputes in Construction Industry and Solution Analysis," *PM World Journal 8,* (5), (2019): 1-18; Söderlund, Matias. "Claim management in EPC-Projects: A Case Study of Claim Causes and Claim Management during Plant Installation," (2018).

[5]Attorney General of the Federation V. Bi-Courtney Limited (Ca/A/361a/2012) [2014] NGCA 24 (15 April 2014).

Moreover, parties wish to have control over their matters given the complex nature of the industry, hence the need for experts in the field to give rulings in line with professional ethics that will satisfy all parties involved. This action was demonstrated in the case of Bi-Cortney wherein parties agreed to resort to Dispute Resolution Board (DBR) to see that the project is fully back to life and completed on time."[163] Parties to construction disputes are agitating for ADR due to the protraction of their cases many of which have resulted into abandonment of the projects because of time elapse and severity of the relationship among the stakeholders. According to a former Director-General of the Bureau of Public Procurement, Emeka Eze,

> *More than 18,000 projects were in various stages of abandonment. Unfortunately, this figure does not include projects begun and abandoned by previous state governments. One often cited tragic example is a large-scale water supply project started by a former Governor of Kwara State, the late Muhammed Lawal. The project was designed to combat the chronic water supply problem in Ilorin and neighbouring towns. Nearing completed when his successor took over from him. Amazingly, Dr. Bukola Saraki164 (who succeeded Lawal) did not see to the fulfilment this dream as envisaged hence it remains today an epitaph to a governmental culture of waste, dereliction.165*

More than Five thousand (5,000) projects awarded including the Ilorin-Garin Alimi road project by the Dr. Bukola Saraki's successor is yet to be concluded despite his promise.[166] This project had occasioned public nuisance on both the road users and the commercial shops along this road. It is beyond doubt that construction contracts are awarded with specificity in relation to time of completion. Hence, when issues arise, there is the need for ADR mechanism to address the problem without necessarily affecting the time of completion. The ADR mechanism as presently constituted under section 19 (d) of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria is insufficient. Unfortunately, majority of construction dispute cases still go to court for hearing and determinations thereby causing the inability of the industry to have the best practices for addressing disputes whenever they occur.[167]

Recently, ADR procedures are considered imperative in the global world. This has been accepted and used by a wide range of courts, tribunals, organizations and stakeholders of construction disputes as tools for overcoming construction impasse, improving the efficiency of difficult negotiations, and achieving durable settlements. It takes different forms as arbitration, mediation, conciliation, negotiation, among others. It is in view of the above that this paper encourages the ADR Centre in Kwara State to be more proactive by sensitizing both the public and the stakeholders in construction industry to take a pragmatic step in the realization of prompt delivery of projects in the State.

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164 Former Governor of Kwara State, Nigeria (Between 2003-2011).

165 Ayo Olukotun, "Abandoned projects and state decay," *The Daily Punch,* (October 7, 2016); M. A. Tijan, and W. O. Ajagbe, "Professional View on the Causes and Effects of Construction Projects Abandonment in Ibadan Metropolis, Nigeria," *Ethiopian Journal of Environmental Studies and Management* 9, no. 5 (2016): 593-603; E. C. Ubani, and C. N. Ononuju, "A Study of Failure and Abandonment of Public Sector Driven Civil Engineering Projects in Nigeria: An Empirical Review," *American journal of scientific and industrial research* 4, no. 1 (2013): 75-82;

166Hammed Opeyemi, "Governor Abdulfatai Ahmed: Creating a Financially Sustainable Kwara," *Times Premium, 27th October, 2017.*

167 Katsoris, Melissa. "Does Nationality Influence Neutrality? The Ethical Standards and Expectations of International Mediators," *Fordham Int'l LJ* 39 (2015): 695; Heather Scheiwe Kulp, "Increasing Referrals to Small Claims Mediation Programs: Models to Improve Access to Justice," *Cardozo J. Conflict Resol.* 14 (2012): 361.

Nature of Construction Dispute

Disputes are inescapable in any given construction industry due to the complex nature of the industry itself.[168]The most common disputes associated with the industry are delay in the supply of material, delay in payments for completed work, improper construction method, delay caused by the subcontractor and discrepancies in contract documents between the various parties.[169] There are bound to be disputes because different professionals are always involved in the execution of construction projects although each with distinct and well defined specialized role. Delays can also give rise to suspension of work and loss of productivity, late completion of project, increased time, related costs, third party claims and abandonment or termination of contract.[170] Other factors include contractor related problems, owners' financial constraints, high inflation/increased material price; design change by client; defective design; weather conditions; delayed payment on contracts and defective construction work.

When delay occurs in a project, it will have adverse consequences on project objectives in terms of time, cost and quality.[171] Construction-related disputes can consume a lot of time, money and in most cases the expenses involve in pursuing a dispute is far out of proportion to the money actually at stake.[172] Moreover, the contract form which defines the rights and obligations of parties to construction contract fails to state how dispute should be resolved between them. This necessitates the parties to choose whatever means available for resolution of their disputes. However, in the course of choosing the mode of resolving their dispute, parties should agree and adopt the most effective and suitable dispute resolution mechanism when drafting their contract agreement.[173] The complexity of the industry always result into complex disputes, hence prompt attention is required to get construction disputes resolved through an effective mechanism before they become complex and very expensive to manage.

Emergence of Construction Dispute Resolution

Disputes are inescapable in any given business world in which construction is inclusive. Construction disputes can occur from various stakeholders within the industry and ranges from disputes between clients and contractors, consultants and contractors, contractors and suppliers, contractors and employees, amongst others.[174] It may also be as a result of time and cost overruns, poor execution of work, payment delays to contractors, suppliers, and workers. Litigation and arbitration are the core dispute resolution mechanisms used for construction dispute resolution in Nigeria. However, this is still not adequate because of the frequency of disputes emanating from the industry which ordinarily should have been preventing if adequate legal instruments were in place. Research has revealed that litigation and arbitration need to be supported with other alternative dispute resolution mechanisms for efficient and effective performance of the industry.[175] It has been argued that delay occasioned through court process normally damages business relations of the contracting parties and the risk associated with the liability of the unsuccessful party to reimburse both his own legal costs in addition to what has been accrued to the successful party.[176] Disputes relating to construction projects usually use up enormous amount of funds and time.

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[168] Kasimu Alhaji, Mohammed, and Abubakar Danladi Isah, "**Causes of Delay in Nigeria Construction Industry**," *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, vol.4, no.2, (2012), 785-794

[169]Mohammed, Kasimu Alhaji, 786.

[170]Othman, A and Ismail S, "Delay in Government Project Delivery in Kedah", Malaysia. In **Conference Proceedings, International Research Conference on Business, Economics and Social Sciences, IRC, 2014,** 111; Afshari, Hamidreza, Shahrzad Khosravi, Abbas Ghorbanali, Mahdi Borzabadi, and Mahbod Valipour. "Identification of causes of non-excusable delays of construction projects," In **International Conference on E-Business Management and Economics**, 42-46. 2010.

[171]M. Abedi, M. S. Fathi, and M. F. Mohammad, "**Major Mitigation Measures for Delays in Construction Projects,"** (2011), 1-7; Abdul Rahman, Ismail, et al., "**Relationship Between Factors of Construction Resources Affecting Project Cos**t," *Modern Applied Science*, vol.7, no.1, (2013), 67-75.

[172] F. Firas, Chapter 1 Introduction 1.1, (PhD Thesis, UMP, 2010), I.

[173] Cox, Arthur, "**Dispute Resolution in Construction,"** *Construction Law Briefing*, (April, 2011), 2.

[174]Priyanka Sakate, Arum, W. Dhawale, "Dispute Resolution Mechanism in Commercial Construction Project: A Review," *International Journal of Engineering Science & Research Technology*, vol.6, no. 2, (2017):84-88.

[175] Wong, Chen Hin. Adjudication: Evolution of New Form of Dispute Resolution in Construction Industry", (Dissertation, UTAR, 2011)

[176] Davidson Iriekpen, "Disputes: When ADR Becomes Succour," *This Day Live,* (Monday 29 December, 2014).

However, the world today has shifted from adversarial to interest-based dispute resolution mechanisms with equitable functions in construction industry.[177] This paradigm shift has given rise to demand in amicable mode of settlement in the industry. This is a reflection of what we have today across the world. Over the past decades, construction practitioners have tried to develop and implement the right contractual method that best approach of their needs and minimizing disputes in construction project.[178] The construction industry has embraced other alternatives to litigation and arbitration in bringing about resolution to all kinds of disputes that are likely to occur in the industry due to time consuming nature and cost implications of these two dispute resolution mechanisms. Sometime, time being spent in pursuing a construction case in court or on arbitration could be better used to complete the litigated project to avoid the high costs of legal charges.[179] Globally, the stakeholders in the industry has made tremendous effort to put in place some efficient and adequate mechanisms such as mediation, statutory adjudication, dispute review board, expert determination, neutral evaluation and construction court for resolving disputes owing to the exigencies of the industry.[180] The changing world today has accounted for the emergence of new types of proceedings for settlement of construction disputes. These proceedings have been developed, and they are proving beneficial in saving time and money to the stakeholders in the construction industry involved. However, this does not mean that the existing mechanisms before the emergence of new ones are obsolete and still not relevant and should be discarded.[181]

Dispute Avoidance Mechanisms in the Construction Industry

Dispute avoidance mechanisms were brought in an attempt to salvage the construction industry from collapse because many of the industry stresses are due to inadequacy of the existing resolution mechanisms used for construction disputes.[182] These new mechanisms include mediation, dispute review board, expert determination, neutral evaluation, statutory adjudication and construction court and additional kinds of ADR such as designed for specific cases and subject matters in order to bring disputes to the barest minimal level in the industry.[183] The new mechanisms are thus to complement the existing mechanisms in order to control risk and eliminate disputes in the industry.

Kwara State ADR Centre

All the Alternative Dispute Resolution Centres, Kwara State inclusive, in Nigeria were established to resolve certain disputes arising from labour, employment, construction and industrial relations, workplace, among others between parties using the process of mediation.[184] Unlike arbitration, which is a process of ADR somewhat similar to trial. ADR process is used for resolving disputes outside of traditional litigation.[185] These ADR methods have different emphases that make them suitable for particular types of cases. Some forms of ADR, such as mediation, are intended to put decision-making

[177]Mahamid, Ibrahim, and Nabil Dmaidi," **Risks Leading to Cost Overrun in Building Construction from Consultants' Perspective***", Organization, Technology & Management in Construction: An International Journal*, vol. 5, no.2 (2013): 860-873.

[178]A. A. Aibinu, and H. A. Odeyinka, "Construction Delays and their Causative Factors in Nigeria," *Journal of Construction Engineering and Management, ASCE*, vol.7, no.132, (2006), 667-677

[179] Mohd. Akram Bin Shair, Mohamed, "**Construction Dispute Avoidance,"** *A Presented at an Annual Conference* 18th Building and Construction Contracts between Traditional Legal Rules and Developed Legal System, 471-491.

[180]Eunice R. Oddiri, "Alternative Dispute Resolution," *A Paper presented at the Annual Delegates Conference of the Nigerian Bar Association* at Le Meridien Hotel – Abuja, between 22nd - 27th August, 2004.

[181]Shin, Joon, "Discussion on the Models of ADR," **Legal Studies Honors Thesis, spring** (2011).

[182]Fernando Vieira, Luiz, "Designing a Court-Annexed Mediation Program for Civil Cases in Brazil: Challenges and Opportunities," *Pepp. Disp. Resol. LJ* 15 (2015): 1; Alwi, Abdul Wahab, "Court-Annexed and Judge-led Mediation in Civil Cases: The Malaysian Experience. Diss. Victoria University, vol.21, no.4, (2013), 251.

[183] Joon Shin, "Discussion on the Models of ADR," (Legal Studies Honors Thesis Spring 2011), 3.

[184]Haseeb Dad, Khan, "Prospects of Mediation as An Alternative Dispute Resolution Mechanism In the UAE Construction Industry," (PhD Diss., The British University, Dubai, 2018); Andrews, Neil, "Mediation in England," In *The Three Paths of Justice*, (2018): 265-288.

[185] Bukola, Faturoti, "Institutionalised ADR and Access to Justice: The Changing Faces of the Nigerian Judicial System," *Journal of Comparative Law in Africa* 1, no. 1 (2014); Sai On, Cheung, and Tak Wing Yiu, "The interrelationships among Sources, Tactics and Outcomes in Construction Dispute Mediation," In *Construction Dispute Research*, pp. 337-366. Springer, Cham, 2014.

power back into the parties' own hands.[186] Because of this, mediation has been found to be suitable for a wide variety of case types except criminal cases. It has also been found to be suitable for construction dispute resolution world wide. However, as laudable as this mechanism is, the Kwara State ADR Centre is yet to explore the mechanism for addressing the construction disputes cases arising in the state.[187] All the scattered abandoned projects in the state alludes to this. The Kwara state ADR Centre stands a better chance when using the mechanism for resolution of construction disputes. Mediation experts who will handle such cases are already familiar with all the undesirable elements that are likely to militate against prompt delivery of projects such as inadequate funding/finance, Bankruptcy of the contractor, variation of project scope, incompetent project manager which are other causes of project abandonment Most of the discovered effects of abandonment of project: disappointment of the populace, low standard of living, wastage of resources, reduction in employment opportunities, decrease in tempo of economic activities, difficulties in attracting foreign loans; reduction in government revenue, reduction in economic activities, wastage of equipment in site and increase in final cost of project.[188]

Hearing of construction cases by the mediators will reduce cases of construction disputes in the State. This will also enhance the status of the Centre as well as opening more doors to other types of civil cases that require urgent attention. The use of mediation for construction dispute resolution enhances the relationships between the stakeholders of the industry from beginning of the project to the end. Issues that are likely to impede the progress of projects once discovered early enough are resolved through mediation before they escalate into disputes.

The Use of Mediation for Construction Dispute Resolution in UK

The construction industry resorts to the use of mediation as a settlement mechanism for disputes arising from the stakeholders of the industry in order to avoid the expense and lengthy delays occasioned by litigation and arbitration processes in the course of dispute resolution.[189] It is an agreement process merely consented to by parties for settlement of their construction disputes. In this agreement, parties resolve to allow an independent third party to make amicable settlement over the dispute that may possibly arise between them. This process had been in UK since almost twenty years ago and not new in the construction industry. It is an alternative to litigation process. Judging from the statistics in the last few years, there has been an increase in the usage of this mechanism for resolution of construction disputes in UK with a sharp decrease in litigated construction cases. The Civil Procedural Rules (CPR) and Construction and Engineering Pre-action Protocol encourage litigants to contemplate and use mediation as much as possible where suitable in their cases.[190] For instance, of the one hundred and twenty-six (126) estimated construction mediations occurring every year, about eighty-eight (88) are settled.[191] Mediation has really assisted parties to settle their disputes through negotiation. As mediation is accorded with a prominent role by the courts, this raises its status and those who practise as mediators are seeking to professionalise their work.[192]

A recent survey of mediation in the Technology and Construction Court (TCC) suggests that more mediation is taking place than had been appreciated. The *TCC Court Guide* states that: Legal representatives in all TCC cases should ensure that their clients are fully aware of the benefits of ADR

[186]Pablo, Cortes, "The Promotion of Civil and Commercial Mediation in the UK," *University of Leicester School of Law Research Paper* 15-23 (2015).

[187]Ademola Jonathan, Bamgbose, "Towards a Suitable Domestic Arbitration Practice in Nigeria," (PhD Thesis, University of Warwick, 2016).

[188]Nwanekezie, Okey, Walpole Nwangum, "A Study of Causes of Uncompleted / Abandoned Building Projects and Its Effect on Real Property in Uyo Metropolis, Nigeria," *Architecture Research*, 9 (2), (2019): 45-5

[189] Neil, Andrew, "Mediation in England," In *The Three Paths of Justice*, (2018): 265-288. Springer, Cham; Catherine, McGuiness, "Alternative Dispute Resolution-Mediation and Conciliation," (2016); Pablo, Cortes, "The Promotion of Civil and Commercial Mediation in the UK," *University of Leicester School of Law Research Paper* 15-23 (2015); Masood, Ahmed, "Implied compulsory mediation," *Civil Justice Quarterly* 31, no. 2 (2012): 151.

[190]Jim Mason, "How might the Adversarial Imperative be Effectively Tempered in Mediation,?" *Legal Ethics* 15.1 (2012): 111-122; Jim Mason, "Contracting in Good Faith–Giving the Parties What They Want," *Construction Law Jou*rnal, 23(6), 436-443.

[191]Haseeb Dad, Khan,"Prospects of Mediation as An Alternative Dispute Resolution Mechanism in the UAE Construction Industry," (PhD Diss., The British University In Dubai Buid., 2018).

[192] P. Brooker, and Wilkinson, S. "Construction Mediation," *An International Review: Spoon Press an Imprint of Taylor and Francis*, (London and New York, NY, 2010): 1-25.

and that the use of ADR has been carefully considered prior to the first Court Management Meeting (CMM).[193] Mediation is such a cheap and quick process that, if mediation were available, the parties would not have litigated or arbitrated a number of these matters in any event. Nigerian courts should also educate lawyers to encourage their clients to know the benefits in mediation with special regards to construction cases in order to reduce the number of abandoned cases of projects to barest minimum.

The Impact of Mediation in Construction Industry

Mediation has assisted the construction industry in the resolution of disputes which ordinarily ought to have gone through rigorous and delay occasioned by litigation process. Many disputes have been resolved amicably through mediation process thereby enabling the parties to sustain their business relationships. Report revealed that referrals for arbitration fell in 2011 while disputes handled through mediation continued to rise. CEDR's two yearly survey showed an increase from 6,500 to 8,000 in disputes resolved through mediation.[194] Its efficacy and effectiveness has impacted so much on construction disputes that people prefer it over and above litigation and arbitration. There is agitation that mediation should be given legal backing to enable it rank with other dispute resolution mechanisms because of its efficacy. Parties' confidentiality is assured in mediation than in litigation.

The case of *GF II SA v OMFS Company Ltd* shed more light on efficacy in the use of mediation.[195] In the present case, a serious and carefully formulated written invitation by the Claimant's solicitor to participate in mediation was met with complete silence by the Defendant. The offer was repeated just over three months later and despite promising a full response to the letter in which it was contained, the defendant's solicitors thereafter made no reply or comment about it at all. After the case was compromised, save as to costs, by the last minute acceptance by the Claimant of the Defendant's Pt. 36 offer, the trial judge Mr. Recorder Furst QC, sitting as a deputy judge of the Queen's Bench Division in the Technology and Construction Court, acceded in part to the Claimant's application for a costs sanction on the ground that the Defendant had unreasonably refused to mediate, by depriving the Defendant of the costs to which it would otherwise have been entitled under Pt 36, but he declined to take the further step of making the Defendant pay the Claimant's costs incurred during the same period. The judge decided first that the Defendant's silence amounted to a refusal and secondly, applying the *Halsey* guidelines, that its refusal had been unreasonable.[196] Courts now encourage parties to use mediation before opening their cases in litigation.[197]The cost savings associated to successful mediations were substantial and this has motivated parties. The cost savings were generally proportional to the cost of the mediation itself.[198] This may be an indication that high value claims spend more money on the mediation itself, presumably because they realise that the potential savings resulting from the mediation will be higher. This survey

[193]*See Section 7.1.3 of the TCC Guide, 1996 (2005 revised 2007).*

[194]Richard Normington and Wayne Evans, "Dispute Resolution in London and the UK," *Professional Services Series,* December (2012): 3; K. T. Yiu, & Cheung, S. O. "Process Driven Construction Mediation Outcomes,"(in *Queensland University of Technology Research Week International Conference, QUT Research Week 2005)*; E. K. Umunadi, "The Efficacy Of Mediation and Negotiation Methods For Dispute Resolution In Delta State," *Sacha Journal of Policy and Strategic Studies,* vol.1, no. 2, (2011):64-73; N. Ntuli, "Africa: Alternative Dispute Resolution in a Comparative Perspective," *Conflict Studies Quarterly,* vol.22, (2018); P. D. Galloway, "Engineering a Successful Negotiation," *Journal of Legal Affairs and Dispute Resolution in Engineering and Construction*, *5*(1), (2012):6-12; A. Harrington, "Building on Mediation as a Foundation," *The Scotsman: Scottish Legal Review Edition,* vol.12, (2007).

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Omer, Shapira, "Conceptions and Perceptions of Fairness in Mediation," *S. Tex. L. Rev.* 54 (2012): 281; N. Gould, "The Mediation of Construction Disputes: Recent Research," *Disp. Resol. Int'l*, vol. 3, no. (2009):185, 185.

[196]*Halsey v Milton Keynes General NHS Trust* [2004] EWCA Civ 576, [2004] 4 All ER 920, [2004] 1 WLR 3002; S. Prince, "Institutionalising Mediation? An Evaluation of the Exeter Court Small Claims Mediation Pilot 2007; M. Keet, & T. B. Salamone, "From Litigation to Mediation: Using Advocacy Skills for Success in Mandatory or Court-Connected Mediation," *Sask. L. Rev.*, vol. 64, (2001): 57; S. Prince, "Mandatory Mediation: The Ontario Experience," *Civil Justice Quarterly*, vol.26, (2007): 79-95;

[197]Nicholas Gould et al, "Mediating Construction Disputes: An Evaluation of Existing Practice,*" King's College London: Centre of Construction Law and Dispute Resolutio*n, 25; I. Pupolizio, "The Ideologies of Mediation between Theory and Practice," in *International Conference Law and Society in the 21st Century' s Humboldt University, Berlin, Germany, (25–28 July, 2007).*

[198]M. R. Sandstrom, & D. N. Goldsweig, (Eds.), "Negotiating and Structuring International Commercial Transactions," *American Bar Assn*, (2003); K. Reichert, "Confidentiality in International Mediation," *Dispute Resolution Journal*, vol. 59, no. 4, (2004):60; J. Momjian, "Efforts Made to Increase the Use of Mediation," *PAC. LJ*, vol. *28*, (1997):818-1997.

therefore supports and adds to the evidence already gathered that mediation will make more a significant impact on commercial cases including construction disputes.

Challenges Facing Parties from Utilizing ADR in Construction Cases in Nigeria

One of the major challenges facing parties to construction disputes is that there is yet to have adequate mediation experts in construction disputes resolution in Nigeria.[199] Most of the mediators in the ADR Centres deal with land matters, matrimonial dispute resolution, chieftaincy title among others.[200] There is an urgent need for mediators who are specialized in construction dispute resolution in the ADR Centres in Nigeria. This will reduce the docket cases of construction disputes on the judges' tables. Many projects were abandoned as a result of protraction of construction dispute cases in Courts and due to lack of practical experience in construction by many of the judges.[201] There is need for training and retraining of personnel such as lawyers, judges, construction stakeholders who are handling construction dispute cases for easy access to justice and speedy judgment delivery of construction disputes given the nature of construction projects. This will also facilitate the prompt delivery of projects and foster the relationship among the stakeholders in the construction industry in Nigeria.

Conclusions

The use of mediation mechanism cannot be underscored in the resolution of construction disputes given the time bound and well as the life span of the projects. The process is cost effective, speedy and friendly. It strengthens the relationships among the stakeholders and takes the people back to site for completion of projects unlike the use of litigation. Hence, the paper suggests that the ADR Centre in Kwara state should be more proactive and encourage the hearing and determination of construction dispute resolution like ADR Centre in Lagos state among others.

Recommendations

1. It is in light of the above, the paper recommends to Kwara State ADR Centre to explore its establishment to introduce mediation process for cases of construction disputes occurring in the state for better and speedy resolution.
2. Mediation process is cost effective, time-saving and more friendly than litigation, hence, the paper recommends same for construction dispute resolution.
3. There is need to inform members of construction industries about the use of mediation for speedy construction dispute resolution.
4. The Centres should recruit mediation experts for speedy resolution of construction disputes.
5. There is an urgent need for training and retraining of personnel such as lawyers, judges and stakeholders in construction industry who will be handling cases of construction disputes in Nigeria for easy access to justice and prompt judgment delivery.

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Security Breaches: Continuing Relevance of Law and 'Poverty Theory' in Nigeria

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Abstract
A Matter for serious thought is the complexity of the challenges threatening Nigeria with respect to security. Citizens live in apprehension and intimidation from "vampiric" groups of the society as there is virtually, no day passed-by without recurrent news reportages of security breaches, in nearly all parts of the country, and almost always resulting in bloodshed. It is against this background that this paper, which is largely a doctrinal research aims at probing into what is amissed with the nation. It is found, among others, that the wide spread poverty is the major challenge impinging Nigeria's collective national security. The paper promotes the need to think of security in the broader sense, particularly as efforts to secure the basic necessaries of life, for more often than not, economic problems have roots in poverty but are hidden under ethno-religious and other assorted canopies. Therefore, the paper also calls for diversification of "security votes" to poverty alleviation because poverty exacerbates all sorts of problems. This somewhat expansive theory of security is important for realization of physical and national security. Considering our endowments, experiences and the role played in international peace keeping operations, the paper postulates that we are capable of surmounting our challenges if, and only when we are resolute.

Keywords: Security breaches, National-security, Poverty-theory, Law, Nigeria.

Introduction

Constitutionalism associated with civil rule and the accompanying liberal environment for freedom of expression and association as guaranteed under sections 39 and 40 of Nigeria's 1999 Constitution; and as has been upheld in court decisions such as the case of *Attorney General of the Federation v Guardian Newspapers (*1999: 187) and *Attorney General of the Federation v Ajayi* (2000: 509) made it possible for citizens to be able to express their frustrations triggered by poverty. The expression of vexations cause by poverty is often accompanied by security threats or breaches. Worse still, intelligence gathering that ought to be of concern to everyone is not being taken serious by many who simply ignore unusual signs in their environment. It has turned out to be obvious however, that issues of insecurity must be prioritised by everyone. This paper therefore probes into the peculiar nature of security problems in Nigeria, and highlights the main factors aggravating the situation. Importantly, it is contended that since much of the citizens are living in miserable poverty while the exceptionally few who are not so living do not appear to care, it would be hard if not practically impossible to secure the populace. And therefore, that a more sensible thing to do is to begin with poverty alleviation and to strive towards its eradication.

Security Defined

Security is most often understood as safety of life and property; and as freedom from physical or psychological harm. To secure is to be free from danger, harm or apprehension; a state of psychological confidence in the safety of one's person. Thus, depending on the context in which its used security can mean different things. But in the context of this paper security is taken to mean freedom of citizens from apprehension, and creation of a psychological environment in which the citizens feel safe. What makes one secure can be in the forms of military or police presence; so also, are sound policies and programmes that guarantees citizens' social and economic freedoms. Hence, being secured is a state in which there is a system that is just, where there is no menace to one's continued existence and enjoyment of liberty. Thus, according to Olagunju (2000: 6) a secured person is one whose situations and expectations are protected, and whose political and socio-economic rights are assured. This broad definition of security implies that it is not only overt and direct threats, or absence of threats to the person or property that may be considered important, but ability to respond to such threats with expediency and expertise.

The Constitution and Security

In order to guarantee security, section 4(2) of the Nigerian Constitution makes provisions not only for internal security of persons and property, but also against external aggressions. Section 4(3)-(4) of the Constitution vests in the National Assembly which consists of two chambers, namely the Senate and the House of Representatives, with the powers to make laws for the peace, order and good government of the

federation, or any part thereof with respect to all matters in the Exclusive and Concurent Legislative List. The Houses of Assembly of States are also empowered by section 4(7) (a)-(b) to make laws on same subject matters, that is, for the peace and order in the their respective States, on matters included in the Concurrent Legislative list set out in the first column of part II of the second schedule to the Constitution. It needs to be added that the concept of internal security might be subsumed under the fundamental human rights provisions in chapter IV spanning sections 33-46 of the Constitution. This is possible, especialy when resort is made to the relevant provisions of the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights (Ratification & Enforcement) Act (2010). Simiarly, the Directive Principles of State Policy contained in chapter II covering sections 13-24 of the Constitution contains provisions on aspects of security. Section 14(2)(b) thereof provides for security both as a way of governance and as an idea. Indeed, the secttion regards security and wellbeing of citizens as the most important object of government; though as stately and noble as the duty in the section is, it does not grant a right of action or remedy in court, because section 6(6)(c) of the same Constitution makes the directive principles of the State policy listed in chapter II to be non-justiciable. By this therefore the provisions are reduced to mere philosophical aspiration, since the government cannot be answerable by legal action for failure to provide security for the citizens except, perhaps where such action is also coined in other provisions of the Constitution that bestow rights of action (*Okogie v Attorney General of Lagos State* (1981). Nevertheless, it is submitted that since the Constitution ties the issue of security unwaveringly to the people's wellbeing, and to the continued existence of the State itself; and considering that security might be incorporated into human rights as discsssed above, the Directive Prnciples remain a guide which those in power at all tiers of government are obliged to be mindful of (*Esho v Lagos State House of Assembly* (2007: 194, 211).

Nature of Breaches in Nigeria

Nigeria is a diverse polity of well over two hundred ethnic groups, though the country is primarily made up of three main groups, namely Hausa-Fulani, Igbo and Yoruba. However, diversity of the ethnic groups of the country often triggers crises oscillating amidst of the activities of the largely, though not exclusively youths based ethnic militias and/or social organizations seeking to influence the structure of power in the country, or trying to call attention to perceived deteriorating material conditions; political deprivation or marginalization of their groups. Such groups include the Arewa Peoples Congress (Hausa-Fulani); Movement for the Actualization of the Sovereign States of Biafra (MASSOB, Igbo); Odua Peoples Congress (OPC, Yoruba), Niger Deltal People Volunteeers Force (NDPVF); the Federation of the Niger Delta Ijaw Communities (FNDIC, Ijaw); the Egbesu Boys, Bakassi Boys (South East) to mention a few (Adejumo 2003: 166) (Larab 2009); (Obi 2006: 6).

The activities of most of the ethnic groups listed above, and many other unmentioned, have resorted to 'ethnic' violence. For instance, the OPC was in the past linked with most of the clashes of ethnic classifications in the South-Western Nigeria. In the North-Central State of Taraba alone, there are militias groups like the Jukun Militias, Kuteb Militias and Mambillla Millitas *et cetera*, all of which obviously serve as rallying points of mobilization in times of conflicts. Sometimes, these ethnic groups also engage in acts threatening national integration. For instance, the MASSOB is known for singing the old *Biafran* Anthem, and hosting of *Biafra's* Flag in South-East. *Biafra* or officially Republic of *Biafra* was a self-proclaimed secessionist State in the now South-Eastern Nigeria. It existed from between 30 May 1967 to 15 January 1970. But it is not all ethnic militia groups in Nigeria that are, strictly speaking, rebel movements since their aim are not always to capture political power, but to serve as socio-cultural and pressure groups calling attention to the worsening material condition of their people. Also, the activities of some of the groups sometimes threaten socio-economic activities. On this point, the *Egbesu* Boys and the NDPVF are both militant and military wings of the *Ijaw* Youth Council which often adopt guerilla style operations, and have been linked to organized crimes including looting of oil from pipelines and installations (Ibeaku and Luckham, 2006). This is perhaps, the biggest challenge hurting the chances of increased foreign investments in the country.

Breakdown of security also arises from crises caused by the so-called natives/settlers disparity, i.e. between those who consider themselves as indigenes or the natives; against those regarded as settlers, non-natives, squatters, migrant or immigrant. The 'natives' are used to disparaging or labeling the "other"— the so-called settlers as a category of people that do not belong, the "outsiders". Indeed, Nigeria

may be said to have been characterized by deep-rooted ethnic feelings and pre-modial assertions, as those who have co-existed for hundreds of years now fights because of denial of cultural and social rights. Nigeria has had to contend with the *Tiv-Azara* conflicts, *Tiv-Jukun* conflicts, *Bachama-Hausa* conflicts in Nassarawa and Taraba (North-Central) and Adamawa (in the North-Eastern) parts of the country respectively. It has also had to contends with clashes between the *Ife* and the *Modakeke* sub-ethnic groups in Osun (South-Western) State (Bureau of Democracy, 2011:18). The native/settlers crises have also led to ethno-religious crises, such as the *Zagon-Kataf* crises in Kaduna State, and many of the recurrent crises in Jos, Plateau State (North-Western Nigeria). Conflicts between the supposed natives and settlers is also unabated in many other parts of Nigeria. The qualms subsist because rather than emphasizing residency, we prefer to emphasize indigenship, and have declined to stand by laws that avail all citizens with undeniable rights where ever they may live.

Conflicts between the "natives" and "settlers" persists in spite of the fact that the Constitution clearly makes provisions on the issue of nationality. A perusal of sections 25 and 42 of the Constitution unambigously shows that the law does not distinguish between "natives" and "settlers". The Courts hav also declared in cases such as *Shugaba v Minister of Internal Affairs* (1981: 459) and *Ahmed v Minister of Internal Affairs* (2002: 239) that what is significant is the nationality; and that any person born in Nigeria, provided that both or either of his parents, or one of the grand parents is a citizen of Nigeria by birth is a Nigerian national. In other words, what determines the nationality of the parents or either of them is whether he/she belongs to any of the "communities indigenous to Nigeria". It would therefore be a breach of the law to label any citizen as a settler in any other part of Nigeria. Therefore, the solution to the challenge of settlers/natives disparity is in advancing measures and course of actions that make all citizens feel at home wherever they live. It is time that an agenda is established for residency rather than indigenship as basis for responsibilities and privileges. Of course, this paper is not advocating that a "non indigene" should be or may be made a traditional ruler in their host communities.

Nigeria is also familiar with terrorism, especially of the dreaded *boko haram* terrorist group. Also, there is series of religious crisis. This is mostly between a small numbers of adherents of Christianity and of Islam, e,g. over introduction of *Shariah* legal system, the "Miss World" pageant crisis *et cetera*. There have also been many clashes between sects within the same faith over issues of religious viewpoint, dogma, scriptural interpretations and misunderstanding of ideologies, a situation exacerbated by imbalance religious teachings, and fuelled by biased, provocative and lopsided press reports. But it is important to add, that rarely is religious conflicts in Nigeria due solely to differences in religion because, more often than not, a social or economic problem is hidden under the thin guise of religion, or cover up with religion (Ahmed and Munir, 2010:2). Thus, while all religions claim to have a common message of peace, religious fanaticism, aggressiveness and violence are on the up and up, making religion a disruptive factor and a hurdle to the supposed peace.

Furthermore, the phenomenon of kidnapping and armed robbery has taken a dimension that threatens the foundation of national security. Both crimes have forced their way to the foreground such that most citizens live with fear of blood lusting kidnappers and robbers. Bank robberies has also led many including bankers, bank customers and security personels dead or injured in the process. Why the police appear not to be able to tackle the menace seems to be multifaceted. Perhaps, the police are not adequately equipped with needed wherewithal; and perhaps, portions of the police are partners in crimes. A common complaint is that robbers possess more sophisticated weapons. It would therefore not be superfluous if banks could implement modern security measures. Though the contentious subject of State Police is outside the scope of this paper, it is submitted that the present system of unitary policing formation and deployment harmfully affects it operations. A situation in which Governors who are by section 215(4) of the Constitution are Chief Security Officers in their States can not issue binding instructions to Commissioners of Police in their States cannot provide an acceptable security.

Nigerian Factors Undermining the National Security

Of the numerous factors undermining Nigeria's security the most important, and which is the focus of this paper is that of extreme poverty in the face of extreme wealth of not many who have amassed great deal than they could ever need in their lifetime. There are also factors having to do with inter-service

rivalry; lack of collaboration and failure of intelligence gathering. Failure of intelligence and its application to security challenges is of all of us. There is no way any one or institution could be exonerated from disorder with respect to security. It appears we have not really laid solid foundation for effective intelligence. Rather, we blame the security agents and every other person other than ourselves for security lapses. The core of intelligence should be to obtain information concerning likely security breach and nib it in the bud. It is no longer intelligence if the act is completed sooner than the security agencies do something. Hence, security intelligence must be down to business and preventive, because as noted earlier, security is not the absence of threats but ability to respond to breaches or threats with expediency and expertise. Each time that the law enforcement agents claim to have discovered illegal bomb manufacturing factories or kidnappers nest it is often found that such factories or den have for long been setup in those places. There is therefore apparent lapses in intelligence gathering in security arrangements.

> Another factor weakening Nigeria's security is the lack of collaboration between security agencies, especially between the police and the various securities outfits. They do not seem to see one another as branches of the same tree., thus the situation at present do not appears to be cordial. It is a paradox of a house divided against itself, whereas the vicious nature of crimes accentuates the need to adopt a close relationship and complementing one another's efforts for effective crimes control, rather than the feelings of superiority of one over the other which has been undermining the *esprit de corps* among them. The foregoing brings us to the issues of communalization of security by non-State actors. This is especially because non-State actors have gain considerable popularity and legitimacy in their communities and members in terms of ability to drum up tribal violence (Ibeanu and Momoh, 2008:27). There is therefore the need for legislative intervention or security sector reforms in that regard.

Most importantly, frustration caused by poverty is responsible for the many cases of security breaches. Poverty has been described variously as a state or condition of being poor, in need or want of necessities, a lack or deficiency; meagerness or inadequacy and inability to afford what should be the basic necessaries of life for a person of one's status. A denial of human rights and social justice could also constitute poverty. It seems however, that poverty is better assessed from the inability to meet or enjoy basic infrastructural facilities. In otherwords, where one is unable to measure up to the minimum standards of living below which one may be categorized as poor, he is poverty riding (Vaidyanathan 2002), (Ode 2008: 85-105). Security threat exacerbates where the distinction between the haves and the haves-not increases the more and more. A visit to any part of Nigeria reveals a growing army of unemployment, and more commercial *okada* (motorcycles) riders than are commercial farmers. This is a sign of wants in the mist of plenty. To sustain security therefore, a straightforward and perhaps the shortest way out is to banished poverty.

Therefore, it is imperative that the poverty theory of security be embraced. Security should be seen in the expansive denotation, as the struggle to obtain the necessaries of life, namely food, cloths, fuel, medicine and shelter. This is essential as many social disturbances resulting from the absence of essential human needs can lead to security complications. This submission is reinforced by the unrests in parts of Nigeria, and many parts of the world that have roots in the inactions on the part of governments to make available the basic human needs of their citizens (Abubakar, 2005). If the governments neglect to give the impression that it cares, the adversely affected citizenry would most likely be unpatriotic and be inclined to give the impression of looking the other way when others engage in acts ill-disposed to the State's security. Citizens must therefore be shown the basis to feel obliged to their State. A deprived man has nothing to lose, and he becomes gullible to whatever idea that comes his ways, as long as it puts food in his stomach. That is why it is difficult to believe that people are fighting for religion or ethnicity. Most skirmishes have more to do with economy. Therefore, a more helpful point of view advocates that as poverty exacerbates all sorts of problems it is only by eliminating it that we can tackle the numberless problems thwarting us from attaining security.

It has however been argued, that there is no economic dimension to terrorism, murder and other hate crimes (Cait, 2012), (Endes, *et al.* 2012: 267-272.); that most terrorists are clearly not motivated by the prospect of their individual economic gains or of hopelessness of poverty; and that most terrorists are

drawn from the society's elites, not from the 'have-nots' (Krueger and Maleckova, 2003: 119-114). It has also been noted and, perhaps rightly too that most of the nineteen hijackers of the *9/11* were middle class, well-educated citizens of Saudi Arabia; and that Osama Bin Laden himself was from one of the richest families in the Middle East (Krueger 2003). These points may be valid, but they only represent exceptions to the poverty theory. It is true that *Bin Ladin* was born into a rich Saudi family in which at about age 11 he inherited a fortune estimated to be worth millions of dollars; and grew up surrounded by material wealth. As for why he would prefer to live in a cave rather than in mansions or five star hotels I cannot tell. This obviously justifies the submission that, though there are many good reasons to worry about poverty, and to take action to alleviate it, ending terrorism is not one of them (Cait, 2012).

The above does not mean, however, that economics is altogether irrelevant. For while there may be strong proof that there is little nexus between terrorism and poverty, corruption by avarious politicians is a factor leading to weak government and State's inability to enforce order, thereby becoming susceptible to all kinds of criminality. Texts on the economics of crimes suggest a number of reasons to suppose that poverty; and perhaps want of education are linked to illegal activity, especially property crimes. Indeed, available data suggests that an average person is more likely to commit property crimes if he has no wages or education, in almost the same manner that terrorist groups or other criminal syndicates would find it easier to conscript unwaged persons, as unemployed do not have opportunity cost of time (Endes, *et al* 2012). Indeed, those who believe that others have limited their economic prospects might have grievances that could lure them in to criminal acts, not primarily because of fundamental beliefs but by finance. It has been revealed, how a member of *Al-Qaeda* who was promised $500 for a C-section for his wife soon left the organization after receiving nothing. We may also avert our minds to how the U.S. offered cash to obtain intelligence from terrorists captured in Afghanistan and Iraq; and how Saddam's son was figured out by one of his top man having been bribed by the US government.

It follows from the aforesaid that, if we are to properly appraise the cause of crime and successfully address its threats, then we must think more like economists do. The government need to channel more resources into projects that will favour the downtrodden. Although the governments at all levels have embarked on measures including the National Economic Empowerment Development (NEED) and the National Directorate of Employment (NDE) to alleviate poverty, indices reveal failure of those plans to meaningfully lessen the manace, perhaps due to lack of political will on the part of governments, and perhaps due to non-inclusion of the beneficiaries—the poor in the planning and implementation of the programmes intended for them.

Conclusions

This paper has *inter alia* explored the poverty theory to form the basis for reduction in security breaches in Nigeria. It has been established that alleviation of poverty is both a security and socio-economic issue; and therefore, in order to grow and sustain security there has to be sound security and socio-economic strategies to alleviate poverty. The paper has attempted to draw attention to the fact that a jobless, hungry, and unhappy populace can not be easy to be policed because a poverty-stricken man has nothing at stake, and therefore becomes gullible to all kinds of thinking provided it put food on his table. It is therefore recommended that the sum set as security "votes" should be channel to poverty alleviation. This is in view of the fact that security situation continues to worsen notwitstanding the huge sum being voted for same. It is strongly believed that when such fund is routed towards poverty alleviation the deprived or the vulnerable causing security breaches will benefit therefrom, satisfied and thereby safeguarding security of lives and property. This somewhat expansive theory of security is important for realization of physical and national security. I would like to conclude by adding that since our security agents have consistently and creditably participate in peace keeping missions abroad there are reasons to trust that they could do better by far at home if only we are determined.

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Federalism, National Security and State Policing System in Nigeria's Fourth Republic

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Abstract
Nigerian polity in recent times is plunged in diverse security crises. Hardly any region in the federation is spared from insecurity vortex spreading like a wild fire. Resultantly, many lives and properties have been lost and destroyed, while many people are internally displaced. Curtailing these security crises by the centralised Nigeria Police Force (NPF) has proved more daunting. The study examined the imperatives of state policing system as a panacea to insecurity mantra facing Nigeria's federation in the Fourth Republic between 1999 and 2018. It employed mixed method research design. Data collected through primary and secondary sources were analysed using Chi-square (χ^2) statistics and content analysis. Our findings revealed that the NPF has not significantly curtailed insecurity dilemma caused by structural imbalance of the Nigerian state; hence the adoption of State police will significantly curb intimidating security challenges in the Fourth Republic. The study concluded that since the NPF has failed to tame escalating wave of security crises annihilating lives and general welfare of the populace, State police seems a more attractive option. It recommended that in order to guarantee a decentralised policing system capable of adequate security of lives and property, the ninth National Assembly and State Assemblies should prioritise restructuring the current federal structure with a view to empowering the States to establish their own polices for a better and robust security architecture.

Keywords: Federalism, Insecurity, Security Architecture, Restructuring, State Policing.

Introduction

Over the years, Nigeria's history and practice of federalism is replete with socio-political conflicts and insecurity. The country has witnessed number of challenging security issues that have almost precipitated the breakup of our fragile federation. Hardly any geo-political zone in the federation is spared from insecurity vortex spreading like a wild fire. Since the commencement of the Fourth Republic in 1999, many lives and properties worth fortune have been lost to the *Boko Haram* insurgency, herdsmen-farmers conflicts, communal clashes, militancy, cultism, ritual killings and kidnapping menaces, while many have been internally displaced. Curtailing these crises has proved more daunting. One argument put forward to the failure of security measures in place is a centralised policing system of the Federal Government. Unlike the United States, Nigeria practices a centralised police system. Apparently, centralised security arrangements in Nigeria have failed to meet the current security needs of this nation.

However, state policing has been widely suggested as one of the alternative channels through which the security situation and criminal tendencies in Nigeria could be handled and curtailed. The idea of state policing has gained popularity as a result of the inability of the federal police commands to contain the security challenges. The protagonists of State police argue that the establishment of State police is long overdue considering recent threats to national security across the country. They contend that the issue of security of lives and property of Nigerians, as well as socio-political and economy of the nation, should not be left entirely to the dictate of Federal Government alone and that the State Governments should have certain roles to play as well. It is also argued that decentralisation of the police force should be considered plausible option for timely detection of emerging crimes in rural areas. Also, the proponents thought that adoption of State police would help to achieve a more efficient and effective policing system (Dadem, 2009; Eme & Anyandike, 2012; Olong & Agbonika, 2013; Odeh & Umoh, 2015).

Conversely, the antagonists against the establishment of State police warned that the police if created would be a tool of manipulation and intimidation by the State executives, especially the governors. It has also been argued in some quarters that state police are nothing but a recipe for anarchy as it could lead to abuse of power (Agwanwo, 2014; Nwogwugwu & Kupoluyi, 2015; Ogunbiyi, 2017). However, in spite of the tremendous scholarship on insecurity and State police imperatives, there exist gap in literature on the linkage of federalism, national security and state policing system using mixed method approach. It is

also important to confirm or refute earlier observations made in theoretical studies. Therefore, this study is significant because of the urgent need to overcome current security challenges in the country coupled with the need to revisit the prospects and challenges of the 'State police' for interrogation.

Against the backdrop of the foregoing, the central objective of the study was to examine the imperative of state policing system as a panacea to security crises facing Nigeria polity in the Fourth Republic between 1999 and 2018. Specifically, the study is aimed to:

a. examine the relationship between insecurity and structural imbalance of the Nigerian state;
b. investigate the extent to which the Nigeria Police Force (NPF) has curbed insecurity dilemma in Nigeria's Fourth Republic; and
c. establish whether the establishment of state police will curb intimidating security challenges in Nigeria's Fourth Republic.

Hence, the following null hypotheses were formulated to guide the study:

Ho_1: There is no significant relationship between insecurity and structural imbalance of the Nigerian state.
Ho_2: The Nigeria Police Force (NPF) has not significantly curbed insecurity dilemma in Nigeria's Fourth Republic.
Ho_3: The establishment of state police will not significantly curb intimidating security challenges in Nigeria's Fourth Republic.

Literature Reviews

A considerable large number of scholars have written on the concept of federalism. However, there is common trend in the literature to view federalism as a governmental system aimed at maintaining unity and stability, preserving diversity and managing conflicts in society (Ayoade, 1980; Long, 1991; Muhammad, 2007a,b; Ozoigbo, 2009; Fawole & Bello, 2011; Eze, *et al.* 2012; Elaigwu, 2013; Fakanbi & Raji, 2013; Amadi, *et al.* 2017; Orluwene, 2018). Some scholars also consider federalism as the formal division of powers between levels of government (Wheare, 1963; Nwabueze, 1983; Ola, 2001; Ozoigbo, 2009; Fawole & Bello, 2011; Enu, *et al.*, 2017). Others perceived the concept from instrument of governance perspective (Kincaid, 1995; Nkwede, *et al.,* 2018). Efforts would be made in this section to identify some of these viewpoints.

Muhammad (2007b) described federalism as a governmental and institutional arrangement which seeks to maintain unity in diversity because power is shared between a central government and other component units each maintaining its identity within the federal union. Thus, Fawole and Bello (2011:211) consider federalism to mean the "political arrangement which appreciate the existence of a central authority and a number of regionalised governments in such a way that each unit including the central authority exists as a government separately and independently from the others". In other words, federalism serves as a process of unifying powers within the unified state. Similarly, Nwabueze in Orluwene (2018:76) shed more light on the concept of federalism by defining it as an arrangement whereby powers of government within a country are shared between a national (nation-wide) government and a number of regionalised governments in such a way that each exists as a government separately and independently from the others, operating directly on persons and property within its territorial area, with a will of its own, and its own apparatus for the conduct of its affairs and with an authority in some matters exclusive of all others. Being federal implies having a system of government in which the individual states of a country have control over their own affairs, but are controlled by a central government for national decisions (Olayiwola, 2012).

Ayoade in Fawole and Bello (2011) posited that federalism is a device for the management of diversity – which presupposes the existence of opposing and often conflicting groups in the state. Likewise, Long in Fawole and Bello (2011) argued that federalism is an institutional solution to the disruptive tendencies of intra-societal ethnic pluralism; it is a system which mediates the potential and actual conflict that often arises from the heterogeneity within a political entity federalism, as well as help reduce the potential effect of ethnic imbalance in the country (Muhammad, 2007a). Elaigwu (2013) maintained that

federalism is a technique of managing conflicts in a multinational state. It is a system of government that has always been adopted as a way of ensuring peaceful coexistence in a heterogeneous society (Fakanbi & Raji, 2013). As Watts (2006) has correctly observed, for a federal association to take place, there has to be a willingness to abide by democratic procedures, non-centralisation of power – as no tier or level of government is subordinate to the other in its areas of competence – and respect for the rule of law or constitutionalism. However, it is pertinent to note that that there is no ideal federal form and that the application of the federal solution or formula depends on the degree of cultural diversity being reconciled; the number, size, the symmetry or asymmetry of component units; distribution of political and fiscal powers; mechanisms for resolving conflicts; and the electoral system, among others.

In practice, no country has been able to embody all the federal principles identified above in its traditional definition. In fact, it is generally agreed that federal systems vary in content from one country to another. The particular political colouring that a country's federal government takes, is often reflective of its historical experiences, its political, cultural, social, and economic environment and the disposition of its people at a particular point in time (Elaigwu, 2013). The year 1954 remains a watershed in the evolution of Nigerian federalism. As Elagwu (2013:17), has maintained, the Lyttleton Constitution of 1954 confirmed the direction of constitutional reforms in favour of federalism. Regional governments became effectively established with nigerianised executives and legislatures. Political parties had followed the regional pattern. By 1957, a central government under the leadership of Balewa as Prime Minister emerged. Regional leaders operated a federal constitution in the context of the Westminster model of government. The 1960 Independence Constitution only ratified what was started in 1954 - Nigeria as a federation.

Ojo (2009:384) opined that federalism is indeed the bedrock of democratic edifice for a country of Nigeria's size and bewildering diversities. Nigeria is a deeply divided and plural society with over 400 ethnic groups, and that these ethnic groups are always in conflict and competition for scarce resources is not a gainsaying. The federal idea which was a colonial construct has incurred different reactions from the foremost Nigerian nationalists and political leaders after independence. Bello in Orluwene (2018:76) once remarked that the making of Nigerian federation was the "mistake of 1914". Commenting on the beginning of the end of Nigerian federalism with the incursion of military in governance, Ibrahim (2008), asserted that:

> *It was the military that subsequently succeeded in almost completely destroying Nigerian federalism, by sacrificing it on the altar of centralisation. The tripartite structure which had become quadripartite with the creation of the Mid West in 1963 has been significantly transformed…. The multiplication of States has produced a Jacobin effect that strengthens the centre by eroding the autonomy of the regions. Rather than correct the ethno-regional balance in the country, the fissiparous state creation tendency has concentrated enormous powers at the centre and weakened all groups except those who directly control federal power. Nigeria thus finds itself now with a so-called Federation that is for all practical purposes a unitary state with some limited devolution of power to the states (p. 6).*

Consequently, different themes have been used in literature to describe Nigeria's federalism, for instance, "a federation in disarray", "a union without unity", "convoluted federalism" and so on. Corroborating this assertion, Fakanbi and Raji (2013) submitted that Nigerian federalism has witnessed a plethora of cataclysmic social tornadoes which carried the capacity and potential to precipitate disintegration. The lack of workability of this system of government has evoked and is still precipitating insecurity in the nature of militancy in the Niger Delta region, Boko Haram insurgency, kidnapping, ritual killings, farmers-herdsmen conflicts and killings by cultists. Nigeria presently consists of 36 States and a Federal Capital Territory (FCT), as well as 774 local government areas. Despite this number of sub-national unit, there exists agitation for more states and local government areas to be created due to observed imbalance (Bassey, 2012). Nwabughiogu (1996:55) noted that the Nigerian federation "was a federation that was to continue to be hunted by the twin forces of structural imbalance and the quest for sectional security". Enu, Opoh and Bassey (2017) presented some of the imbalances in the structure of the inherited federalism in Nigeria such as over-control and weakening of lower units, high cost of governance, resource control, unhealthy competition, multi-level tiers of government, and ethnic, religious and regional conflicts.

Correspondingly, Nkwede, *et al.* (2018) believed that there are many unresolved issues associated with Nigeria federalism in contemporary time such include over-concentration of governmental powers at the centre, sectional domination of powers and political leadership, inept and corrupt leadership/bad governance, socio-economic crisis, insecurity, corruption, favouritism and nepotism, problem of power sharing, and poor implementation of federal character principle. The scholars further observe that insecurity and political instability have been the permanent features of Nigeria body-politic. In a similar trend, Katsina (2012) argued that the major sources of threats to Nigeria's national security are predicated upon socio-economic and political imbalances. He further claimed that the challenges with Nigeria are structural and socio-economic. The anger and frustration due to structural imbalance has increasingly found expression in violent conflicts, inter and intra-tribal and religious, armed groups engagement with the state, as well as ever rising level of urban crimes and insecurity. Groups, such as Movement for the Emancipation of the Niger Delta (MEND) and Niger Delta Avengers (NDA) in the South-South, Boko Haram in the North-East; herdsmen-farmers clashes in the South-East and South-West, and other parts of the country; kidnappers, armed robbers and ritual killers, among other threats to national security have done a greater havoc on the Nigeria's socio-economic and political life.

Policing has always been necessary in all societies for the maintenance of orderliness, law and security. The necessity of policing becomes even more evident in modern societies characterised by diversities and contradictions arising from population heterogeneity, urbanisation, industrialisation, conflicting ideologies on appropriate socio-political and economic form of organisation (Reiner, 2000; Alemika & Chukwuma, 2003). As argued by Kasumu (2017), policing refers to measures and actions taken by a variety of institutions and groups (both formal and non-formal) in the society. The emergence of the police, a body of eligible men, enlisted, trained, equipped and maintained by the state, to enforce laws with which they are charged, ensure orderliness, protect society and reduce the apprehension of citizens is a notable development in human history (Alemika & Chukwuma, 2003). The central objectives of policing are to prevent, control and combat criminality, maintain public order and peace, render assistance and service to all citizens needing or requiring security, and favourably symbolise the law and the government by always upholding the rule of law (Kasumu, 2017). The Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria makes provision for a single police force, that is, no other security agency is allowed to be established by the other component units (see Section 214(1) of the 1999 Constitution). The Nigeria Police Force (NPF) is therefore statutorily responsible for the detection and prevention of crime, apprehending and prosecution of offenders, protection of lives and property of the citizens, enforcement and maintenance of laws and order (Inyang & Abraham, 2013).

The aforesaid shows that Nigeria has a highly centralised policing arrangement. Consequently, the state governments have little or no control over the security of their states and people. Security constitutes one of the fundamental objectives and indeed the foremost responsibility of every government. It is the freedom from danger, intimidation, apprehension, the feeling or assurance of safety, peace of mind or absence of fear, and the certainty or assurance of the good life or welfare (Robert-Okah, 2014). The state has as its central purpose to ensure that the people are protected and secured. Security should mean the establishment of measure for the protecting of lives and property against hostility and the existence of conditions within which people in a society can go about their normal socio-economic daily activities without any threat to their lives or property (Achumba, *et al.*, 2013). National security is a "state where the unity, well-being, values, and beliefs, democratic process, mechanism of governance and welfare of the nation and her people are perpetually improved and secured through military, political and economic resources" (Oriakhi & Osemwengie, 2012:89). Adebakin and Raimi (2012) identified economic, food, health, environmental, personal, community and political security as critical dimensions of national security. It embraces all measures designed to protect and safeguard the citizenry and the resources of individuals, groups, businesses and the nation against sabotage or violent occurrence. Security should not be managed in a highly centralised manner as currently observed in Nigeria. States need to be allowed to establish their own policing system aimed at curbing incessant security crisis at the grassroots.

Agwanwo (2014) averred that State police is the act of policing in a federal system in which the State government employs police officers for the purpose of policing the state. Aremu (2014:33) described State policing as a sub-national form of policing in which there is devolution of security operations in the

hands of the federating states of regions. State policing operationally is when policing and all its operations and logistics are controlled by other governments other than the national or federal government. Scholars are of the opinion that Nigeria is fast degenerating into the Hobbesian state of nature where life is short, nasty, brutish and living has become an issue of survival of the fittest, due to the serial attacks by hoodlums, criminals, armed robbers, kidnappers, cultists and terrorists, that have virtually taken over the nation. The resultant effects have been the destruction of valuable facilities and properties, loss of lives and increase in budgetary appropriation and expenditure on security. In the face of these, the security forces appear helpless and ineffective in curbing the security trends (Adebakin & Raimi, 2012; Eme & Anyadike, 2013; Odeh & Umoh, 2015; Nkwede, *et al.,* 2018).

In the same vein, Ugwu, *et al.*, (2013) established that there have been the phenomenal of Nigeria Police Force's inability to ameliorate the security crisis bordering on kidnapping incidences, electoral and ethno-religious violence, politically-inclined, ritualist-oriented and cultism-related killings, and armed robberies in Nigeria. These have resulted in several clarion calls for an expanded and decentralised structure of the Nigerian policing system. Instances abound on the federations in several parts of the world operating a decentralised policing (state police) with different system. Mention should be made of the United States, Spain, Canada, Italy, India, Germany, Britain, Denmark, Belgium and others, who run a decentralised policing system and are doing well (Olong & Agbonika, 2013; Chiedu, 2018). Dadem (2009) argued that the centralisation of the Nigerian Police has made their operations unwieldy, and difficult to respond to local situations of a minor detail. This takes away the benefit that was conferred by the 1963 Constitution, which grants the regions the powers to establish and operate local Police Force (see Section 105 of the 1963 Constitution). Contrariwise, Section 214(1) of the 1999 Constitution (as amended) establishes a Police Force for the Federation, and no other force is to be established in any part of the federation. Agitations by many state governors in the recent past for the right to create "State police" are due to the dissatisfaction with this stipulated constitutional provision. The practical problem in the operation of this provision, as observed by Dadem (2009), lies in cases where the Commissioners of Police have refused to take directives from the Governors of the States, until they receive clearance from the President. Over-centralisation of security through the NPF has turned out to be a less effective way of managing security crisis in Nigeria (Restructure Nigeria, 2017).

The debate on the necessity or otherwise of State police in contemporary Nigeria, as Nwogwugwu and Kupoluyi (2015) has noted, stems from the breakdown in general insecurity as manifested by high level of armed robbery, rape, kidnapping, massacres, ritual murder, unresolved assassinations, ethno-religious conflicts, urban terrorism and rural banditry, among others. The scholars argue further that these incidences of insecurity have generated untold anxiety and fear, especially in the inability of the federal controlled Nigerian police to curb or curtail their occurrence to some reasonable degree. In their study on "State policing and national security in Nigeria", Odeh and Umoh (2015) observed that Nigeria is battling its worth level of security. According to them, the nation has suddenly metamorphosed into an abode of serial bombings, hostage-taking, kidnapping, armed robbery, cold-blooded murders and ethno-religious conflicts traceable to militant groups. Hence, the rising insecurity has called to question the centralisation of policing in the country. They however advanced the need to decentralise the Nigeria Police Force, and ensure that states establish, maintain and control their police formations.

Against the backdrop of Nigeria's current huge security challenges, Ochei (2016) opined that one veritable way out of the quagmire of insecurity and similar challenges would be the establishment of State police. His submission is borne out of what he referred to as the persistent allegations of abuse of the NPF by those who currently run and control it. He goes further to state that State police formations would be more penetrable and widespread, as well as more community friendly, relative to the NPF. As such, it would be sensible if the states are constitutionally allowed to establish, fund and operate state police. Lending credence to the foregoing submission, Egunjobi (2016) traced the inadequate and centralised policing by the Nigeria Police Force to the failure of Nigerian federalism. The scholar notes that the over-centralisation of the Nigeria police against all known principle and practice of federalism, has made it a tool for political intimidation of opposition politicians by the wielders of the power of the federal government, and made deployment of the police to rapidly address crimes and criminality ineffectual, considering the vastness of the Nigerian space and its attendant challenges of diversity. This situation has

led to continuous call for the decentralisation of the Nigerian police, through constitutional devolution of the powers to establish, organise, maintain and control the police, by sub-national units making up the Nigerian federation. Sharing similar opinion, Restructure Nigeria (2017) maintained that there are hundreds of Nigerian villages and thousands of neighbourhood without any Nigerian police presence. This is in fact a threat to national security. It assert further that by devolving security duties of the national police to state and communities, the federal government would kill two birds with a stone, in that, the federal recurrent expenditure will be drastically reduced, while the blame on the Federal Government for certain crimes will be shifted on the State Governments.

Theoretical Exploration

There exist two schools of thought on "State police" debates in Nigeria's federation. Belonging to the first school are the proponents of the idea of state police as imperatives for effective and efficient policing in Nigeria. The underlying argument is that the present structure of the police makes them more alienated from the grassroots, so having State police will make the police institution more effective (Nwogwugwu & Kupoluyi, 2015). The peculiarity of the security challenges of each state can be better managed by the officers who understands the language, geography and the peculiar security challenge of the people they would be policing (Agwanwo, 2014). Given the spate of indiscriminate killings and kidnappings around the country, some analysts believe this is the ideal time to have State police in Nigeria. They maintain that it is only a decentralised police force that can rescue the nation from the precipice (Eme & Anyadike, 2012). The Senate on July 4, 2018, disturbed by escalating killings and insecurity in Nigeria, settled for state and community policing, through constitutional amendment. Recently, the Deputy Senate President, Senator Ike Ekweremadu, laments that the Plateau killings had clearly shown the inability of the federal police, to nip in the bud the security challenges facing the country. Reiterating his call for creation of State police, as a way out, Ekweremadu said that: "I have been saying it here anytime issues of senseless killings in the land come up that creation of State police is the way out since the centralised police have proved to be incapable of addressing the problem" (Umoru, 2018).

The vastness and geographical factor have also been reasoned for the need to establish a State police. The protagonists note that the country is too big to have a single and centralised police structure. In their views, State police has always been necessary in Nigeria because of its land mass and population. They then conclude that State police should have been in place since the return to civil rule in 1999 (Eme & Anyadike, 2012; *ThisDay Admin*, July 18, 2018). Another argument is the federal nature of the Nigerian state. Fashola in Onwuzuligbo (2012) observe that every state that has the power to give judgment through its state high courts and magistrates, and make laws through its state assemblies and legislators, must have the concomitant powers to enforce its law and police its state. This is an extension of the principle of federalism, to which Nigeria's federal and state courts exist (section 6 of the 1999 Constitution of Nigeria). Thus, federalism is not complete without the existence of State police. In more advanced federating societies, there are federal and state police (Aleyomi, 2013). Since Nigeria operates a federal system of government that allows the devolution of power among the federating states, therefore the creation of a State police structure is a *sine qua non* to genuine principles of true federalism (Eme & Anyadike, 2012).

The advocates also maintain that establishing State police will give room for the central command to focus on raising a crop of highly professional police corps that may be deployed from time to time whenever the need arises (Eme & Anyadike, 2012). For the protagonists of state police, state governments have been funding the police as a result of the inability of the Federal Government to adequately cater for the institution. Adefi (2010:220) contended that "most State governors have provided vehicles and logistic support to the police in their states…. With the creation of state police, states can constitutionally appropriate funds for the police force under their jurisdiction…." However, it has been averred that the state governors, who are the chief security officers of their states, are seemingly powerless as they have no control over the police domiciled in their states (Nwogwugwu & Kupoluyi, 2015). The main argument of the second school, which comprises the opponents of state police, is premised on the over-ambitious governors and mischievous money-bags, who may hijack the police in their states for selfish purposes. They further base their position on politicians who already use all manner of funny-looking guys as personal guards to terrorise the common man. In addition, they argue that state funds will be used to

influence a handful of members of the security agencies to intimidate, harass, maim and in extreme cases, kill innocent citizens who perform their statutory duties. Some may resort to the use of security agents to force reporters to do their biddings. They also argue that there may arise situation where Governors can order certain uncompromising members of the House of Assembly for voicing their dissenting views on an election. It will be better imagined than not, if such governors have powers over the police in the name of State police (Egbosiuba, 2013; Odeh & Umoh, 2015).

The opponents of State police use some of the human rights abuses perpetrated by some groups as basis for their arguments, saying that these groups often operate contrary to the provisions of the Nigerian constitution. This school of thought also argues that the State police will be abused by the State governors. They opined that it will produce the same result as the immunity clause which has entrenched corruption at various levels of government (Odeh & Umoh, 2015). Instances abound on the experiences Nigerians have had with the Native Authority (NA) Police, which operated at the local government level in the Northern and Western regions in the First Republic till April 1967. Despite its attractions, during the period it lasted, the NA/Local Government Police became a major instrument for harassing political opponents in the years before 1966, due mainly to intolerance of opposition by government in power, thereby leading in part to the failure of Nigeria's first experience in multiparty democracy (Rotimi 1991 cited in Egunjobi, 2016). Notwithstanding the arguments for and against the institution of State police, it is obvious that Nigeria has over the years been characterised by high rate of insecurity while men of the federal controlled police forces have not been able curbing the threat. Hence, embracing the federating principle of State police may seem the only way out of the security quagmire the country is facing at the moment.

Materials and Methods

The study adopted mixed method research design. The study population comprised the inhabitants of the rural and urban settings in the six local government areas within the three Senatorial Districts of Ogun State. These local governments were selected using purposive sampling technique. A sample size of 400 was selected using Taro Yamani's (1975) sample size formula. The respondents were selected using simple random sampling technique. The target population for the study comprised the students, unemployed youths, public servants, self-employed, traders, community leaders, elder statesmen and retirees of 18-79 years and above. A structured questionnaire was used as instrument of data collection. The data collected were analysed using chi-square statistics. Content analysis was used to analyse the theoretical positions of scholars and analysts on federalism, national security and state policing in Nigeria, based on the information derived from secondary sources, such as newspapers, books, journals/articles, constitutions, government publications, magazines and materials downloaded from websites.

Data Analysis, Findings and Discussions

This section analysed the data collected on the field through the questionnaire. Out of the 400 administered copies of questionnaire, 384 were retrieved, while 381 were useful for statistical analysis. The three null hypotheses were tested using Chi-square inferential statistics at .05 level of significance. Chi-square (χ^2) statistics was employed for the purpose of deductive inference from the responses of the respondents. The decision rule is that if the Chi-square calculated value (χ^2cal) is greater than the tabulated value (χ^2tab), null hypothesis (H_0) would be rejected while accepting alternative hypothesis (H_1), and vice versa.

Hypothesis one: *There is no significant relationship between insecurity and structural imbalance of the Nigerian state.*

To test the above hypothesis, Chi-square (χ^2) test of independence was applied using items 1-4 in the questionnaire. The test was carried out at .05 level of significance and 12 degree of freedom (df). The hypothesis sought to determine the relationship between insecurity and structural imbalance of the Nigerian state. The result of the test is presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Summary of Result of Chi-square (χ^2) Test

Hypothesis	*N*	*df*	*Sig.*	χ^2*cal*	χ^2*t*	*Decision rule*
1	381	12	.05	28.523	21.026	H_0 *Rejected*

Source: Field Survey, 2018

Interpretation: The result of the test as shown in Table 1 reveal that χ^2cal (28.523) is greater than χ^2t (21.026). Hence, H_0 was rejected and H_1 was upheld. This implies that structural imbalance of the Nigerian state was responsible for security crisis in some states of the Federation.

Hypothesis two: *The Nigeria Police Force (NPF) has not significantly curbed insecurity dilemma in Nigeria's Fourth Republic.*

To test the above hypothesis, Chi-square (χ^2) test of independence was applied using items 5-7 in the questionnaire. The test was carried out at .05 level of significance and 8 degree of freedom (df). The hypothesis sought to determine whether the Nigeria Police Force (NPF) has been able to curb insecurity dilemma in Nigeria's Fourth Republic or otherwise. The result of the test is presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Summary of Result of Chi-square (χ^2) Test

Hypothesis	*N*	*df*	*Sig.*	χ^2*cal*	χ^2*t*	*Decision rule*
2	381	8	.05	9.872	15.507	H_0 *Accepted*

Source: Field Survey, 2018

Interpretation: The result of the test as shown in Table 2 reveal that χ^2cal (9.872) is less than χ^2t (15.507). Hence, H_0 was accepted and H_2 was rejected. This implies that the Nigeria Police Force (NPF) has not significantly curbed insecurity dilemma in Nigeria's Fourth Republic.

Hypothesis three: *The establishment of state police will not significantly curb intimidating security challenges in Nigeria's Fourth Republic.*

To test the above hypothesis, Chi-square (χ^2) test of independence was applied using items 8-10 in the questionnaire. The test was carried out at .05 level of significance and 8 degree of freedom (df). The hypothesis sought to determine whether the establishment of state police will significantly curb intimidating security challenges in Nigeria's Fourth Republic or otherwise. The result of the test is presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Summary of Result of Chi-square (χ^2) Test

Hypothesis	*N*	*df*	*Sig.*	χ^2*cal*	χ^2*t*	*Decision rule*
3	381	8	.05	17.741	15.507	H_0 *Rejected*

Source: Field Survey, 2018

Interpretation: The result of the test as shown in Table 3 reveal that χ^2cal (17.741) is greater than χ^2t (15.507). Hence, H_0 was rejected and H_3 was upheld. This implies that the establishment of state police will significantly curb intimidating security challenges in Nigeria's Fourth Republic, especially since 2009 when the Boko Haram insurgency became rife.

Findings in hypothesis one indicated that structural imbalance of the Nigerian state was responsible for security crisis in some states of the Federation. Relying on the views of the respondents on the questionnaire items related to the above hypothesis, majority of them opined that the emergence of various ethnic militias in different parts of the country in the contemporary times is connected to the

grievances with the structural imbalances of the Nigerian state. This finding agrees with extant studies, such as Muhammad (2007a,b), Katsina (2012), Fakanbi & Raji (2013), Nwabughiogu (1996), Enu, *et al.*, (2017), and Nkwede, *et al.*, (2018). Nkwede, *et al.*, (2018) observed that insecurity and political instability have been the permanent features of Nigeria body-politic. Katsina (2012) viewed that the major sources of threats to Nigeria's national security are predicated upon structural, socio-economic and political imbalances.

Furthermore, findings in hypothesis two revealed that the Nigeria Police Force (NPF) has failed to significantly curb Nigeria's insecurity dilemma. This conclusion is in tandem with the views of the majority of respondents on the fact that the Nigeria Police Force has been ineffective to prevent and thwart security crises in Nigeria. The finding agrees with previous findings of Dadem (2009), Eme & Anyadike (2012), Ugwu *et al.*, (2013), Nwogwugwu & Kupoluyi (2015), Odeh & Umoh (2015), and Egunjobi (2016). Ugwu, *et al.*, (2013) had earlier established that the Nigeria Police Force has been unable to ameliorate the security crisis in Nigeria. This view was also shared by Dadem (2009), Eme and Anyadike (2012), and Restructure Nigeria (2017). These studies perceive that federal police have appeared several times helpless and ineffective in curbing the insecurity mantra in the country. Concurring to this, Nwogwugwu and Kupoluyi (2015) observed that the Nigerian Police as presently constituted has failed to live up to expectations. Similarly, Odeh and Umoh (2015) found that the current centralised system of administering the police force in Nigeria may not be tenable in adequately curbing the menace of insecurity.

Finally, findings in hypothesis three showed that the establishment of state police will significantly curb intimidating security challenges in Nigeria. This conclusion agrees with the views of the respondents on the field. The finding goes in line with the earlier observations of Eme & Anyadike (2012), Ugwu, *et al.*, (2013), Agwanwo (2014), Nwogwugwu & Kupoluyi (2015), Odeh & Umoh (2015), Egunjobi (2016), and Restructure Nigeria (2017). Having evaluated the feasibility of State policing in Nigeria, Odeh & Umoh (2015) submitted that the establishment of a State police that will be capable of tackling the current challenge of gross insecurity in Nigeria is desirable. Likewise, Ugwu, *et al.*, (2013) contended that expanded and decentralised police force mechanism will ensure adequate containment of security challenge in Nigeria.

Conclusions

The study examined the challenge of insecurity within the current facade of Nigeria's federalism with the argument for the viability of the State police as the alternative option to curbing the perceived and escalating insecurity trends in Nigeria. Based on the findings, the study submits that the centralisation of policing by the Federal Government has neither helped fight crimes nor improved security of lives and property. Without doubt, the centralised policing system has not really been effective. It is logical that the country considers other plausible options, such as the institution of State police. In an ideal federal system, the issue of State police should not be a contentious matter. Overcoming current security challenges in the polity requires the need to embrace the option of State police. The study is not recommending scrapping of the federal police rather suggesting a total overhauling of the NPF in such a way that more qualified, active and principled police personnel are recruited, while those already in the system are retrained in effective and democratic modes of policing. The federal police will work in federal agencies, parastatals and the Federal Capital Territory (FCT), Abuja. Their services may also be requested by any State Governor, who perhaps deems it necessary in times of crisis.

Therefore, the Police Service Commission should wake up from its slumber and ensure discipline, transparency and accountability in the police. The establishment of State police would not only stem the increasing tide of insecurity, it would also bring policing to the rural areas previously never felt the presence of police. State police would enhance prioritisation of policing objectives to match policing needs of people, make policing more accountable, and improve effectiveness and perhaps efficiency in security delivery. More importantly, the ninth National Assembly should prioritise the need to restructure the current convoluted federal structures so as to empower the States to establish their own polices thereby guaranteeing a decentralised policing system to effectively tackle all sorts of security vortex in Nigeria.

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Party Leadership, Intra-Party Crisis and Democratic Consolidation in Southwest Nigeria

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Abstract
The study examined the tripodic linkage between party leadership, intra-party crisis and democratic consolidation in the Southwest Nigeria between 2006 and 2017. It relied on secondary sources of data and content analysis. Using elite and realistic group conflict theories as theoretical frameworks, the study observed that intra-party crises in the Southwest region during the period were due to high-handedness of party leadership and political elites at various levels of party structure, as well as their inability to maintain stable and cohesive party relations coupled with the abysmal level of intra-party democracy and poor party discipline. The study concluded that for Nigeria's democracy to stand test of time and achieve the consolidation it actually deserves, intra-party crises often caused by inept and power-drunk party leaders must be considerably curbed. It recommended inter alia that there is urgent need to check the excessive use of power by party leaders/executives, develop effective intra-party crisis resolution mechanism, and ensure utmost compliance to party internal democracy, constitutions and guidelines by both party leaders and members.

Keywords: Democratic consolidation, Intra-party crisis, Party leadership, Party politics, Southwest Nigeria.

Introduction

Political parties, since 1920s when the elective principle was proclaimed in Nigeria, have been vulnerable to crises of different nature which had in turn undermined and still undermining their democratic functions. The defining characteristics of party politics in Nigeria, since the colonial period through independence and previous republics (first, second & aborted-third), have been intrigues, internal strife, backbiting, factionalism, schisms, and internal struggles, resulting in series of crisis, defections and counter-defection, as well as partly responsible for the collapse of these republics. The current republic (Fourth Republic) was ushered in with high hopes and expectations that Nigerian politicians have learnt from their past mistakes, but the reality has proved otherwise. Party politics, since 1999, has been bedevilled with crises in varying proportions and has exhibited more crises than cohesion, such that virtually all political parties in the country are perpetually enmeshed in internal crisis. This is the situation with major political parties in the current democratic dispensation, including the Peoples' Democratic Party (PDP), the All Progressives Grand Alliance (APGA), the defunct Action Congress of Nigeria (ACN), the defunct All Nigerian Peoples Party (ANPP), the defunct Congress for Progressive Change (CPC) and even the current ruling party, the All Progressives Congress (APC), as well as minor political parties at the national and state levels (Omitola, 2003; Olaniyan, 2009; Momodu & Matudi, 2013; Olorungbemi, 2014; Okonkwo & Unaji, 2016). The Southwest region's experience cannot be an exemption. Scholars have, however, advanced various factors responsible for strained relationship among members of same political party, such as prebendal politics, dearth of viable party ideology, lack of internal democracy, imposition of candidates, money politics, party indiscipline, and ethnicisation of party politics, among others, which have heightened intense struggle over the control of party power and access to resources by political actors (Omotola, 2009; Ojukwu & Olaifa, 2011; Momodu & Matudi, 2013). However, there is lack of scholarly attention in the area of visible roles of party leadership in intra-party crises capable of truncating Nigeria's fledgling democracy. Against this backdrop, the study examined the role party leadership played in intra-party crises in the Southwest region between 2006 and 2017, as well as the implications for democratic consolidation in Nigeria.

Conceptual Clarification

Party Leadership: There exist different perspectives on what and who constitute leadership. However, the concept of leadership has been discussed, defined, examined and re-examined by scholars in many fora and academic discourse, and in various ways depending on the perception and area of specialisation of the definer. Approaching the concept from two broad perspectives, Onoge (1995) referred to "leader" as individual who occupies the formal office, such as president, vice president, governors, and deputy governors, among others. Based on this view, political leadership could be described as an essential oil that keeps the wheel of government working which makes the difference between success and failure in

a country, gives direction to citizens who are the critical assets of nation, and expected to demonstrate responsiveness, responsibility and accountability (Omolayo, 2005; Olayiwola, 2012). In the second view, Onoge (1995) opined that leadership is based on the degree of influence which an individual exerts in his/her group such as political party. Thus, party leadership implies set of political elites elected or selected to manage the affairs of a particular political party in the country. Party leadership is seen as the most powerful office that influences party decision-making process, selection of candidates for elections, and plays critical roles in the recruitment of political leaders into political offices in a democratic state. Party leadership requires a combination of charisma and integrity as well as the ability to assess a situation and make a decision in the interest of a nation, region or party members. Party leaders must possess the ability to build and execute the vision, mission and objectives of the party. The selection of party leaders can be by a single individual who creates a political party as a vehicle for his/her own political views, party primaries at the ward, local government, state and federal level, and shadow elections (open or wide-open primaries) (Hopkin & Bradbury, 2006). The characteristic quality of such leadership determines the extent to which stable and cohesive relations within political parties are maintained.

Intra-Party Crisis: Crisis is ubiquitous in any society where there exist interactions between and among individuals or groups of individuals. Intra-party crisis depicts an unstable situation within the political party due to incompatibility of political goals, clash of interest and/or personality. Describing the trend in a disturbing manner, Eme & Anyadike (2011) maintained that intra-party crisis is a "situation of great shock, difficulty and distress-created in a political party due to the inability of the party concerned to resolve and reconcile effectively its internal differences or disputes" (p.43). It occurs when members "are entangled in the pursuit of divergent goals, most especially in the fielding of members for both elective and appointive positions" (Ibrahim & Abubakar, 2015, p.115). In his essay, Maduekwe (2005) argued that intra-party crisis describes a situation where vaunting ambitions are not reconciled to constitutionally guaranteed protocol requirements for hierarchy where there is scant respect for the pecking order, especially in party leadership. Thus, ordinary party faithful feel the pressure the most because they are at the receiving end. Intra-party crisis also arises when members of the same political party try to influence the decision-making process of the party to their advantage (Momodu & Matudi, 2013). The reasons accounted for this situation have been documented in literature.

Democratic Consolidation: Representative democracy essentially promotes agreeable relationship between and among members of political parties. Democracy is a system of government usually involving freedom of the individual in various aspects of political life, equality among citizens, justice in the relation between the people and the government, as well as participation of the people in choosing their representatives into governmental offices (Nnoli, 2003). Yagboyaju (2013) pointed out that democracy did not only allow and encourage mass participation of the electorate in the selection of their representatives, but also that democracy is nourished by transparency and accountability in governance as well as thrives better on strong democratic institutions. Adherence to the guidelines, rules and ideals of these democratic institutions promotes consolidation of democracy. The term "democratic consolidation" is used to denote the existence of democratic rule, government, ideals and principles. It can be used to describe the process of ensuring that the 'new democracy' or 'emerging democracy' is secured beyond the short term and making it immune against the threat of regression. In other words, it is the process by which a new democracy matures, in a way that it is unlikely to revert to authoritarianism (Schedler, 1998). A consolidated democracy is one in which none of the major political actors, parties, or organised interests, forces, or institutions consider that there is any alternative to the democratic process to gain power, and that no political institution or group has a claim to veto the actions of democratically elected decision makers (Linz, 1990, p.158). Consolidation of democracy requires the expansion of citizen's access to governance, development of democratic culture, broadening of political parties for leadership recruitment and training, functioning of active civil society groups, independence of the judiciary, respect for individual rights, and strengthening of the electoral system (Valenzuela, 1990; Schedler, 1998). Unarguably, the existence of vibrant political parties is a *sine-qua-non* for democratic consolidation in any democratic regime worldwide. Parties are fundamental political institution in the actualisation of democratic ethos and principles. In Crotty's (1993) view, "democratic government is unlikely and may not be possible in the absence of competitive political parties" (p.665). Randall & Svasand (2001) identified the functions political parties perform in contributing to democratic

consolidation include representation, conflict resolution, making government accountable, institutionalising democracy, and regime legitimacy. Parties equally contribute to regime and political stability or instability.

Theoretical Underpinnings

This study is anchored on elite theory and realistic group conflict theory (RGCT). Elite theory traceable to Gaetano Mosca (1858-1941), Vilfredo Pareto (1848-1923), and Robert Michels (1876-1936), has been adopted in extant literature to justify the influence of minority power on the majority in any nation, society or organisation, which invariably lead to conflict and eventually bring about crisis. The central tenets of elite theory is that political power is concentrated in the hands of a minority group which, according to Mosca (1939) cited in Ham & Hill (1985), "performs all political functions, monopolises power and enjoys the advantages that power brings…" (p.29). The elite theorists believe that the minority groups who are political class/elite often try to out-organise and outwit large majorities in the society. In other words, a particular set of people directs the affairs of the society and their children possibly take over from them and it continues in that circle (Azeez & Adenuga, 2015). The scholars further held that elites alternate in power either peacefully or in violent competition, which usually bring about factions, chaos, clashes and crises and sometimes violence between these elite and non-elite within political parties. In line with these positions, the character of the Nigerian political elite is like power should forever be concentrated in their hands alone and when such power is being competed or questioned by another person (elite or non-elite), crisis erupts. By implication, Nigerian political parties had exhibited practices where party leaders/patrons often settle for selection of candidates rather than election, imposition rather than qualification, personal interest rather than national interest, based on their common background and objectives (Weber, 1948; Diamond, 2002; Ani Kifordu, 2011). Thus, political/party leaders run the affairs of political parties mostly on their personal aggrandizement without recourse to the wishes and aspirations of other party members. Little wonder the intra-party opposition by members who feel that the only way to change the status quo is to resist the actions of such leaders thereby overheating the polity. Apparently, the inability of party leaders and/or executives (elite) to manage the disagreement or diverse interests within parties usually results in intra-party crisis.

The realistic group conflict theory is another theory relevant to this discourse. The RGCT was officially named by Donald Campbell (1965), but has been articulated by others since the middle of the 20th century, and reviewed by scholars such as Jackson (1993), Sidanius & Pratto (1999), Brief, Umphress, Dietz, Butz, Burrows & Schoelten (2005), and Baumeister & Vohs (2007). The theory offers an explanation for the feelings of prejudice and discrimination towards the out-group that accompany the inter-group hostility. Inter-group hostility arises as a result of conflicting goals and competition over limited resources, money, military protection, social status or political power (Jackson, 1993). As observed by LeVine & Campbell (1972), the group members are often driven by their desire to possess and maintain control over valued resources. Therefore, the disadvantaged group will compete to gain resources and status, whereas the advantaged group will act against any threat against their hegemonic domination. The realistic conflict theory is used to explain conflict, negative prejudices, and discrimination that occur between groups of people who are in competition for same goals and resources (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). The theory further argues that the competition is aggravated when feelings of resentment set in as a result of "zero-sums game" syndrome (Jackson, 1993; Baumeister & Vohs, 2007). The relevance of this theory to the current study lies on the premise that in every political organisation, such as political party, there is bound to be clash of interests due to competition for same goal. As a group within political party acquire the desired political power, party structure and resources, other groups equally strives to obtain same or related benefits, and since the winning group often seeks to assume winner-takes-all pattern, the struggle and competition towards achieving the same goals and objectives then becomes tensed, acrimonious and bitter, hence crisis is inevitable. It is therefore necessary that the stakeholders put in place punitive measures to curtail unnecessary internal crises within political parties in order to prevent democratic retrogression or collapse.

Leadership (Political Elite), Party Politics and Intra-Party Crisis in Nigeria

Party politics in Nigeria since the colonial period have always revolve around set of political elites who form political party, leave one political party to form another or move from one party to join another, as a result of disagreements or squabbles within their old party. No wonder, these parties are particularly possessed by similar character, troubles, constitutions or closely-related documents in intents, purposes and contents. It is widely acknowledged that the history of party politics in Nigeria is synonymous with crises, (Omitola, 2003), which have undermined the ability of political parties as the instrument and platform for national integration, peace-building and democratic consolidation. This section, however, tries to establish the nexus between party leadership and the struggle for party resources, machinery and control that often results in intra-party crisis. The first political party, the Nigerian National Democratic Party (NNDP), which was formed in 1923 ceased to exist in 1938 due to the inability of party leaders to successfully manage their differences. The party was wrecked by "personal jealousies and quarrels over the spoils of office" (Webster cited in Nnadozie, 2005, p.114). Ibrahim & Abubakar (2015) submitted that "lack of openness and the autocratic approach of the party caused serious political rift and the eventual formation of the Lagos Youth Movement (LYM) in 1934 which later metamorphosised to the Nigerian Youth Movement (NYM) in 1936" (p.117). The NYM (1934-1951) was also riddled with intra-party feud mainly as a result of "ethnic chauvinism, personality clash and ideological differences" as experienced in 1941 tagged "Ikoli-Akinsanya crisis" which led to its demise. Nigeria's political parties in the 1950s, such as the National Council of Nigerians and Cameroons (NCNC), the Action Group (AG) and the Northern People's Congress (NPC), and other minor ones, such as the United Middle Belt Congress (UMBC) and the United National Independence Party (UNIP), were all enmeshed in all sorts of intra-party crises. These regional-based parties faced intra-party crisis of varying degrees based on leadership factor that polarised and factionalised them, leading to some aggrieved members taking solace in other parties (Dudley, 1973).

Political parties of the independence and post-independence periods equally operated on strained intra-party politics. In the First Republic (1963-1966), specifically, the AG experienced colossal crises as a result of struggle for the control of party leadership and structures thereby leading to a clash between Chief Obafemi Awolowo and Chief Samuel Akintola, the party leader and deputy, respectively, captioned "1962 AG Crisis". This led to serious crises in the then Western Region, declaration of state of emergency and also defection of the former to United Progressives Party (UPP) (the party he personally formed in 1963), and later the NNDP. Strained party relation at the national level surfaced in the 1965 Western Regional Election which eventually brought about "Wild Wild West" and subsequent military intervention on January 15, 1966. Political parties in the Nigeria's Second Republic (1979-1983) were no doubt recreation of the First Republic's political parties except the Great Nigeria People's Party (GNPP). Hence, these parties were characterised by intra-party crises of different nature as a result of the struggle to control party resources by party leaders. For instance, crises within the Nigerian People's Party (NPP) led to defection of Alhaji Ibrahim Waziri (NPP leader) to form GNPP. In fact, almost all political parties during this period experienced one crisis or the other as well as inter-party crisis and by extension exchange of party men. The resultant effects were rioting, looting, arson and crises and later military intervention in December 1983 (Tyoden, 2002).

Evidences abounding that the two political parties – Social Democratic Party (SDP) and National Republican Convention (NRC) – of the aborted-Third Republic (1991-1993) were also characterised by monumental intra-party crises. The SDP was affected by struggle for control of the party by certain political groups and powerful politicians. For instance, the activities of the People's Solidarity Forum (PSF) and People's Front (PF) almost slipped the party apart. The NRC also became divided into factions with different groups, such as Republican Action Committee (RAC), NRC Consultative Forum, and Republican Solidarity ably led by party leaders in their quest to control party structures at the national and states of the Federation (Tyoden, 2002). One would have expected that party activities in the current Fourth Republic (1999-2016) would be more cordial, but the reverse is the case. As rightly contended by Aniche (2015), Nigerian political parties generally in the present democratic experience have been hampered by crises of different nature which have undermined and are still undermining their political leadership recruitment function among others. Since 1999, major political parties such as PDP, Alliance for Democracy (AD), APGA, ANPP, Labour Party (LP), CPC and APC have recorded series of intra-

party feuds promoted by party leadership. For instance, within the AD, there were serious crises between the party leadership such as Bola Ige-Olu Falae and later Mojisola Akinfenwa-Bisi Akande at the national level, while at the state level there were rift between governors and their deputies such as Bola Tinubu-Kofoworola Akerele (Lagos State), and Bisi Akande-Iyiola Omisore (Osun state), among others. The ANPP (1999-2013) also suffered unresolved crises since its formation as a result of disagreements between the factional leaders who were in control of the party.

The PDP between 1998 and 2016 was embroiled in unending crises. That the PDP since its formation often overheat the polity with their internal strife is like stating the obvious. The party has been associated and ridden by internal wrangling, squabble, divisions, schisms and crises of party leadership at both the national and state level. With particular references to the crisis in Anambra, Kwara, Yobe, River, Enugu, Ogun, Delta, Ondo, Ekiti and Oyo states, are all induced by the attitude of national party leadership to influence the machinery, activities and decisions of the party at state level. It thus needs to be emphasised that the defection of some PDP governors among other top party men, including parliamentarians to APC in 2013, was as a result of the inability of party leadership at different level to manage different self-afflicted antagonisms, disagreements and factions. Party leadership crisis has been the prominent feature of PDP since inception. PDP between May 1999 and 2015 has changed its national chairman more than ten times. The party has once been led by Solomon Lar (1998-1999), Barnabas Germade (1999-2001), Audu Ogbe (2001-2005), Ahmadu Ali (2005-2008), Vincent Ogbulafor (2008-2010), Okwesilieze Nwodo (2010), Haliru Muhammed Bello (2010), Kawu Baraje (2011-2012), Bamanga Mahmud Tukur (2012-2014), and then Adamu Mu'azu (2014-2015). The party equally experienced serious infighting over party national chairman's position between the Sheriff and Makarfi's factions. Eze (2016) stressed that PDP was enmeshed in an endless leadership tussle as a result of unabated supremacy battle between the two factions led by Senators Ali Modu Sheriff and Ahmed Mohammed Makarfi which severely dealt a fatal blow on the once acclaimed biggest ruling party in Africa. This led to various conflicting court judgments for and or against the two personalities. It is not yet *uhuru* for the party until its house is put in order since "a house divided by it cannot stand".

The APC, which had a smooth berth in 2013 when major opposition parties (such as ACN, ANPP, CPC and a faction of APGA) agreed to dissolve and form the party, had also reportedly been battling with multiple disagreements which initially led to defection of party foundation members, such as Ibrahim Shekarau, Attahiru Bafarawa, Tom Ikimi and Ali Modu Sheriff, among others, to the PDP; imbroglio over the Senate President and Speaker House of Representatives seats of the 8th National Assembly; sack of Deputy National Publicity Secretary, Timi Frank; and suspension of Honourable Abdulmumin Jibrin, over his allegation on budget padding of 2016 Appropriation Bill. Also, the party at the state level is not spared as cases of infighting abounds in many states of the federation, such include Kogi, Kaduna, Anambra, Bayelsa, Zamfara, Imo, Lagos, Kano, Ogun, Ondo and Osun states.

Factors inducing Internal Crisis in Nigeria's Political Parties

Various reasons have been identified in extant literature as inducing factors for intra-party crises within political parties in Nigeria. Intra-party crisis in Nigerian parties has been attributed to factors, such as weak structure of political parties, selfish interests of the party stalwarts, poor selection of candidates, clash of socio-economic interests, personality difference, ideological incompatibility, poor observance of internal democracy, ethnic politics, Hobbessian character of politics, zero-sum game, winner-takes-all syndrome, centralised authority and influence of money politics, have all been identified as the bane of intra-party crisis in Nigeria (Rubin, Pruitt & Kim, 1994; Ntalaja, 2000; Shale & Matlosa, 2008; Ojukwu & Olaifa, 2011; Aleyomi, 2013; Momodu & Matudi, 2013; Okoli & Ali, 2014; Okonkwo & Unaji, 2016). In all of these, the common and recurring factors that breed others are poor party institutionalisation, dearth of party internal democracy, lack of feasible party ideology and high-handedness of party executives.

Party institutionalisation, the process by which party competition is regular and organised, having stable root, while citizens and major political actors accept that parties and elections are means for determining who governs through the dimensions of adaptability, complexity, autonomy and coherence (Huntington, 1968; Mainwaring & Scully, 1995) is recognised as an important factor for democratic stability,

sustainability and consolidation. Ogundiya (2011a) contended that Nigeria represents an "inchoate (uninstitutionalised/ fragmented) party system," where "party organisation are generally weak, electoral volatility is high, party roots in society are weak and individual personalities dominate parties, and campaigns and citizens do not have strong party attachment" (Kuenzi & Lambright, 2001, p.441). Political parties in Nigeria are being occupied and controlled by people, who Ogundiya (2011a), referred to as populist demagogic leaders, opportunistic money-bags and unrepentant godfathers, and citizens who cast their votes on the basis of parties, which explains competitions within parties characterised by irregularities and violent squabbles. Current political parties are conglomeration of self-seeking elites whose main interest is to gain access to state resources for personal aggrandisement, with reckless disregard for electoral laws, party statutes and intra-party democracy, hence corruption, imposition of candidates, oppression and intimidation of party members leading to crises and unstable polity become the order of the day (Ogundiya, 2011a).

The general expectation is that when a country embraces democracy, its political parties would be democratic both externally and internally in their organisation, practices and behaviours (Mbah, 2011), but the contrary is the case in Nigeria. Since 1999, when the country re-affirmed its decision to join other comity of democratic nations, its political parties have been faced with the problem of non-democratic practices. In view of this, Omeje (2010) was provoked to have submitted that intra-party democracy has consistently eluded Nigeria's democracy because political parties at all levels have always been hijacked by powerful individuals who impose loyalists or sycophants as candidates for election. The crises pervading major political parties since 1999 – PDP, APGA, SDP, LP and APC – resulted from imposition of candidates on party members for elections by political godfathers or party patrons. As a result, it would be difficult for parties to produce consensus candidates accepted by other party members hence the end result are factions, clashes, crises and defections. No wonder, post-election electoral cases are enormous in various tribunals opposing pre-election activities of many political parties mainly in the process of producing candidates of their choice while denying other candidates who are equally qualified for the same position the opportunity to enjoy their political rights. Scholars believe that the flagrant abuse of internal democracy was responsible for the dismal outing of the PDP in the 2015 general election, while the APC flagrantly went against party internal democracy and rewarded the defected members and their supporters from the PDP, the automatic ticket, to contest or re-contest against wishes of other loyal members. In many states, members of the PDP were barred from contesting in elections to appease some people (Idris & Sule, 2015).

Political parties in Nigeria since independence till date are suffering from distinctive ideological propensity. It is observed that all the major registered political parties could only be identified by their acronyms and not by ideology, as well as run like clientelistic ventures, devoid of political ideologies which make them to be mere platforms for actualising personal interests of the few (Ogundiya, 2011a; Aleyomi, 2014; Olanrewaju, 2015). Lack of party ideology could be attributed to predisposing internal squabbles, wrangling, factions and crises within Nigerian parties (Momodu & Matudi, 2013). In these parties, there exists insufficient manifestoes, poor constitutions, lack of sense of direction, unprincipled defections and more importantly, party disintegration. Poverty of ideology coupled with its attendant crisis and contradictions have been of dramatic effect not only on these parties, but also on the entire project of national rebirth and integration, sustainable democracy and development (Olanrewaju, 2015).

There is no doubting the fact that undemocratic and unprincipled leadership at the party level is a consequence of poor intra-party democracy and ideology in the country's political parties thus bringing about internal coercion rather than cohesion. Crises at the party level are often attributed to autocratic tendencies of party leaders/executives. Since there is no checks and balances, party executives often abuse the offices they occupy to achieve their personal agenda. Idris & Sule (2015) succinctly capture the above circumstance after scrutinising party activities during the 2015 General Elections, that leaders of parties exert their own influence in deciding who eventually picks the party's flags in any contest. Such undue pressure and influence from the parties' leaders on aspirants, who meet the requirements laid down for a particular position, lead to internal wrangling and disagreement, especially when a level playing field is lost in the process that produces the candidates.

Today, the most influential and authoritative position in Nigerian politics is that of party chairmen due to their overbearing influence on party and government decisions. They solely and dictatorially control party structures from national to the state level without due recourse to internal democracy, party guidelines or electoral laws. The undemocratic attitudes were demonstrated by the PDP leadership between 2011 and 2014 when the then National Chairman, Alhaji Bamanga Tukur was alleged running the party as his private enterprise in a bid to take over party structures ahead of 2015 (*Vanguard*, September 6, 2013). It is argued that crises within PDP towards 2015 elections were precipitated by increasing repression, restriction of freedom of association, arbitrary suspension of members, unlawful dissolutions of party executives at the state level and other violation of democratic principles by the Bamanga Tukur-led party leadership (Okohue, 2013), which led to the defection/cross-carpeting of five state governors, party stalwarts and serving parliamentarians as well as their supporters to the APC in November 2013 (*BBC News*, November 26, 2013). Political leaders' undue interference at the executive and legislative arms in internal affairs of the parties at both the national and state levels also contributed to high-handedness of party leadership, with implications for party stability and democratic consolidation.

Party Leadership and Intra-Party Crises in Southwest Nigeria: An Appraisal

Party crisis of both intra and inter remains the common feature of Nigerian politics, the Southwest zone is not an exemption. Southwest region consists of six states, including Ekiti, Lagos, Ogun, Ondo, Osun and Oyo. Virtually, all political parties in this region had experienced intra-party crisis, faction and division. One of the major political parties, PDP, has been grappling with crises of different nature for over a decade. PDP was factionalised across states in the region. Most of these crises that erupted in 2006 as a result of the botched Third-term Agenda of the then President, Olusegun Obasanjo, almost tore the party apart. During the period, the PDP was divided along two powerful blocs – those in support of the plan (third term) and those against. Hence, state governors or leaders against the tenure elongation had then president to contend with. Many of them faced persecution while governors of some states, such as Ekiti, Anambra and Oyo, among others, were threatened and subsequently faced impeachment saga. This further led to controversy over the choice of presidential candidate nominated by Obasanjo for the 2007 Presidential Election. However, the climax of current crises which started in 2010 towards the 2011 Presidential Election came to fore in Southwest region in 2012 when court nullified the Zonal Congress embarked upon by the chieftains from six states – Lagos, Oyo, Ogun, Ondo, Ekiti and Osun – held in Osogbo, Osun State capital, due to exclusion of Kashamu group, and ordered that a new congress be held. The resultant effect was the dissolution of the Southwest Zonal Executives by Tukur-led National Executive Committee (NEC) without the consent of the zonal PDP leaders (*The Nation*, May 21, 2014). For almost two years, the region had no zonal leaders until October 11, 2014, when a new congress was held.

The appointment and imposition of Senator Buruji Kashamu as the Chairman, Zonal Contact and Mobilisation Committee in 2014 by the then PDP National Chairman, Alhaji Bamanga Tukur, which was not pleased with majority of the party stalwarts and leaders in these states brought about another dimension to PDP crises in Southwest region. Analysts believe that this position was to spite the former President Olusegun Obasanjo and reduce his political influence in the zone (Salaudeen, 2016), thus leading to series of intra-party crises. The discontent with party activities during this period and loss of control over party affairs and decisions, led to withdrawal of Chief Olusegun Obasanjo from party politics. This is encapsulated in the letter written to Bamanga Tukur dated January 7, 2014, where Obasanjo claimed that,

> *Buruji Kashamu has been so extolled in PDP in South-West geo-political zone which I personally find unsavoury. Politics played by any national political party must have morality, decency, didcipline, principles and leadership examples as cardinal practices of the party.... Since I stick in my practice of party politics to the hallowed and cherished principles enunciated above, I take this opportunity to let you know that while I continue to remain a card-carrying member of PDP, I cannot and I will not subscribe to a wanted habitual criminal being installed as my zonal leader in the party; a criminal for whom extradition has been requested by the US government. In the meantime, I will consider withdrawing my activity with PDP at local, state, zonal and national levels until the anomalous and shameful situation is corrected (Adebowale, 2014, pp.6-7).*

Since then, efforts to resolve crises rocking the party at both the national and regional levels have not been successful given the division within ranks and file of the party leadership. Even the Integration Committee set up and headed by the then Senate President, Senator David Mark to bring warring factions together could not help the matter. The crisis rocking the Lagos PDP, since 2006, over power sharing formula among the three major factions, including Senator Musiliu Obanikoro's Solidarity Group, Senator Adeseye Ogunlewe's Mandate Group and Olabode George's Establishment Group in the party still lingers on and effort to resolving the crisis and reconciling the contending groups had since proved abortive, (Balogun, 2008). In the build-up to 2015 Governorship Election in Lagos State, there was bitter struggle accompanied by personality clash and egoistic crisis between Senator Musiliu Obanikoro and Chief Bode George over governorship ambition of the former. It should be pointed out that Obanikoro (the then Minister of State for Defence) resigned his appointment as Minister to contest the governorship election, instead Jimi Agbaje was elected as the party flag bearer for the election. Akinkuotu (2014) reported that the political atmosphere became tensed as the two contending candidates (Obanikoro and Agbaje) fired indirect shots at each other. Explaining the above scenario on the basis of inactive and corrupt party leaders, Mr. Femi Carrena, the Southwest PDP Organising Secretary remarked thus,

> *They are elders who, rather than preach peace among party loyalists and spread unity, love and justice to all members and stakeholders, now chose to divide the party by inciting the electorate against an aspirant who equally has the moral and constitutional right to contest the governorship seat of Lagos… (Akinkuotu, 2014, p.714).*

He lamented further that,

> *It is uncharitable and un-African for elders in the party to undemocratically foist a new and unpopular aspirant in the party on the members, and then blackmail a particular candidate. I strongly believe these elders are afraid of their shadows, at the detriment of other qualified members. If you claimed your candidate is the most favoured by party members and Lagosians, the only sincere thing you can do, especially as elders, is to create an enabling environment and a level playing field to set the stage for a free and fair primary and let the best candidate win (Akinkuotu, 2014, p.714).*

The attendant effect of these wrangling was the loss of election by Lagos PDP governorship candidate, Jimi Agbaje, in the April 2015 election, followed by the sack of PDP State Chairman, Mr. Tunji Shelle by 34 members of the State Working Committee (Akinrefon, 2015). Shelle was reportedly sacked by the committee for allegations among which include mismanagement of election campaign funds, manipulation of party primaries and unilaterally rendered the PDP structure inactive which ultimately led to the defeat of the PDP at the 2015 polls (Akinrefon, 2015). The PDP in the state is yet to heal from the wound of this crisis. The intra-party crisis experienced in PDP Oyo State dates back to 2005/2006 when things fell apart between loyalists of late Lamidi Adedibu and Senator Rashidi Ladoja (the then State governor) as a result of overbearing influence of Adedibu on Ladoja's government. This brought about two factions in the party. The factionalisation of the party led to Ladoja's illegal and controversial removal from office by 18 lawmakers loyal to Adedibu and Alao-Akala on January 12, 2006 with Alao-Akala (then deputy governor) becoming the governor and ruled for 11 months (Abimboye, 2010). Ladoja, during this period, found it difficult to accept Alao-Akala as party leader by virtue of his position as sitting governor (*Nigerian Tribune*, February 21, 2012). Ladoja later returned to the office but was denied the opportunity to renew his mandate, while his deputy, Alao-Akala, was allowed to contest and won in the 2007 Governorship Election. Since then, the party in the state has known no peace. Efforts made at reconciling warring factions in Oyo PDP proved abortive, with Ladoja eventually defected to join Accord Party (AP). The 2011 and 2015 general elections in Oyo State were conducted amidst a divided house in the PDP yet to be reconciled. The crisis also led to the exit of Alao Akala and Seyi Makinde to LP and SDP, respectively under the platforms they contested for the April 2015 Governorship Election. It also led to suspension of Oloye Jumoke Akinjide (former Minister of State for FCT), Chief Saka Balogun and three others, over alleged anti-party activities before and during the 2015 elections. Other allegation levelled against these party chieftains was that resources meant for PDP was diverted to support Accord Party candidate, Senator Rashidi Ladoja, in the April 2015 Governorship Election (Agboola, 2015). In a contrary opinion, it was reported that the internal crisis bedeviling the Oyo PDP was tainted with ethnic colouration (Falade, 2012). Since strong feeling of ethnic segregation has always been part of Oyo

politics, this claim may be given consideration, but the fact remain that the crisis was precipitated by the struggle for control of the party among party leaders in the state.

The PDP in Ogun State had equally been in unending crisis prior to the 2011 General Elections. It came into the vanguard in 2012 with the emergence and activities of two major factions led by Dipo Odujinrin and Adebayo Dayo, respectively, locked in a battle of supremacy with Bayo-led Executive Council claiming it was the duly and legally recognised executive committee and proclaimed other faction illegal (Baiyewu, 2012). To reconcile these conflicting interests, the State Harmonised Executive Committee led by Bashorun Dayo Soremi was constituted to bring back warring factions to one-fold, but there was no end in sight to the crisis. However, the crisis was blamed on the lackluster attitude of both the national and state party leaders. This was corroborated in the statement of the leader of one of the factions, Adebayo Dayo, that "clearly some of the leaders are the problems of the party. Although we recognise and regard them all, some of them are not sincere. But we wish to appeal to them that it is high time they put the interest of the party and its teeming followers in mind, bury their pride and work together in a lawful and democratic manner" (Baiyewu, 2012, p.2). Furthermore, the infighting between the Mandate Group led by Senator Buruji Kashamu and Jubril Martins-Kuye (JMK) factions preparatory to the 2015 General Elections cannot be forgotten in a hurry. There was struggle over Governorship and Ogun East Senatorial tickets. The Governorship slot was later ceded to Otunba Gbenga Daniel upon his return from LP for his godson, Chief Nasir Gboyeka Isiaka, while other was reserved for Senator Buruji Kashamu. The crisis on who is the party leader in the state still rages on. By 2016, the crisis rocking the PDP in Ogun State had worsened when the party was factionalised along two powerful party financiers, Otunba Gbenga Daniel and Senator Buruji Kashamu. The duo factions sanctioned one another for gross misconduct. Awoyinfa (2016) reported the suspension of Otunba Gbenga Daniel and other three members from PDP by Kashamu's faction. Prior to this period, it was reported that the faction loyal to Otunba Gbenga Daniel had suspended Senator Buruji Kashamu and six others on allegations of financial misappropriation, diversion of funds and anti-party activities (Ejike, 2016). The gross abuse of party politics by party patrons is tantamount to endangering political stability in the state.

The problem within the PDP in Ondo State started in the build up to 2007 election between then governor, Olusegun Agagu and State Chairman, Alli Olanusi. The governor sought for second term which was not pleased with other State Executives. The crisis was quickly attended to by then president, Olusegun Obasanjo and resolved (Adeyemo, 2006). Hence, the party lost the 2007 Governorship Election at the Election Tribunal to Olusegun Mimiko, a LP candidate. As of 2016, intra-party crisis in Ondo State PDP was precipitated on the return of Governor Olusegun Mimiko from the LP to the PDP in October 2014. The handing over of the party structure to Mimiko by the party national leadership, dissolution of party state executive and the setting up of a caretaker committee by National Working Committee (NWC) aggravated the bitter situation and led to acrimonious politics and subsequent mass defection of party chieftains and leaders to APC (*Independent*, October 27, 2014; *The Street Journal*, October 27, 2014). The Ondo PDP crisis got complicated in the build-up to the 2016 Ondo Gubernatorial Election, when Mimiko endorsed a candidate, Eyitayo Jegede from his Senatorial District and anointed him as his successor, which did not go down well with many party chieftains at both the state and national levels. It is argued that the imposition of candidature of Jegede led to resignation of Mr. Sola Ebisemi, the then State Commissioner for Environment and Mineral Resources (*Sahara Reporters*, July 19, 2016). Further investigation by *Sahara Reporters* reveal that party members were divided into zoning factions as regard this decision. The name of Eyitayo Jegede was later substituted for Jimoh Ibrahim, by the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC), which resulted to another hullabaloo in Ondo politics with legal battles. Oladesu (2016) stated that PDP Ondo chapter, which was a strong platform and prided itself as the party to beat in any critical election period appeared falling apart without a unified purpose, consensus and common agenda. He argues further that the party in the state was suffering from a self-afflicted wound with ruptured confidence by the stack realities of the time. The troubled chapter was polarised by acrimony, strife and rancour. The protracted crisis has ravaged and destabilised the party in the state (Oladesu, 2016).

The crisis within PDP in Ekiti State started in 2006 when some party chieftains at the national level connived with members of the State House of Assembly to impeach then Governor, Ayodele Fayose, on

the order of some powerful forces as a result of politics of acrimony and intrigues masterminded by the PDP chieftains who felt they lost out in Ekiti State (*Sahara Reporters*, October 16, 2006). He (Ayo Fayose) was subsequently removed from office. The crisis in Ekiti State PDP as of 2016 arose as a result of unilateral party politics and decisions being practiced and taken by then incumbent Governor Ayodele Fayose, thus making notable party men to keep a distance from the party, while some others and their supporters defected to APC (Salaudeen, 2014). The incessant crisis that plagued the South-west PDP berthed at Osun State chapter of the party in 2008, when the erstwhile House of Representatives member, Hon. John Fashogbon, representing Ife Federal Constituency was locked in a political battle involving two camps – Ooni Palace camp and Omisore camp (*Osun Defender*, October 1, 2008). Abimboye (2010) claimed that the crisis in Osun PDP was against who succeed Olagunsoye Oyinlola in 2011 governorship election, with the governor in support of Iyiola Omisore. The festering crisis polarised the party into different factions. Towards the 2015 General Elections, the imposition of Senator Iyiola Omisore by the PDP national leadership as governorship flag bearer at the April 2015 Governorship Election stirred serious crisis within the party in the state (Salaudeen, 2016).

Analysts believe that the crisis being experienced at the PDP national leadership may have contributed to series of crises recorded at state level of the party. In their report, Abubakar & Idris (2016) observed that Senator Ali Modu Sheriff accused Southwest zone of fuelling PDP crisis. The scholars then argue that personalities, such as Ayodele Fayose, Olusegun Mimiko and Senator Buruji Kashamu, fighting for the soul of the party in the zone, negatively impacted on national leadership. Thus, the party remains in tatter and appears to be rudderless as there is no consensus on decisions taken in the party. The APC since 2013 in the Southwest zone was equally embroiled in intra-party crisis, especially in statesas, such as Ogun, Ondo and Osun, among others. There was noticeable crack on party leadership in the region which later became worrisome trend for party members and keen watchers. Shortly after the emergence of APC, Ogun State APC was polarised into two factions, as a result of rift between the former governor and APC leader, Chief Olusegun Osoba and incumbent governor, Senator Ibikunle Amosun, basically on the disagreement on distribution of elective offices after the 2011 General Elections. The Osoba camp also accused the incumbent governor of politics of marginalisation and seclusion as well as trying to hijack party machineries into its fold. Efforts to reconcile the two opposing groups proved abortive, hence the defection of Osoba and his supporters to Social Democratic Party (SDP) in 2014 (*National Mirror*, November 2, 2014). Peace was later brokered between the two personalities by APC national leadership, hence Osoba and his supporters returned to APC in 2016 (Odunsi, 2016).

It was also glaring that all was not well within Osun APC in the build-up to the April 2015 Governorship Election. The crisis which sprang up during the primary election in the state was later resolved by party's stakeholders. This was made known by the Speaker of the House of Assembly, Hon. Najeemdeen Folasayo Salam in his statement: "We are putting our house in order ahead of the elections so that we can record total victory again. All internal crises within Osun APC have been resolved and we are all on the same page now" (Oyegbade, 2015). The crisis in APC Ondo State erupted amidst controversies that trailed September 3 2016 primary election of APC in the state. It all started when Tinubu's anointed candidate, Segun Abraham believed to have won the primary election was substituted by Rotimi Akeredolu's name (Oyegun's anointed candidate). It was equally alleged that the election was full of fraud lacking credibility, transparency and fairness (*The Nation*, September 24, 2016), thus rejected by other aspirants, party leaders and members in the state and in diaspora. This is captured by Chief Bola Ahmed Tinubu, the APC national leader, when he noted that,

> *A conspiracy to steal the Ondo primary had been uncovered. Fortunately, the grand deception afoot had been unable to cover its tracks fast enough. Truth began to cry for justice…Contravening the NWC decision and in violation of all rules of fundamental decency, Oyegun decided to safeguard the fraud done in Ondo by perpetrating a greater fraud. Oyegun arrogated to himself the right to submit the name of Rotimi Akeredolu to INEC as the candidate of the party (Premium Times, September 26, 2016).*

The above remark further buttresses prior argument to justify that party crisis is oftentimes induced by unethical activities of party leaders. Another crisis loomed in the troubled APC in Ondo State was when some notable leaders of the party kicked against the choice of Agboola Ajayi as the running mate of the

party's candidate, Rotimi Akeredolu. The dramatic effect of this incongruity within the party led to defection of Olusola Oke, one of the frontline aspirants in the primary election, and his supporters to AD, the platform he used to contest for the governorship election (Johnson, 2016). The speculations as to the rift between Tinubu and the APC National Chairman, Chief John Odigie-Oyegun; some ministers, including Babatunde Raji Fashola (SAN) (then Minister of Works, Power and Housing) and Kayode Fayemi (then Minister of Solid Minerals Development), and former governors, among other party stalwarts, in the Southwest zone, severally denied by the party, became glaringly to Nigerians during this political drama and subsequent Ondo gubernatorial election campaign, where Senator Bola Tinubu, his ardent followers and loyalists were wittingly absent (see *Punch Editorial*, November 22, 2016). Equally, the meeting held on January 14, 2017, in Ibadan showed that there were internal squabbles within the party in the region (*The Sun Editorial*, January 14, 2017). It therefore could be deduced from the foregoing that crises in the highlighted parties during the period under consideration resulted from struggle over who control party structure, finance and machinery at the state level, high-handedness of party leadership at both the national and state level, and most especially the interplay between party leadership, party structure and political offices. This is as a result of the fact that politics in Nigeria has become an end in itself. The chaos and crises rocking the PDP, as reported by Salaudeen (2016), was fuelled by stiff competition for control of the party structure, absence of strong crisis resolution mechanism, party indiscipline, the defeat of PDP at the federal level, voracious party leadership and most importantly non-adherence to party internal democracy. This situation no doubt is inimical to democratic consolidation in Nigeria.

Intra-party Crisis and Threat to Democratic Consolidation in Nigeria vis-à-vis Southwest Region

As argued elsewhere in this study, intra-party crisis often overheats the polity which invariably hinders sustainable democracy and national development. For instance, crises in PDP between 2010 and 2015 overheated the polity that it almost truncated Nigeria's democracy. The time and resources being wasted on the management and resolution of party crises could have been utilised and channeled towards implementing other relevant developmental initiatives and programmes thus bringing about dividends of democracy and good governance to the people. One of the prerequisites of electoral politics is effective political participation. Intra-party crises leading to political apathy deter qualified and active citizens from participating in political activities and other processes that would enhance the achievement of democratic consolidation. As such, membership of these political parties deteriorates while popular involvement declines on daily basis. For instance, looking at voters turn-out in 2011 and 2015 general elections, one will see a conspicuous difference in numbers and percentages of eligible voters and voter's turnout despite increased voters' registration and population. Intra-party crisis leads to hysterical defection. The defections of five (5) PDP governors, including Rabiu Kwankwaso (Kano State), Rotimi Amaechi (Rivers State), Murtala Nyako (Adamawa State), Abdulfattah Ahmed (Kwara State) and Aliyu Wamakko (Sokoto State) to APC on November 26, 2013, was hinged on festering crisis within the PDP. Thus, actions and decisions of politicians to switch parties always have a spill-over consequence on the timely consolidation of democracy. One important and incontrovertible fact is that, the overriding motive for defection by Nigerian politicians of contemporary era is to protect their self-aggrandised interests, thereby encouraging political instability that may in turn corrode the basis of democracy (Ogundiya, 2011b).

Mbah (2011) rightly argued that party defection has negative impact on consolidation of democracy, especially where legislators, governors, deputy governors, and other party members, defect to the ruling party. It is argued that this trend breeds weak new parties, as well as makes caricature of Nigeria's democracy by undermining the validity of contrary views, and the principle of alternative democratic choice. For instance, many of the political parties that sprang up from PDP amidst crises were deregistered as a result of amorphous party guidelines, indistinguishable rules and unstructured activities (INEC, 2014). Political parties cannot achieve their democratic goals and objectives if politicians continually choose to pursue their own individual agenda which often lead to wrangling and poor party politics. The situation which undermines the ability of party leaders to maintain coherent policy platforms has resultant effect on party's reputation with voters who may withdraw their support from a fractious and divided party (Miskin, 2002) which invariably affect the finance of the party. Intra-party crisis limits the capability of political party in discharging its primary roles of interest articulation and aggregation, leadership recruitment, mobilisation, socialisation and to provide necessary input for political process,

stability and democratic consolidation. Frequent crises, discords, and flagrant breach of party rules within parties often cause political and party instability. The intra-party feuds in Oyo State between Adedibu and Ladoja, Ogun State between Daniel and Obasanjo, and Anambra State between Ngige and Obi, among others, are cases in point. This kind of situations has tensed political competition and hindered socio-economic and political development to flourish. If such situation continues, democratic consolidation in Nigeria might be a mirage.

Conclusions

The study has extensively examined the linkage between party leadership, intra-party crisis and the challenge of democratic consolidation in Nigeria focusing on party activities in the Southwest region from 2006 to 2017. It is established that political party as essential platform for political participation, representation, national unity and integration, as well as interest aggregation and articulation in the democratic governance, have engendered in practice crises of different nature which is capable of threatening the process of actualising democratic consolidation in Nigeria. Political parties at the national and state levels, including the Southwestern states, had exhibited intense intra-party crises since the return to democratic rule in 1999. The study concludes that strained intra-party relations experienced within the PDP and APC in the Southwest region during this period, occurred mainly due to poor, autocratic, self-centered and rapacious party leadership. Most of intra-party crises recorded rooted from poor handling of issues by party executives. A poorly managed party disagreement and factionalisation resulted in crisis among members of same political party. The situation could also be blamed on lack of viable party ideology, poor party institutionalisation, and imposition of candidates, as a result of non-adherence to party internal democracy, party indiscipline and ethnicisation of party politics. Therefore, for Nigeria's democracy to stand test of time and actualise the consolidation it deserves, intra-party crises often caused by by inept, weak and corrupt party leaders, must be considerably curbed. Therefore, surmounting the challenges posed by intra-party crises in Nigeria vis-à-vis Southwest region requires the need to question the deficient internal democracy in the Fourth Republican political parties. Thus, effective institutionalisation of parties and its viability through feasible party ideology and internal democracy is essentially required. Praxis of these germane ingredients no doubt requires urgent attention in order to save party politics from total crumbling. In addition, ineffective intra-party crisis management mechanism needs to be urgently looked into. More importantly, public scrutiny and assessment of party constitutions, manifestoes and party guidelines; developing effective intra-party conflict resolution mechanism, decision-making process and discipline; selection of candidates for elective positions devoid of prejudice, class or ethnic chauvinism and influence; financial transparency and accountability in the area of party funding; and curbing of excessive abuse of powers by party leaders, needs to be encouraged. This way, stability, sustainability and consolidation process of democracy in the country would be enhanced.

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Loss of Intergroup Relation and Conflict Escalation: The Case of Farmer-Herder Conflicts in Kaduna State, Nigeria

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Abstract
Conflict occurrences is not a new phenomenon in Nigeria, however, the recent escalation of it between the rearing and farming communities in Kaduna state 2011-2017 have become a major challenge that have not received much attention. The reasons identified by the previous researchers did not reflect on the present escalating conflict situation in the area between the two communities. This therefore prompted the researcher and make it necessary to further investigate why the escalation within the stated period. The study explored the dynamic wave of the conflict through qualitative design method. In-depth face to face interview and focus group discussion (FGD) were conducted with 29 participants in the affected area in the state. Documentaries and various reports were also utilised for triangulation of data using using MAXQDA 2018 software for thematic analysis. Attitudes. Behaviour and contradictions variables of ABC Galtonian triangle model was adopted for interpretation. The findings show that several attitudinal as well as behavioural factors had influenced the existing irreconcilable value contradictions among the two groups leading to the escalation of the resource conflict between: loss of intergroup relation education and superiority complex and cattle rustling emerged centrally in the midst of contradictory value leading to escalation of the conflict.

Keywords: Intergroup Relation, Conflict, Escalation.

Introduction

Throughout the evolutionary process of man, clashes of interest and values often arises leading to conflict, though, Ocheja (2019) stated that conflict is inevitable among human interactions but only to be managed. The struggle and distribution of power among nation states and societies, ideological as well as religious differences makes conflicts to occur that needs effective cooling mechanism. This gave birth to United Nation Organisation in 1945 with peace agenda (Halliru, 2018). WWI and WWII were good example of conflicts that ravages mankind due to clashes of interest. Within the African region, the attacks by Al-Shabab and Darfur in Somalia and Sudan were based on either power struggle, diversities, socio-economic, boundary, ethnicity or religious differences. Conflicts is therefore a replica of most heterogeneous African societies (Adisa, 2015 and Selassie, 1992).

Nigeria being the ninth largest country on this planet (larger than Belgium, France and United Kingdom) consist some degree of diversities to a certain extent affecting the people in the process of achieving a nationhood. Unlike other countries with similar ethnic diversities but were able to manage it and achieved reasonable advancement, Nigeria's development and progress have beign retereded with lack of unity due to polarities among. This however theorise that seeming equal proportion of the diverse ethnic nationalities interms of religious affiliations confirmed the role of ethnicity and treligiosity in the country's pace of development. It is important to note that conflicts of various nature and dimension tok place in nigeria with Kaduna state as one of the most heat state in the religious dimension. Of recent time, conflicts ensured between croping and grasing communities in southern part of Kaduna state stsrting from 2011. Many efforts were made by different governments from 2011 but the situation continue.

Literature Reviews

Conflict studies related to farmers-herders has been extensively written researchers, but their focus differs in the aspect of socio-economic, political, cultural and religious differences of the two groups but engaging in related economic activities. Other researchers argued from agricultural dimension, with some highlighting historical antecedents as a cause. For instance, clashes between the two groups is very critical as both of them constitute a large population of almost equal size. Additionally, both groups actively engage in similar economic activities requiring fertile land for production. From the various reports accessed, conflicts between them continued at different point in time, and the degree of damages to human, livestock and properties are paramount. Previously, scholars have claimed various causes for conflicts in general happening in the state. Some have argued it is due to ethnic dissimilarities between the various tribes in the state as Olatunji (2016) claimed that conflict is a character of pluralist states. There are group of scholars such as Uji (2016), Amanambu & Umuobiala (2017) and Halliru (2018)

whom also saw religion divides as the triggering point to the conflicts, while there are few scholars who stressed that it was due to the external activities of the existing terrorist/militancy /Boko Haram groups, especially in the present years (Amanambu & Umuobiala (2017). Although scholars have come up with some of these reasons for the occurrence of conflicts and several measures taken to response to it, but conflict between the duo continue to escalate different dimension.

However, conflicts between the farming and grassing communities in the area persist and escalated from 2011 till present time despite the submission by researchers. The situation is more intense within 2011-2018 as compared to pre 2011. Previous studies on the conflict by Mench and Edward (2014) examines georaphical nearness of the two communities leading to cohabitation. Olaniyan and Okeke Uzodueka (2015), Mbaeze and Nnaji (2018), Akinkumi (2018), Omleye and Segun (2018) pointed out that change in climatology leads to for and unwanted migration of the livestock communities whereas Akinyele, Atelle (2014), Winkler (2017), Jumba (2018), Audu (2013) and Ladan (2014) on climate effects, natural resources and freshwater scarcity. Other scholars such as Uji (2016), Maingwa (2017), Amanambu & Umuobiala (2017) viewed the renewed attacks on religosity and ethnic militias, this differences causes intolerance. On the conflict effects Akejobi, Ebira and Amuzie (2016), Alimba (2014); Halliru, Ezeonmuka and Igwe (2016), Adeoye (2017), McDougal (2015) highlighted on welfarism and livelihood of most families thereby reducing their income. Put differently, Ikezue and Ezeah (2017), Mohammad and Bibi (2015), Omokhoa and Okuchukwu (2018), Sunday (2013), Ladan, Dourotoy and Anyabe et.al (2014), (2018) & (2017) have presented encroachment and population upsurge as a point, with Eraye, Iyang and Ukpong (2017), Eke (2017) blaming authority for its negligence.

Given these highlights in the previous works of researchers, government often response is by 'force peace' using security personnel to immediately arrest the situation and bring peace and order in the affected areas. According to the reports in the previous works, authorities concern in many instances permanently stationed security personnel. Earlier on in the part of government, unification policies were introduced in the 70's and in the recent time to address the existing polarity among different nationalities of the Nigerian state. Such policies introduced covers educational, socio-economic as well as political. For instance, unity schools, national youth service corp scheme, principle of federalism for equal representation in governance, poverty alleviation programs, N-power, trader money and yoths for agriculture program. However, despite all these, conflict continou to occur giving the need to look at the situation again between these two groups further deeper considering the escalation of the situation within the timeframe. Hence, this merit an investigation on why the escalation of the conflict by attacks and counter attacks between the two communities within 2011-2019, and how the escalation affects the involving communities and larger society as well?. Therefore, the believes that what seems to cause conflict in the first place might be dissimilar from the triggering factors leading to escalation overtime. Furthermore, the escalation of the conflicts in the Kaduna state according to Halliru, Omoleye & Okuchukwu (2018); Garba, Gaffey (2016) & Ajazeera report (2014) is affecting every tribe in the state and the country at large due to cosmopolitan nature of the state. This has therefore widened the tension in the country at anytime the conflicts broke out in the state. Kaduna is therefore, a miniature of the Nigerian state, with degree of political relevance representing the 19 northern states giving its geographical nearness to the capital of Nigeria is a reason to be reckoned with as stated by Omoleye & Segun (2018), Gyong (2013) and Mijah (2014).

Additionally, earlier studies on general conflict in the state have focused more on the measures taken to settle religious conflicts in Nigeria. There are studies devoted on ethno-religious in Kaduna, but they emphasize on different angles such as on ethnic identity and causes of conflicts in Kaduna in the earlier period and on other ethnic groups (Ikezue & Ezeah, 2017; Olateju, 2017; John, 2015; Fatai, 2016; Omoleye & Segun, 2018; Ojo & lateju, 2010; Ugorji, 2016; Suleiman, 2011; Akinyemi, 2018; Angrabrandt, 2015, Ladan, 2013; Ogboru & Adejonwo-Osho, 2018; Onapajo & Abubakar, 2015).The coverage of the previous studies relating to conflict in the state from 1980 to 2017 could be summarised in graphic form as follows:

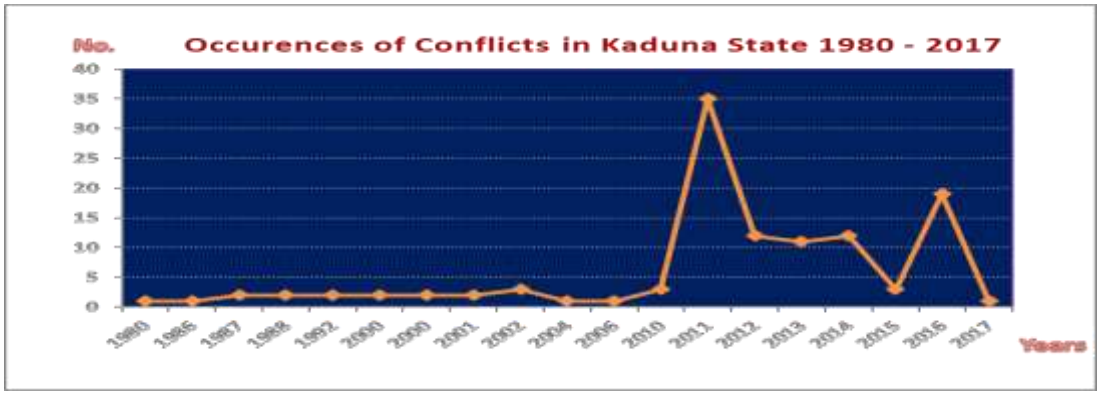


Figure 1: Occurrences of conflict indicating escalation within the chosen period
Source: (NEMA & SEMA 2017)

The above graphic data (Figure 1) is collated from emergency management agencies of national and state level indicating conflict occurrences in Kaduna state. It is important to note that conflict is not a new phenomenon in the state, but has escalated within the time frame 2011-2017. However, the researcher is concern with the following: Why the escalation of the conflict between the two communities from 2011 till present time given the highlights of the previous studies on conflict in the state?

Galtung ABC triangle model

It is on this background that the zeal of the study concerns on the escalation and continued reoccurrences of the resource conflict between the two mutually related farming and animal grassing communities in southern part of the Kaduna state focusing from the year 2011 till date. Therefore, the study utilises the three aspects of Galtung ABC conflict triangulation model, namely: *Attitude, Behaviour and Contradictions* to explain the conflict escalation. The combination of these variables would enable the researcher to analyse the complexities in the conflict which could start from any of the triangle point to involve all other angles (Galtonian, 2009). The presumption of the theory is that social conflict arises between and among groups in their day-to-day attitudinal and behavioural interactions with irreconcilable goals, values, needs and interest known as contextual cause.

Methodology

The research used qualitative methods to generate appropriate data for analyses and interpretation to narrate events instead of statistical numeration or figures. A total of 29 participants, 22 of them on face-to-face in-depth interviews and group of 7 men for focus group discussion (fGD) using a snowballing technique. A semi structures question was provided based on the research objective with ideas emanating from the participants whom are active stake holders in the resource conflict between the two communities. In the descriptive analyses, MAXQDA 2018 software was used for coding to identify themes.

Thematic Data Presentation and Analysis

The identified themes were discovered from the participant's contribution in answering the escalation of the conflicts between the two communities as the research objective. The identified themes revolve around arising conflicting situation due to intergroup bias from stereotyping and prejudices because of existing differences among groups. The reality is that the pastoralism and farming are some of the oldest professions in the world. The spiritual history of two occupations lies with the two children of Adam Kane and Abel, one murdered the other simply because of the issue of whose sacrifice is accepted the most. Of the two children Kane and Able, one is a professional farmer while the other is a herdsman, so he reared sheep and other animals. This important factor is getting back to the early children of Adam who lived his life on earth as a farmer while his fourth generation of children (Seth) as pastoralists. The detailed interviews for the study revealed that about 24 out of the 29 respondents in all the categories [A] [B] [C] [D] and [E] as well as FGD respondents have agreed that the intergroup relations in form of cooperation's and exchange between the Fulani's and the farmers in southern Kaduna have vanished culminating into prevailing attacks and conflicts situation between the two groups. Their responses however highlighted three ways through which loss of intergroup relations has contributed as coded by

MAXQDA 2018 output figure 1.2 below. According to informants 1, 5 and 13 from category A, B and C generally states that:

> *"…despites the camouflaging and presentation of Nigeria as a united nation state, the bicker, animosity, hostility, hatred and suspicion become an avenue for worry and concern among diversities in southern Kaduna"* (In-depth interview with respondent A1, 23rd October 2017).

Due to that it has escalated the degree of conflict between the two groups in the area. From the findings loss of intergroup relations has severed the relations and contribute to the escalation of the conflict between the two groups. However, further view point also showed in three ways subthemes through which the situation has contributed to the conflict escalation that includes: Education and Superiority Complex**,** Cattle-rustling as well as proliferation of small arms as presented by the respondents below:

Education and Superiority Complex

Superiority complex is an arrogant expression of one's own merit or value as better as and greater than it is. It often means pride, arrogance or egotism in human that is in constant competition with everyone else. Education is one key issues in the formation of behavior that could lead to conflict. It is an attitude as well as life experience activity that places people as good when practicing the former, and bad when the later occur. Respondents mostly in category A have raised a concern and doubt by saying that "…the progressive development of mankind through civilizations should have positively impacted on the morality of human beings". However, what have been identified by the respondents is that the cordial relation and good neighborliness between the two groups have soared and become negative in the modern time, which some of the respondents attributed that to the negative attitudes of superiority complex of modern Fulani-herder due to acquisition of modern education.

Prior to the present time, Fulani's were only known as animal herders who moves around from one location to another in search of lushly environment for grazing. But recent societal socio-cultural transformation and development have made them (Fulani's) to settle down and acculturate with their hosting communities, thereby enrolling their children in schools for western education for the improvement of man's social life through application of science and technology. Because of this opportunity and new lifestyle by the Fulani-herder, they have now begun to feel superior and rub shoulder with their hosting communities, misinterpreting what is trust by formulating and interpreting simple issues and logic in different ways. It is true that wealth, education and power undoubtedly gives a little sense of pride as Gray (2014) believes that, pride comes up by having a sense of educational ownership in a largely uneducated community. Thus, this pride always affects the modesty of the possessor and surrounding others that often result to underrating of group/community and subsequently unhappy situation and eventual conflict.

In line with this therefore, some respondents argued that, based on tradition of what is happening between the local farmers and the Fulani-herdsmen in southern Kaduna, the Fulani's are given land to settle if they like, but whenever they leave, the land automatically reverts to the original owner. But now they begun to claim equal right due to the pride developed by being educated. Quite significant number of respondents interviewed mostly from category A, B and few in category C and D have agreed on this assertion that, acquiring higher western education by the Fulani people have made them to abuse their humbleness and made them to develop pride in them against the trust giving to them by the farmers. This happened because the modern Fulani-man no longer keep to the tenets that let to good relationship in the past, as result according to the respondent A1, the farmers are no longer in trust to accommodate the Fulani's thereby giving birth to the developed pride and subsequently attacks and conflicts between them:

> *"These people because they are educated, started laying claims that they are also the original owners. They have now become lawyers, linguists, anthropologies, etc., and begin to turn things round and refused to answer the word 'settlers' again but original. so, in essence, claiming of ownership of the land by settlers is the number one cause of the problem".* (In-depth interview with respondent A1, 23rd October 2017).

Meanwhile, respondent A1 precisely revealed how the developed superior attitudes lead to claiming

ownership of land by the Fulani's, that,

> *"...these people because they are educated, started laying claims that they are also the original owners. They have now become lawyers, linguists, anthropologies, etc., and begin to turn things round and refused to answer the word 'settlers' again but original"* (In-depth interview with respondent AI 23rd October 2017).

Consequently, therefore, the above quotations by respondents indicate the compromising attitudes by the Fulani-herdsmen in their communal relationship with farmers is attributed to becoming more enlightened by the Fulani's. To these respondents however, the attainment of higher education by the Fulani's has become a curse to them that breed distrust. This according to some respondents, Fulani's attitudes have really changed towards the farmers:

> *"...the Fulani-man in those days never carry carries guns, bows and arrows but only that traditional stick that they move around with all the time. But now a days moves around with AK47 guns in the name of herdsmen who rears cows, and out of that superiority complex they have developed in them, they push their cattle to go and destroy any crops within the fringes of their routes. And when the local's farmers complain, it becomes an issue"* (In-depth interview with respondent C15, 16th October 2017)

Similarly, a discussant from FGD also have this to say:

> *"The modern Fulani man because of this new superiority complex now carries sophisticated guns, the like of which is not even being used by our military. Not even the guns or ordinary guns that we see around. They used these weapons to enforce their claim of ownership of the land"* (ln-depth interview with FGD 2, 21st November 2017).

Thus, according to the above responses, the more educated people (Fulani's) become the more difficult they have become because now they feel now, they have educated people among them who could stand for them. Additionally, respondent A5 supported by A1 & A2 reported that: "...you also see another set of people who think it is their right to do whatever they want. These are what made the conflict so persistent over time". Justifying this viewpoint of feeling superior by the Fulani's, respondent C13 also stated how they openly hold guns use it to threaten farmers. He said:

> *"...of course, sometimes the herdsmen are armed with AK47 which something we have not known before. Sometimes the attackers move with the cattle and hide behind them to shoot people"* (In-depth interview with respondent C13, 16th October 2017).

To sum it up, respondent C15 supported by A1 and C13 has revealed how the sources of weaponries by the Fulani's added that:

> *"...some of these things happens because the owners [actual owners] of the cattle are not ordinary [regular] Fulani's. Many of the Fulani's were just hired to look after those cattle. Now, if you look at this scenario, is it someone or the owner who sits comfortably in town and issuing him instructions, money and arms to kill and terrorize people and forcefully takeover their land? or is it because a northerner is the president, you have a very high of unexplained attacks. I looked at the scenario and the interpretations are, may be some people feel that the leader belongs to my religion, so I can do certain things with impunity"* (In-depth interview with respondent C15, 16th October 2017).

The above quotations by respondents indicate the compromising attitudes by the Fulani-herdsmen in their communal relationship with farmers is attributed to becoming more enlightened by the Fulani's. This educational enlightenment has now made the Fulani's to develop superiority complex according to the respondents in their attitudes towards the local farmers by brandishing weapons openly thus:

> *"...the Fulani-man in those days never carry carries guns, bows and arrows but only that traditional stick that they move around with all the time. But nowadays moves around with AK47 guns in the name of herdsmen who rears cows, and out of that superiority complex they have developed in them, they push their cattle to go and destroy any crops within the fringes of their routes. And when the local's farmers complain, it becomes an issue"* (In-depth interview with respondent C15, 16th October 2017).

Accordingly, the Fulani-man sees his position as a man of right and not a privileged anymore, thus "…since the authority have not done anything on that, in fact they are backing them to use sophisticated

weapons" respondent A1 added.
Based on the above experienced submissions by the respondents and the statements of Omirin (2012) & Laura (2013) superiority complex at times lead to pride and arrogant behaviour, which in fact contributed and become liable in the escalation of attacks and conflicts situation between the two groups. Instead of using the acquired knowledge for development of the two communities, it became a source of pride and negative attitude of superiority complex in the misuse of the education and knowledge acquired. The underrated group or community get angry, annoyed and become unhappy, and in many occasions believes that is done to discredit them and thereby widening the differences leading to unending hostilities between the Fulani-herdsmen and farmers in southern Kaduna. For instance, committee reports on peace and reconciliation Kaduna state January 2013, and a report committee on attacks in southern Kaduna 2015 all concluded that the sudden pride by the herdsmen is annoying to the farmer's giving the fact that modern Fulani's were settlers and not real indigenes of the areas but the farmers.

As this revelation concerning the escalated conflicts between Fulani-herdsmen and farmers in southern Kaduna is proved by the actors and players involved, will serve as a flesh to the stakeholders in addressing the situation. The ABC triangulation model of conflict escalation using *attitude* (A) variable supported this claim where stereotyping and negative psychological perception and condition experienced by the Fulani-herders in the past have become a constructive enmity overtime leading to development of emotions, aggression and dehumanisation that have manifested and escalated the arising resource conflict between the two groups. This stereotyping perception against the Fulani-herders by the farming communities was due to the deep-cultural value' (variable (C) *contradiction* of Galtung model) of the Fulani's for not embracing modern education on time. Thus, the Fulani's who had earlier experienced this *attitudinal stereotyping* are now exhibiting similar wrong attitudes of pride and arrogance towards the farming communities, thereby making conflicting issue to escalate giving this preceding psychological condition of mind.

Cattle-Rustling
This is an activity of stealing animals either in the farmstead or in an open space. It is a forceful acquisition of cattle and sheep's. This has been a major problem in southern Kaduna area. Traditionally, livestock theft (now rustling) happened in a smaller scale with little or no violence against the herders, but with time, it magnified into larger scale problem using weapons and trucks to move the raided animals against the herders due to commercialisation of the raiding act and proliferation of weapons in southern Kaduna area. Property and wealth ownership in general are natural and civic right of every human. In Nigeria, there is no restriction in the quantum of wealth one acquires. However, what is inquisitively interested is how does such wealth are acquired.

Contrary to the earlier preceding claims by some respondents on the changing attitudes of the Fulani's because of acquiring western education is behind the escalation of the conflicts, other respondents argued that the escalation of the conflict is necessitated by the new wave of cattle-rustling against the Fulani's that forced them to acquire weapons for self-defence and in some cases retaliate. Aside this self-defence, the existence of government at various level has profess a creditable impression that the collective individual's goods and property ownership of the citizens will be secured and protected (Oluyemi & Salihu, 2015). But however, after long mutual understanding, cordial relationship and intermarriages between the farmers and the Fulani's known as (kache-chere) in southern Kaduna, attacks and counter attacks continued due to theft/rustling.

The respondents have argued that in any situation there is attack by one community against the other with a view of animal theft (rustling), once such an attack happens, the attacking community will surely revenge in a similar or more devastating way. Hence, the existing conflict resentments resurfaces and escalate between the two groups. This in no doubt has stirred up disharmony among the ethnic groups as the frequent of this opinion is captured from the respondent's viewpoints. Some of the respondent's submissions in all categories D22, FGD1 &3, E16, C19, 13,18, B7 and A4 have concisely agreed with D22 that "…the escalation of the conflicts was simply because there are a lot of cattle-rustling and so, robbery has come in". As a result, the Fulani's were necessitated to arm themselves for protection. Some of them said:

> *"Traditionally, they[Fulani's] drive their cattle with stick, but the cattle rustlers come with AK47 and machine gun, and therefore the Fulani's have to arm themselves to the teeth to be able to save their animals, lives, honor and dignity because the state has failed to protect them".*

> *"Sometimes they [farmers] would meet a Fulani man rearing his cows kill him and carted way his cows. The Fulani men realized that they were the targets and therefore started defending themselves since they were pushed to the wall. That is why you have reprisal attacks here and there"* (ln-depth interview with respondent B7 & 12, 5th November 2017).

In a similar vein, respondent B11 & B12 added that "...there are also external factors that fuel this intentionally such as the issues of cattle rustling". "…and they killed any Fulani's they see, slaughtered their cows and carted away many of them". However, this issue of cattle-rustling against the Fulani's made them dispossess their hard earned and reared cows. The animals raised several years, overnight all the animals are rusted and disappear into the thin and that is their only possessions. As a result, the Fulani's attack as a revenge or attempt to recover their stolen cows that escalates the conflict as respondent C18 stated thus, "...the fact is that people must have to survive and therefore the Fulani's devised a means of defending themselves and then it became a problem". Similarly, respondent A4 also stressed on the reason why Fulani's wage an attack after 3rd FGD and B6 have lamented on the issue of "...rampant cattle rustling which the herders have been concerned much about". Thus:

> *"The attacks by the Fulani's are mostly revenge of the killings of either their cows or one of the members. If a community attacks the Fulani's, it must prepare for reprisal because they (Fulani's) would definitely come on revenge mission"* (In-depth interview with respondent A4, 6th November 2017).

Though, as presented above by a respondent that the escalation of the resources conflicts was due to revenge in attacks against the external factor of cattle-rustling. FGD 2 also have this to add on why the conflict persisted using an instance case that:

> *"…the herders are also unforgiving in their nature, there was this case in Plateau state in which a Fulani boy was killed and his body was found without the head. So, they gave an ultimatum to the community to produce the head which was not, and in place, the Fulani's bowed to kill five hundred people"* (2nd FGD discussant, 21st November 2017).

Justifying the theft and unforgiving nature of the Fulani's to retaliate as earlier stated above by some respondents, respondents B10, E11 and D20 also corroborated that: "...the reason why the crisis is still recurring is simply because the Fulani's were attacked, and everybody knows the unforgiving nature and their capacity to retaliate". It is interested from the scenario to note that giving the Fulani's unforgiving nature, peace will hardly sustain thereby escalating the conflict. From this scenario, it can be seen that attacking someone who has wronged someone wronged someone is unlawful and it is a wrong doing. The victims are to seek redress through legal procedures to allow peace to reign. Besides this, respondent B10 has lamented further in a different direction on the multiplicity of criminalities in the area, that:

> *"...the situation is so pathetic that even the so-called indigenes do attack, destroy and kill each other overnight and blame it on the Fulani's. There were many instances where the natives were caught and confessed to carrying out the attacks"* (In-depth interview with respondent B10, 8th October 2017).

Thus, the real cow owners i.e. Generals and powerful traditional rulers in the word of D20 & 22 earlier mentioned, supply the Fulani-herders with sophisticated weapons beyond max16 to use for protection and aggression. According to these viewpoints therefore, this is another escalating factor that fuels the crises intentionally (robbery) that made it to persist for long time. Also holding same view in wider spectrum, respondent E16 argued in the overall security challenges, that:

> *"...the persistence of the conflict by the cattle rustlers is due to long period of poor governance in the area over time that breeds insecurity. You find many youths engage in criminality. So, when youth from an ethnic group go and commit crime, it is seen as if it is the whole members of the ethnic group that committed the crime, where as it is pure criminality"* (In-depth interview with respondent E16, 8th October 2017).

Moreover, in his experience on the rustling against Fulani's, respondent C19 stated how the rustlers extend their act to killing innocent human lives thus, "...the man that killed my father came and raped my wife or my mother in front of me is the man I am naturally going to attack". However, another respondent has briefly captured this scenario of camouflaging situation by the local farmers to perpetuate evil among themselves in the name Fulani's thus:

> *"However, everybody has evidently seen that man arrested with dangerous weapons in Kagoma the home town of the former governor Patrick Yakowa, was not a Fulani man. But he wore Fulani attires to disguise, meaning that they have been hiding under this guise to blackmail the Fulani's"* (In-depth interview with respondent C19, 9th October 2017).

Also, respondent C13 added by blaming Fulani's for the attacks claiming a vengeance for theft that, "...see what happened in Zakon-Kataf few months ago, some people said to be Fulani's went to the market and started shooting sporadically likewise in Benue also they started killing people". Contrary to the above viewpoint, respondent C16 supported by B6 & 10 have exonerate Fulani's as innocent who don't cause problem but being caused again through rustling thus "because they were innocent people who own the economy. And you know somebody who lives in a glass house don't normally throw stones and that was why the Fulani's don't normally cause trouble". Thus, in the 3rd FGD, the respondent state that:

> *"...their use of weapons is necessitated by the challenges of theft and Criminality*
> *Against them. So, they are using it for self-defense and protection"* (3rd FGD, 21st November 2017).

From the foregoing discussion, it is important to note that increasing commercialization of cattle raiding led to vengeance by the Fulani's who tend to prioritize cattle more than human life is a major reason for the escalation of the conflict necessitating counter attacks. The above points were supported by the literatures believing that cattle rustling, and other form of criminalities have combined to prolong the conflicts. Works such as Ladan (2013); Abbas (2014); Ogbeidi (2012) and Onapajo (2015); Sampson (2014); Azunna (2015) have related the criminalities to the increasing rate of unemployment. Given these perceptions of cattle-rustling and form of criminalities, one important point to note in the submissions is that these levels of criminalities in southern Kaduna area became an external factor that influences the resource base conflict between the two groups, and it determines how un-peaceful the environment is in relation to the escalated farmers-herders conflict in the area. Moreover, a white paper report on riot in Jema'a Kafanchan southern Kaduna August 1999, and a communique issued after one-day stakeholders meeting on emerging security issues in Jema'a November 2016 reiterated that these criminalities of cattle-rustling and communal attacks are perpetrated against the Fulani's as well as among the local farming communities in disguise of Fulani-herdsmen leading to perpetual attacks and counter attacks. Theoretically using Galtonian model, this means that criminality '*violent behavior'* by and against a group has its roots in people's attitudes giving the cultural differences of values, needs and interest between the farming as well as herding communities. This has created the *contradictory* environment (variable C) leading to the criminal behavior of animal theft cum socio-economic and political reality. Additionally, the *behavioral* (B) aspect of ABC conflict model representing destructive attitudes of the actual violent behaviors such as killings, burning and war.

Proliferation of Small Armed Weapons

These are light weapons readily available in the hands of irregular troops operating with little or no regard for humanitarian and international law. It serves as a primary tool for violence in recent conflict occurrences in the world with weighty toll of deaths constituting nearly 80% casualties. This have become a concern for the international communities to garner effort and rid the globe from this scourge of irregular possession of armaments. The weaponry increase has affected the volume as well as duration of violence's and motivated militarization of the world rather than peace and resolution of conflicting issues. This perhaps is more grievous in the heighten demands of weapons with protraction of cyclical conflicts all over. Arms proliferation and its misused has overall effects on rule of law in widest sense, though firearms are not root cause of crime on its own, but the deployment of such illicit arms in conflict situation aggravates the horrifying scene beyond the victims but society at large.

For instance, from the interview and focus group discussion, they all have lamented that arm proliferation has contributed to the escalation of the conflict. Respondent 4 in category A corroborated by 18 & 19 in category C, and 12 category B testified the proliferation of irregular weapons by the communities against

one another, thus, "…there is proliferation of small arms as reasons for this conflict escalation". Moreover, he added that:

> *"The question however is where being these weapons coming from? Has the Nigerian government or its security agencies addressed these concerns? Nigerians no longer believe their governments because of its double standard on such issues. Sometimes they will confiscate truck load of arms, but you will never hear how the issue ended"* (In-depth interview with respondent A4, 6th November 2017).

And, respondent C14 has expressed his worry by accusing government for the insecurity and escalation of the conflict, he commented that, "…there is high proliferation of arms necessitated by self-defence following government failure to guarantee the lives and property of the people". These circumstances have therefore given birth to the appearance of different ethnic militia groups representing and protecting their side as well as hunting enemies as in the case of persistent Fulani-herdsmen and farmer's conflict in southern Kaduna. On the implication of the arm proliferation as confirmed by the respondents above, it is more worrisome giving the presence of such weapons in a volatile environment like southern Kaduna, where youths resort to taking law into their hands on a slightest issue. This was however testified by discussants 3rd and 4th in FGD interaction where they stated that, "...the Fulani's said they had a law where such cases of trespass could be resolved amicably, but the farmers usually take laws into their hands by either attacking the Fulani's or the cows". This view of taking law at hand by the active unemployed youths in possessions of weapons was similarly expressed as a concern issue by respondent B9 as argued:

> *"The farmers on their part will naturally react when the herders enter their farm by harassing, snatching the cows, injuring or beating the cattle rearers-in short taking laws in their hands. ...Now, the children of the farmer and other members of the community went and attacked the father of the herder who machete their community member, killed him, burnt his house and forced the rest to live that area. Three days later, the Fulani's came back attacked that village killed some of their people and burnt their houses as well. The community also took revenge by attacking another Fulani man and killed about 42 of his cows. Then, the Fulani's came back again and attacked them. That is how the attacks continue"* (ln-depth interview with respondent B9, 4th November 2017).

Primarily, knowing the inherent selfish nature of man, groups and individuals are bound to take advantage of any situation to intensify violence especially when there is a weak control system in place. Acknowledging this viewpoint of weak system leading to taking law at hand using weapons by the unemployed youths, respondent E11 have attributed this chain of unfortunate situations to the presence of weak system of governance, thus, "…the conflict persists because the system to curtail the conflict is weak". Comprehensively, he added that:

> *"...very weak control system at the level of the borders and the immigration. People move in and out without any form of identity, be them pastoralists, be them farmers, be them anything they move into and out of Nigeria at free will. The immigration system and the internal security are very weak"* (In-depth interview with respondent B11, 11th October 2017).

Buttressing this claim, another respondent has observed that weak control system in all strata of governance has made life to be a survival of the fittest and struggle for existence among unequal citizens and groups in Nigeria given reference to the ongoing Fulani-herdsmen and farmers conflicts in southern Kaduna. Thus:

> *"...there are no mechanisms for weaker groups to present their grievances and for their needs to be protected and preserved. Consequently, the whims and caprices of the majority always reign everywhere. Resources needed by weaker groups within same geographical environment are today not guaranteed and therefore there are precipices for conflicts"* (In-depth interview with respondent C16, 8th October 2017).

Similarly, respondent C19 supported by B7 & A3 narrated the horrific incidence of the misusing of the illicit weapons against each other thus:

> *"...my friend you came today use cutlass to cut my animals and you tell me I can't do anything because you are the owner of this place. In weeks' time, you come and physically kill my father, burn my house and I know you, but the government did not either arrest you or do anything. Do you expect me to wait for another Fulani man from Kano or Sokoto to come and avenge*

> *what you did to me? The person that has been so trapped in this and had seen the worst of it takes reprisal attacks"* (In-depth interview with respondent C19, 9th October 2017).

From the above submissions one could evidently see the proliferation and usage of small weapons in the escalated conflict leading to un-forgiveness and reprisal attacks between the two communities leading to death as further revealed by respondent A3, B7, B11 & A4 that:

> *"...you know the Fulani's never forgive. When the Fulani's realized that the Ardo has been killed and all his property destroyed, they went back and prepared for a revenge attack. After two days these Fulani's entered Ninte, burnt everything in the village and killed about three people that day* (In-depth interview with respondent B11, A4 & B7).

The proliferation has accordingly made people to be hostile by taking law unto hands giving the prevalence of weaponries in their possession as well as deficiencies in other aspect as reckoned by 3rd FGD discussant, "...the escalation is basically as the result of people taking laws into their hands. Many times, people take law into their hands by attacking the Fulani's whenever they see them around their farms". Taking laws into hand by people giving the availability and proliferations of weapons around brings more anger and causes further attacks and conflict escalation as respondent B11 stated, thus: "...for instance, you have killed my brother and my cows, I gone to the police I am locked or to the judge who either dismiss the case or make it to drag. For that I will go and do is to take revenge".

> *"From there the Ninte youth attacked the Ardo killed him and his wife and burnt down his house. As if that was not enough, the youth went into the bush and they killed any Fulani's they see, slaughtered their cows and carted away many of them"* (In-depth interview with respondent B12, 5th November 2017).

Also, A4 added:

> *"It must continue because the Fulani's normally carried out the attacks overnight. They go to villages in the night kill people and destroy their house and before daybreak you will not see anybody"* (In-depth interview with respondent A4, 6th November 2017).

In addendum, respondent D22 have confirmed the above claims of arms proliferation by saying that both groups keep stocking arms with some where intercepted by the military thus:

> *"…there is also the issue of proliferation of arms. Everybody has access to buy arms which they use to defend their farmlands and for vengeance. This make it easy for people to take arm and kill. Sometimes back, the military intercepted large quantum of arms belongs to the locals. The locals/indigenous, later complained that military have intercepted their arms but let go those of the Fulani's. Each one buys arms in the arms of protection"* (In-depth interview with respondent D22, 13th November 2017).

Given this, it is obvious to say that any act of violent crime is mostly perpetrated with the use of weapons especially in Africa, this is because small arms are portable, liable, lethal, simple to use, durable, cheap and easy to access, etc. Sources for the small arms to Nigeria according to Moses & Ngomba (2017) is traced to the increasing failed states and uprisings in some African countries such as Somalia, Egypt, and Libya etc. In relation to the escalation of farmers-herders conflict, the easiness and cheapness to access these small arms made thousands of such armaments floating around in civilian's possessions creating more security problem, and worsening/escalating the existing conflict between the two groups at loggerhead.

From the scenario above, we can see that the floating of armaments and firearms with civilian's whom regard themselves as enemies culminated the accumulation of crimes perpetrated by groups against themselves leading to the unending attacks. To many unruly persons, the desire to possess weapons has commercial value in it at the detriment of the victims. As a result of the profitability, it has made weapons to be saturated venture with everyone unto it among the duo communities. This thus, requires special intentional effort by the concern authorities to enforce law and recover the circulated irregular weaponries. Based on the testimonies by the respondents above literatures on criminality and related have supported that failure of the state to checkmate influx of weaponries from the collapsing of some African states, have made accessibility of weapons very easy. Furthermore, in the northern part of Nigeria, the country bordered with about four African countries. These access to weapons transformed into insecurity

with criminality everywhere have combined prolonged the conflicts as Ogbeidi (2012) and Onapajo (2015); Sampson (2014); Azunna (2015) stated. Various white paper resort (report of judicial commissions), and committees reports such as memorandum of peace and security in southern Kaduna of August 1999; April 2001; January 2013 & 2014 have supported the findings as a reason for the escalation of the conflict in the area. Given these perceptions, the combination of arrogance, theft/criminalities and floating of arms weapons have become an external influenza to the main resource conflicting issue between the two groups, and it determines how peaceful or otherwise the environment could be in relation to the ongoing farmers-herders conflict.

Applying theory for this argument, Galtung ABC conflict model is relevant. The relation is that the resources conflict between the two groups is lingering due to '*Value contradictions'* of variable (C) in southern Kaduna area comprising more than one ethnic groups with varied individual group's needs. This differences couple with socio-economic hardship as well as state incapacitation to maintain boarder line leading to floating of the unchecked armaments. As internal schism, combining the accessibility of the armaments, economic hardship and the existing value contradictions as highlighted by the model led to theft due to enormous state failure. Furthermore, using *behavioural* variable (B) of the triangulation model by Galtung which state that the main conflicting issue may have been over shadowed by some of the negative consequences that serves as further triggering issues escalating the conflict just as in the case of theft as well as criminalities. It is worthwhile to consider objective and subjective aspect of why the escalation of the conflict, given the fact that other factual underneath elements have come in. It is necessary according to the model to learn about the conflicting issue as actual cause of the conflict in the first place, and the influencing *attitudinal, behavioural and contextual* (ABC) preceding circumstances that escalated the situation. This made the Fulani's to react on the criminality against them and consequently escalated the conflict situation in search for equity and justice by the aggrieved party as postulated by the Galtonian ABC conflict triangulation.

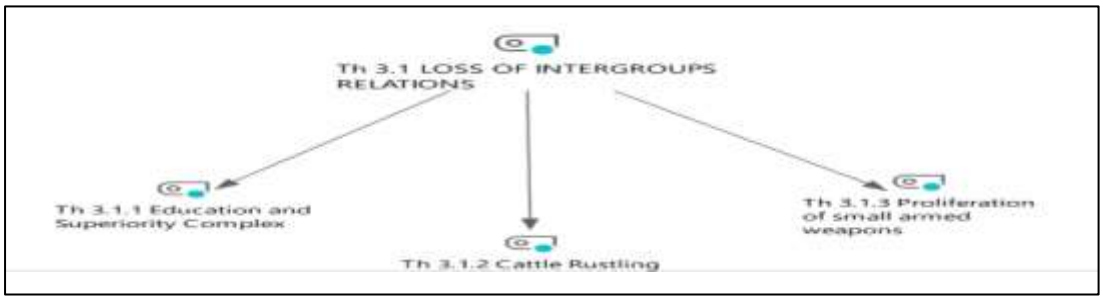


Figure 1: Theme Loss of Intergroup relations indicating conflict escalation

Conclusions

The above were submissions by the participants who believe that other form of criminalities beyond the actual resource issue as external factors have combined to influence the resource conflict leading to attacks and counter attacks in the name of resource issue and made the conflict escalate within the period.

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CATEGORY TWO: HUMANITIES / EDUCATION

(Organizational Development and Administration, Diplomatic Relations, Literacy Analysis, Arts and Designs)

Doctrinal Contradictions and Abuse of Quranic Interpretation Challenge to Socio-Political Propaganda in Osama Bin Laden Psyche

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Abstract
Osama bin Laden was a terrorist extremist who was believed to have masterminded the twin attacks on the World Trade Center with the intent on driving Western influence from the Muslim world. Suffice to put that Bin Laden had had western training and a whole lot of his life was spent with and among scholars of Islam where he had his Islamic training and a full study of the Quaran (which among other things is regarded as Sunnah of the Prophet Mohammed (SAW), but the later life of Laden was espoused to Westernization, where his whole psyche was touched and therefore, it will further suffice to put that his acts and actions in the concluding part of his life was as a result of his interaction and indeed immersion into western culture. The thrust of this article therefore would, among other things discuss the early life of Osama, his many beliefs and ideologies would also be considered. More so, his military adventures and machination would in this article receive attention.

Keywords: Religions Fanaticism, Adventure, Islam, Machinery, Early Life, Westernization.

Introduction

Bin Laden was raised as devout Sunni Muslim. From 1968 to 1976, he attended the elite secular Al-Thager Model School. He studied economics and business administration at King Abdulaziz University. Some reports suggest he earned a degree in civil engineering in 1979, or a degree in public administration in 1981. One source described him as "hardworking"; another said he left university during his third year without completing a college degree. At university, bin Laden's main interest was religion, where he was involved in both "interpreting the Quran and jihad" and charitable work. Other interests included writing poetry; reading, with the works of Field Marshal Bernard Montgomery and Charles de Gaulle said to be among his favorites; black stallions; and association football, in which he enjoyed playing at center forward and followed the English club Arsenal F.C.

Personal life

In 1974, at the age of 17, Bin Laden married Najwa Ghanem at Latakia, Syria; they were separated before September 11, 2001. Bin Laden's other known wives were Khadijah Sharif (married 1983, divorced 1990s); Khairiah Sabar (married 1985); Siham Sabar (married 1987); and Amal al-Sadah (married 2000). Some sources also list a sixth wife, name unknown, whose marriage to Bin Laden was annulled soon after the ceremony. Bin Laden fathered between 20 and 26 children with his wives. Many of Bin Laden's children fled to Iran following the September 11 attacks and as of 2010, Iranian authorities reportedly continue to control their movements.

The FBI described Bin Laden as an adult as tall and thin, between 1.93 m (6 ft 4 in) and 1.98 m (6 ft 6 in) in height and weighing about 73 kilograms (160 lb), although the author Lawrence Wright, in his Pulitzer Prize-winning book on Al-Qaeda, The Looming Tower, writes that a number of Bin Laden's close friends confirmed that reports of his height were greatly exaggerated, and that Bin Laden was actually "just over 6 feet (1.8 m) tall". Eventually, after his death, he was measured to be around 1.93 m (6 ft 4 in). Bin Laden had an olive complexion and was left-handed, usually walking with a cane. He wore a plain white keffiyeh. Bin Laden had stopped wearing the traditional Saudi male keffiyeh and instead wore the traditional Yemeni male keffiyeh. Bin Laden was described as soft-spoken and ill-mannered in demeanor.

Sociological Propaganda

Beliefs and Ideology

A major component of Bin Laden's ideology was the concept that civilians from enemy countries, including women and children, were legitimate targets for jihadists to kill. According to former CIA analyst Michael Scheuer, who led the CIA's hunt for Osama Bin Laden, the al-Qaeda leader was motivated by a belief that U.S. foreign policy has oppressed, killed, or otherwise harmed Muslims in the

Middle East, condensed in the phrase, "They hate us for what we do, not who we are." Nonetheless, bin Laden criticized the U.S. for its secular form of governance, calling upon Americans to convert to Islam and "reject the immoral acts of fornication, homosexuality, intoxicants, gambling, and usury", in a letter published in late 2002. His vocal criticism of Western government and society, and his claims that they were dominated by Jews, earned him respect from various sectors of the far right in Europe and North America. Bin Laden believed that the Islamic world was in crisis and that the complete restoration of Sharia law would be the only way to "set things right" in the Muslim world. He opposed such alternatives such as secular government, as well as "pan-Arabism, socialism, communism, democracy." He subscribed to the Athari (literalist) school of Islamic theology. These beliefs, in conjunction with violent jihad, have sometimes been called Qutbism after being promoted by Sayyid Qutb. Bin Laden believed that Afghanistan, under the rule of Mullah Omar's Taliban, was "the only Islamic country" in the Muslim world. Bin Laden consistently dwelt on the need for violent jihad to right what he believed were injustices against Muslims perpetrated by the United States and sometimes by other non-Muslim states. He also called for the elimination of the Israeli state, and called upon the United States to withdraw all of its civilians and military personnel from the Middle East, as well as from every Islamic country of the world.

His viewpoints and methods of achieving them had led to him being designated as a terrorist by scholars, journalists from The New York Times, the BBC, and Qatari news station Al Jazeera, analysts such as Peter Bergen, Michael Scheuer, Marc Sageman, and Bruce Hoffman. He was indicted cm terrorism charges by law enforcement agencies in Madrid, New York City, and Tripoli. Bin Laden was heavily anti-Semitic, stating that most of the negative events that occurred in the world were the direct result of Jewish actions. In a December 1998 interview with Pakistani journalist Rahimullah Yusufzai, bin Laden stated that Operation Desert Fox was proof that Israeli Jews controlled the governments of the United States and United Kingdom, directing them to kill as many Muslims as they could. In a letter released in late 2002, he stated that Jews controlled the civilian media outlets, politics, and economic institutions of the United States. ln a May 1998 interview with ABCs John Miller, bin Laden stated that the Israeli state's ultimate goal was to annex the Arabian Peninsula and the Middle East into its territory and enslave its peoples, as part of what he called a "Greater Israel". He stated that Jews and Muslims could never get along and that war was "inevitable" between them, and further accused the U.S. of stirring up anti-Islamic sentiment. He claimed that the U.S. State Department and U.S. Department of Defense were controlled by Jews, for the sole purpose of serving the Israeli state's goals. He often delivered warnings against alleged Jewish conspiracies: "These Jews are masters of usury and leaders in treachery. They will leave you nothing, either in this world or the next. “Shia Muslims have been listed along with "heretics, [...] America, and Israel" as the four principal "enemies of Islam" at ideology classes of bin Laden's al-Qaeda organization.

Bin Laden was opposed to music on religious grounds, and his attitude towards technology was mixed. He was interested in "earth-moving machinery and genetic engineering of plants" on the one hand, but rejected "chilled water" on the other. Bin Laden's overall strategy for achieving his goals against much larger enemies such as the Soviet Union and United States was to lure them into a long war of attrition in Muslim countries, attracting large numbers of jihadists who would never surrender. He believed this would lead to economic collapse of the enemy countries, by "bleeding" them dry. Indeed, al-Qaeda manuals clearly express this strategy. In a 2004 tape broadcast by al-Jazeera, bin Laden spoke of "bleeding America to the point of bankruptcy". Bin Laden also believed climate change to be a serious threat and penned a letter urging Americans to work with president Barack Obama to make "a rational decision to save humanity from the harmful gases that threaten its destiny".

Militant Activity

Mujahideen in Afghanistan

After leaving college in 1979, bin Laden went to Pakistan, joined Abdullah Azzam and used money and machinery from his own construction company to help the Mujahideen resistance in the Soviet war in Afghanistan. He later told a journalist: "I felt outraged that an injustice had been committed against the people of Afghanistan." Under CIA's Operation Cyclone from 1979 to 1989, the United States and Saudi Arabia provided $40 billion worth of financial aid and weapons to almost 100,000 Mujahideen and "Afghan Arabs" from forty Muslim countries through Pakistan's ISI. Bin Laden met and built relations

with Hamid Gul, who was a three-star general in the Pakistani army and head of the ISI agency. Although the United States provided the money and weapons, the training of militant groups was entirely done by the Pakistani Armed Forces and the ISI. By 1984, bin Laden and Azzam established Maktab al-Khidamat, which funneled money, arms and fighters from around the Arab world into Afghanistan. Through al-Khadamat, bin Laden's inherited family fortune paid for air tickets and accommodation, paid for paperwork with Pakistani authorities and provided other such services for the jihadi fighters. Bin Laden established camps inside Khyber Pakhtunkhwa in Pakistan and trained volunteers from across the Muslim world to fight against the Soviet-backed regime, the Democratic Republic of Afghanistan; he would also participate in some combat activity, such as the Battle of Jaji. It was during this time that he became idolised by many Arabs.

1988 Gilgit Massacre

In May 1988the Pakistan Army inducted Osama bin Laden to lead an armed group of Sunni tribes, from Afghanistan and the North-West. Frontier Province, into Gilgit and its surrounding areas to suppress a Shia revolt, as the Shias of Pakistan's Gilgit-Baltistan region had been calling for a separate Shia state called the 'Karakoram State'. Osama bin Laden and his hordes massacred and raped several hundred Shia civilians in Gilgit. Formation and structuring of al-Qaeda by 1988, bin Laden had split from Maktab al-Khidamat. While Azzam acted as support for Afghan fighters, bin Laden wanted a more military role. One of the main points leading to the split and the creation of al-Qaeda was Azzam's insistence that Arab fighters be integrated among the Afghan fighting groups instead of forming a separate fighting force. Notes of a meeting of bin Laden and others on August 20, 1988 indicate that al-Qaeda was a formal group by that time: "Basically an organized Islamic faction, its goal is to lift the word of God, to make his religion victorious." A list of requirements for membership itemized the following: listening ability, good manners, obedience, and making a pledge (bayat) to follow one's superiors.

According to Wright, the group's real name was not used in public pronouncements because "its existence was still a closely held secret". His research suggests that al-Qaeda was formed at an August 11, 1988, meeting between "several senior leaders" of Egyptian Islamic Jihad, Abdullah Azzam, and bin Laden, where it was agreed to join bin Laden's money with the expertise of the Islamic Jihad organization and' take up the jihadist cause elsewhere after the Soviets withdrew from Afghanistan. Following the Soviet Union's withdrawal from Afghanistan in February 1989, Osama bin Laden returned to Saudi Arabia in 1990 as a hero of jihad. Along with his Arab legion, he was thought to have "brought down the mighty superpower" of the Soviet Union. He was angered by the internecine tribal fighting among the Afghans. The Iraqi invasion of Kuwait under Saddam Hussein on August 2, 1990, put the Saudi kingdom and the royal family at risk. With Iraqi forces on the Saudi border, Saddam's appeal to pan-Arabism was potentially inciting internal dissent. Bin Laden met with King Fahd, and Saudi Defense Minister Sultan, telling them not to depend on non-Muslim assistance from the United States and others, and offering to help defend Saudi Arabia with his Arab legion. Bin Laden's offer was rebuffed, and the Saudi monarchy invited the deployment of U.S. forces in Saudi territory. Bin Laden publicly denounced Saudi dependence on the U.S. military, arguing the two holiest shrines of Islam, Mecca and Medina, the cities in which the Prophet Mohamed received and recited Allah's message, should only be defended by Muslims. Bin Laden's criticism of the Saudi monarchy led them to try to silence him. The U.S. 82nd Airborne Division landed in the north-eastern Saudi city of Dhahran and was deployed in the desert barely 400 miles from Medina. Meanwhile, on November 8, 1990, the FBI raided the New Jersey home of El Sayyid Nosair, an associate of al-Qaeda operative Ali Mohamed. They discovered copious evidence of terrorist plots, including plans to blow up New York City skyscrapers. This marked the earliest discovery of al-Qaeda terrorist plans outside of Muslim countries. Nosair was eventually convicted in connection to the 1993 World Trade Center bombing, and later admitted guilt for the murder of Rabbi Meir Kahane in New York City on November 5, 1990.

Bin Laden continued to speak publicly against the Saudi government, for which the Saudis banished him. In 1992 he went to live in exile in Sudan, in a deal brokered by Ali Mohamed. Bin Laden's personal security detail consisted of "bodyguards...personally selected by him." Their "arsenal included SAM-7 and Stinger missiles, 47s, RPGs, and PK machine guns (similar to an M60).

Contradiction and Qurannic Sojour

Sudan and Return to Afghanistan

In Sudan, bin Laden established a new base for Mujahideen operations in Khartoum. He bought a house on AI-Mashtal Street in the affluent Al-Riyadh quarter and a retreat at Soba on the Blue Nile. During his time in Sudan, he heavily invested in the infrastructure, in agriculture and businesses. He was the Sudan agent for the British firm Hunting Surveys, and built roads using the same bulldozers he had employed to construct mountain tracks in Afghanistan. Many of his labourers were the same fighters who, had been his comrades in the war against the Soviet Union. He was generous to the poor and popular with the people. He continued to criticize King Fand of Saudi Arabia. In response, in 1994 Fand stripped bin Laden of his Saudi citizenship and persuaded his family to cut off his $7 million a year stipend. By that time, bin Laden was being linked with Egyptian Islamic Jihad (EIJ), which made up the core of al-Qaeda. In 1995 the EIJ attempted to assassinate the Egyptian President Hosni Mubarak. The attempt failed, and Sudan expelled the EIJ. The U.S. State Department accused Sudan of being a "sponsor of international terrorism" and bin Laden of operating "terrorist training camps in the Sudanese desert". According to Sudan officials, however, this stance became obsolete as the Islamist political leader Hassan al-Turabi lost influence in their country. The Sudanese wanted to engage with the U.S. but American officials refused to meet with them even after they had expelled bin Laden. It was not until 2000 that the State Department authorized U.S. intelligence officials to visit Sudan.

The 9/11 Commission Report States

In late 1995, when Bin Laden was still in Sudan, the State Department and the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) learned that Sudanese officials were discussing with the Saudi government the possibility of expelling Bin Laden. CIA paramilitary officer Billy Waugh tracked down Bin Ladin in Sudan and prepared an operation to apprehend him, but was denied authorization. U.S. Ambassador Timothy Carney encouraged the Sudanese to pursue this course. The Saudis, however, did not want Bin Laden., giving as their reason their revocation of his citizenship. Sudan's minister of defense, Fatih Erwa, has claimed that Sudan offered to hand Bin Laden over to the United States. The Commission has found no credible evidence that this was so. Ambassador Carney had instructions only to push the Sudanese to expel Bin Laden. Ambassador Carney had no legal basis to ask for more from the Sudanese since, at the time, there was no indictment outstanding against bin Laden in any country.

The 9/11 Commission Report Further States

In February 1996, Sudanese officials began approaching officials from the United States and other governments, asking what actions of theirs might ease foreign pressure. In secret meetings with Saudi officials, Sudan offered to expel Bin Laden to Saudi Arabia and asked the Saudis to pardon him. U.S. officials became aware of these secret discussions, certainly by March. Saudi officials apparently wanted Bin Laden expelled from Sudan. They had already revoked his citizenship, however, and would not tolerate his presence in their country. Also Bin Laden may have no longer felt safe in Sudan, where he had already escaped at least one assassination attempt that he believed to have been the work of the Egyptian or Saudi regimes, and paid for by the CIA. Due to the increasing pressure on Sudan from Saudi Arabia, Egypt, and the United States, in Laden was permitted to leave for a country of his choice. He chose to return to Jalalabad, Afghanistan aboard a chartered flight on May 18, 1996; there he forged a close relationship with Mullah Mohammed Omar. According to the 9/11 Commission, the expulsion from Sudan significantly weakened bin Laden and his organization. Some African intelligence sources have argued that the expulsion left bin Laden without an option other than becoming a full-time radical, and that most of the 300 Afghan Arabs who left with him subsequently became terrorists. Various sources report that bin Laden lost between $20 million and $300 million in Sudan; the government seized his construction equipment, and bin Laden was forced to liquidate his businesses, land, and even his horses. ln August 1996, bin Laden declared war against the United States. Despite the assurance of President George H. W. Bush to King Fand in 1990, that all U.S. forces based in Saudi Arabia would be withdrawn once the Iraqi threat had been dealt with, by 1996 the Americans were still there. Bush cited the necessity of dealing with the remnants of Saddam's regime (which Bush had chosen not to destroy). Bin Laden's view was that "the 'evils' of the Middle East arose from America's attempt to take over the region and from its support for Israel. Saudi Arabia had been turned into 'an American colony".

He issued a fatwa against the United States, which was first published in Al Quds Al Arabi, a London-based newspaper. It was entitled "Declaration of War against the Americans Occupying the Land of the Two Holy Places. “Saudi Arabia is sometimes called "The Land of the Two Holy Mosques" in reference to Mecca and Medina, the two holiest places in Islam. The reference to "occupation" in the fatwa referred to US forces based in Saudi Arabia for the purpose of controlling air space in Iraq, known as Operation Southern Watch. In Afghanistan, bin Laden and al-Qaeda raised money from "donors from the days of the Soviet jihad", and from the Pakistani ISI to establish more training camps for Mujahideen fighters. Bin Laden effectively took over Ariana Afghan Airlines, which ferried Islamic militants, arms, cash and opium through the United Arab Emirates and Pakistan, as well as provided false identifications to members of bin Laden's terrorist network. The arms smuggler Viktor Bout helped to run the airline, maintaining planes and loading cargo. Michael Scheuer, head of the CIA's bin Laden unit, concluded that Ariana was being used as a "terrorist taxi service".

Early Attacks and Aid for Attacks

It is believed that the first bombing attack involving bin Laden was the December 29, 1992, bombing of the Gold Mihor Hotel in Aden in which two people were killed. lt was after this bombing that al-Qaeda was reported to have developed its justification for the killing of innocent people. According to a fatwa issued by Mamdouh Mahmud Salim, the killing of someone standing near the enemy is justified because any innocent bystander will find a proper reward in death, going to Jannah (Paradise) if they were good Muslims and to Jahannam (hell) if they were bad or non-believers. The fatwa was issued to al-Qaeda members but not the general public. In the 1990s, bin Laden's al-Qaeda assisted jihadis financially and sometimes militarily in Algeria, Egypt and Afghanistan. In 1992 or 1993 bin Laden sent an emissary, Qari el-Said, with $40,000 to Algeria to aid the Islamists and urge war rather than negotiation with the government. Their advice was heeded. The war that followed caused the deaths of 150,000-200,000 Algerians and ended with the Islamist surrender to the government. It has been claimed that bin Laden funded the Luxor massacre of November 17, 1997, which killed 62 civilians, and outraged the Egyptian public. In mid-1997, the Northern Alliance threatened to overrun Jalalabad, causing bin Laden to abandon his Najim Jihad compound and move his operations to Tarnak Farms in the south. Another successful attack was carried out in the city of Mazar-e-Sharif in Afghanistan. Bin Laden helped cement his alliance with the Taliban by sending several hundred Afghan Arab fighters along to help the Taliban kill between five and six thousand Hazaras overrunning the city. ln February 1998, Osama bin Laden and Ayman al-Zawahiri co-signed a fatwa in the name of the World Islamic Front for Jihad Against Jews and Crusaders, which declared the killing of North Americans and their allies an "individual duty for every Muslim" to "liberate the al-Aqsa Mosque (in Jerusalem) and the holy mosque (in Mecca) from their grip". At the public announcement of the fatwa bin Laden announced that North Americans are "very easy targets". He told the attending journalists, "You will see the results of this in a very short time. "Bin Laden and Al-Zawahiri organized an al-Qaeda congress on June 24, 1998. The 1998 U.S. Embassy bombings were a series of attacks that occurred on August 7, 1998, in which hundreds of people were killed in simultaneous truck bomb explosions at the United States embassies in the major East African cities of Dar es Salaam, Tanzania and Nairobi, Kenya. The attacks were linked to local members of the Egyptian Islamic Jihad, brought Osama bin Laden and Ayman al-Zawahiri to the attention of the United States public for the first time, and resulted in the U.S. Federal Bureau of Investigation placing bin Laden on its Ten Most Wanted list. In December 1998, the Director of Central Intelligence Counterterrorist Center reported to President Bill Clinton that al-Qaeda was preparing for attacks in the United States of America, including the training of personnel to hijack aircraft. At the end of 2000, Richard Clarke revealed that Islamic militants headed by bin Laden had planned a triple attack on January 3, 2000, which would have included bombings in Jordan of the Radisson SAS Hotel in Amman and tourists at Mount Nebo and a site on the Jordan River, the sinking of the destroyer USS The Sullivans in Yemen, as well as an attack on a target within the United States. The plan was foiled by the arrest of the Jordanian terrorist cell, the sinking of the explosive-filled skiff intended to target the destroyer, and the arrest of Ahmed Ressam.

September 11 Attacks

God knows it did not cross our minds to attack the Towers, but after the situation became unbearable—and we witnessed the injustice and tyranny of the American-Israeli alliance against our people in Palestine and Lebanon—I thought about it. And the events that affected me directly were that of 1982 and the

events that followed—when America allowed the Israelis to invade Lebanon, helped by the U.S. Sixth Fleet. As I watched the destroyed towers in Lebanon, it occurred to me punish the unjust the same way: to destroy towers in America so it could taste some of what we are tasting and to stop killing our children and women. After his initial denia, Osama bin Laden in 2004 finally claimed responsibility for the September 11, 2001, attacks in the United States. The attacks involved the hijacking of four commercial passenger aircraft - United Airlines Flight 93, United Airlines Flight 175, American Airlines Flight 11, and American Airlines Flight 77- and flying two into the Twin Towers of the World Trade Center in New York City,' and the third into the Pentagon in Arlington County, Virginia, destroying the former, and severely damaging the latter, while the fourth, either intended to target the United States Capitol or the White House in Washington, D.C., crashed in a field near Shanksville, Pennsylvania, with no survivors. The attacks resulted in the. deaths of 2,996 people, including 2,192 civilians, 343 firefighters, and 71 law enforcement officers who were in the World Trade Center and in the surrounding area; 70 civilians and 55 military personnel who were in the Pentagon; and 245 civilians, a law enforcement officer, and 19 hijackers on board the four airliners. In the wake of the attacks, bin Laden announced, "what the United States is tasting today is nothing compared to what we have tasted for decades. Our umma has known this humiliation and contempt for over eighty years. Its sons are killed, its blood is spilled, its holy sites are attacked, and it is not governed according to Allah's command. Despite this, no one cares". In response to the attacks, the United States launched the War on Terror to depose the Taliban regime in Afghanistan and capture al-Qaeda operatives, and several countries strengthened their anti-terrorism legislation to preclude future attacks. The CIA's Special Activities Division was given the lead in tracking down and killing or capturing bin Laden. The Federal Bureau of Investigation has stated that classified evidence linking al-Qaeda and bin Laden to the September 11 attacks is clear and irrefutable. The UK Government reached a similar conclusion regarding al-Qaeda and Osama bin Laden's culpability for the September 11attacks, although the government report noted that the evidence presented is not necessarily sufficient to prosecute the case.

Bin Laden initially denied involvement in the attacks. On September 16, 2001, bin Laden read a statement later broadcast by Qatar's Al Jazeera satellite channel denying responsibility for the attack. In a videotape recovered by U.S. forces in November 2001 in Jalalabad, bin Laden was seen discussing the attack with Khaled al-Harbi in a way that indicates fore knowledge. The tape was broadcast on various news networks on December 13, 2001. The merits of this translation have been disputed. Arabist Dr. Abdel El M. Husseini stated: This translation is very problematic. At the most important places where it is held to prove the guilt of bin Laden, it is not identical with the Arabic. "In the 2004 Osama bin Laden video, bin Laden abandoned his denials without retracting past statements. In it he said he had personally directed the nineteen hijackers. In the 18-minute tape, played on Al-Jazeera, four days before the American presidential election, bin Laden accused U.S. President George W. Bush of negligence in the hijacking of the planes on September 11. According to the tapes, bin Laden claimed he was inspired to destroy the World Trade Center after watching the destruction of towers in Lebanon by Israel during the 1982 Lebanon War. Through two other tapes aired by Al Jazeera in 2006, Osama bin Laden announced, "I am the one in charge of the nineteen brothers. [...] I was responsible for entrusting the nineteen brothers [...] with the raids", (May 23, 2006). In the tapes he was seen with Ramzi bin al-Shibh, as well as two of the 9/11 hijackers, Hamza al-Ghamdi and Wail al-Shehri, as they made preparations for the attacks (videotape broadcast September 7, 2006), Identified motivations of the September 11 attacks include the support of Israel by the United States, presence of the U.S. military in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, and the U.S. enforcement of sanctions against Iraq.

Conclusions

On March 16, 1998, Libya issued the first official Interpol arrest warrant against bin Laden and three other people. They were charged for killing Silvan Becker, agent of Germany's domestic intelligence service, the Federal Office for the Protection of the Constitution, in the Terrorism Department, and his wife Vera in Libya on March 10, 1994. Bin Laden was still wanted by the Libyan government at the time of his death. Osama bin Laden was first indicted by a grand jury of the United States on June 8, 1998 on a charges of "conspiracy to attack defense utilities of the United States" and prosecutors further charged that bin Laden was the head of the terrorist organization called al-Qaeda, and that he was a major financial backer of Islamic fighters worldwide. On November 4, 1998, Osama bin

Laden was indicted by a Federal Grand Jury in the United States District Court for the Southern District of New York, on charges of Murder of U.S. Nationals Outside the United States, Conspiracy to Murder U.S. Nationals Outside the United States, and Attacks on a Federal Facility Resulting in. Death for his alleged role in the 1998 United States embassy bombings in Kenya and Tanzania. The evidence against bin Laden included courtroom testimony by former al-Qaeda members and satellite phone records, from a phone purchased for him by al-Qaeda procurement agent Ziyad Khaleel in the United States. However, the Taliban ruled not to extradite Bin Laden on the grounds that there was insufficient evidence published in the indictments and that non-Muslim courts lacked standing to try Muslims.

Bin Laden became the 456th person listed on the FBI Ten Most Wanted Fugitives list, when he was added on June 7, 1999, following his indictment along with others for capital crimes in the 1998 embassy attacks. Attempts at assassination and requests for the extradition of bin Laden from the Taliban of Afghanistan were met with failure prior to the bombing of Afghanistan in October 2001. In 1999, U.S. President Bill Clinton convinced the United Nations to impose sanctions against Afghanistan in an attempt to force the Taliban to extradite him. Years later, on October 10, 2001, bin Laden appeared as well on the initial list of the top 22 FBI Most Wanted Terrorists, which was released to the public by the President of the United States George W. Bush, in direct response to the September 11 attacks, but which was again based on the indictment for the 1998 embassy attack. Bin Laden was among a group of thirteen fugitive terrorists wanted on that latter list for questioning about the 1998 embassy bombings. Bin Laden remains the only fugitive ever to be listed on both FBI fugitive lists. Despite the multiple indictments listed above and multiple requests, the Taliban refused to extradite Osama bin Laden. They did however offer to try him before an Islamic court if evidence of Osama bin Laden's involvement in the September 11 attacks was provided. It was not until eight days after the bombing of Afghanistan began in October 2001 that the Taliban finally did offer to turn over Osama bin Laden to a third-party country for trial in return for the United States ending the bombing. This offer was rejected by President Bush stating that this was no longer negotiable, with Bush responding "there's no need to discuss innocence or guilt. We know he's guilty. "On June 15, 2011, federal prosecutors of the United States of America officially dropped all criminal charges against Osama bin Laden following his death in May.

In April 2011, various intelligence outlets were able to pinpoint bin Laden's suspected location near Abbottabad, Pakistan.[citation needed] It was previously believed that bin Laden was hiding near the border between Afghanistan and Pakistan's Federally Administered Tribal Areas, but he was found 160 km (100 mi) away in a three-story mansion in Abbottabad at 34°10'9.51"N 73°14'32.78"E. Bin Laden's mansion was located 1.3 km (0.8 mi) southwest of the Pakistan Military Academy. Google Earth maps show that the compound was not present in 2001, but it was present on images taken in 2005. Website of the Federal Bureau of Investigation listing bin Laden as deceased on the Most Wanted List on May 3, 2011. Osama bin Laden was killed in Abbottabad, Pakistan, on May 2, 2011, shortly after 1:00 am local time (4:00 pm eastern time) [note 1][222][223] by a United States military special operations unit.

The operation, code-named Operation Neptune Spear, was ordered by United States President Barack Obama and carried out in a U.S. Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) operation by a team of United States Navy SEALs from the United States Naval Special Warfare Development Group (also known as DEVGRU or informally by its former name, SEAL Team Six) of the Joint Special Operations Command, with support from CIA operatives on the ground. The raid on bin Laden's compound in Abbottabad was launched from Afghanistan. After the raid, reports at the time stated that U.S. forces had taken bin Laden's body to Afghanistan for positive identification, then buried it at sea, in accordance with Islamic law, within 24 hours of his death. Subsequent reporting has called this account into question—citing, for example, the absence of evidence that there was an imam on board the USS Carl Vinson, where the burial was said to have taken place.

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Gender Balance and Arabic Cultivation: A Case Study of Selected Female Arabic Cultivators in Pre-Colonial Northern Nigeria

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Abstract
There is no doubt that gender question has been a subject of discussion in various disciplines for quite a long time now with great deal of discussion on the rights of women. Though, perspectives about gender issues vary from one community to the other, the general perspectives are what women are rarely recognized in most communities. In African traditional belief, for example women are labelled as witchcraft and in most cases, women are not allowed to go out during celebrations of some African festivals. Women had sometimes been portrayed as the sources of sin. Even, in the medieval time, European philosophers and scholars doubted whether the woman has a soul, if she were to have a soul, it should be similar to that of a slave certainly not like that of a free man possesses. Up to the 18th century, European women had no right to inheritance, no right to own property and they could not open bank account without written permission from their husbands. Looking at this gender discrimination, one would imagine what could account for this illicit belief. One school of thoughts opines that the philosophical teachings of Aristotle and Plato have greatly influenced the idea of gender discrimination. While other schools blame Islam for this. Sequel to the above, this paper intends to discuss the role of Islam in women's literacy, a Case Study of Selected Muslim Women in the cultivation of Arabic Scholarship in Northern Nigeria.

Keywords: Arabic Cultivation, Muslim Women, Scholarship, Northern Nigeria.

Introduction

The mission of the holy prophet Muhammad (S.A.W) marks the beginning of a historical change for women folk when they are given legitimate rights that provide them exalted position. Islam safeguards the rights of women in every single respect and reiterates that women are not servants or slaves rather they are wives and mothers of children of men and makes men realize their responsibilities and the rights they have to give to women. Thus, Islam establishes the rights of women and saves them from disgrace and humiliation. Evidence shows that the rise of Islam brings an eternal relief to women and recognizes them as equal partners to men. Islam with its rise attaches a great importance to education of female children; this enhances their position in the community where Islam governs. The injunctions for the equal right of women and men to pursue education are found in the traditions of the holy prophet Muhammad (S.A.W). For example, the holy prophet was reported to have said, "if we educate a man, we have only educated a person but if it is a woman, then we have educated a nation" (Opeloye 2006:4) Aisha, the wife of the prophet was a reputable female scholar in her time. She was a great teacher of *Hadith* literature. The prophet (S. A. W) was so concern about female education that he directed his companions to educate even their slave girls (Fuad 1970:30-31). It is also a historical fact that the lectures of the holy prophet Muhammad (S.A.W) were attended by large audiences of both men and women, and by the time of the prophet's death, there were many women scholars (Khayrat 1975:108). According to the tradition of the holy prophet (S.A.W), it is the duty of every Muslim, male and female to pursue knowledge throughout life, even if it should lead the seeker to China. (Darwazah, 1980:44) This reveals that Islam encourages women scholarship.

Muslim Women and Arabic Literacy in Northern Nigeria

In the study of Muslim women literacy in Nigeria, it is not possible to give the account, achievements, influence and artistic status of all female scholars who emerged over a century; therefore, a systematic approach will be employed to discuss it. It is admitted that both foreign and indigenous scholars admired the literary production of scholars in Nigeria before colonial incursion. According to Alkali (1983:107) "women were given proper education during the reign of Mai Ali Ghaji. (1470-1503) He notes that "the princesses were well looked after and were given the necessary education which could prepare them for their future homes". The above assertion reveals that the education of Muslim women was very long in age in Nigeria, considering the time of Mai Ali Ghaji to the present time. The good tradition of women education in the Northern parts of Nigeria was sustained by the subsequent efforts of the constituted

authorities of Islamic governments up to the time of Shaykh Uthrnan b. Fudi whose system of caliphal administration produced many eminent female scholars (Umar, 1984:9).

In the first half of eighteenth century when Arabic literature began to flourish, notable female scholars also emerged. Al-illuri mentions Ruqayyah bint AIim as reputable Muslim female scholar who featured in academic scene in the second half of the eighteenth century. (Al-illuri, 1978: 94). Ahmad further strengthened the view of Al-illuri, when he regards Ruqqayyah bintu Alim as the first female scholar who authored an academic work in Nigeria. In his words (1984:46), 'Ruqyyah al-Fullatiyyat bint 'Alim, was the celebrated author of a popular work titled *"al-karim yaqbal"* this work still enjoys the attention of Muslims particularly, Islamic students till today''. It is a work of multifarious themes, contained a reasonable number of poetic verses and Sufi vocabularies. The work combines elements of religious themes and local needs. Its themes and succinct verses have never ceased been admired by the readers. The work succinctly gives a colourful and valuable insight into the literary life of Hausaland in the first half of the eighteenth century and throughout the nineteenth century. Hawau bint Muhammad was another personage who featured in the academic field in the nineteenth century. In account of her given by Al-illuri, she was among of the early teachers of Shaykh Uthman. (Al-illuri, 1978: 94). In the intellectual bloom of Hausaland in nineteenth century, Asmau bint 'Uthman is another Muslim female scholar who occupied a prominent position.

Her literary fame rests on her miscellaneous works. She was one of the greatest female scholars with the most fertile minds and prolific scholarship throughout the nineteenth Century in Hausa land. She drew upon her personal experiences in her writings. The themes of her works were centered on socio-political/religious and economic situation of her period. She was the author of a popular work titled *"Tanbih al-Ghafilin wa Tadhkir al-a qilin ila Turuq as-salihin"*. This work occupies the first place among the works of literary achievements of female Arabic scholars in Northern Nigeria. As rightly said by Malik (1999:15)

> *It is pertinent to mention that the cultivation of Arabic literary scholarship in the nineteenth century in West Africa was not confined to male scholars only. Nana Asmau, the famous daughter of Sheikh Uthman Dan Fodio was one of the most learned of the Sheikh's children.*

The literary seed sown during the period of Sokoto caliphate germinated and came into full fruition throughout the nineteenth century. The period produced a number of other female scholars whose literary compositions are considered standard. In the account of female scholars that emerged in nineteenth Century, special mention was made to Khadijah al-Kubrah, Fatimah bint 'Uthman, Safiyyah, Maryam bint Shaykh Uthman and Asma bint 'Uthman. These female scholars were in the mainstream of social reforms in Hausaland. While assessing the social reforms introduced by these female scholars in the pre-colonial years, Ogunbiyi (1975:26) quotes late Junaid Wazir of Sokoto:

> *One of them (i.e the daughters of Shaykh 'Uthman b. Fudi) was Asma' the saint, the upright, the ascetic, the worshipful, the learned, the pious and the spiritual councellor, may the Exalted Allah be pleased with her. ''Of her sermons, there are uncountable 'ajami (non-Arabic) poems, and in praise of the prophet (may Allah bless and protect him) she has many poems. She did not relent her efforts in ordering the doing of good and forbidding the abominable and urging people to follow the Shar'iah and to emulate the sunna and to tie the bond of kinship and (to practice) good morals. She (may Allah be pleased with her) knew the Qur'an by heart, was continuously enduring the evils of people. She enjoyed exalted, sublime (Sufi) conditions. In short, her virtues are too numerous to be counted.*

Ogunbiyi explained that one of the Arabic poems of Asma bint 'Uthman is an elegy she composed and elegized on her friend Aisha, daughter of Umar al-Kammi, who happened to be her brother's wife, Sultan Muhammad Bello. Aisha Lemu (2003:639) stresses the literary and scholarship ability of Asmau bint Uthman Fodio when she also observed that:

> *Nana Asmau was widely admired for her writings as a scholar and poet, her poiltical, ideological and religious commitment, her social work and especially her teaching role. This involved women students who came in organized groups from far and wide in the principle of train-the-trainers. There is no indication of anything other than respect and administration for her roles in the development of an Islamic society. This took place before the colonial era when even the western countries had never heard of women's liberation or women's role in public life, administration or politics. Women were not even allowed to obtain University degrees in England until the 20th century.*

Apart from Asmau bint Shaykh 'Uthman another female scholar whose her social influence and academic impact were reckoned by scholars was Aisha bint Umar al-Kammi. Her father was one of the closest associates of Shaykh 'Uthman b. Fudi. He was usually listed with Shaykh Abudullah b. Fudi and Sultan Muhammad Bello on some occasions. He even took precedence over Muhammad Bello. (Ogunbiyi, 1975:26). According to Asmau bint 'Uthman in the elegy that she composed on her, "Aisha bint Umar al-Kammi was a teacher, poet and social reform worker, a philanthropist and a woman mystic". The ensuring academic florescence of female scholars was promoted and the production of elegant works was a symbol of cultural brilliance of female scholarship in Northern parts of Nigeria in the nineteenth century. From foregoing, it is evident that Muslim female scholars made a tremendous stride in the first half of nineteenth century. It is interesting to note that this tradition of women's participation in the development of Islamic society, though widely in decline in later times, never completely disappeared, and reappeared in an unexpected times and places. In the course of distinguished academic career female scholars were well conversant with Arabic language. They exhibited the elements of Arabic works. It should be noted that, the Borno, Sokoto and Kano produced eminent female scholars. These female scholars did not relent in their efforts in writing academic scholarship.

Biographical Notes on Selected Female Arabic Scholars

Although there was a considerable coterie of learned women before the jihad of 19th century in Hausaland, their literary activities were to a great extent overshadowed by the vast scholarly productions of the male scholars. The single extant literary work of female scholars of the nineteenth century is *al-Karim yaqbal* authored by Ruqayat bint 'Alim. However, there was a considerable development in female scholarship in post *jihad* period, which many female scholars emerged. The biographies of the selected female scholars are as follows.

Ruqayyah bint 'Alim

It will be very difficult to give a full account of Ruqayyah al-Fulattiy *bint* Muhammed b. Said because of paucity of information about her; hence her date of birth was not known. However, it is certain that she came from long chain of the Fulani tribes. Her father was a Fulani Muslim cleric in the eighteenth century who acquired high esteem in Islamic sciences with undiminished lustre. She attained proficiency in Arabic language and gained mastery in Islamic scholarship. She was very prolific and highly talented. This allowed her to participate in literary activities which were entirely confined to circle of men in most cases. At puberty, her father married her to a famous scholar of their tribe, Muhammad b. 'Uthman b. Hamm who was regarded as the most learned Fulani cleric of the time. (Hashimi, 2008:23) The marriage was not only successful but also increased the fame of Ruqayyah in academic field. Ruqayyah learned more from her husband, which later made her to become a female scholar of remarkable standing. The marriage of Ruqayyah with Muhammad b. Said was blessed with children. Famous among her children was Hawau, who was also a woman scholar. Ruqayyah bint 'AIim was an ascetic and woman saint. She preached ascetic way of life as a salvation and the only ticket to paradise after death. Anyone who reads her work *"alkarim yaqbal"* will be convinced that she was a woman of remarkable standing. Her work belongs to a class of literary production that surfaced in the eighteenth century. Most literary scholars pay fulsome tributes to her contribution to knowledge.

Hawau *bint* Muhammad

Another Muslim female scholar was Hawau *bint* Muhammad b. Uthman. The date of her birth is not currently known but it is certain that she was born around the first quarter of the eighteenth century (1730s C.E.). Her early age was passed through the traditional training of her time. She received the learning of the Qur'an from her father, Muhammad b. Uthman, a famous cleric of his clan. Therefore, Hawau was brought up in a scholarly environment. With the attainment of marriage age, she was married to Muhammad b. Salih b. Muhammad b. Fudi. According to al-Masr, (in Hashimi, 2008:23Muhammad b. Fudi, the husband of Hawau was the most learned scholar among the Fulani cleric throughout Hausaland in the eighteenth century.). Therefore, Hawau was married to a home, in environment reputed for religious learning. The intellectual environment that she lived had a great impact on her, although, one cannot determine the extent of her knowledge, but according to al-illuri (1978:94). In account of her given by 'Abdullahi b. Fudi she was the first teacher of her Sons 'Uthman b. Fudi and Abdullah b. Fudi. Thus,

Hawau belonged to the literary circle of her time and a symbol of female scholarship in the period under study.

Asmau bint 'Uthman (1793—1864 C.E)

Asmau *bint* 'Uthman was one of the famous Muslim female scholars that emerged in pre-colonial Nigeria. She was called Nana Asmau for her reputation in learning. She was born around 1793 C.E (1208H). She was said to be the most brilliant among female children of 'Uthman b. Fudi, and was the most prolific female writer of her time who distinguished herself in many intellectual fields. (Ogunbiyi, 1975:26). Her intellectual trait was apparent at the early age. She acquired a thorough knowledge of the Qur'an and Hadith. In addition, Nana Asmau had mastery of Arabic, Hausa and Tuareg languages that she employed these trilingual languages adequately in her writings. At the age of puberty, she was married to Uthman b. Abi Bakr popularly known as Gidado Laimu around 1807, a famous scholar and the Wazir and scribe of her father and later her brother Muhammad Bello. Her writings in Arabic are the best works that her fame rests with. She authored many works, but the popular ones are:

i. *Tanbi h al-Ghafilin*
ii. *Tabshiral-ikhwaan*
iii. *Rithauu*

She embarked upon what may be termed as politico philanthropic activities which had tremendously mobilized women in the North. She planned out the distribution of cloths and food stuffs to the destitute and the needy. She also conducted mass literacy campaign as well as helping the orphans and widows. Nana Asmau became the teacher of all the girls and women in her family and also trained her younger brother, Isa in Quranic studies and Arabic. She travelled extensively with her father during the outbreak of Jihad in 1804 and lived in different places in Hausa land. Of all her scholarly works; her translations were the most important. She rendered many works of Shaykh 'Uthman b. Fudi into Hausa from Fulfulde, thus helping the wider dissemination of the ideas of her father (Aisha Lemu, 2003:35). Without doubt, Nana Asmau was an outstanding female scholar, produced by the Sokoto Caliphate. She was described as a woman saint (*waliyyat*) she produced various works in Arabic, Hausa and Fulfulde. Her works covered various themes such as politics, governance, social reforms, admonition, domestic issues, panegery and elegy. Apart from being a preacher, who enjoined people to do good and forbidding wrong things, urging people to follow the *shar'iah* and emulate the *sunna*, she was also a *Sufi* woman, who enjoyed exalted sublime *Sufi* conducts. She left Sokoto in 1850C.E. after the death of her husband Laima Gidado to live with her son Waziri "Abd al-Qadr but she was returned to Sokoto in 1859C.E. and later died in 1864C.E. (Boyd 1989:51).

Aisha *bint* Umar Al Kammu: (b.1793)

Aisha *bint* Umar Al Kammu was another female scholar who surfaced in academic scene in the Northern Nigeria. She was born in the last quarter of the eighteenth century. She received the traditional Islamic sciences, studied the Qur'an and rudimentary knowledge of Arabic. When she attained the age of puberty, she was married to Muhammad Bello. She therefore moved from a scholarly maiden home to a scholarly marital home. Her marriage did not stop her intellectual pursuit; she acquired more knowledge from her husband. The elegy of Nana Asmau, chanted on her, shows that she was very deep in religious practice, and more so, she was knowledgeable in Quranic recitation and *Sufi* ordinances. Aisha *bint* Umar was no doubt a female scholar who also featured well in academic activities in the nineteenth century. She was widely admired for her writings. As a scholar and poetess, her social work and religious commitment are very great. She commanded respect and admiration for her role as a teacher, social worker and philanthropist. Although, she died at early age in life, but the legacies she left behind will not be defaced.

Fatima *bint* 'Uthman b. Fudi (1787—1838)

Sayyidah Fatimah was born around 1787C.E./1202H. She was a full sister of Muhammad Bello. Her education passed through traditional Islamic sciences. Fatima like any of the children of her father was born in a scholarly home, reputed for Islamic sciences and religious devotion She received her early education under the feet of her father, later from her brother Muhammad Bello and from other members of her family. She married the army commander Ali Jedo. Fatimah was a scholar in her own right.

In addition to her Arabic writings, she also wrote poetry in Fulfulde. Her works contain philosophical reflection on life, especially when one attains the ages of fifty, (*Fi-man balagha khamsin*) sixty (*Wa-*

sithin) and seventy (*Wa-sabin*). His second popular work titled: *as-salat ala l-nabi wa-fadail al-dhikhr* (invocation of the prophet and merit of recollection) (Hunwick, 1995:154). Fatimah was a teacher of her own family and her neighbours, she helped in the dissemination of knowledge in her community. She passed on in 1838C.E./1254H after a brief illness that struck her. She had to her credit poetic verses in Fulfulde.

Maryam *bint* 'Uthman b. Fudi (1810—1880)

Maryam *bint* 'Uthman was born around 1810C.E./1225H. She was born into a scholarly family, at time that the seed of jihad started to germinate and the institution of Sokoto caliphate was built. She received traditional Islamic sciences and her early education from her father Shaykh Uthman b. Fudi. Later, her studentship was spent under her elder sister Asma. She and her full brother Isa continued to learn under Asmau till she acquired from her what was sufficient for her. At attainment of puberty, she was married to a son of the Waziri of Sokoto, Gidado dan Laiman, and later to the Emir of Kano, Ibrahim Dabo (Darma, 1985:89—93). Maryam, being a scholar in her own right organised Arabic School in the palace of her husband in Kano. Maryam as a female scholar participated in the Kano State affairs and she was very influential in decision making. To show the depth of her knowledge, the Emir of Kano wrote to consult her about the time of the manifestation of the *Mahdi* when some of his subjects began emigrating eastwards in his expectations (Darma, 1985:89 —93). However, the death of her husband, the Emir of Kano, Ibrahim Dabo made her to return to Sokoto. She composed many poetic works and co-authored a book on traditional medicine with her sister, Asmau. Maryam was classified as a woman saint. She died in 1880 C.E./1296H and left behind five works.

Khadijah *bint* 'Uthman b. Fudi (1782 — 1856 C.E.)

Khadijah *bint* 'Uthman was born into a scholarly family of the Fudis in 1782 C.E. As members of her family were learned, she actually started what could be described as primary education in those days from them. She received her early education from her father. In an account of her studies, given by European scholar, Last (1967:43), she had mastery of Arabic, Fulbe and Hausa languages. She accompanied her father Shaykh 'Uthman b. Fudi: on his hijra from Gobir to Gudu on February 21st, 1804. She was married to al-Mustafa b. Muhammad al-Turudi in the same year of the Hijra. Khadijah *bint* 'Uthman wrote a good deal of poetry in Fulfulde. The themes of her works centered on goodness to parent (*Fi birr al-walidayn*), signs of the appearance of the expected Mahdi (*Fi dhikr alamat zuhur al-mahdi*), jurisprudence (*Fi 'l-fiqh*), elegy (*Fi ritha 'zawjiha al-alim al-Mustafa*), Arabic grammar (*Fi 'l-nahw*) and supplication prayer for Wurnu's village (*al-du'a li qaryat Wurnu*). She was a scholar in her own right. Her son 'Abd al-Qadir b. al-Mustafa was described to Barth in 1853 as the most learned of the present generation of the inhabitants of Sokoto. After an impressive academic life, Khadijah al-Kubrah passed on in 1856 C.E. and left behind six works.

Conclusions

It is evident in this paper that women were involved in academic tradition in Northern Nigeria before the colonial incursion. Though, the literary activities of pre-jihad period were overshadowed by the vast scholarly productions of the male scholars. However, there was a considerable development in literary activities of female scholars in the period that immediately followed *jihad*. The significance underlining the activities is that Muslim women were literate and they participated in academic activities of their time. It is noticeable in this regard that the literary works of female scholars are not only religious themes, but social matters are also treated. Today, the Arabic literary scholars pay fulsome tributes to their contributions to knowledge. In conclusion, this paper reveals that Islam encourages women scholarship and supports women advancement. Hence, the agitation for women empowerment today is in alliance with Islam, but Islam has already provided for it over one thousand four hundred years ago, raising objection to cruelty and discrimination against women.

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Shariah in Nigeria before the Colonial period: A study of Yoruba-Land

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Abstract
Islam and Shariah law were fully introduced in Yoruba-land before the advent of British colonial masters in the area. It was also learnt that Shariah law was implemented in the area. However, the advent of colonialism marks a paradigm shift in the history of Shariah in Nigeria and Yoruba land in particular. This paper discusses the influence of colonialism in the implementation of Shariah law in this part of the world.

Keywords: Shariah, Colonial, Yoruba-Land.

Introduction

History and Geographical Location of Yoruba Land

Yoruba is used to denote people with cultural, social and linguistic identity leaving in West Africa. These people are mainly found in the south-west, Nigeria. Perhaps, this term was applied to them by their connection witj ya'ra Bin Qahatan as reported by Sutan Muhammad Bello.

The *Shariah* and the Meaning

Islam is not merely a religion; it is totally way of life which embraces both religion and secular matters. This fundamental principle is what sets it on a collision course with western practice where religion and secular matters are separate. Because of the strong influence which the west exerts on the world today due to its material and economic pre-eminence. It is misgivings about Islam have translated into world-wide condemnation of systems based on Islam. Nowhere is this condemnation more apparent than in the pathological fear many people have of Shariah. *Shariah* to some persons represents a bundle of barbaric and primitive values and practices. To others, it stands for a legal system whose punishments are inhumane mutilation, savage stoning to death and archaic corporal punishments. And yet to some people this Shariah stands for the explosives in the hands of Muslims fundamentalisms' in the developing countries. While still others regard it as a so-called law of a backward- looking civilization of *Muhammadans*.

The True Meaning of *Shariah*

Shariah is an Arabic word meaning 'to enter', 'to commence', or "to enact'. Literally, it means the way to a watering place but technically, *Shariah* is defined as the path or way to guidance and essence of life. In the religious term, *Shariah* is the code of conduct or cannon law, rules and regulations, which have been prescribed by Allah to regulate all the affairs of Muslims life as individuals and a community. Another definition of *Shariah*, is the way leading to the realization of Allah as the supreme being as well as a guide for Muslims in all their activities. It can also be called the Islamic law, 1 Yoruba are considered as the must uban people in Nigeria and the whole of Africa.[202] They are also found also in Latin America Countries such as Brazil, Cuba and Trinidad and Tobago.

Even in the United State of America, there is a Village called as Oyotunji, which is located near Sheldon. Beaufort country in South Carolina. The village is named after Oyo the ancient capital city of the old Oyo Kingdom. It is recoded that 50 million Yoruba are distributed throughout West Africa and three million plus in both Cuba and United Kingdom.

Furthermore, the Yoruba people dominate the South-western part of Nigeria. The population was approximately 30 million, which was about 21 0/0 of enter Nigeria population. According to Abimbola, some Yoruba are also located in the modern Republics of Benin and Togo and West African and also in Cuba and some Caribbean Countries. Some of the major sentiment in yorubaland is Ibadan, Lagos, Abeokuta, ijebu-Ode, Ado-Ekiti, Osogbo, Ogbomansho, Ilorin, and ile-ife is the popularly accepted

religious-cultural center for all the Yoruba people. The Yoruba nation has several sub-groups like the Ekiti, Ijesa, Oyo, Egba, Ijebu, Yewa and igbomina, Ondo, Akoko and Even the Edos.
Allah (SWT) says:

ثم جعلناك على شريعة من الأمر فاتبعها ولا تتبع أهواء الذين لا يعلمون". "

"We have made for you a law; so, follow it" not the ways of those who know not". (*Qur'an* 45:18).

Brief History of Spread of Islam to Nigeria

The Nigeria- born Muslim scholar sheikh, Abu-*Abdulai Abdul-fattah Adelabu* argued that Islam had reached sub-sahara Africa. Including Nigeria, as early as the 1st Century of *Hijrah* through Muslim traders and expedition during the reign of the Arab conqueror, *ugba bin Nafiu* (622-683) whose conquest under the Umayyad dynasty, in *Amir Muavin* and *yazid* periods, spread all North Africa or *Magrib Al-Arabi*, including present-day Algeria, Tunisia, Libya and Morocco (2) (Abu-Abdullai, 2016).
Islam was fist documented in Nigeria in the 9th century, Islam is believed to have crossed to the borders of West Africa in the eight century, scholars like *ibn Munnabbeh* had written that as early as 738 trades and commerce from northern Africa helped to bolsters the spread of the new religion. Islam was first accepted by the *kanem* ruler *umme jilmi* (1085-1097). He was introduced to Islam by the scholar Ahmed Muhammad Mani. *Umme jilmi* son, *Dunama* 1 (1097-1150) also followed his father interest in Islam, learning and practicing it and was reported to have gone on pilgrimage or hajj. By the reign of *Dunama* 11 (1221-1259), the Kanam Empire had begun correspondence with Tunisia in *Magrib* and in 1257 a Kanam embassy was established in Tunisia, by the famous historian, *ibn khaldun* (Doi, 1984).

By the 14th century, a new capital of *kanuri* had been established in Bornu at *Ngazzaragamu* by Ali *bn Dunama* who was a very keen student of the teachings of Islam. *Mai Idris Aloma* (1570-1602) of Bornu had far-reaching and more extensive, Islamic campaign than his predecessors', building mosques and Islamic schools, thereby strengthening the foothold of Islam in the Bornu-*kanem* axis.(4)

Islam was brought into Hausa land by traders and scholars. About forty *wangarawa* traders are through to be responsible for introducing Islam to Kano during the reign of Ali *Yaji* (1349-1385). *Al-Magili*, famous scholar of his era, brought to *katsina* in the 15th century, similarly, a number of scholars from *sankore* University, *Timbuktu* visited *katsina,* bringing with them books on divinity and etymology.
Another milestone in the spread of Islam into northern Nigeria was the jihad of *Uthman dan fodio.* He was a Fulani man who waged a war for six years (1804-1810) to purify Islam and to eradicate idol worship and purge all forms of distortion and heretical innovation from the religion. He preached the teachings of the *Quran* and *Sunnah* and encourages the Muslims of that time to return to orthodox Islam. This jihad did not only have a religious undertone, it was also political in the sense that it was able to unify the Hausa states under one government (the *Sokoto* Caliphate) administered by the *Shariah law*. This continued until the partition of the caliphate in 1903 and its eventual incorporation into Nigeria, thereby the Sultan power was transferred to High Commissioner. However, many aspects of the Caliphate structure, including the Islamic legal system, were retained and used in the colonial era.(5).

The exact period that Yoruba land came in contact with Islam is still unknown, but historians put it between the 14th and 15th centuries, during the reign of *Mansa Kankan Musa* of the Mali Empire. The first mosque was built in *Oyo-ile* in 1550 AD, although it was meant to serve foreign Muslims in *Oyo* as there were no Oyo Muslims at that time. Islam was known to Yoruba people as *Esin-Imale,* a patronymic reference to Mali. What makes this submission highly probable is the fact that *Dyula* traders from Mali reached the Yoruba kingdom at about that time. Also, some words have been borrowed from Songhai. For example, the Songhai word for a holy man is Alfa, some with Yoruba and the political title of *barakoi-koi* used by Governors in the Bara province in the north inland delta of Songhai in the 16th century and later used by the Commander of the Calvary was adopted by Yoruba as *parakoyi* with similar connotation and political authority (6).

Gradually Islam found a home in Yoruba land and more mosques were built as the mission began to spread. Iwo town led with its first Mosque built in 1655, followed by *Iseyin* in 1760, Lagos in 1744, and Saki in 1790, *Oshogbo* in 1889. Within a short period of time, Islam had spread to other Yoruba states. Several factors were responsible for the influx of Yoruba into the fold of Islam. First was that, at that

time, Islam had spread to the towns outside *Oyo*, so at the time *Oyo* Empire was destroyed, the Muslims who had to relocate were responsible for introducing Islam to their new communities, secondly, there was a heavy flow of trade and immigration into *Yoruba* kingdom at the time, which gave the opportunities of introducing Islam to their hosts. Thirdly, Islam differed in attraction and better adapted to Yoruba social structure because it permitted polygamy (7).

Advent and Development of Islam in *Yoruba* land

The Yoruba's are known in the world for their highly developed art, especially the life bronzes and wood carvings. They are a dynamic people who trace their origin to the city of *ile-ife* which according to E. *Bolaji idowu* is the "ancestral home; the place from which the day dawns; holy city; the home of divinities and mysterious a spirit (8). The *Yoruba* call themselves "son of *Oduduwa*" they believe that *Oduduwa* was their original ancestor and a priest-king of *ile ife*. The legend has it that he got several children "who in due course became the progenitors of the various clans, which taken together, are the *Yoruba* people (9). It is difficult to suggest an exact date when Islam was first introduced in this *Yoruba*-land. It seems that Islam in whatever syncretism from or however scanty in its following, did exist in *Yoruba*-land when Ahmad Baba of *tumbukutu* was writing his book *Alkashaf al bayyan li-Asnaf mahajub al-Suddan.* Islam was already introduced in *Yoruba*-land in the early seventh century. *Al-Alory* says on these issues that early date of the introduction of Islam in this place, he was sayings that the Islam spread to most parts of Nigeria including this place we were discussing. through that Muslims in this place are called *Imale* which the *Al-Alori* said in reference to the religion of Mali since they came to know about this religion from its first day from the traders of Mali presented in *Yoruba* especially in Old Oyo, the Capital of *Yoruba*, it is likely that there were Muslim traders from Mali in Old Oyo and thus Islam was introduced in *Yoruba* country. Peter Morton-Williams also supports this views that the word *Imale* means person of Mali (10)

How *Shariah* Came to Nigeria

Islam as a practical religion and way of life had been a force to reckon with in many parts of what today constitutes the federal Republic of Nigeria. It has a vehicle of development in all facets of human endeavors, such as education, arts of governance and administration of justice for more than two centuries before the appearance of the British in Nigeria. Let us begging from the North-Eastern end where in 1086AD, the Ruler of *kanem* Empire called Hume and better known as *Abdul jalil* embraced Islam not only as a private religion but also as the religion of his court. Right from then and for over eight hundred years to follow Islam continued to gain strength as the rulers were always Muslims. The sixteen centuries was a turning point of expansion and consolidation of the *kanem.* Empire particularly during the reign of *Mai idris Aloma* (1580-1617) who carried out far reaching political reforms in form of reinforcement of Islamic beliefs, laws, customs and practice (11). The *kanems* closet neighbors south of the empire were the Hausa States of *Daura*. *Gobir*, Zaria, *Katsina, Kano, Rano* and *Bilma*. Their counterparts included Ilorin, *yauri*, *korofa, Nupe, Zamfara* and *yumi*. All traced their origin to *Abu yazid* who was identified as a prince from Baghdad". The earliest attempts to carry the banners of Islam to Hausa States dated back to 12th century by groups of Muslim scholars from Mali during the reign of king *yaji* of Kano (1349-1386). A reputable scholar Muhammad Ali-*Maghili* presented *Rumfa*. The ruler of Kano, the books of the principles of administration and the duties of the princes (12).

The neighbors of the Hausas to the south are the Yoruba, like *Abu Yazid, Oduduwa,* the ancestor of the Yoruba's, was reported to have come from far in the east. *Samuel Johnson* and other reliable sources on the History of the Yoruba's traced the origin of Yoruba's to the *Quraish* tribe of *Makkah*. They occupy what lies between the Niger bank in the North and the coast of Atlantic Ocean in the south. They spread virtually from the western coast of the Niger up to the boundary of Nigeria with the Republic of Benin. It was through contracts in form of trade, settlement, war or other actives of the soldiers that the Yoruba's had their earliest contact with Islam through their Hausa and Nupe neighbors, unlike what happened in Bornu and Hausa States, it is difficult to be categorical or precise about the date of entry of Islam to Yoruba land, because it was adopted in the private capacity of the individuals what is fairly certain is that in the seventeen century, mention was made of Muslims in Yoruba land (13).

The Practice of *Shariah* in *Yoruba* Land before Colonial

It has been observed that the impact of the *jihad* and the effect of establishing Muslim empires in the north for a period of one century accounted for why the *Shariah* succeeded in displacing the local native law among the Muslims irrespective of their tribes. It is equally arguable that the absence of the *jihad* or its effect accounts for the lower level of the practice of the *Shariah* in the Yoruba land than in the North among the Muslims. Islam goes to Yoruba land and flourished well ever before the advent of colonial administration, but it remained a private religion. *Shariah* law is practiced in terms of (*Nikah*), (*Mirath*), but in a purely individual and private capacity. It did not receive the sanction of the law of the hand only because the Muslims had not so demanded it in their civil litigations. As their entitlement. The instances of the introduction of *Shariah i*n *Ede, Iwo, Epe* and Lagos at certain periods by some rulers are isolated cases. There is no concrete evidence that it was institutionalized in any of these places (14).

The *Shariah* was not practiced widely in the Yoruba land, but this should not lead us to conclude that it could not have enjoined the sanction of the law in the south. This is because *Shariah* Law forms an integral part of Islamic religion. Whenever there are Muslims. It is implicitly understood that *Shariah* law is already introduced. The constitution of Nigeria does not only recognize but also respect human rights and the full right to practice one's faith as dictated by its tenets. By this implication Muslims in the Yoruba land do not need to agitate or wait for *Shariah* law to be formally enacted in the Yoruba States where their Muslims, before getting their civil matters governed by *Shariah* personal law (15).

The Effect of Colonial Period on *Shariah*

The recognition, respect and encouragement the colonial administration gave, among other reasons. To the fact that it commanded and continues to command the respect of the people. Its adoption as part of the administrative package of indirect rule is an acknowledgment that it was an efficient system and was still capable of being good tool in the hands of the colonial administration to operate popular government and maintain law and order. The retention of *Shariah* and its encouragement as indicated by ordering the colonial administration had confidence in its efficiency and capacity to cope with the changing patterns of the life of the people. There has not been any stronger argument for the introduction of indirect rule than the efficiency of the native pre-colonial system in the Muslim empires of Northern Nigeria. If the colonial authority had the found as well as manpower and attempted to replace the native with English system, it would have been an attempt to nurture in the tropical climate. *Shariah* law in northern Nigeria during the colonial rule was classified under "native law and custom" native law and custom also to include *Shariah* Law too *As "Anderson"* mentioned it in his own book on introduction to *Shariah* law in African, the native law and custom that Islamic law is extensively enforced throughout large areas of west African, particularly Northern Nigeria (16).

Shariah law was recognized because it has become their way of life as the local Native Law and custom was to the people of Northern Nigeria origin who adhered to the tradition religions. The silence of the authority on the applicable law to the Christians logically explained that they do not need any other Law than English Law which fully takes care of their way of life. Marriage Act is an eloquent testimony to this opinion.

Conclusions

As a preamble to our conclusion on the *Shariah* in Nigeria before the Colonial period: a study of Yoruba *l*and, the paper *h*ighlighted some of the importance of the *Shariah* and how was fully established and implemented before the colonial came in to Nigeria we elaborated a little more on how the colonial met *Shariah* and how they wanted to abolished it in our daily life or activities. To ensure the welfare of Nigerian especially Muslims that *Shariah* is ours not for them.

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[1] Abdul-Fatah Kola Makinde, 2007, The Institution of Sharia in Oyo and Osun states, Nigeria, 1890-2005, P hD. Thesis submitted in the Department of Arabic and Islamic studies, University of Ibadan, Nigeria.
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DHIMMAH Contract in Sokoto Caliphate of Nigeria and Contemporary Challenges

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Abstract
The Dhimmah contract as a Sharīʿah provision for the rights of non-Muslims residing in an Islamic state has become controversial in the contemporary period as a result of misconception that an Islamic state is monolithic from religious perspective and therefore, intolerable of non-Islamic faith and belief in her geographical boundary. The objective of this study is to look into the legal rights of non-Muslims in the contemporary period showcasing Sokoto caliphate for contextualization and the colonial and post-independence challenges. To achieve this objective, the paper cast a glance at the emergence of Sokoto caliphate and her religio-political power in nineteenth century, it examines Dhimmah contract in the Islamic legal system and different types of non-Muslims (Ahl Adh-Dhimmah) on which Dhimmah contract are applicable. It moves on to appraise the Dhimmah contract under Sokoto Caliphate during pre-colonial and periods and contemporary challenges. The research methods used in this study are analytical, descriptive and expository. The study concludes that Sokoto caliphate had been running perfect religio-political system and law guiding the rights of her non-Muslim minorities through Dhimmah contract before the advent of British colonial government, religio-political authority of Sokoto Caliphate has been weakened and reduced to mere spiritual and religions affairs in the face of contemporary and modern challenges from the government of the day. Sokoto Caliphate which was initially an Islamic State has now assumed the status of Muslim State due to the contemporary challenges from the Nigerian political system. At last, study recommends that the present Sokoto Caliphate should widen her horizon to cover more rights of Muslims in Nigeria and their relationship with non-Muslims on religious ground in Nigeria. Sokoto Caliphate should set up a jurisprudential and legal body through which the rights of the Muslims and non-Muslim minorities could be decided within the stipulation of constitutional provision in Nigeria.

Keywords: Sokoto Caliphate, *Ahl Adh-Dhimmah*, *Dhimmah* Contract, Non-Muslims, Contemporary Challenges.

Introduction

Islam came to the area engulfed by the Sokoto Caliphate in modern day Nigeria in the eleventh century of Christian era, precisely in 1084 C.E. at old Kanem-Bornu empire during the regime of the eighth ruler of Sayfawa dynasty called Mai Humme Jilmi (1075-1086) who accepted Islam as his personal religion and state religion.[203] Thus, Islam, since the time of Mai Humme Jilmi, provided the Sayfawa rulers the ideological frame work of governance through the formulated constitution popularly, known as *Mune*, which was fashioned out *Sharīʿah* legal principles.[204] From Kanem-Borno, Islam spread to South-western and central parts of Hausaland in the fourteenth century of the Christian era, and by the fifteenth century of the same era, various rulers (*Sarakuna*) of the Hausa states had begun to apply *Sharīʿah* legal principles of governance in the administration of their towns. For instance, during the reign of Muḥammad Rumfa (1393-1399) in Kano, it became an Islamic state he in collaboration with an Islamic scholar, ᶜAbdul-Karīm al-Maghīlī introduced Islamic reforms into Kano political administration in replacement of its previous paganic institution. Thus, Islam spread to the nook and cranny of the Hausaland, not only as a religion but also as a dominant factor in the affairs of the people. Up to the earlier part of the nineteenth century of the Christian era, the trend was that various Hausa rulers at different places and times had carried out reforms in line with the provisions of the Islamic political structure.[205] As time went on, some of the Hausa rulers started involving themselves in religious syncretism, that is the idea of mixing Islam with paganism. ʻUthmān Ibn Fūdī observed that there were number of corrupt and unscrupulous kings had fallen into religious syncretism at the expense of original Islam by either mixing or stepping down Islamic ideas and morals for local superstitutions and practices. It was this struggle that culminated into revival movement spear-headed by ᶜUthmān Ibn Fūdī which was popularly called Hausa-Fulani Jihad of 1804 which was finally led to the formal establishment of Sokoto caliphate in the beginning of nineteenth

[203] . Y.A. "Quadri," *Sharīᶜah:* The Islamic Way of Life", The seventh Ramadan Lecture Organized by the University of Ibadan Muslim Community, Ibadan, 2000, 8.
[204] . M.N. Alkali, "Kanem-Bornu Under the Sayfawa: A Study of Origin, Growth and Collapse of a Dynasty," An unpublished Ph.D. Thesis submitted to the Department of History, Ahmad Bello University, Zaria, 1978, 26-27.
[205] . M.D. Suleiman, Political stability in Nigeria "in *Al-Ijtihad*, the Journal of contemporary Religious Issues, Beyero University Press, Kano, Vol. 2, No.1, 2001, 64.

century of the Christian era.[206] The Sokoto caliphate took up Islamic reforms to some parts of Northern Nigeria and beyond. No wonder, some Islamic political titles are still in use, till the present, in the Northern parts of Nigeria for their political functionaries such as *ᶜAmir (Emir), Wazīr (Waziri), Sulṭān (Sulṭān) al-Qādī (Alkali) et.cetera.* For easier administration and management of the then newly established Sokoto caliphate, it was divided into two emirates namely Western emirate with its capital at Gwandu under the leadership of ᶜAbdullah Ibn Fūdī and Eastern emirate with its capital at Sokoto under the leadership of Sulṭān Muḥammad Bello under the able leadership of ᶜUthmān Ibn Fūdī, the Commander of the faithful *(ᶜAmīru'l-Mu'minīn)*.[207] In 1815 C.E, ,ᶜUthmān Ibn Fūdī retired from the public service and the caliphate was passed to his son, Sulṭān Muḥammad Bello who turned Sokoto into a major religio-political centre of Islamic state in West African State (*Bilādu's-Sudān*) which was popularly known as Sokoto Caliphate. Sokoto caliphate was a loose confederation of emirates that recognized the spiritual and political leadership of the incumbent reigning Sulṭān as *Sarkin Musulumi* (King of Muslims) and *ᶜAmīr Al-Muᶜminīn* (Commander of the faithful) in the areas known today as North-Central, North-East, North-West, South-West and Middle Belt in Nigeria.[208] At the inception stage of Sokoto Caliphate in 1804, it was naturally a multi-cultural, multi-religious and pluralistic environment. Consequentially, her facing challenge was how to go about the status of the non-Muslim minorities in the geographical boundary covered by the caliphate. As an Islamic state, the prototype to be followed in successfully carrying out this public service is to consult *Shari'ah* provision on this in the Qur'ān and *Sunnah* which is known as *Dhimmah* contract.[209] It is on this line that this paper aims at appraising the legal status of *Dhimmah* contract in the Sokoto Caliphate of Nigeria and the contemporary challenges during colonial and post-independence period of caliphate in Nigeria. It is on this line that the paper aims at looking into the status of *Ahl Adh-Dhimmah* in the Sokoto Caliphate during the pre-colonial and post-colonial era and the contemporary challenges.

Dhimmah Contract in the Islamic Legal System

The term *"Dhimmah"* literally means pledge *(Ahd)*, guarantee *(Ḍaman).* Technically, it means protection, care, custody, covenant or compact. Therefore, the term is used to designate the sort of contract through which the Islamic or Muslim State accords hospitality and welfare to the non-Muslims in the state.[210] The term *"Dhimmah"* features twice in the Qur'ān 9 vs 8 and 10. In the Qur'ānic Exegesis of both Qur'ānic verses, Al-Mahālī and As-Suyyūtī define *"Dhimmah"* as mutual agreement.[211] As-Sa'd refers to the term as treaty[212] while Ibn Kathīr also refers to it as pledge or covenant.[213] In short, *Ahl Adh-Dhimmah* are the non-Muslim minorities residing in an Islamic or Muslim State on the agreement of guaranteeing the protection of their life, property and religion. The *Dhimmah* contract is accorded to these categories of non-Muslims from the adherents of divinely revealed religions such as Jews, Christians and Zoroastrians *(Majūs)* to the adherents of non-revealed religions such as Sabi'ans *(Ṣābi'ūn)* and Fetishists *(ᶜAbadatu Al-'Awthān).*[214] By this understanding, the concerned non-Muslims are expected to pay token amount of *Jizyah* (poll tax) on annual basis.[215] This *Dhimmah* contract was *ab.initio* designed to cover only *Ahl Al-Kitāb* (People of the Book) who were mainly the Jews and the Christians, later it was extended to capture the *Majūsiyyūn* (Zoroastrians) on the excuse that they were given divinely-revealed scripture

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[206] . I. Sulaiman, *A Revolution in History: The Jihad of Usman Dan Fodio,* London: Monsell Publishing Limited, 1986, 2.

[207] . A.A. Gwandu, "Aspect of the Administration of Justice in the Sokoto Caliphate and Shaykh Abdullahi Ibn Fodio's Contribution to it" in S.K. Rashid (ed.), *Islamic Law in Nigeria,* Lagos: Islamic Publication Bureau, 1988, 11-12.

[208] . Mashood Omotosho, "Conflict in the Sultanate Institution: Reflections on the Enthronement and Dethronement of the 18th Sulṭān of Sokoto" in Bahawala T. *et. al.* (eds), *The Chieftaincy Institution in Nigeria,* 2010, 382. Also see A.F. Olayiwola, *Islam in Nigeria: One Crescent, Many Focuses*, Nigeria: Sakirabe Publishers, 2007, 30-32.

[209] . See K.A. Adegoke, K.A., "*Ahl Adh-Dhimmah* Under Umayyad and Abbasid Caliphates" in Muhibbu-Din, M. A (ed.), *Ad-Dirāyah, the International Journal of Islamic Studies,* Department of Islamic Studies, Nasarawa State University, Keffi, Nigeria.Vol. 8, No. 1, 2017 119-133.

[210] . A.I. Doi, *Non-Muslims Under Sharīᶜah,* New York: International Graphic, 1981, 21.

[211] . J.M.A. Al-Mahali & J.A.A. As-Suyyuti, *Tafsir al-Qur'ān al-'Azim* Bayrut: Dar al-Fikr, 1991, 139.

[212] . A.N. As-Sa'di, *Taysir al-Karim ar-Rahman fi Tafsir Kalam al-Manan,* Bayrut: Taba'ah ar-Risālah, 2000, 230.

[213]. A.H. Ibn Kathīr, *Tafsir al-Qur'ān al-'Azim,* Bayrut: Dar al-Fikr, 1997, Vol. 2, 380-381.

[214] . This view of Hanafi is supported by Ibn Kathīr in his *Tafsir* of the Qur'ān 9 vs 8 & 10. For more information on this, see S.S. Hussain, "Status of non-Muslims in an Islamic State" in *Hamdard Islamicus* Vol. XVI, Spring 1993, No. 1, 68.

[215] . Ibn al-Qayyim al-Jawziyyah, *Ahkam Ahl adh-Dhimmah* Libnan: Dar al-Kutub 'Ilmiyyah, Juz 1, 25-28 and R.L. Nettler Dhimmi" in J.L. Esposito (ed.), in *The Encyclopedia of the Modern Islamic World,* New York: Oxford University Press, 1995, Vol. 1, 374.

popularly called *Avesta*. And that was the reason why Prophet Muḥammad (S.A.W.) and the rightly guided Caliphs *(Khulafā' Ar-Rāshidīn)* extended the *Dhimmah* contract to them by collectng *Jizyah* from them. During the caliphate periods of Umayyad and Abbasid, the *Dhimmah* contract was extended to various categories of non-Muslims residing in an Islamic state without considering their faith and belief as a result of wide expansion of Islamic empire. It was through this channel that various polytheistic religions belonging to *Ahl Al-Awthān* or *ᶜAbadat Al-Awthān* (idolators) found their way into *Dhimmah* contract in the Islamic empire[216]

***Dhimmah* Contract and Non-Muslim Minorities**

The non-Muslim minorities under *Dhimmah* contract could be classified into three categories as regard their status, condition and the circumstance surrounding their residing in an Islamic state. They are *Dhīmmī* (Contractee), *Maghlūb* (Conquered) and *Musta'min* (Trustee).

i. *Dhīmmī* (Contractee)

The *Dhīmmī* are the non-Muslim minorities residing in an Islamic state on the basis of their treaty or covenant with the government of the Islamic state on mutual agreement that the state would guarantee the security, safety and protection of their life, property and religion. This is the reason why they are referred to as *Ahl al-Muᶜāhidah* (Covenanted People). As a result of this service, they are liable to pay the annual tribute of *Jizyah* to the treasury of the Islamic state. According to the Shāfi'ī school of legal thought (*Madh-hab*), the *Dhīmmī* legal status should be accorded and limited to only *Ahl Al-Kitāb* (People of the Book) who are no other people than *Yahudiyyūn* (Jews), *Naṣraniyyūn* (Christians) and *Majūsiyyūn* (Zoroastrians).[217] The schools (*Madhāhib*) of legal thought of Ḥanafī, Malikī and Ḥanbalī disagree with the jurisprudence opinion of Shāfi'ī school of legal thought, they argue that Qur'anic directive does not limit *Dhimmah* contract to *Ahl Al-Kitāb* alone but extending it to other non-Muslim minorities irrespective of their faith as soon as they agree to submit themselves to the authority of Islamic state as pointed out in Qur'ān 9:29 which goes thus;

> *Fight those who believe not in Allah, nor in the last Day, nor forbid that which Allah and His Messenger have forbidden, nor follow the religion of truth, out of those who have been given the book, until they pay the tax in acknowledgement of superiority and they are in a state of subjection.*

Ḥanafī school of legal thought added that the *Dhīmmī* legal status should not be accorded to a fetishist in the Arabian land because the whole peninsula had embraced Islam during the first century of Islam, which means that such a fetishist might be an apostate (*Murtad*) who left Islam for other faith. [218]

ii. *Maghlūb* (Conquered)

These are the conquered or defeated group of non-Muslims after their engagement in war or battle with an Islamic state and they are eventually being overpowered and subdued. As a result of the conquest, the boundary of Islamic state would be extended to their boundary and they automatically become people of *Dhimmah* contract who will be paying the annual tribute of *Jizyah* (poll tax) into the purse of the Islamic state and their lives, property and places of worship will be protected under Islamic state. Having being covenanted under *Dhimmah* contract, *Maghlūb* should neither be treated as war captives or prisoners of war nor be subjected to undue harassment and harsh treatment in the Islamic state.[219]

iii. *Musta'min* (Entrusted)

These are non-Muslim minorities who purposely reside in an Islamic state for a short period of time. Such non-Muslims may be ambassadors, consulates, tourists, expatriates, foreigners, temporary sojourners, resident aliens opted voluntarily to live in an Islamic state or be granted the right of residing in an Islamic

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[216] . A.D. Muztar, "Dhimmis in an Islamic State" in *Islamic Studies,* the Journal of Islamic Research Institute, Vol. XVIII, No. 1, Pakistan Spring, 1979, 68. See C.L. Cahan "Dhimmah" in B. Lewis *et. al.* (eds), The Encyclopedia of Islam, Neitherland, n.p., 1920, 223-228.

[217] . M.A. Muhibbu-Din, "*Ahl Al-Kitab* and Religious Minorities in the Islamic State: Historical Context and Contemporary Challenges, in *Journal of Muslim Minority Affairs,* Vol. 20, No. 1, 2000, 121-122. Also see R.L. Nettler, "*Dhimmi*" in J.L. Esposito (ed.) The Encyclopedia of the Modern Islamic World, New York: Oxford University Press, 1995, Vol. 1, 374.

[218]. Ibn Al-Qayyim Al-Jawziyyah, *Ahkam Ahl Adh-Dhimmah,* Libnan: Dar al-Kutub ᶜIlmiyyah, Juzi, pp.25-28.

[219] .P.K. Hitti, History of the Arabs, United Kingdom: Macmillan Publishers, 1984, p.234.

state for a certain period of time. This kind of non-Muslim minorities has to enter into a treaty with an Islamic state to maintain peace and abide with the constitution of Islamic state. Their life, property and faith are well protected under the treaty known as *ᶜAman* (trusteeship). The annual tribute of *Jizyah* or land tax of *Kharaj* are not levied on the *Musta'min* since their stay in an Islamic state is temporary, but the trade tax may be levied on them if they engage in business or they solely come to the Islamic state for business.[220]

Dhimmah Contract under Sokoto Caliphate during Pre-Colonial Period

Sokoto caliphate, though a Hausa-Fulani aristocracy, was a revolutionary Islamic state operating *Sharī'ah* law as the supreme law of the land and Islam as a state religion. Thus, social justice, public welfare, human freedom and dignity became the cornerstone of the principles and philosophies of the caliphate in all spheres of her religio-political activities.[221] Some parts of Sokoto caliphate were occupied by both Muslims and non-Muslim minorities *(Ahl-adh-Dhimmah)* who were mainly Fetishists (cults) popularly referred to as *Harne* (*ᶜAbadatu'l-Awthān*). These non-Muslims were loosely found around the places like Kafancha, Jos, Zango, Kataf, Adamawa, Taraba, Kashashen, Okenne, Bauchi and some Yoruba towns like Ilorin, Offa, Osogbo, Ibadan, Ijebu, Epe, Ikorodu, Eko and Badagry. These non-Muslim communities were living peacefully with Muslims under the Islamic administration of the Sokoto caliphate.[222] The people of authority in the Sokoto caliphate (Hausa-Fulani), in their own thought, saw the above-mentioned non-Muslim areas as an abode of people who were not civilized as they were neither attached with any particular religion nor law guiding their way of life. The caliphate interacted with these non-Muslims on social, economic, religious and political affairs in their respective environments. Having accessed to the *Dhimmah* legal contract, some of these non-Muslims under Sokoto caliphate accepted Islam out of their self-conviction while others who still clung firmly to their faith were not socially, economically, religiously and politically intimidated. In some of the subdued non-Muslim dominated areas which were later annexed to the Sokoto caliphate, the non-Muslims in those areas were given the free hand to practise their faith and appoint their rulers among themselves. Some of the traditional rulers in these areas such as Kafancha, Zango, Kataf, Jos, Kashashen, Bauchi, Taraba, Adamawa *et.cetera*, are non-Muslims up till the present time.[223] In 1824, the then Shehu of Borno, Muḥammad Al-Amīn Al-Kanemī wrote a letter to Sultan of Sokoto caliphate, Sulṭān Muḥammad Bello asking the latter to allow and guarantee the security of the British tourists who wanted to visit Sokoto as part of place of tourism in the lands of black African (*Bilād As-Sūdān*). According to the letter,[224] those travelers were requested

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[220] . A.I. Doi, *Non-Muslims Under Sharīᶜah*, U.S.A: International Graphics, 1981, p.23.

[221] . K.A. Adegoke, "Islam and Chieftaincy Institution in the Sokoto Caliphate" in Babawale, T. *et. al., The Chieftaincy Institution in Nigeria*, 2010, p.318.

[222] . S. Banfa, "Aspect of Religious Conflict and co-Existence of between Muslims and Non-Muslims in Pre-colonial Northern Nigeria, a paper presented at the 32nd Annual Congress of the Historical Society of Nigeria, Jos, 1987, p.13.

[223] . Suleiman, p.65.

[224] . For more information of this letter, see the content of the letter from the then Shehu of Borno, Muḥammad Al-Amīn Al-Kanemī to Sulṭān Muḥammad Bello, the then leader of Sokoto Caliphate;

Letter from Shehu of Borno to Sulṭān Muḥammad Bello dated 23RD RABIᶜUL-THĀNI, 1238 AH / JANUARY, 1824.

Praise be to God, and prayers and peace be unto the Apostle of God (Muḥammad).

To the honoured and accomplished, the virtuous, and munificient, the pattern of goodness and the standard of benevolence, head of the Sudanic kingdom, and ruler of the country of Hausa, our friend, the learned Muḥammad Bello, son of the intelligent, Shehu Uthmān Ibn Fūdī, whose soul may God shelter with the clouds of mercy and peace.

Our salutation, accompanied with affection as strong as the odour of musk, and as perpetual as the movement of the globe, and with the mercy and blessing of God, be unto you.

Hence, the cause of this writing this letter and the purpose of its lines, is to acquaint you that the bearer are English travelers; whose nation, out of all the other Christians, has maintained with the Muslimīn uninterrupted treaties of religious amity and friendship, established since ancient periods, which they inherited from their forefathers and ancestors; and on this account, they penetrate into Muslim countries whenever they please, and transverse all provinces and lands in confidence and trust, without fear. They came to our country, sent to us by our virtuous and accomplished friend, the Lord, Yusuf Pasha, master of Tripoli, to see and delight themselves the wonders of the land of Sudan, and to become acquainted with its rarities, as lakes, rivers and forest; equal to to which are seldom seen in other countries.

After having accomplished their wishes, in seeing all the things that the land of Borno and its environs contained, they felt anxious to visit your country from what they heard of the innumerable wonders therein. I have, therefore, permitted to proceed on their journey, accompanying them with letters which explain their object.

You are well aware of what is stated in Al-Quran saying upon the subject of the observance of honour, dictated by our Lord, the Apostle of God, and that the true Muslims have always avoided the shedding of the blood of Christians, and assisted and protected them with their honour. Be then attentive to these travelers, and cast them not into the corners of neglect; let no one hurt them,

to be accorded the *Dhimmah* contract of *Musta'minūn* (Entrusted). This development ushered in a new type of an era of non-Muslim minorities who are Christians into the Sokoto caliphate.

Dhimmah Contract under Sokoto Caliphate during Colonial Period

The advent of Royal Niger Company (RNC) in 1891 in Bornu, one of the Islamic provinces un Sokoto caliphate, brought up agreement between the son and successor of Shehu Muḥammad Al-Amīn Al-Kanemī in person of ᶜUmar Ibn Muḥammad Al-Amīn Al-Kanemī and the British agent of Royal Niger Company was that they should be granted the *Dhimmah* contract of *Musta'minūn* since they are Christian expatriates in Sokoto caliphate.[225] The advent of colonial imperialists in the Sokoto caliphate towards the end of nineteenth century gave way to the conversion of some Fetishists into Christianity as a result of moral and financial supports that the colonial government gave to the evangelization of Christian missionary and western education in all of her colonies in Africa. Some non-Muslims in Bauchi, Jos, Adamawa, Taraba, Zango, Kataf Lokoja, Kataf, Igala *et.cetera* got converted into Christianity through the missionary activities and inordinate ambition of some of the people in those areas to acquire western education.[226] Despite this development, Sokoto caliphate still maintained the *Dhimmah* contract of these convertees (into Christianity) as they were recognised as non-Muslims residing under the authority of an Islamic state.[227] In the Sokoto caliphate, the non-Muslim minorities (*Ahl adh-Dhimmah*) are classified into three namely:[228]

(i)The non-Muslims who are residing in a *Dāru'I-'Islām* (Abode of Islam) that is Islamic state (*Dhīmmī*).
(ii)The non-Muslims who are residing in a *Dāru's-Salām* (Abode of peace) that is submissive or conquered state (*Maghlūb*).
(iii)The non-Muslims who are residing in a *Dāru'l-Ḥarb* (Abode of war) that is antagonist non-Islamic state (*Kuffār*).

In *Sharī'ah*, those non-Muslims who are residing in both *Dāru'I-'Islām* and *Dāru's-Salām* are eligible to be accorded with *Dhimmah* contract while those non-Muslims in *Dāru'l-Harb* should not be accorded at all since they do not subdue themselves to the hegemony of an Islamic state. Such antagonist non-Islamic state *(Dāru'l-Harb)* should be fought by an Islamic state until they either submit themselves to the authority of Islamic State or pay *Jizyah*, a token fee of submission to the purse of State.[229]

Sokoto Caliphate and _Dhimmah_ Contract: Colonial and Post-Independence Challenges

British colonial government came in contact with Sokoto Caliphate in 1891 when they set up a consulate under Consul-General and Vice-Consul. They raised military force popularly known as the Niger Constabulary and put it under the Trading Company under the name of Royal Niger Company. In 1894, Sir Frederick Lord Lugard was sent to the Sokoto caliphate as Consul-General by the office of the British Colony in London. His coming to the Sokoto caliphate paved way to the revocation of the charter of the Royal Niger Company on 1st January, 1900 which led to the re-naming of boundary of Sokoto caliphate with new name 'Northern Protectorate'. With the proclamation of the Northern Protectorate, the Royal Niger Company's Charter was revoked. Sir Lord Lugard was promoted to become the High Commissioner for the Northern Protectorate (formerly Sokoto caliphate).[230] On his resumption to the

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either by words or deeds, nor interrupt them with any injurious behaviour; but let them return to us, safe and may the high God bestow upon you the best reward for your treatment to them, and insure to us and to you the path of righteousness for conduct in this life.
Our salutation may be given to allwho are about you, and to those who are related to you in general. And peace be unto you.
Sealed
Muhammad Al-Amin Al-Kanemi.

[225] . Quadri, p.8.
[226] . S.W. Junaidu, Resistance to Western Culture in the Sakkwato Caliphate: A lesson to Generations yet unborn" in A.M. Kani & K.A. Gandi, (eds.), *State and Society in the Sokoto Caliphate,* Sokoto: Usman Danfodiyo University Press, 1960, p.239.
[227] . *Ibid*.
[228] . Sulaiman, p.111.
[229] . Ibid p.121. The assertion is supported by M.A. Ajetunmobi in his comment on Abdul Hamid Abu Sulyman "Article: *"Al-Dhimman* and Related Concepts in Historical Perspective, Vol. ix: No.1. in *Journal Institute of Muslim Minority Affairs,* Vol. 10, No. 2, July, 1989, p.371.
[230] . Leo Dare & Anthony Oyewole, *A Textbook of Government for Senior Secondary School,* Ibadan: Omobonoje Press Book Industries Nigeria Ltd, 1995, p.89.

office of High Commissioner of the Northern Protectorate, Sir Lord Lugard discovered that the Sokoto caliphate had already had her own well-organised system of political administration under the authority of a formidable political leader (Sulṭān of Sokoto) with the state capital in Sokoto city. Having observed the efficiency and well-established machinery of the caliphate system of governmental administration, Lord Lugard decided to make use of this system through the principle of Indirect Rule. Principle of Indirect rule was the system of government through which British colonial government was ruling the Northern Nigerians through the indigenous authority (Emirate local council). Therefore, the Emirs could make laws and punish offenders within the legal jurisdiction recognized by the British colonial administration. By this, the main duty of the colonial officers in the principle of Indirect Rule would be limited to mere general monitoring and supervision of the administration of the caliphate.[231] Due to this development, the ideological conflict would be inevitable because of the different legal and religious background of the colonial officers and indigenous leaders in the caliphate. This was the reason for the challenges encountered by the colonial officers in their earlier penetration into Sokoto caliphate in the nineteenth century. The resistance mounted by Sokoto caliphate against colonial government was instigated by the legal and religious factors. The leaders or rulers of towns and cities under Sokoto caliphate were seen as spiritual and political heads in their geo-political emirates in which Islam and *Sharīᶜah* were the only recognized state religion and state legal system respectively.[232] As a result of this, these indigenous rulers refused to recognize and co-operate with the colonial officers whom, to them, were infidels (*Kāfirūn/Kuffār*) and they should be treated as *Musta'minūn* (Entrusted) in an Islamic state. That was the reason why the Sultan of Sokoto caliphate refused to sign treaty of friendship with them. Consequentially, Lord Lugard had no other option rather than launching systematic attack on the Sokoto caliphate which led to the death of Sulṭān Attahiru in 1903. Every successful military expedition of Lord Lugard brought the appointment of a colonial officer whose duty was to set up principle of Indirect rule for the monitoring and supervision of the administration of Emirs and Sulṭāns. Most of the incumbent Emirs who did not co-operate with British colonial officers were deposed and exiled to Lokoja at the time of the conquest of their respective cities which were previously under the authority of Sokoto caliphate.[233]

As if this was enough, British colonial administration penetrated into the legal system of the Sokoto caliphate. They subjugated the Islamic law (*Sharīᶜah)* to the British repugnancy clause which vividly revealed the incompatibility of the *Sharīᶜah* law and British common law. This British Repugnancy clause accommodated the validity of *Sharīᶜah* law on the provision that it would neither contradict the British Common law nor be repugnant to the British conception of natural justice. In order to achieve this aim, British colonial administration established the Supreme Court of Ordinance which would exercise all the jurisdictions and which its powers is vested in the Queen's High Court of Justice in England which is to administer the common law, doctrine of equity and statutes of general application which were in force in England. From 1903, the Sokoto caliphate which was re-named Northern Protectorate was subjugated to the British Rule of Law till the 1st October, 1960 when the whole country of Nigeria got her independence.[234]

The attainment of independence of Nigeria in 1960 from the British Colonial administration could not restore the Sokoto Caliphate's sovereignty and supremacy of *Sharīᶜah* law over British common law which is recognized as constitution of the country. This development consequently caused a great havoc to the *Dhimmah* contract as granted by the *Sharīᶜah* law and sovereignty of Islamic state as the Penal Code and Criminal Procedure Code which are in contradiction with common law which is adopted in place of Islamic Criminal Law (*Hudūd*).[235] As at present, Sokoto Caliphate has lost her sovereignty to the

[231] . Ahmed Rufai Mohammed, "The Exiled Emirs and their Activities in Lokoja (1900-1949)" in *journal of the Historical Society of Nigeria,* vol. xii, Nos 1 & 2, December 1995 & June 1996, p.179.

[232] . Kazeem A. Adegoke, "Islam and Chieftaincy Institution in the Sokoto Caliphate" in Tunde Babawale, Akin Alao & Bimbo Adesoji (eds.), *The Chieftaincy Institution in Nigeria*, Nigeria: Centre for Black and African Arts and Civilization (CBAAC), 2010, 318-319.

[233] . Sulaiman M. Jamiu, "Colonial Impact on the Application of *Sharī'ah* in Nigeria: in *Journal of Nigerian Association of Teachers of Arabic and Islamic Studies,* Vol. 6, No.1, Sept. 2001, 27.

[234] . Sulaiman M. Jamiu, "Colonial Impact on the Application of *Sharī'ah* in Nigeria, …….27-28.

[235] . K.K. Oloso, "Moonsighting or Astronomical Calculation: Towards Uniformity of Muslim Festivals in Nigeria" in Olusegun Oladipo, *Ibadan Journal of Humanistic Studies,*Nos 9 & 10, 1999-2000, 98. Also see O. Vaughan, "War on the Savannah: The

government of the day which is proto-type of western democratic political system, a blue print of British colonial administration. The religio-political authority of Sokoto caliphate has been drastically reduced to ceremonial and religions affairs. The spiritual authority of Sokoto caliphate is merely retained and given recognition among the Nigerian Muslims as the reigning Sulṭān of Sokoto becomes the life President of Nigerian Supreme Council for Islamic Affairs (NSCIA) since 1946 with the duty of notifying the Nigerian Muslims of the day of commencement of annual obligatory fasting of Ramadan, the day of its termination and the days of the two festival days of *ᶜId al-Fiṭr* and *ᶜId Al-Adhā*.[236] Therefore, the Sokoto Caliphate has little or nothing to say about the affairs of the contemporary non-Muslims under her jurisdiction as the western stereo-typed government of the day has taken care of this service. Apart from this fact, these non-Muslims are not even seen themselves as People of *Dhimmah* contract (*Ahl Adh-Dhimmah*) under the religio-political authority of the Sokoto caliphate. Those non-Muslims, more or less, see themselves as Nigerian citizens under the federation of a sovereign nation of Nigeria. The incessant division of Nigeria into several states in 1967, 1975, 1991 and 1996 gradually broke-up the territorial boundary of the Sokoto caliphate into several independent states. Some of original emirates which were previously under the caliphate are presently found themselves in different states within the federation of Nigeria. Presently, territorial boundary of the Sokoto caliphate has been drastically reduced to cover only the geographical boundary of Sokoto State of Nigeria which comprises Sokoto city and few emirate local councils within the state. Hence, the national motto of the Sokoto State reads "Seat of the Caliphate". This development weakened the authority of the Sulṭān of the Sokoto caliphate over the various emirates which were previously under her.[237] By this development, Sokoto caliphate has now assumed the status of Muslim State since the areas presently covered by the caliphate are Muslim-dominated environment. Non-Muslims in those areas have no religio-political allegiance with the caliphate since they are sharing Islamic belief and there is constitutional provision for them that they have right to live or reside in any part of the federation of Nigeria without religious and political discrimination for any reason whatsoever. This religio-political decline of Sokoto caliphate has been partially counter-balanced by the present increased emphasis of religious leadership in Nigeria at national level. Sulṭān of Sokoto caliphate has been, most of the time, engaged in spiritual and administrative national concern in the country.

Sokoto caliphate moved a giant step in the year 2000 despite the fact that her religio-political role of leadership has been seriously curtailed to only religious and spiritual aspects. Some Northern states which recognized the religious and spiritual leadership of Sokoto caliphate came out with the aim of expansion of the *Sharīᶜah* legal system to cover both private and criminal matters as well as the rights and freedom of non-Muslims under their jurisdiction.[238] The bill concerning this development was passed into law by the legislative houses of Assembly of some Northern states of the federation. Amidst a lot of controversy surrounding this development from various non-Muslims in Nigeria as regard the rights and freedom of their fellow members in some of these Northern states, the Sokoto caliphate under the Sulṭānate of the immediate-past Sulṭān Muḥammad Maccido came out openly as the voice of Muslim Communities in Nigeria and the life President of Supreme Council for Islamic Affairs of Nigeria (SCIAN), made it known that expansion of *Sharīᶜah* in any state of federation would not in any way infringe on the rights and freedom of the non-Muslims.[239] He added that *Sharīᶜah* legal system is not a new system as well as African communities concerned because it had been in operation since the inception of Islam in West Africa in the tenth century of Christian era and there is no a single reference in the history where *Sharīᶜah*

Military Collapse of the Sokoto Caliphate under the Invasion of the British Empire, 1897-1903", in *Canadian Journal of History*, 2000, 55.

[236] . Kazeem A. Adegoke, "*Ikhtilāf*on Moon Sighting Among Nigerian Muslims Within the Framework of *Sharī'ah*" in Jimoh, S. L (ed.), Contemporary Muslims' Beliefs and Practices: Between Orthodoxy and Syncretism,*Al-Hadara LASU Journal of Arabic and Islamic Studies* (Special Edition), Department of Religions and Peace Studies, Lagos State University, 2013, 144-145.

[237] . Omotosho, "Conflict in the Sultanate Institution … p.384.

[238] . *The News*, "Keg of Gunpowder: Sharia comes into effects at last in Zamfara State Amidst Fears by Nigerians" 8th November, 1999, p.3.

[239] . K.A. Adegoke, Rights of *Ahl Adh-Dhimmah* in Islamic State, an Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis submitted to the Department of Religions, University of Ilorin, 2006, p.170.

jeopardize the rights, freedom and peace of non-Muslims.[240] Coming to Nigeria, the constitutional provisions, since the independence, also recognized this fact as there are *Sharīʿah* columns in these constitutions which can facilitate the smooth dispensation of justice for both Muslims and non-Muslims in the country.

Conclusions

The paper finds out that:

(i)Sokoto caliphate had been running perfect religio-political system and law safeguiding the social and religious life of her non-Muslim minorities through *Dhimmah* contract before the advent of British colonial government.

(ii)religio-political authority of Sokoto Caliphate has been weakened and reduced to mere spiritual and religions rights in the face of contemporary and modern challenges from the government of the day.

(iii)Sokoto Caliphate which was *ab initio* an Islamic State has now assumed the status of Muslim State due to the contemporary challenges from the Nigerian political system.

Recommendations

Based on these findings, the paper recommends that:

(i)The present Sokoto Caliphate as a Muslim pressure group in Nigeria should widen her horizon to cover Muslims - non-Muslims relations in order to avoid religious crisis in the country.

(ii)Sokoto Caliphate should set up a jurisprudential and legal body through which would look into and codify some of the *Shari'ah* columns in the constitutional provision of Nigeria.

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الرحلة فى الأدب العربي النيجيري: دراسة تحليلية نقدية

The travelogue in Nigeria Arabic Literature: A Critical Analytical study

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الملخص

تعدّ الرحلة فنا جديدا ونهضة أدبية حديثة في مسرح الأدب العربي النيجيري. بدأ هذا الفن ينال اهتمام علماء نيجيريا منذ القرن العشرين الميلادي، وكان هولاء العلماء يبيّنون أحداث سفرهم خارج البلاد، ويكتبون الأشياء التي وجدوها ويسجلونها كما سمعوها من أهالي البلاد التي سافروا إليها. ولقد سافر عدد من علماء هذه البلاد إلى البلدان العربية المختلفة، أمثال المملكة العربية السعودية، ومصر، وتونس، والمغرب، والجزائز، وليبيا، والسودان، ونحوها. وزار بعضهم الأراضي الأفريقية الغربية كالسنغال ومالي والنيجر، وكانت هذه الزيارات مما فتح عيون علماء نيجيريا ليروا ما يحدث في بيئة غير بيئتهم، وليشهدوا ما في مجتمع غير مجتمعهم النيجيري. وفي أثناء تدوين الرحلة كان علماؤنا يصفون الأماكن والشخصيات التي قابلوها، ويبيّنون الآثار الاجتماعية والجغرافية، ويشيرون إلى اختلاف اللهجات واللغات والمأكولات. ذلك ليبرهنوا للقراء مدى احتكاكهم بأهالي البلاد التي سافروا إليها وتمكنهم في اللغة العربية.

الكلمات المفتاحية: الرحلة، الأدب، النقد، الدراسة، نيجيريا

Abstract

Travelogue is considered as modern art and literary reneisance in Nigerian Arabic literature. This Art started drawing the attention of Nigerian Scholars in the twentieth century as they travelled abroad and saw variety of things and encountered challenges that fascinated to put those experiences in whites and blacks to benefit their people when they returned home. They embark on voyage to many Arab states: The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Egypt, Tunisia, Morocco, Algeria, Libya, Sudan, and the likes. Some of them also travelled to many African countries such as; Senegal, Mali and Niger. This travelogue has indeed exposed Nigerians Scholars to various things that occur in another society; they have in the course of recording their trips described places and personalities they met with together with social and geographical monument, they also gave insights on diversity of dialects, language and foods, to show to the readers how much they have mingled with the people of various places they have visited.

Keywords: Travelogue, Literature, Criticisim, Study, Nigeria.

المقدمة

بدأ علماء اللغة العربية في نيجيريا منذ مطلع القرن العشرين الميلادي يدونون أخبار رحلاتهم وأمور أسفارهم، ويقتدون بالرحالة العرب في هذا التدوين، ومن أعلام الرحلة الذين يقتدون بهم علماء هذه البلاد: أحمد يعقوب اليعقوبي (ت 278ه/891م) صاحب كتاب "البلدان"، وأبو القاسم محمد بن حوقل (ت 367ه/977) مؤلف كتاب "صورة الأرض"، وأبو عبد الله المقدس (ت 390ه/999م) مصنف "أحسن التقاسيم في معرفة الأقاليم"، وأبو عبد الله محمد بن إبراهيم الطنجي المعروف بابن بطوطة (ت 770ه/1368م) صاحب "تحفة النظار في غرائب الأمصار وعجائب الأسفار" وأمثالهم. كان من بين علماء نيجيريا نفر مالوا بطبيعتهم وذوقهم إلى هذا الفن، وبذلوا جهدا كبيرا في تسجيل أحداث رحلاتهم ووقائع أسفارهم، وأعطوا هذا الفن ما يعطيه الرحالة العرب من مواد مشوقة وثروات تراثية ونحوها. وفي هذه الورقة سنحاول أن نصب اهتمامنا على الطريق التي سلكها أدب الرحلة النيجيري إلى نشأة وبداية، وندرس باقتصار حياة أعلام هذا الفن في نيجيريا مع الإشارة إلى بعض إنتاجاتهم الشعرية والنثرية، وعند الإتيان بالنصوص المختارة للدراسة نضرب المثل ببعض قصائد علماء هذه البلاد وكتاباتهم، لندعم بذلك الحجة على مدى تضلعهم ومقدرتهم في هذا الفن، وننهج في دراستنا هذه المنهج الفني حيث نركّز على القيم الفكرية والأسلوبية والمصاحبة اللغوية، وفي خاتمة المطاف نلخص مضمون الورقة. والله يوفق ويهدي إلى النجاح والفلاح.

نشأة الرحلة في الأدب العربي النيجيري

يحسن بنا هنا أن نشير إلى أن لكلمة الرحلة أسماء مختلفة منها، الانتقال أو النزول أو الهبوط لأن الإنسان الأول الذي قام بالرحلة من مكان إلى مكان آخر هو أبونا آدم عليه الصلاة والسلام، إذ نزل هذا النبي من السماء أو هبط منها إلى أرض الدنيا، ومن هنا نفهم أن الرحلة هي كل حركة الترحل أو الارتحال أو الانتقال. والمرتحل نقيض المحل[241] ولهذا يقول الشاعر الجاهلي الأعشي:

[241] - لويس معلوف: **المنجد في اللغة والأعلام**، المكتبة الشرقية، ساحة النجمة، ص. ب 1986م، بيرزت – لبنان، ط1 مادة رحل، ص 253.

ودع هريرة إن الركب مرتحل ** فهل تطيق وداعا أيها الرجل[242].

وعلى هذا المدلول اللغوي اعتمد عبد الرحمن فهمي في وصف أدب الرحلة وقال هو: عبارة عن تجسيد فني لتطور الإنسان الفكري، والديني، والعلمي، والثقافي، والسياسي، غايته التعبير الخاص عن الإنسان الاجتماعي، والإنسان المطلق، وظيفته البحث الدقيق في جوهر الحياة واكتشاف العلم وفهمه ودفع حركة تقدم الإنسان واستشراق مستقبل أفضل[243].

والمتأمل في هذه الفقرة يدرك أن أدب الرحلة يحتوي على عدد من فنون العلم والأدب، ولا يتردد في أن العلماء الذين يكتبون عن أمور الرحلة إنما كانوا ينتجون لنا العلم والأدب معا، والواقع أن أدب الرحلة في نيجيريا كان على غرار ما كان عليه عند العرب، لأن علمائنا يكتبون هذا الأدب شعرا حينا ونثرا حينا آخر، ويبذلون قصاري جهدهم في وصف المظاهر الطبيعية، والظروف الاجتماعية والأوضاع السياسية ونحو ذلك مما يمت إلى رحلاتهم وأسفارهم بصلة.

ومن الصعوبة بمكان أن نعرف بالضبط وقت بداية هذا الفن فى الأدب العربي النيجيري، لأن المراجع التى بأيدينا لم تذكر لنا شيئا عن ذلك، وأغلب الظن أن هذا الفن بدأ على يدي الحجاج القدماء الذين مرّوا إلى الحج ويجتازون بالسودان ومصر قبل وصولهم إلى الحجاز، كما كان الفضل لأبناء نيجيريا الذين تعلموا فى مسجد الجيلاني بتوات الجزائر، وبجامعة سَنْكَوْرَى بتمبكتو وتلمذوا على أعلامها أمثال الشيخ أبى العباس أحمد بابا التمبكتى والشيخ مخلوف البلبالى الذى درس أخيرا فى كنو وكتشينا[244]. وفي المعلومات التي بأيدينا قرأنا أن علمائنا فى القرن التاسع عشر الميلادى لعبوا أدوارا هامة فى نشر الثقافة العربية الإسلامية بنيجيريا وفى غرب إفريقيا، وقد ساعدتهم على ذلك كثرة قراءاتهم ورحلاتهم إلى أماكن العلم والأدب. وفى كتاب تزيين الورقات للأستاذ عبد الله بن فودى جاء ذكر بعض أسفار علماء القرن التاسع عشر الميلادي، ورحلاتهم العلمية وغير العلمية، وأصيبت هذه الرحلات بضعف أخيرا لأن علماء تلك الفترة اشتغلوا بالجهاد في سبيل الله، الأمر الذى جعل الشيخ عثمان بن فودي وأتباعه أن يرسلوا قصائد المدح والاعتذار إلى الشيخ محمد المختار الكنتي في مناسبة عدم رحلاتهم إليه، أو عدم تمكنهم بزيارته في بلده، وفي إحدى قصائدهم يقول الشيخ عثمان:

بلّغ تـحياتى إلـى الـمختار ** سراجنا فـى هـذه الأمصـار
وقـل لـه ليدع بالـخيرات ** فـى هذه الدنيا وفـى ظلمات
وفـى حلـول القبـر والقيام ** بلّغـه يـا شريف بـالسلام
يـارب زد لشيخنا الـمختار ** كرامة التوفيق فى الأخيـار
وانصره يـارب علـى الأعداء ** وأعطـه بـأحسن الـجزاء
وقـدر لقاءنـا فـى الـجنة ** يوم النشور يـا عظيم الـمنة
بـجاء سيـد الورى مـحمد ** وصحبه ومـن إليـه يقتدى
صلـى عليـه ربنـا وسلمـا ** ثـم عليهم بالسلام عمـما[245]

ومنذ القرن التاسع عشر الميلاد أخذت اللغة العربية وثقافتها تتطور تطورا سريعا، إذ كثرت فى هذه البلاد الإنتاجات النثرية والشعرية، ومن أعلام هذا القرن الشيخ عبد الله بن فودى الذى طرّق ميادين شتى في مؤلفاته العلمية والأدبية، منها قوله فى وصف رحلته إلى كنو:

> رأيت أن الفرار قد وجب علىّ، فتركتُ الجيش واشتغلتُ بنفسى واستقبلتُ إلى الشرق نحو المصطفى صلّى الله عليه وسلم إن يسر الله ذلك، فدخلتُ فى المفازة مع خمسة من أصحابى فبثْنا ثلاث ليال لا نرى أحدا ولا أثرا لأحد إلا آثار الفيلة الكثيرة فى تلك المفاوزة، حتى يسر الله لنا الوصول إلى العمران، فجرى فى قلبى قصيدة بائية لم أخرجها لأحد حتى وصلنا إلى بلد كَنُو، فمنعونى من التجاوز وطلبوا منِّى أن أعلمهم كيف يفعلون فى إقامة الدين، إذ وجدتهم قد دفع الله الكفار عنهم ولكن مرج أمرهم بينهم لما اشتغلوا بالدنيا فرأيتُ فيهم ما هربتُ منه، فقلتُ لهم هذا الذى رأيتُ فيكم هو الذى هربتُ منه من وطني حتى قلتُ قصيدةَ لذلك فى قلبى لم أخرجها لأحد، فألحوا علىَّ فى إخراج القصيدة فكتبتها لهم، ثم ألفتُ لهم كتابى "ضياء الحكام"، وقرأتُ عليهم جميع تفسير القرآن، فتابوا جميعا، وصلح أمرهم وكسروا الآت اللهو، التى عندهم، وجعلوا عيدان طبولهم معلفا لخيلهم، وفتح الله مالم يفتح عليهم قبل ذلك، ولله الحمد[246].

هكذا هيأ ما وصل إليه هذا الفن فى القرن التاسع عشر الميلادى مجالا واسعا لأهل اللغة العربية فى القرن العشرين، حيث جددوا عزمهم فى دفع اللغة العربية إلى الأمام، ساعدهم فى ذلك إرسال البعثة العلمية ورحلات علماء التصوف إلى البلدان الإسلامية العربية، وإنشاء المدارس العربية النظامية فى أنحاء البلاد.

أعلام أدب الرحلة فى نيجيريا في القرن العشرين الميلادي

ظهر أدب الرحلة في نيجيريا بقسميه الشعرى والنثرى على يدي العلماء الباحثين والصوفيين المتجولين، ومما ساعد على ازدهار هذا الفن وتطوره كثره رحلة علمائنا ورغبتهم في تسجيل خواطرهم والإجابة عن الأسئلة المطروحة عليهم أثناء السفر. فالشيخ آدم عبد الله الإلوري من أبرز علماء نيجيريا الذين سافروا إلى بلاد العرب وقابلوا علمائها، وتبادلوا معهم المعلومات عن بلادهم، ومما يدل على ذلك قوله:

فى سنة 1946 م عندما كتب الله لى السفر إلى الحجاز المملكة العربية السعودية لتأدية فريضة الحج، ومررت فى طريقى بالسودان ومصر الجمهورية العربية المتحدة وكان تساؤل العلماء الذين اتصلت بهم عن أحوال بلادي وتاريخها أهم ما استرعى انتباهى

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[242] - شوقي ضيف: **تاريخ الأدب العربي – العصر الجاهلي**، دار المعارف، القاهرة، 1976م ص 361.

[243] - مصلح الدين يوسف المرتضى القروي: **دراسة فنيّة لأدب الرحلة لدى بعض علماء إلورن**، مقالة مقدمة إلى قسم اللغة العربية للسمينار عام 2015م، ص 3.

[244] - آدم عبد الله الإلورى: **مصباح الدراسات الأدبية في الديار النيجيرية**، مكتبة وهبة، القاهرة ط2، عام 2012م ص 13.

[245] - محمد بلو بن عثمان بن فودي: **إنفاق الميسور في تاريخ بلاد التكرور**، طبع عام 1382هـ 1994م، ودار الطبع غير مذكورة، ص 221

[246] - عبد الله بن فودي: **تزيين الورقات بجمع بعض مالى من الأبيات**، محطوطة، ص 45.

وأيقظ شعورى بالنقص الذى يعيرنا من عدم الاهتمام بتاريخ بلادنا فآليت على نفسي أن أبحث عن هذا التاريخ وأن أملأ ذلك الفراغ بكتاب عربي ينطق فى ذلك بالحق[247].

من خلال هذا النموذج يتضح لنا أن الله ركب في بعض علماء هذه البلاد حب السفر والرحلة. وكان هناك عوامل عدة تدعو هؤلاء العلماء بالرحلة إلى خارج البلاد، منها: الحج إلى مكة المكرمة وزيارة قبر سيدنا محمد صلى الله عليه وسلم بالمدينة المنورة، ومنها التعلم في بلاد العرب، ومنها زيارة العلماء والأولياء الكرام في العراق أو المغرب أو الجزائر أو السودان أو غيرها، وعلى إثر هذه الزيارات انبثق أدب الرحلة ونبغ فيه العلماء ومن مشاهير علماء أدب الرحلة في نيجيريا من يأتي ذكرهم:

ا- الشيخ الوزير جنيد بن محمد البخارى

وهو من مشاهير علماء نيجيريا البارزين فى الأدب واللغة، تعلم فى صكتو عند أعلامها, وبعد نضوجه فى العلوم العربية والإسلامية عين مدرسا كبيرا فى المدرسة الوسطى وفى مدرسة البنات, ثم تولى منصب مستشار فى الشريعة الإسلامية ثم وزيرا لإمارة صكتو بعد وفاة أخيه[248]. سافر الوزير جنيد إلى كثير من البلدان العربية والإسلامية كالخرطوم والحجاز والسودان، وله كتب كثيرة في ذلك، منها: "رحلة إلى أغدس" و"تفريج النفس بذكر زيارة العراق والقدس" و"اتحاف الحاضر بمرائى المسافر" و"الرحلة الفاخرة إلى ليبيا والسودان والقاهرة" ونحو ذلك.

ب- الشيخ أبوبكر عتيق الكشناوي

قضى هذا الشيخ معظم حياته فى التصوف والكتابة، ونبغ فى الأدب واللغة، وله مؤلفات عديدة فى شتى العلوم والفنون. ومن أبرزها كتابه: "نثر طيب الآسى فى الرحلة لزيارة سيد أبى العباس"[249]، زار كثيرا من الزوايا ومقابر الشيوخ الكرام فى نيجيريا وخارجها.

ج- الشيخ محمد الناصر بن المختار كبرا:

هو أشهر علماء اللغة والتصوف فى نيجيريا، اشتغل بالعلم والتدريس، وزار كثيرا من البلاد العربية والإسلامية مثل ليبيا، ومصر، والسودان، وله علاقة ودية مع جمهورية العراق وليبيا، أخذ العهد القادري من أكابر المشايخ الصوفية، وله حفلة فاخرة يحضرها عدد غفير من نيجيريا وخارجها، ومن أشهر كتبه فى الرحلة كتاب سماه: "الآسى والمآس فى رحلتي إلى القاهرة وليبيا وتونس ومراكش[250]"

د- الشيخ آدم عبد الله الألوري

هو من أعلام علماء نيجيريا، أخذ العلم عن والده وعن بعض علماء مدينتى إلورن وكنو, اشتهر بتأليف الكتب وارتجال الخطب المنبرية , له قصيدة فى الرحلة بعنوان: "أيا ذاهبا أرض نيجيريا أبلغن". ترسخت علاقة علمية بينه وبين جامعة الأزهر الشريف، وفي عام 1989 أعطى وسام العلوم والفنون من جمهورية مصر العربية[251].

هـ- الشيخ الإمام محمود بن بللو بن إدريس:

وهو من أجلة علماء اللغة العربية فى نيجيريا، أسهم كثيرا فى فن الرحلة ومن إسهاماته همزبته التى صور فيها تشييعه أمير بَوْشِى إلى لاغوس عاصمة نيجيريا السابقة عند تعيين الحاج أبى بكر تَفَاوَبَلَيْوَا رئيسا لوزراء نيجيريا، سنة ١٩٥٧م[252].

و- الشيخ محمد بن إبراهيم ميماس النفاوي الإلوري

تربى هذا الشيخ فى بيت العلم والتصوف، وترعرع محبا للعلم والتدريس، أخذ جل علومه العربية والإسلامية من مشايخ إلورن وزاريا، وله مؤلفات كثيرة أشهرها: "فتح الخلاق فى الرحلة إلى مصر والحجاز والعراق"[253].

ز- الشيخ محمد بركوما:

هو عالم كبير، ولد بقرية سمباره ولاية يوبى, تلقى علومه على الشيخ أبه سولم، فنال قسطا من علوم اللغة العربية والدراسات الإسلامية، ومن إسهاماته فى الأدب العربى، قصيدته التى يصف بها رحلته إلى بيت الله الحرام لأداء فريضة الحج[254].

ح- الشيخ أحمد أبو الفتح

فهو عالم كبير أخذ العلم من علماء عصره، وله مؤلفات كثيرة أهمها: "شد الرحال إلى أداء حج الرجال"[255]، يقع هذا الكتاب فى إحدى وعشرين صفحة، ومن أشهر كتبه أيضا كتابه "الرحلة البرية والبحرية" الذى يشمل زيارة شيخه فى الكولخ بالسنغال. يحتوي هذا الكتاب على ثلاثين صفحة، توفي رحمة الله تعالى عليه فى صفر ١٤٢٣هـ إبريل 2003م"[256].

ط- الشيخ أبوبكر محمود غومي

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247 - آدم عبد الله الإلوري: **موجز تاريخ نيجيريا**، مكتبة وهبة ط2 القاهرة ، عام 2012م ص 3

248 - سليمان موسى: **من أعلام الثقافة الإسلامية في نيجيريا:** مجلة الأزهر تصدر في كل الشهر عن مجمع البحوث الإسلامية، بالقاهرة عام 1410هـ 1990م، ص 690.

249 - محمد الأمين عمر: الشيخ أبوبكر عتيق وديوانه هدية الأحباب والخلان، مطالع الزهراء للإعلام العربي، مدينة نصر، القاهرة عام 1988م ص 29.

250- Lateef Olatunde Jimoh: The Contribution of Sheikh Nasir Kabara to the Development of the Qadiriyyah order in Nigeria, A thesis submattes for Doctor of Philosophy Dept of Religions University of Ilorin, Ilorin Nigeria, April, 2006, pp59.

251- مهدي ساتى: الداعية الشيخ آدم عبد الله الإلورى: حياته وآثاره العلمية: الشيخ آدم عبد الله الإلورى في موكب الخالدين، من منشورات كلية الآداب، جامعة إلورن، إلورن نيجيريا، والمركز النيجيري للبحوث العربية، مكتبة الرياض 1433هـ 2012م، المجلد الأول ص2.

252 - عبد الله غوني التجاني: صور من مساهمات علماء نيجيريا في أدب الرحلة: المناطق الشمالية انموذجا، مجلة مالم للدراسات اللغوية، العدد السادس، يصدرها قسم اللغة العربية، جامعة عثمان بن فودي عام 2006م ص 260.

253 - سليمان موسى: المرجع السابق، ص 194

254 - عبد الله غوني التجاني: المرجع السابق، ص 263.

255 - المرجع نفسه، ص 266.

256 - المرجع نفسه، ص 265.

ولد الشيخ أبوبكر غومي عام ١٩٢٤م فى قرية غومي من أعمال ولاية زَنْفَرَا الحالية، ونشأ فى حجر والديه، وتلقى منهما قراءة القرآن الكريم وحفظه، ثم درس بمدرسة العلوم العربية كنو، وفى معهد بحث الرضا للمعلمين بالسودان، ومن أبرز أساتذته الشيخ سعد ياسين اللبنانى، والشيخ الوزير جنيد بن محمد البخارى، والشيخ محمد الناصر كبر الكنوي، والشيخ مالم يابو وغيرهم[257]. وله قصيدة في الرحلة.

ي- الشيخ محمد بلو بن عبد الرحيم الإلوري

ولد بمدينة إلورن عام ١٩٣٦م، تعلم اللغة العربية والشريعة الإسلامية ببلده، وله مصنفات كثيرة فى الشعر والنثر، منها كتابه: "نيل المقاصد فى ذكر الرحلة إلى الحرمين وزيارة قبر سيد الثقلين"[258].

ك- البروفيسور ولي الله سمبو جنيد

ولد بصكتو، وترعرع فى بيت العلماء والوزراء،نال الدكتوراه فى اللغة العربية وآدابها، له يد طولى فى الأدب والنقد، أشرف على عدد كبير من البحوث الجامعية، ارتقى إلى درجة الأستاذية فى اللغة العربية بجامعة عثمان بن فودى. وفى الرحلة له كتاب سماه: "نزهة المغترب من قرى المغرب"[259].

ل- الدكتور مشهود محمود جمبا

ولد لأبوين إلورنيين، وقرأ القرآن الكريم على يد أبيه، وحصل على الشهادتين: الإعدادية والثانوية، والليسانيس فى الأزهر الشريف، وعلى الماجستير والدكتوراه فى اللغة العربية من جامعة إلورن نيجيريا[260]، وله عدة مقالات فى اللغة والأدب والترجمة، منها كتابه فى الرحلة بعنوان: "من إلورن إلى تمبكتو".

وهناك علماء آخرون كتبوا في الرحلة وآدابها، منهم الشيخ محمد الثاني كافنغا الكنوي، والشيخ صالح يونس الحسني البرناوي، والشيخ أبوبكر صلاح الدين أبارغدوما، والشيخ يوسف عبد الله اللكوجي، والشيخ حبيب الله آدم عبد الله الإلوري، والشيخ قريب الله محمد الناصر كَبَرَا، والدكتور عيسى ألبي أبوبكر، والدكتور عثمان عبد السلام الثقافي، والأخ حامد محمود الهجري الإلوري، والأخ علي عبد القادر العسلي، والأخ إبراهيم جنيد، ومنير الدين صلاح الدين الرياضي، وأدينجي عبد الرزاق، وإسحاق أيوب ببأوي.

صور من نماذج الشعر والنثر حول الرحلة فى نيجيريا.

نماذج من عيون شعر الرحلة.

يقول الوزير جنيد بن محمد البخاري:

خرجنا بعون الله فـى غلس إلـى الـ ** ـمطار و كنّا كالطيور البواكر
فطارت بنا من يرو ولاجة الـهوا ** تدافع أمواج الـهوا فى الـهواجر
تخوضُ عبابَ الجو عند ارتفاعها ** وتـملؤه من صوتـها بالزواجر
مـجوّفة فيها كـراسيٌّ صففتْ ** مليّنة بالـخيش بـرا لزائـر
ونـفعل فيها كـلّ شيئ نـريده ** كأكل سوى تدخيننا بالسجائر
نـزلنا جنينـة للغـداء وبعد ذا ** ك طرنا ولم ننزل سوى عند فاشر
فعدنا إليها ثم طـارتْ و شرقتْ ** وقـد بعدت عنّا أراضـى النياجر
إلى أن أنـخناها و فازت يدُ النوى ** بـخرطوم فانجابت هموم المسافر
وعند غروب الشمس تـم نزولُنا ** فأقبل ليلٌ مسـدلٌ بـالدياجر
فـلاحت لآلى الكهرباء كأنـها ** نجوم بدت أو كالبدور السوافر
فلما انتهينـا واطمأنّتْ نفوسنـا ** نزلنا (بلوكندا) بـهي المناظر
على شاطئ النيل المبارك قـد رسا ** نشم الصبا منه بـعرف العنابـر
نـمتع فيه كـل يـوم عيوننـا ** بـما تشتهيه مثلـج للضمائـر
بـه ألف مصبـاح تضيئ كأنها ** وجـوه حسان فى مهالى المنابر
زوارقـه تـأتى وتـذهب دائما ** تميس على التيّار ميس الحوائر[261]

يقول الشيخ محمود بن محمد بلو

غـاية المبتغي لدى العقلاء ** ازديـاد النهى وصفو ذكاء
إذ بـه يـعرف الإله تعالى** خالق الأرض ربنا والسماء
والأعاجيب قيل مرآتها السير ** وتـى مـن مقالة الحكماء
سفرا قادنـا النجيب إليه ** سفر الازديـاد فى الآراء
ورأينـا عجاءبـا نفعتنـا ** رؤيـة الاعتبار والاعتنـاء
أعجبتنـى بناء قنطـرة فى ** "جـب" لله حسنه من بناء
ومررنـا إلى الـورن بعزم ** ولنا عند حصهـا من مناء

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257 - محمد منصور إبراهيم: الشيخ أبوبكر محمود داجومى جهوده الدعوية وأثرها على المجتمع النيجيري، مجلة النهضة تصدرها الدراسات الإسلامية، جامعة عثمان بن فودي صكتو عام 2001م ص 303.

258 - يعقوب يوسف: دراسة تحليلية لقصيدة كف الحجاج عن المحرمات لمحمد بلو عبد الرحيم: الإدراة العامة والتكنولوجيا الإعلامية في منظار الدراسات العربي والإسلامية. من منشورات جمعية معلمى الدراسات العربية والإسلامية، عام 1410هـ 2009م، ص 167.

259 - إسحاق أيوب ببأوي: أدب الرحلة في الأدب العربي النيجيري: قصة الرحلة نموذجا، مخطوطة، ص 7.

260 - خليل الله محمد عثمان بودوفو: ظاهرة التلقي في الأدب العربي النيجيري، مخطوطة، ص 9.

261 - شيخو أحمد سعيد: حركة اللغة العربية وآدابها في نيجيريا، ط2 المكتبة الإفريقية، القاهرة، 1414هـ 1993م ص 154.

وبـها مضجع لفاروق بوثى** عمر الـخير سابق الكرماء
زاره نـجله وزرناه كـلا ** يـا لها من صنيعة حسناء
كثرة الخلق فى إبادن مع الصنـ ** ـعة فيهم رجالهم والنساء
والأمير العباس شيخ ركين ** زيـه سكينـة العقـلاء
وحضرنـا لـملعب فرأينا ** لعبـا فيه غلمـة الأقوياء
غلمة روقة المناظر كالأقمار** فى الـحسن فتية نـجباء
سيد طبعه السكوت مقل ** القول قل الكلام للعقلاء
هوليث العرين فى قوة القلب** واقوى فى قوة الأعضاء
رزق العقل والـمروءة يحي ** اختبرنـاه من بنى الكراء
هو شاب مبارك العمر زان الـ ** وجه منه بطلقة وحياء[262]

يقو ل الشيخ آدم عبد الله الأ لورى:

أيـا ذاهبا أرض نيجيريـا أبلغـن ** سـلامى الى أهلى بـها متراضيـا
وقـل لـهمو إنى أعـود إليهمو ** إذا عسعس الليل نـرى الصبح آتيـا
بـمن نشر الأفلاك من غيـر أعمد ** وأرسى على الأرض الجبال الرواسيا
وذاك لأنـى لا أريـد تفاخـرا ** ولكن لـمن قد ضلّ أطلب هاديـا
رأيت بـلادى بـالتقاليد أرهقت ** تقدمهـا أضحى عن الدين نائيـا
لـهذا خرجت أقصد الأزهر العلا ** لإسقاط ريـب القلب مـما بـداليا
ويـوم تـركت الأهل يوم مكدر ** ولكـن قلبـي للعـلا كان ناويـا
وصلنـا إلى الـخرطوم بعد مشقة ** نـحاول إذنا عنـد مـن كان نائيا
ومـن ثـم قمنا بالـمغامرة التـى ** بـها قد وقعنا حيث نخشى الطواغيا
إلى أن أجزنـا أرض سـودان كلها ** وصـرنـا إلى الشلال نـطوى الفيافيا
هناك منعنا مـن دخـول الـمدينة ** على حـالة يا من يـراها كما هيـا
ففاضـت دموع العين منى غـزيرة ** لـدى رجل ما كـان يـرحم باكيا
وكـم ليلـة قـد بتّهـا نـابغية ** أسامـر أفـلاك السما والصواريـا
فهل أنا بـدع حيث قد رد مصطفى** عن البيت قبل الفتح لا تلك ناسيا[263]

نماذج من عيون نثر الرحلة

يقول الشيخ أحمد أبو الفتح:

1- دخلنا الطائرة المتوجهة إلى ساحل العاج فى الساعة الثالثة والربع,وفى هذه الطائرة وجدنا إخوانا كثيرا متوجهين إلى هذه الندوة...ونزلنا بساحل العاج فى الساعة الرابعة والربع,وصلينا العصر هناك والمغرب. وحملونا فى السيارات إلى فندق, وصلينا صلاة العشاء بها، ثم أمرونا بالخروج إلى المطار فى الساعة الثانية عشر والنصف, وطرنا عن ساحل العاج ... ونزلنا فى الساعة الثالثة والنصف بمطار دكار, فوجدنا هناك مرافقيْن من خدام سفارة المغربية بالمطار ليحملونا إلى فنادق شتى, فنزلنا عند سفيرنا نيجيريا بدكار وأنزلنا بفندق نوبلت:

أخذنا البطاقة ولصقناها على قمصاننا فدخلناها ووجدنا جماعة كثيرة مصغية بآذان واعية لما يتلى عليهم من البحوث التجانية بين يدى وزير شؤون الدين الإسلامى والأوقاف والعلماء الكرام، ولم نزل نحضر قاعة المؤتمر صباحًا إلى أن تم المجلس.

وجدنا هناك بلاغوس مندوبَيْن من الحكومة منتظرين قدومنا، فخرجنا بشهوة وبفرح وسرور، فحملونا فى سيارتهم إلى بيت الضيافة وبتنا هناك ليلتين ونصف يوم، ثم خرجنا من المنزل... إلى المطار فطلبنا الخطوط الجوية التى تتوجه إلى مَيْدُغُوْرِى ولم نجدها سوى الخطوط الجوية التى تتوجه إلى غَوْنْغَوْلاَ ثم ترجع إلى مطار كنو، ثم من كنو إلى مَيْدُغُوْرِى، ودخلناها، فطارت بنا إلى تلك الأمكان كلها ونزلنا بِمَيْدُغُوْرِى ليلة الإثنين بخير وعافية وسلامة، ووجدنا الإخوان والأصحاب جمًا غفيرًا منتظرين قدومنا إليهم، وإنما الأعمال بالخواتم[264].

يقول: الدكتور مشهود محمود جمبا

نزلنا ببيت الشيخ مما حيدره، وهو منزل يتسم بالبساطة، ويأوي أسرة كريمة الأرومة، متواضعة، ذات أصالة وتاريخ، يروى أن سلسلته تتصل بالإمام علي كرم الله وجهه، وكان الشيخ حيدره نفسه يفتخر بهذا النسب ويذكر قول الإمام علي:

أنا الذي سمتني أمي حيدره ** ضرغام آجام وليث قسورة

جلسنا في حجرة الجلوس التى تتزيا بأثاث من النمط القديم وبساط نظيف، واتصلنا لأول مرة بالأخ يوسف في أيرلندا وأم إدريس في لندن. كان فرحنا شديدا، وحالنا كحال روّاد مكّوك الفضاء نزلوا على كوكب واتصلوا بأصدقائهم في محطة الأرصاد على الأرض. تناولنا الفطور معا ثم أنزلوني في بوكتو "Bouctou" وهو فندق صغير أنيق قريب من قلب الصحراء. وأول ما استرعى انتباهي فيه لوحة معلقة في الاستقبال عليها كلمة لمغني تمبكتو الكبير علي فرْكَ ثُورَي:

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[262] - علي أبوبكر: الثقافة العربية في نيجيريا من 1750 إلى 1960م عام الاستقلال ط1، مكتبة عبد الحفيظ بيروت عام 1973م ص:365.

[263] - هيئة التدريس بمركز التعليم العربي الإسلامي أغيغي لاغوس: لقطات من منشورات مطبعة الثقافة الإسلامية – أغيغي، نيجيريا، عام 1991م، ص 5.

[264] - أحمد أبو الفتح: شد الرحال إلى أداء حج الرجال، مخطوطة، ص 9.

إذا ذكرتَ تمبكتو في مسمع بعض الناس فإنها تشبه أقصى العالم، لكن ذلك ليس الحقيقة. أنا من تمبكتو، وبإمكاني أن أقول لك إننا هنا في قلب العالم (في الأصل كتب بالإنجليزية).

حجزت غرفة رقم 16 ثم خرجت مباشرة وتجول بي يحي بسيارة الشيخ حيدره في أحياء المدينة، فزرنا مكتبة أحمد بابا التمبكتي الشهير في حي سَرَي كَيْنا حيث استقبلني المشرف على المخطوطات الشيخ جبريل دَوكَوْرَي إسماعيل الذي أخبرني أنه درس في الأزهر في الستينيات مع الشيخ بوصيري بن سلمان أكي، أحد علماء مدينة إلورن. تحتضن المكتبة...، 25 مخطوطة. ثم زرنا مسجد سيدي يحي وأماكن أخرى، وأسرعنا إلى جامع تمبكتو "جنغري بير" لأداء صلاة الجمعة.

إن المسجد لآية من آيات المدينة الإسلامية قديما وحدثنا تبلغ سعته 60×80 مترا، وكانت تجرى فيه عملية توسيع وترميم كبيرة، كان يتسم بطابع القديم في الخارج والداخل[265].

الدراسة الفنية للنصوص المختارة

1- القيم الفكرية:

فهذه القيم هى ما يعتمد عليها الأديب فى إظهار ما يريده أن يتوله نحو التجربة التى مرّبها[(1)]، ومن أهم مقاييسها: المثالية والواقع، هو أن يصور الأديب الأشياء كما يراها وكما هى فى الواقع، وأن يفسرها تفسيرا مثاليا اقتراحيا[266]. وفى القصيدة الأولى- من هذه الدراسة – نجد أن الشاعر يصف الطائرة كما هى وكما كان حالها فى داخلها، ويقول إن الطائرة التى حملته إلى السودان كان الناس يفعلون فيها ما يشاؤن من أكل وشرب وغيرهما، سوى التدخين الذى كان ممنوعا[267] فاستمع إليه يقول:

ونفعل فيها كل شيءٍ نريده ** كأكل سوى تدخيننا بالسجائر[268]

كل هذه الصفات من حقائق واقعية مشاهدة فى داخل الطائرة، ولكن الشاعر يحاول أن يصورها لنا تصويرًا فنيًّا. ومن طراز هذا الموضوع استيعاب الأفكار الشديدة التأثير العميقة الغور فى النفس البشرية، مثل ما فى القصيدة الثانية من وصف الشباب الذين يلعبون فى ستاد إبادن يقول الشاعر:

وحضرنا لملعب فرأينا ** لعبا فيه غلمة الأقوياء

غلمة ورقة المناظر كالأقمار ** فى الحسن فتية نجباء[269]

استطاع الشاعر فى هذين البيتين أن يجمع بعض حقائق فنيّة حول الشباب الذين يلعبون فى ستاد إبادن، وهذه الحقائق مما يقع فى موضوع الإثارة فى نفس القارئ، ويصل إلى مكان التحريك للعواطف.

وفى القصيدة الثالثه نلمس التعمق، حيث يحاول الشاعر ربط الأحداث بعللها التاريخية، إذ أخذ يصور لنا كيف منعه الجمارك من دخول المدينة، وكيف ردوه عنها كما رد قريش نبيّنا محمد من مكة المكرمة ومنعوه من دخولها، فالشاعر فى هذه الظاهرة لم يسر على سطع دخوله إلى المدينة أو على طرف منعه من دخولها. بل كان يتفلسف فى الأحداث ويتعمق فيها ليوضح لنا فكريته الفنية ولهذا يقول:

فهل أنا بدع حيث قد رد مصطفى ** عن البيت قبل الفتح لا تك ناسيا[270]

والأمر بالمثال فى تعبير مشهود جمبا حيث قال: "كان فرحنا شديدا وحالنا كحال روّاد مكوك الفضاء، نزلوا على كوكب واتصلوا بأصدقائهم فى محطة الأرصاد على الأرض"[271]. ساق لنا الكاتب مدى سرورهم وفرحهم، وأشار إلى صحته ومقداره وربط لقاءه بأصدقائه بالتلاقى الذى حصل بين المقيمين فى الأرض وبين أصدقائهم الذين عرجوا إلى السماء ثم هبطوا إلى الأرض بعد مدّة من الزمن.

ومما يبدو أن النماذج الواردة في هذا الموضوع تخلو من التناقض الذى يجعل العمل الأدبي مضطربا أو ناقصا، إذ الفكرة تتجسم في هذه النماذج مع إرادة شعرائنا وكتّابنا، وتتسم بنفسيتهم وعقليتهم. وإذا وجد التناقض في أي عمل أدبي معنى ذلك أن تجربة الأديب غير متجانسة ولا سليمة، ولهذا كان أحمد بدوى يقول:

> والشخصية في الرواية والقصة ينبغى ألا تتناقض أعمالها. لأنها إنما تأتى في العمل الأدبي لتمثل فكرة معينة. ولا بد أن تتجانس أعماله مع الطموح حتى تتجسم الفكرة التى يريدها مؤلف المسرحية أو القصة، فإذا اضطربت أعمال الشخصية أو تناقضت كان ذلك نقضا في العمل الأدبي[272].

لا يشك أحد في أن النقاد العرب ما زالوا يأخذون شعرائهم وكتابهم على التناقض، ويعيبونهم عليه، لأن العمل الأدبي مظهر لنفسية ثابتة مستقرة، وعقلية واعية ناضجة تمكنت من جميع أطراف التجربة والإحاطة والتعبير عنها[273]، ولكن لم ير بعض النقاد عيبا في التناقض بشرط أن يكون هناك داع يقتضى ذلك.

2- القيم الأسلوبية

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265 - مشهود محمود جمبا: من إلورن إلى تمبكتو، من منشورات المركز النيجيري للبحوث العربية، مكان الطبع غير مذكور، عام 1430هـ 2009م، ص 48.

266 - شعيب عبد الرحمن: النقد الأدبي الحديث، مكان الطبع وتاريخه غير مذكورين، ص 86.

267 - شيخو أحمد سعيد غلادنث: المرجع السابق، ص 154.

268 - المرجع نفسه، والصفحة نفسها.

269 - علي أبوبكر: المرجع السابق، ص 365.

270 - هيئة التدريس بمركز التعليم العربي الإسلامي ص 6.

271 - مشهود محمود جمبا: المرجع السابق، ص 48.

272 - أحمد أحمد بدوي: أسس النقد الأدبي عند العرب، مطبعة نهضة مصر للطباعة والنشر والتوزيع عام 2003م ص 423.

273 - شعيب عبد الرحمن: المرجع السابق ، ص 123.

وأما القيم لأسلوبية فهى الطريقة التى يصوغ فيها الأديب أفكاره، ويفصح بها عما يجول فى نفسه من العواطف والانفعالات سواء أكانت تلك الطريقة نثرا أم شعرا[274] وبهذه القيم اهتدى النقاد إلى مقاييس عديدة، منها دقة الكلمة فى أداء المعنى الذى يريده الكاتب، ومما جاء من ذلك فى هذه الدراسة قول الوزير جنيد فى القصيدة الأولى:

خرجنا بعون الله فى غلس إلى الـ ** مطار وكنّا كالطيور البواكر[275]

استعمل الشاعر فى هذا البيت كلمة "غلس" ليدل على سرعة استعدادهم للسفر قبل طلوع الفجر، وربط ذلك بحالة الطيور التى تقوم من وكرها صباحا مبكرًا لينتقل من مكان إلى مكان آخر. وفى هذا البيت وجدنا الدقة فى كلمة "غلس" وفى "الطيور البواكر" ولذلك استطاع البيت أن يثير إحساسنا وعواطفنا.

وأما القصيدة الثانية ففيها تكرار الكلمة للتشوق والتلذذ، يقول الشاعر:

سفرا قادنا النجيب إليه ** سفر الازدياد والاعتناء

هو ليث العرين فى قوة القلب ** وأقوى فى قوة الأعضاء[276]

فقد كرر الشاعر كلمة السفر فى البيت الأول، كما كرر القوة فى البيت الثانى ذلك لمناسبة نفسيته النشطة، ولإيمانه أن هذا التكرار يثير الانفعال فى نفس القارئ، وعلى هذا النمط سار أبو الفتح فى وصف ركوبهم للطائرة، وقال: "دخلنا الطائرة المتوجهة إلى ساح العاج فى الساعة الثالثة والربع، وفى هذه الطائرة وجدنا إخوانا كثيرًا متوجهين إلى هذه الندوة..."[277]

كرر أبو الفتح فى هذا النص كلمة الطائرة مرتين، وهذا نوع من التكرار مما تطمئن إليه قلوب النقاد، لأنه يرتبط بالتشوق من جانب، وبالأبعاد النفسية من جانب آخر.

ونجد في هذه النماذج الوضوح، وسهولة فهم المراد، لأن الكلام الغامض يصرف الأذن عن المتابعة ويصد القلب عن التأثر، ومثال ذلك ما في القصيدة الأولى للوزير جنيد حيث يقول:

وعند غروب الشمس تمّ نزولنا ** فأقبل ليل مسدل بالدياجر

فلاحت لآلى الكهرباء كأنها ** نجوم بدت أو كالبدور السوافر[278].

فالشاعر في هذين البيتين يقول إنهم هبطوا ليلا من الطائرة بأرض السودان، وأن الكهرباء التى نوّرت الأماكن المظلمة في وقت هبوطهم تضاهى البدور السوافر. وفي البيتين نجد السبك اللغوي وسلامة التركيب. وفي الحقيقة إن الوضوح من سمات أدب الرحلة النيجيري لأن علماء هذه البلاد ينفضون تنافر كلمات من أعمالهم ومن إنتاجاتهم الشعرية والنثرية إيمانا أن مقياس الوضوح من أول المقاييس التى فطن إليها النقاد، ومن أجله يقدم عمر رضى الله عنه زهيرا على غيره من الشعراء قائلا عنه إنه كان لا يفاضل بين الكلام[279]. ولأجل هذا أخذوا على أبى تمام في قوله:

والمجد لا يرضى بأن ترضى بأن ** يرضى المعاشر منك إلا بالرضا[280]

لا يوجد في هذا البيت إلا تكرار الكلمات واضطراب الألفاظ، ولهذا أخذ البيت ينطبع بطابع الغموض، ومثل هذا الغموض لا يوجد في أعمال علمائنا، فأدب الرحلة عندهم يتسم بالسهولة والوضوح، والتلاؤم بين الألفاظ والمعاني.

المصاحبة اللغوية

ونعنى بها توارد زوج من الكلمات بالفعل أو بالقوة نظرًا لارتباطها بحكم هذه العلاقة أو ذلك[281]. وقيل هي ارتباط يعتاد أبناء اللغة وقوع في الكلام بحيث يمكن توقع ورود كلمة محدودة في النص من خلال ذكر كلمة أخرى فيه[282]. فالمصاحبة اللغوية عنصر من عناصر السبك النحوي، لها علاقة كثيرة بالمعاجم، ومن أبرز عناصرها:

1- مصاحبة الجزء مع الكل:

لا تظهر هذه المصاحبة إلا مع موضوعات خاصة يهدف الكاتب بها إلى تقديم وصف خاص لفهوم عام، فهو لا يصفه، وإنما يقوم بعرض تصور خاص له بذكر بعض أجزائه المكونة له، وصفاتها الملازمة، مما يكمل الصورة المقصودة لهذا الشيء العام[283] ونجد هذه المصاحبة في القصيدة الثانية حيث يقول الشاعر:

هو شاب مبارك العمر زان الـ ** وجه منه بطلقة وحياء[284]

يربط الشاعر وجه الممدوح بطلقة وحياء، وهذا الارتباط يؤكد على أن وجه الممدوح جزء وطلقة أو حياء كل للجزء، إذن فالعلاقة بين الوجه وطلقته أو حيائه هي علاقة بين الجزء والكل في مجال المصاحبة اللغوية.

ب- مصاحبة الجزء مع الجزء:

هو أن يذكر الكاتب أكبر عدد من الأجزاء بهدف تقديم صورة عامة لما تشكله من كل واحد[285] ومثال ذلك ما في القصيدة الأولى حيث يقول الشاعر:

مجوفة فيها كراسيّ صففت ** مليّنة بالخيش برًّا لزائر[286]

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274 - المرجع نفسه، ص 198.
275 - شيخو أحمد سعيد غلادنث: المرجع السابق، ص 154.
276 - علي أبوبكر: المرجع السابق، ص 365.
277 - أحمد أبو الفتح: المرجع السابق، ص 9.
278 - شيخو أحمد غلادنث: المرجع السابق، ص 154.
279 - شعيب عبد الرحمن: المرجع السابق، ص 123.
280 - المرجع نفسه ص 208.
281 - حسام أحمد فزح: نظرية علم النص، ط2، مكتبة الآداب عام 1420هـ 4009م
282 - المرجع نفسه والصفحة نفسها
283 - المرجع نفسه، ص 114.
284 - علي أبوبكر: المرجع السابق، ص 365
285 - حسام أحمد فزح: المرجع السابق، ص 115
286 - أحمد سعيد غلادنث: المرجع السابق، ص 154

يرسم لنا الشاعر في هذا البيت صورة مفصلة لداخل الطائرة، فذكر ما يتكون منها أجزاء داخلها، وهي: "مجوفة – صففت – ملتِنة – الحيش- وفيها كراسى"، يعرض لنا الشاعر هذه الأشياء إعتبارًا أن كل واحد منها جزء كمثل غيره من الأجزاء، وله وظيفة ملازمة يقوم بها.

ج- مصاحبة التلازم الذكرى

هي أن تجمع في الكلام بين أمر وما يناسبه[287] كقول الشاعر:

كأن الثريا علقت في جبينه ** وفي خده الشعرى وفي وجهه القمر[288]

نجد في هذا البيت التلازم الذكرى بين الثريا – والشعرى – والقمر.

وكل هذه الأسماء تعبر عن شكل من أشكال الترابط اللغوي. ويوجد فيما كتبه أبو الفتح هذا التلازم الذكرى وذلك في كلمات: "خير" و"عافية" و"سلامة"، حيث يقول الشيخ: "نزلنا بِمَيْدُغُوْرِي ليلة الاثنين بخير وعافية وسلامة"[289].

التوصيات والاقتراحات

1- نقترح أن تطبع كتب الرحلة التى لم تنزل مخطوطة فى خزائن علماء نيجيريا، لأن طباعتها تكون فائدة لدارسى اللغة العربية فى هذه البلاد، حيث يضيفون معلومات أخرى إلى معلومتهم التى كانت معهم حاليا.

2- ندعو إلى تشجيع دارسى اللغة فى هذه البلاد على كتابة أدب الرحلة بهدف تسجيل معلومات بلادهم وغير بلادهم في بطون التاريخ وفي حقائب الخلود.

3- نقترح للدارسين أن يبحثوا عن جوانب اللغة والأدب والنقد عند دراساتهم لمخطوطات هذه البلاد قديمها وحديثها.

4- نوصى علماء اللغة العربية فى هذه البلاد أن يوسعوا رقاب أدب الرحلة، وأن يكتبوا عن رحلاتهم إلى أوربا كما كانوا يكتبون عن رحلاتهم إلى بلاد العرب، لأن ذلك يكشف الستار لأبناء هذا الوطن وغيرهم عن أحوال الغرب وشوؤن أهله.

5- ندعو العلماء الأكاديميين إلى الاهتمام بالتراث العربي في هذه البلاد، والبحث عن المخطوطات التى كتبها آباؤنا وأجدادنا أثناء رحلاتهم على الأقدام إلى الحج والعمرة.

الخاتمة

حاولنا في هذه الورقة أن نلقى الضوء على الطريق التى سلكها أدب الرحلة إلى النشأة والتكوين في هذه البلاد، وتكلمنا بايجاز عن إسهامات علماء القرن التاسع عشر الميلادي في هذا الحقل مع الاستشهاد ببعض قصائدهم وكتاباتهم. وأما بالنسبة إلى دور علماء القرنين: العشرين والحادي والعشرين في أدب الرحلة النيجيري فقد استطعنا أن نوجز الكلام حول اثنى عشر علما من أعلام هذا الفن مع ذكر بعض مؤلفاتهم ومصنفاتهم، وعند ما أردنا أن نبرهن للقراء مدى تضلع علمائنا ومقدرتهم في أدب الرحلة أتينا بنماذج شعرية ونثرية من أعمالهم ودرسناها دراسة فنية، حيث جررنا رأس القلم حول القيم الفكرية والقيم الأسلوبية والمصاحبة اللغوية؛ وفي هذه الدراسة ناقشنا ما في أعمالهم من ظواهر المثالية والواقع، والتناقض والتعمق، كما ناقشنا دقة أداء المعنى في الكلمات، والتكرار، والوضوح ونحو ذلك. فعلنا كل هذا لإعطاء هذه الورقة حقها الذي تستحق به في العرض والدراسة.

[287] - حسام أحمد فزح: المرجع السابق، ص 115

[288] - المرجع نفسه والصفحة نفسها.

[289] - أحمد أبو الفتح: المرجع السابق، ص 10

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الـمقياس النّحوي والصّرفي في نقد الشّعر العربي النّيجيري
Grammatical and Morphological Scale in the Criticism of Nigerian Arabic Poetry

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Abstract
The science of Grammar and Morphology are among the most significant of Arabic sciences in weight, the greatest of it in risk, the widest of it in scope, the greatest of it in importance, the most useful of it in benefit, because they are two sciences that extract the secrets of the vocabulary words from its sources. Therefore, they had great importance and benefits in guarding against errors in the vocabulary of Arabic language words in general and the ancient Arabic poetry in particular. The aim of this article is to study the Grammatical and Morphological level of some writers in Nigeria and the effects of this on their poetic works. This research covered the following areas:

1- *Criticism in the Literal and Idiomatic concept.*
2- *The Position of Grammar and Morphology in the Criticism of Arabic Poetry among the ancient.*
3- *The Grammatical and Morphology Scale in the Criticism of Nigerian Arabic Poetry.*
4- *The Conclusion*.

المقدّمة

إن علم النّحو والصّرف من أجلّ العلوم العربيّة قدرًا ووزنًا وأعظمها خطرًا، وأوسعها نطاقًا، وأكبرها شأنًا، وأغزرها فائدةً، وأجمعها للفوائد، وأحواها للمحامد إذهما علمان يستوليان على استخراج أسرار مفردات الكلمات من معادنها، ولذلك كان لهما أهميّة وفوائد كبرى في السّلامة من الأخطاء في مفردات كلمات اللّغة العربيّة عامّة والشّعر العربي العريق خاصّة، فهدف هذه المقالة إلى بحث المستوى النّحوي والصّرفي لدى بعض الأدباء في نيجيريا، وآثار ذلك في إنتاجاتهم الشّعريّة وسيتناول هذا البحث المحاور الآتية.

-1 النّقد في الـمفهوم الـمعنوي والاصطلاحي.
-2 منزلة النّحو والصرف في نقد الشّعر العربي عند القدامى.
-3 المقياس النّحوي والصّرفي في نقد الشّعر العربي النّيجيري.
-4 الخاتمة.

النّقد في الـمفهوم الـمعنوي والاصطلاحي

أثبت المعاجم العربيّة على تحديد معاني عدّة لهذه الكلمة، فمن بينها النّظر في الدّراهم لمعرفة جيدها من رديئها، فتقول: نقد الدّراهم والدّنانير وغيرهما نقدًا، وتنقادًا: ميّز جيدها من رديئها[290].

ومنه قول حلف بن خليفة:

وارنبة لك محمّرة ** تكاد نفطرها نقده[291]

ومنه قول أبي زبيد

كان أثواب نقّاد قدرن له ** يعلو بحملتها كهباء هدايا[292]

ثـمّ أيّد مسعود جبران: أنّ النّقد إظهار الكلام ما فيه من الحسن والقبيح، فيحدّد عناصر المبنى والمعنى فيه ويكشف عن العوامل المؤثرة فيه[293].

ثـمّ قال البعض: أن نقد ينقد نقدًا وتنقادًا الدراهم وغيرها: ميّزها ونظرها ليعرف جيدها من رديئها أي الكلام أظهر ما به من العيوب أو المحاسن –أعطاه إياه نقدًا معجلاً-[294].

ومنه قول سيبويه

تنفي يداها الحصى من كلّ هاجرة ** نفي الدّراهم تنقاد الصياريف[295]

أمّا النّقد الاصطلاحي عند الأدباء: فهو تقدير النّص الأدبي تقديرًا صحيحًا، وبيان قيمته ودرجته الأدبيّة.

وفي اصطلاح آخر: هو دراسة النّصوص الأدبيّة دراسة فنيّة تستهدف فهمها ومعرفة أعماقها وسير أغوارها ثـمّ الحكم لها أو عليها، طبقًا لما فيها من جودة أو رداءة على أسس قوية من المقاييس والأصول[296].

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290 – إبراهيم أنيس وشركاؤه: المعجم الوسيط، مطبعة العربيّة بالقاهر، 1329هـ/1973م، ص:987.

291 – محمود عمر الزّمخشري: أساس البلاغة، مطبعة دار الفكر– بيروت لبنان، 1429هـ/2000، ص:65.

292 – محمود عمر الزّمخشري المرجع نفسه، ص:66.

293 – جبران مسعود:الرائد معجم لغوي عصري، مطبعة دار الفكر بيوت–لبنان– 1964م، ص:1525.

294 – معلوف الليسوعي: المنجد في اللغة والأعلام، مطبعة دار الشّروق، بيروت –لبنان– 1973م، الطّبعة الثانية والعشرون، 83.

295 – ابن منظور جمال الدين محمد: لسان العرب، مطبعة دار إحياء التراث العربي، بيروت –لبنان–، مادة (نقد).

296 – مرتضى عبد السلام الحقيقي: صورة من الرواية النقدية في الأدب العربي النيجيري المعاصر، مجلّة اللّسان، تصدر عن جمعية مدرسي اللّغة العربيّة وآدابها في نيجيريا، 2012م، المجلّد الثاني، العدد الخامس، ص:95.

وعلى هذا الدّرب استعارها الباحثون في النّصوص الأدبية ليدلّوا بها على الملكة التي يستطيعون بها معرفة الجيد من النّصوص، وإظهار مواطن القبح والجمال فيها، فالنّقد الأدبي فنّ دراسة النّصوص الأدبيّة وتفسيرها، وتحليلها، والحكم عليها أحيانًا، ومن المعلوم أنّ الأديب يوجد أولا، ثمّ يوجد النّقد بعد ذلك، لأنّ النّقد يتخذ النص الأدبي موضوعًا له، ويمضي في البحث عن طبيعته ويحاول شرحها، وتحليلها، ثمّ يهدينا إلى تكوين رأي صحيح عنها[297].

منزلة النّحو والصّرف في نقد الشّعر العربي عند القدامى

شهد القرن الثاني الهجري النّحاة وأهل البلاغة والنّقاد والشّعراء، وهم يختصمون أيّهم على صواب من أمره، وأيّهم يتبع – على هدى من الله- وأيّهم أتبع هواه حسدًا من عند نفسه، إذ صرف هؤلاء عنايتهم إلى لغة (الشّعر)، ومتابعة ما فيها من مواطن الخطأ التي تشي بمخالفتهم أسس اللغة الصّحيحة[298]، وكذلك ركز النّحويون والصّرفيون على صلاحية الشّعر المحدث للاحتجاج اللّغوي، فقد كان بعض الشّعراء يميلون إلى استخدام ألفاظ غير مستقيمة، وكان النّحويون والصّرفيون لهم بالمرصاد.

والحقّ الذي لا يستطيع أحد أن ينكره أنّ العلماء النّحويين والصّرفيين يناقشون الشّعراء وينقدونهم، وظلّ النّحو والصّرف مسيطرًا على اتجاه النّقاد في الشّعر، وربّما كان هذا الأمر قد سرب إلى الحياة الثقافية بعامة، وحياة الشّعر القديم بخاصة، إذ سيطرت اللّغة على العامة من النّاس والخاصّة منهم.

ولنذهب إلى الجهود التي بذلها النّحويون والصّرفيون في وضع الضّوابط والقواعد ليكون نبراسًا، وإظهارًا لمنزلة النّحو والصّرف بالنّقد وقد تصدوا للشعراء والنّقد وشعرهم، وأرشدوهم إلى الصّواب، ويعد نقدهم هذا نقدًا موضوعيًا حيث قام على أسس علمية، وأصول مقررة في النّحو والصّرف، ومن نقدهم:

1- سمع عبد الله بن إسحاق الحضرمي قول الفرزدق:

وعضّ زمان يا ابن مروان لم يدع ** من المال إلاّ مسحتا أو مجلّف[299].

فيسأله على أي شيء ترفع (مجلف) فيجيبه على ما يسوؤك وينوؤك، وتوحي هذه الإجابة بأنّ الفرزدق قد برم فضاق صدره من نقد هؤلاء النّحاة، وبخاصّة عبد الله بن أبي إسحاق، وقد هجاه بقوله:

فلو كان عبد الله مولًى هجوته ** ولكنّ عبد الله مولى مواليًا[300].

فقال له ابن أبي إسحاق: ولقد لحنت أيضا في قولك: مولى مواليا، وكان ينبغي أن تقول: مولى موالٍ، فعبد الله لم يهجه الهجاء بقدر ما يهجه أن يصحّح الخطأ وأن ينبّه الفرزدق له، ويدع عليه.. ولما كثر نقد النّحاة للفرزدق قال لهم: عليّ أن أقول وعليكم أن تحتجوا... وفي رواية وعليكم أن تقربوا.

2- لم تقف مآخذ النّحاة على الشّعراء عند شعراء العصر الأموي، بل امتدّت إلى العصر الإسلامي والعصر الجاهلي، فعيسى بن عمرو الثقفي ينقد ويأخذ على النابغة الذّبياني أنّه قد أخطأ في رفع "نافع" في قوله:

فبتّ كأنّي ساورتني ضئيلة ** من الرّقش في أنيابها السّم ناقعُ[301].

ويقول: الصّواب أن يقول: "نافعًا" بالنصب على الحال... وأرى أنّ النّابغة لم يخطئ إذ يجوز رفع "نافع" على أنّها خبر للسّم، وأنّ الجار والمجرور في "أنيابها" قدم عليها والأصل: {السّم ناقع في أنيابها}[302].

ومما يدلّ على منزلة النّحو في نقد الشّعر العربي عند القدماء أيضا ما أورد الآمدي في بيت أبي تمام:

أعجبنا عليك العيش بعد معاجها ** على البيض أترابًا على النّوى الود"[303]

أشار إلى أنّ البيت مضطرم النّظم ردئ اللفظ، لأنّه يخاطب الأطلال فكأنّه أراد أن يقول:{أعجبنا العيش منك، على النّوى والود بعد معاجها على البيض أترابًا}، فجعل "عليك" في موضع "منك".

وبناء على هذا، يرى الدّكتور عبد القادر حسين أنّ النّحويين والصّرفيين هم أصحاب الفضل الأوّل في نشأة البلاغة العربيّة، وإن كانت نظراتهم متناثرة ضمن مباحثهم النّحوية والصّرفية ذلك أن للخليل بن أحمد الفراهيدي (المتوفى:173هـ)[304] ملاحظات بلاغية قيّمة أتى بها سيبويه (المتوفى 180هـ)[305]، في الكتاب وآراء ذات صلة وثيقة بالبيان والمعاني والبديع، من ذلك حديثه عن سهولة الألفاظ وخفتها، وقضية تنافر الكلمات[306]، ومخالفة القياس وضعف التأليف، وغيرها من المسائل البلاغية التي تتعلّق بعلمي النّحو والصّرف مما ينقدون عليه الشّعراء حيث بحثوا عن الألفاظ وناقشوها مناقشة دقيقة من حيث مدلولاتها وما فيها من قبح وجمال ودليل على ذلك قول الشاعر.

أنظر قبل تلوماني إلى ** طلل بين النّقا والمنحنى[307]

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297 – حفد خلوصي وشركاؤه: النقد الأدبي وموازين الشّعر، مكتبة الجمهوريّة العراقية، وزارة التربيّة للنشر والتّوزيع، بدون تاريخ، ص:8.

298 – عبد الله جبريل مقداد: أضواء على النّقد الأدبي القديم، مطبعة دار عمار للنشر والتّوزيع، 1417هـ/1997م، الطّبعة الأولى، ص:66.

299 – بسيوني عبد الفتّاح فيود: قراءة في النّقد القديم، مطبعة مؤسّسة المختار بالقاهرة، 1431هـ/2010م، الطّبعة الأولى، ص:99.

300 – بسيوني عبد الفتّاح فيود: المرجع نفسه، ص:100.

301 – بسيوني عبد الفتّاح فيود: المرجع نفسه، ص:101.

302 – بسيوني عبد الفتّاح فيود: المرجع نفسه، ص:102.

303 – فايز الدّاية: علم الدّلالة العربي النّظرية والتّطبيق دراسة تاريخية تأصلية، نقدية، دار الفكر بيروت– لبنان– 1405هـ، الطّبعة الأولى، ص:144.

304 – محمّد الطهطاوي،: نشأة النّحو وتأريخ أشهر النّحاة، مطبعة دار المعارف، مصر، 1973م، الطّبعة الثانية، ص:64.

305 – شوقي ضيف: المدارس النّحوية، مطبعة دار المعارف بالقاهرة، 2005م، الطّبعة الحادية عشرة، ص:59.

306 – محمّد طاهر سيد: مقدّمة في نشأة البلاغة العربيّة وتطوّرها، مطبعة دار الأمّة لوكالة المطبوعات، كنو، نيجيريا، 1428هـ/2007م، الطبعة الثانية، ص:45.

307 – عبد الحكيم حسين نعناع: المنار في علوم البلاغة، الإدارة العامة للمعاهد الأزهرية للطباعة والنّشر، 1401هـ/1981م، ص:12.

وقد أخذ علماء النّقد هذا البيت حيث يرون أن البيت لم يجر على قواعد النّحو المعروفة، لأنّ الشّاعر يريد أن يقول: "انظر قبل أن تلوماني" فحذف أنّ الناصبة في غير موضع حذفها، فلا أداة إذا، وعلى ذلك يكون نصب المضارع بدون ناصب، وهذا مخالف لقواعد النّحو المشهورة.

ومنه قول حسان بن ثابت:

ولو أنّ مجدًا أخلد الدّهر واحدًا ** من النّاس أبقى مجده الدّهر مطعما[308]

فقد أضمر في البيت قبل الذّكر لفظًا ومعنى وحكمًا، وهذا الإضمار لا تجيزه قواعد النّحو، والضّمير في "مجده" يعود على "مطعم" وهو متأخر في اللّفظ والمعنى.

ومنه قول المتنبي:

فإن يك بعض النّاس سيفًا لدولةٍ ** ففي النّاس بوقات لها وطبول[309]

ومنه قوله أيضا:

إذ بنى للئام زهده ** ما لي في صدورهم من مودة[310]

وقد أخذه النّقاد في هذين البيتين حيث أثبت أنّ كلمة "بوق" على "بوقات" في قول المتنبي مخالفة القياس الصّرفي، إذ القياس في جمعه للقلة "أبواق" وكمودة، في قوله أيضا لم يجر على القياس الصرفي ويجب على الشّاعر أن يدغم الدّال في الدّال، فيصير مودّة بالإدغام الصرفي، والحقّ أنّ اشتعال النّقاد القدامى بهذا الجانب النّحوي والصّرفي أفاد الشّعر والشّعراء وأفاد اللّغة العربيّة فائدة أصلية.

خلاصة القول: أنّ كلّ ما ذكرناها في هذا الصّدد من حركة علماء اللّغة وملحوظات نحوية وصرفية أخرجت من قبل النقاد على الشعر العربي يدلّ دلالة واضحة على منزلة العلمين في نقد الشّعر العربي.

المقياس النّحوي والصّرفي في نقد الشّعر العربي النّيجيري

من المعروف أنّ علم التّصريف هو الواسطة الكبرى إلى معرفة الاشتقاق الذي لا يعرف المرء سر اللّغة العربية إلاّ به، ولا يتمكن من عنانها حتّى يتصرّف فيها بدون خطأ إلاّ به[311].

وكان علم النّحو أيضا من أربح المكاسب، وأرجح المناصب وأرفع المراتب، وأنصح المناقب، وحرفة أهل الهمم من الأمم ونحلة أهل الشرف من السّلف والخلف، لم لا وهو مخ اللّغة العربية[312].

وعلى ذلك، أيّد عصفور بقول: النّحو علم يستخرج بالمقاييس المستنبطة من استقراء كلام العرب الموصولة إلى معرفة أحكام أجزائه التي ائتلف منها[313].

ولعلّ هذه الظّاهرة هي التي أدّت ببعض العلماء والأدباء والنّقاد النّيجيريين المعمقين في علمي النّحو والصّرف إلى أن يعتنوا عناية بالغًا بتحليل الشّعر العربي النّيجيري على المستوى النّحوي والصّرفي والتعرف على خصائصه.

والأدباء النّيجيريون ينقدون شعرًا لمخالفته النّحو والصّرف ولخروجه عن المألوف عند العرب ولوجود عناصر ذميمة فيه، إذا المقياس النّحوي والصّرفي هما الغايتان اللّتان تنتهان إليهما فكر النّقدة، وعليهما التّعويل في الإطلاع على حقائق الكلمات العربيّة ومفرداتها وصيغها وأصولها وزوائدها في كلام العرب عامّة، وفي الشّعر العربي خاصّة.

وخير من يمثل هذا المقياس في النّقد الشّعر العربي النّيجيري الدّكتور عيسى ألبي أبوبكر المحاضر بقسم اللّغة العربيّة جامعة إلورن، يعيب شعر عبد الله بن فودي (المتوفى 1244هـ) [314]، لمخالفته النّحو والصّرفي في قوله:

ولما رأينا جبنهم عن جموعنا ** رحلنا إليهم واللواءُ مُرفَّع[315]

أخذ عيسى ألبي أبوبكر الشاعر في تعدية "الجبن" إلى حرف الجرّ ففعل: جبن – يجبن – جبنًا، معناه تهيب الإقدام على ما لا ينبغي أن يخاف، فهو لازم في المقياس الصّرفي والفاعل جبان، والصّحيح عند النّقاد أن يقول:

ولما رأينا جبنهم في ديارهم ** رحلنا إليهم واللواء مرفع[316]

ومنه قول عبد الله بن فودي:

بدأت ببسم الله والشّكر يتبع ** على قمع كفّار علينا تجمع[317]

وصحيح عند عيسى ألبي أبي بكر أن يقول الشاعر: (تجمعوا) واو الجمع تعود إلى الفاعل المقدّم وهو الكفّار، ومنه قول عبد الله بن فودي:

فذدنا جموع الكفر عن حوضه وقد ** راوا جمعهم مثلي جماعتنا قَعْ[318]

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308 – عبد الحكيم حسين نعناع: المرجع نفسه، ص:14.

309 – حفني بك ناصف وشركاؤه: كتاب قواعد اللّغة العربيّة، بدون ذكر مطبعة، وبدون تاريخ، الطّبعة الثانية عشرة، ص:205.

310 – حفني بك ناصف وشركاؤه: المرجع نفسه، ص:206.

311 – يحيى فاروق ثيط: علم التّصريف وأهميّته في فهم النّصوص العربيّة عامة والقرآن الكريم خاصّة، مطبعة دار الأمّة لوكالة المطبوعات، كنو، نيجيريا، 2010م، ص:16.

312 – يحيى فاروق ثيط: صور من الإعلال بالحذف في القرآن الكريم دراسة وتحليل، مطبعة دار الأمّة لوكالة المطبوعات، كنو، نيجيريا، 1432هـ/ 2011م، الطبعة الأولى، ص:16.

313 – محمّد الطيب الفاسي: فيض نشر الإنشراح من روض طي الاقتراح، دار البحوث للدّراسات الإسلاميّة وإحياء التّراث للإمارات العربيّة المتحدّة دبي للنشر والتّوزيع، 1413هـ/ 2002م، الجزء الأوّل، الطّبعة الثانية، ص:238.

314– آدم عبد الله الإلوري: الإسلام في نيجيريا والشّيخ عثمان بن فوديو الفلاني، بدون ذكر مطبعة، 1398هـ/ 1978م، الطّبعة الثانية، ص:64.

315 – عيسى ألبي أبوبكر: دراسات في شعر الجهاد لدى عبد الله بن فوديو النّيجيري، مطبعة النّهار بالقاهرة للنشر والتّوزيع، 1427هـ/2007م، ص:179.

316 – عيسى ألبي أبوبكر: المرجع نفسه، ص:180.

317 – عيسى ألبي أبوبكر: المرجع نفسه، ص:181.

318 – عيسى ألبي أبوبكر: المرجع نفسه، ص:182.

وقد نقده أيضا في إيقاع السّامع في اللّبس لحذف واو الجماعة من فعل الأمر ظنًّا أنّ الإشباع يبقى بالواجب ولو قال الشاعر، (فعوا) لما خلّ ذلك بالمعنى والوزن، والسّامع قد يظنّ أنّ الأمر للمفرد فيكسر العين بدلامن رفعها، ويحدث ذلك لإقواء في القصيدة، وقد تكرر ذلك أيضا في قوله:

وعقبة جدّ للفلانين من عرب ** ومن تور كانت أمّهم بَجُّ غ[319]

وهذا البيت خالف المقياس النّحوي، ولو قال عبد الله بن فودي (عوا) لظلّ المعنى والوزن قائمين، ومنه قوله:

إلى أن تراءينا وزاد اقترابنا ** رموا فرميناهم فولوا وأقشع[320]

وأخذ عيسى ألبي أبوبكر على هذا البيت أنّ من الواجب على الشّاعر أن يقول (وأقشعوا) لكان أحسن لأنّه يخاطب جمًّا غفيرًا من الناس في هذا المضمار.

ومن الغلط الصّرفي الذي خالف المقياس وأخذ عليه النّقاد قول عبد الله بن فودي حين ردّ على البرناوي قائلا:

لسنا نخالط بالنسوان كيف وذا ** كنّا نحذر لكن قلت سلمنا[321]

إنّ المقياس (خالط) يتعدّى بنفسه وليست بحرف الجر، فالصّواب هو أن يقول الشّاعر "لسنا نخالط النّسوان" بغير حرف الباء.

ومهما يكن من أمر، فإنّ عبد الله بن فودي مع طول باعه في تملّك اللّغة العربيّة وأسرارها، وهو وقع في الأخطاء التي خالفت المقياس النّحوي والصّرفي.

والأستاذ محمّد الأمين عمر المحاضر بقسم اللّغة العربيّة جامعة بايرو كنو – من العلماء الذين جعلوا النحو مقياسًا في النّقد الشّعر العربي النّيجيري، ومما يؤخذ على الشّيخ أبي بكر عتيق قوله:

من ليس يحجب جدّه المختار عنـ ** ه كطرفة من لحظة العينان[322]

أثبت الأستاذ محمد الأمين في هذا البيت أنّ الشّيخ أبابكر عتيق يخالف القواعد النّحوية في بعض قصائده إذ الأصحّ أن يقال: "من لحظة العينين"، من باب المضاف إليه ولعلّ الشّيخ أبابكر هنا قد سلك نهج من يعرب المثّنى والملحق بالألف مطلقًا رفعًا ونصبًا وجرًّا.

ومما أخذه أيضا قوله:

فنيت بذا الشّراب وصرت باق ** به إذ ما رويت لذا بقيت[323]

إذ الأصحّ أن يقال: (وصرت باقيًا) لأنّ كلمة (الباقي) اسم المنقوص وفي هذا البيت يكون خبر (صار) ولابد أن يكون منصوبًا مفتوحًا.

ومصداقه ما قال أبو القاسم الحريري في هذه القضية قائلا:

والياء في القاضي وفي المستشرى ** ساكنة في رفعها والـجر

ويفتح اليـاء إذا مـا نصبا ** نحو لقيت القَاضِيَ المهذبا[324]

وأظهر مأخذه على شعر الشّيخ أبي بكر عتيق أيضا في إسقاط الياء وإسكان ما قبلها في الموصول الاسمي في قوله:

فالحمد لله وشكره على ** نعمه اللت ظهرت واللت لا[325]

وإسقاطها في قوله أيضا:

ألا فالحظني بلحطات اللّت ** أكون بها صاحيا ذا صفاء[326]

وفي قوله أيضا:

وإن جمعت جملة الأعداد ** اللت تريدها لدى الأفراد[327]

وبإمعان النّظر في الأبيات تخالف المقاييس النّحوية إذ لا يجوز إسقاط الياء في الموصول الاسمي، إلا في حالة التثنية، فإن ثنيت أسقطت الياء، وأوتيت مكانها بالألف حالة الرّفع نحو، اللّذان واللّتان وبالياء في حالتي الجرّ والنصب فتقول: اللّذين واللّتين، وشهد على ذلك قول ابن مالك.

موصول الأسماء الذي الأنثى التي ** والياء إذا ما ثنيا لا ثبت

بل ما تليه ما تليه أوّله العلامه ** والنّون إن تشدد فلا ملامه

والنّون من ذين وتين شدّدا ** أيضا وتعويض بذاك قصدا[328]

وقد حذف الشّيخ أبوبكر عتيق (المتوفّى 1974م)[329]، هذه الياء بدون تلك الشّروط المذكورة، ولذلك نقده وأخذه الأستاذ محمد الأمين عمر على تلك الأبيات.

ومنه قوله:

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319 – عيسى ألبي أبوبكر: المرجع نفسه، ص:183.

320 – عيسى ألبي أبوبكر: المرجع نفسه، ص:184.

321 – المرجع نفسه، ص:185.

322 – محمّد الأمين عمر: الشّيخ أبوبكر عتيق وديوانه هدية الأحباب والخلان، مطبعة زاوية أهل الفيضة التجانيّة كنو، نيجيريا، بدون تاريخ، ص:302.

323 – محمّد الأمين عمر: المرجع نفسه، ص:303.

324 – أبو القاسم الحريري: ملحة الإعراب، المكتبة الشعبية بيروت– لبنان، بدون تاريخ، ص:8.

325 – محمّد الأمين عمر: الشّيخ أبوبكر عتيق وديوانه هدية الأحباب والخلان، المرجع السابق، ص:303.

326 – محمّد الأمين عمر: الشّيخ أبوبكر عتيق وديوانه هدية الأحباب والخلان، المرجع السابق، ص:304.

327 – محمّد الأمين عمر: الشّيخ أبوبكر عتيق وديوانه هدية الأحباب والخلان، المرجع نفسه، ص:305.

328 – محمّد بن عبد الله بن مالك الأندلسي: متن ألفية ابن مالك في النّحو والصرف، مطبعة ابن حزم بيروت– لبنان، 1434هـ/2013م، الطّبعة الأولى، ص:21.

329 -ABDUR-RAZZAQ M.B SOLAGBERU: SHAYKH IBRAHIM NIYASS IN THE WORKS OF SHAYKH ABUBAKR ATIQ, FAIS Journal of the Humanities, Published by: The Faculty of Arts and Islamic Studies Bayer University, Kano. Vol, 5, No:1, 2001, P:18.

أوّلهم في العد قلّ كما يَوْ ** من عاش فيا صاح فلا تزد يو[330]

وقد أخذ محمد الأمين ونقده في هذا البيت إذا حالف المقياس النّحوي حيث حذف الميم في طرف الزّمان والأصحّ أن يقال: "كما يوم"، وكذلك "فلا تزد يوما".

وعلى هذا، ذهب الدّكتور محمد أمين الله آدمو الغمبري المحاضر في قسم اللغة العربيّة بجامعة بايرو كنو –نيجيريا في نقد البروفيسور ولي سمبو في قوله:

مدينة كسرى قلّ له يا مدائني ** لقد عشت في ترف وعمرت أزمنا[331]

أثبت محمد أمين الله آدمو أنّ الضّمير في "قل له" يصدر هذا البيت سبق صاحبه، وهو تركيب ركيك غير جار على قواعد النّحو.

والشّاعر فيما يبدو أراد الإجابة بذلك عن سؤال إليه الشّاعر الحكيم، في قوله:

وفي مدني ثمّ المديني مدائني ** فما الفرق في ذا النّسب بالله أعلنا[332]

فأرجع الدّكتور ولي سمبو الضّمير إلى مدائني فقال: "قل له" يعني قل في نسبة الرّجل إلى مدينة كسرى، يا مدائن والضّمير في هذه الحالة في موقع غير قريب الاسم المذكور قبله، وقد يتوهّم القارئ أنّ هذا الضّمير راجع إلى مدنية كسرى، ولاسيما إذا لم يكن له سابق إطلاع على القصيدة التي استفسر بها هذه الكلمة {مدائني}[333] ومن مؤاخذته قوله:

صلاة وتسليم على خير من أتى ** بنور من الديان نوّر قلوبنا[334]

نقد محمد أمين الله آدمو هذا البيت، ويرى أنّ التّركيب في هذا البيت ركيك غير صحيح نحوي، فالمعنى مضطرب، لأنّ المخاطب غير المذكور في قوله: "نوّر قلوبنا" كفعل أمر مبني على السّكون، فيه حذف ما لا يجوز حذفه انطلاقًا، وحتّى لو كان مراد الشاعر كذلك هو أنّ النور الذي أتى به النّبي (□) قد نوّر قلوبنا فإنّه مع ذلك لم يزل متورطا في خطأ نحوي فاحش لأنّ من المفروض والمقياس النّحوي أن يأتي الفعل ماضيا مبنيا على الفتح الظّاهر، وهذا النّوع من الخطأ ليست له ما يبرز الوقوع فيه أو ما يبيحه من الضّرورات الشّعرية اللهم إلاّ إذا كان يريد بهذا التّركيب: "نور قلوبنا" التفاتا يقصد به دعاء الله الدّيان كما جاء الاسم الأخير في ذلك التّركيب مجرورًا.

وإذا كان الأمر كما ذكرنا، والنّحوي لا يستطيع بهذا الصّدد أن يلبي حاجة طالب قواعد اللّغة العربيّة مهما حاول إعراب هذا التّركيب إلاّ إذا تكلف فيه تكلّفًا عسيرًا على غيره من النّحاة قبله، أو تمحلا لا يخلو من وهن وشذوذ حسب تعبير محمد أمين الله آدمو...

وعلى هذا الدّرب سارت السيدة محبّة أبوبكر في نقد بعض قصائد محمد المصباح إبراهيم الزّيتوني في بحثها الذي قدمها لشهادة ليسانس في جامعة ولاية لاغوس بعنوان: **"مساهمة الأستاذ مصباح الدّين الزّيتوني في الشّعر العربي"**، وقد اتخذّت محبة أبوبكر النّحو والصّرف مقياسًا في نقد الشّاعر ومنه قول المصباح الزّيتوني.

أنت من نجيت موسى قومه ** من أشرّ النّاس فرعون طغى[335]

نقدت هذا البيت بدليل لا يقال "أشرّ النّاس" ولكن يقال "شرّ النّاس" وهذا الدّليل لا يخفى في قول رسول الله (□): **"إنّ شرّ النّاس عند الله منزلة يوم القيامة من تركه النّاس اتقاء شرّه"**[336].

ومنه قوله:

لتكونوا قوّة قاهرة ** للأعادي العز من ربّ الورى[337]

أظهرت خطأ الشّاعر في هذا البيت لأنّ اللاّم في قوله "للأعادي" و"العوادي" يعني نصرة الأعادي، وهو غير مقصود، ولو قال الشّاعر "على الأعادي والعوادي" بحرف "على" بدل من "اللام" ليعطي "على الأعادي" معنًى مقصودًا وهو الغالب على الأعادي.

ومنه قوله:

يا إلورن حببوا أهل أويو ** يا أَيَوْلَـىْ سلموا لما سما[338]

والصّحيح أن يقال: "أحبو أهل أويو"، ثمّ أثبتت السيدة محبّة أنّ الشّاعر وقع كذلك في مثل هذا الخطأ في قوله أيضا.

حببوا الفقراء حبًّا صافيًا ** لا تمنوا أن يموتوا فقرًا[339]

والصحيح أن يقول الشّاعر "أحبّوا الفقراء".

ومنه قوله:

أسّسوا الشّركات لابن يوربا ** والمدارس وذا سيما التقى[340]

والصّحيح "أسسوا الشركات لأبناء يوربا".

والشّاعر أتى باسم المفرد في مكان الجمع وهو أصحّ تعبيرًا في هذا المقام.

وعلى هذا الدّرب سار الشّيخ داؤد عبد المجيد ألفنلا وهو يزدري شعر البروفيسور ولي ثنبو جنيد لمخالفته المقياس النّحوي ولأنّه مرذول عنده قول الشّاعر.

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330 – محمّد الأمين عمر: الشّيخ أبوبكر عتيق وديوانه هدية الأحباب والخلان، المرجع السابق، ص:306.

331 – محمّد أمين الله آدمو الغمبري: صورة من الإتجاهات الفنية في أدبنا العربي النّيجيري المعاصر، مطبعة شريف بلا للطباعة والنّشر، كنو نيجيريا، 1424هـ/2003م، ص:69.

332 – محمّد أمين الله آدمو الغمبري: المرجع نفسه، ص:70.

333 – المرجع نفسه، ص:71.

334 – المرجع نفسه، ص:71.

335 – محمّد المصباح إبراهيم الزّيتوني: لا معصوم من الخطأ، مطبعة شركة الأشيلا للطّباعة والنّشر، لاغوس، نيجيريا، 2007م، الطّبعة الأولى، ص:327.

336 – الإمام أبو عبد الله محمّد بن إسماعيل البخاري: صحيح البخاري، ج7، ص:18.

337 – محمّد المصباح إبراهيم الزّيتوني: المرجع السابق، ص:328.

338 – محمّد المصباح إبراهيم الزّيتوني: المرجع السابق، ص:329.

339 – محمّد المصباح إبراهيم الزّيتوني: المرجع السابق، ص:330.

340 – محمّد المصباح إبراهيم الزّيتوني: المرجع نفسه، ص:331.

لقد صدعت بما أمرت أخونا ** وجلوته من قبل كان دفينا
لا فضّ فوك بما أقمت به أتى ** إظهار حقّ لا اتباع بطونا
الحمد لله الذي أهدى لنا ** أمثالكم في نشر هذا الدّينا[341]

عيب الشّيخ داؤد عبد المجيد ألفنلا هذه الأبيات لوجود عناصر رداءة فيها وخروج عن سنن المقياس النّحوي.

وبذلك يسأل الشّاعر هل يريد يا أخانا أم يريد يا أخونا؟، ففي لغة يا أخونا في قوله: "لقد صدعت بما أمرت أخونا"، وكذلك قوله: "اتباع بطونا" هل يريد لا اتباع البطن أم اتباع الهوى.

ثم هل للجملة مضاف ومضاف إليه فالنّصب بدل من الجر أم مصدر يعمل عمل فعله ثمّ أضيف إلى مفعوله نحو: "لله حج البيت" ثمّ يوجّه سؤاله إلى الشّاعر قوله: "في نشر هذا الدّينا، فهل علم في قواعد النّحو تنازع الجار والمجرور والإضافة مع المفعول به في جملة واحدة"[342].

هكذا رأى داؤد عبد المجيد أنّ هذه الأبيات صدرها وعجزها لم تتدخل في المقياس النّحوي السليم.

ومن نماذج الشّعر العربي النّيجيري الذي خالف المقياس النّحوي والصّرفي قول أحد الشّعراء في مناسبة توديع أستاذه. يقول:

حمدا لربّ عظيم الشأن ذي قدر ** له البلاغة فـي الأشياء لـمعتبر
الـجامع بيـن أمرين مناقضة ** لغـاية ما كما في العسر واليسر
مـجيء بالجونحينا بعده قحط ** واصفرت الورق بعد الخضر والنّضر
منيع زيد مزيد نعمة عمر ** مغير اللّون في الأحداث والقدر[343]

وقام الدّكتور عيسى ألبي أبوبكر بالشرح والمحاولة لتقريب معاني الأبيات إلى القارئ وفك بعض رموزها، بيد أنه رأى أنّ الشّاعر وقع في أخطاء كثيرة نحوية وصرفيّة وعروضية وغير ذلك مما يبعد الشّعر عن الذّوق السّليم، وقد أبدى عيسى ألبي أبوبكر بعض الملاحظات في قوله:

"الجامع بين أمرين مناقضة" والصّحيح "أمرين متناقضين" وفي صدر البيت الرّابع: "منيع زيد مزيد نعمة عمر"، حيث أتى باسم الفاعل من زاد على "مزيد" الصّواب "زائد".

وعلى هذا المجال أخذ الدّكتور عيسى ألبي أبوبكر أيضا محمد البوصيرى سلمان (المتوفّى 2010م)، في قصيدة ترحيبية لرئيس وزراء شمال نيجيريا أحمد بلو سردونا في إحدى زياراته لمصر يقول:

فأهلا وسهلا بالزّعيم ومرحبا ** رئيس سردونا وهو قطب شماليا
أتانا من الغرب الزّعيم المفضل ** وحامى حمى الإسلام والدّرع واقيا
وعثمان دن فودى جد لأحمد ** رئيس سردونا مخلص لنيجيريا
ولن نرى مثل اليوم عند لقائـه ** بـمصر وفي ألماظه عند التلاقيا
لقد عمنا نور الزّعيم بـجمعنا ** وقد بات هذا النّور في القطر ساريا
وذلك ذكر اليوم عند استلامه ** شهادة فخري نالـها من أزاهريا
وصادف يومًا خالدًا للأزاهر ** ومن ضمنهم أبناء جنس نيجيريا
تعهد سردونا بقصد زيـارة ** بـحجّ وعمره دائما متتاليـا
جزى الله عنا كلّ دام لدينه ** بنصر ويسر فـي الدّنا وختاميـا
لقد سجل التاريخ عند قيامكم ** بذكر وفي الأخبار من كلّ ناحيا[344]

قام عيسى ألبي أبوبكر بنقد هذه الأبيات بناء على المقياس النّحوي والصّرفي السّليم، ويقول: ما مبرر بداية القصيدة بـ{الفاء}؟ في البيت الأوّل، وما وجه الإضافة في {رئيس سردونا}؟ في البيت الثالث، وما مقصود الشّاعر في البيت الرّابع استلم سردونا {شهادة فخرية أو شهادة فخري}؟ أليس بين (تعهد) و(عاهد) فرق دلالي ناتج من الاشتقاق الصّرفي في البيت الثامن، والقصيدة تحتوي على واحد وعشرين بيتًا لم يسلم بيت من خطأ نحوي وصرفي على حد قول الناقد.

ومهما يكن من أمر، فإنّ مثل هذه الدراسات تكون من باب تنبيه أصحاب الأقلام بشروط مهمة الكتابة التي تعدّ من أخطر المهن الإنسانية، وتذكيرهم بأنّ للّغة العربيّة سماتها ومميزاتها وخصائصها التي يجب أن تراعي عند مزاولة الكتابة الجيدة التي تعتمد اعتمادا كبيرًا على الركائز المعجمية[345]، ولاسيما نحوها وصرفها.

الخاتمة

قد حاول هذا البحث المتواضع تسليط الضّوء على جهود العلماء النيجيريين في نقد الشّعر العربي في بلادهم، فقد أسهم كلّ منهم في أداء هذه المهمّة النّبيلة على قدر ثقافتهم العلمية وثروتهم اللغوية، ولذلك يبدو على نقدهم الأمارات الجدية في علمي النّحو والصّرف ويقظين في ذوقهما السّليم، فقد أتى الباحث بنماذج نقدهم على ضوء المقياس النّحوي والصّرفي محاولاً ان يتحرّى الأمانة والإخلاص والصدق في دراسة شعرهم العربي النيجيري.

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342 – داؤد عبد المجيد ألفنلا: إجابة الجنوبيين عن مغالطات بعض الشّماليين في أضوائهم على الإسلام اليوم وغدا، بدون ذكر مطبعة، 1409هـ/ 1989م، الطّبعة الأولى، ص:31.

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344 – المرجع نفسه، 133.

345 – المرجع نفسه، 137.

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Traditional Perception and Concept of Beauty in Idoma Culture

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Abstract
Tradition is one of the nubs of humanity as it cuts across all races and geographic locations. The tradition of a people defines who they are and serves as the basis of their existence, recognition and in most cases, their source of pride. This creates the generally backdrop in which their perception of what is beautiful and concept, evaluation and interpretation. Therefore, this paper looks at how the Idoma culture perceive "beauty" or what is term "beautiful". To this end, the understanding of what is beautiful can be traditionally be rooted to the cultural acceptance and construal. In this paper, descriptive and analytical research methods are used and supported by relevant articles, books and internet sources as the secondary data. Among the findings in this paper was that what is term beautiful has a cultural acceptance, standard and it is communal. It is discovered that beauty is not the physical appearance of attractiveness but encompasses the deeper meaning and purpose from the object of esthete. The paper concludes that in Idoma culture what is perceived as beautiful is a generally agreed term which are in accordance with ethical norms and laid down guardians that serve as the standard for qualifying what is beautiful. It is recommended that ethnical standard for beauty to should be encouraged in other to bring moral standard. The acceptability and respect for the perception of how people view and perceive what qualifies "beautiful" should be respected by other culture and religion to bring understanding and peaceful coexistence.

Keywords: Beauty, Belief, Culture, Ethical and Traditional.

Introduction

Tradition determines the behavioural attitude of a people. These include established religious beliefs, art forms, performances, laws, and general life approach preserved with respect in an ancestral/genealogical pattern that usually presents a unique aesthetic feature for the group involved. Doina, Calin, Elena-Adriana and Anisoara (2011, p. 1494) define tradition as:

> A source of life that extends human experience, conferring to it time, action, involvement, and permanency within the system of values . . . as "stylistic matrix" in the mioritic space . . . (which) implies "human nature" that is not determined by the rigidity of its biological and psychological constitution, but it is continually shaped by cultural values that are internalized, individualised, and expresses ideals that belong to different communities, ideals that may become permanent.

Tradition is the sum total of practices, doings, actions, and beliefs that differentiate communities, ethnic nationalities, societies, and individuals. This portends that beyond examining the concept in the lenses of large societies, individuals also possess practices and beliefs that are particular to them. This explicates the disparity between people. However, it is pertinent to note that, the larger society facilitates the construction of individual traditions. Hence, Linnekin (1983, p. 241) articulates that, "tradition is a priori model that shapes individual and group experience and is, in turn, shaped by it". Linnekin's articulation portends that as agents of tradition man also influences, defines and redefines tradition. Tradition serves as a springboard for examining societal ethos, concepts and contexts as well as the practices of a people. It is the whole gamut of their belief system. In fact, tradition binds a people. These norms and ethos on the other hand, are reconstructed by man, who is the agent of tradition. Paradigmatically, the transformation and secularization of tradition is engineered by man. Traditional performances are products of traditions. They are rooted in the norms, ethos and belief system of a people.

Kofoworola (1987, p. 2) submits that, ''traditional performance was borne out of the need to appeal to their sensitivity, emotions, feelings and even reasoning as perceived logical by the human thinking faculty''. In the same vein, Enekwe (2013, p. 41) in his comparison of African and Asian traditional performances with the Europeans, explains that their traditional performances are:

> Designed to astonish and delight the audience – dancing, acrobatics, etc . . . this means that the actors are not interested in exact or deliberate imitation of reality . . . it is also

> total, because it combines many art forms, music, poetry, dance, acting, miming, mask, painting, singing, dialogue, etc.

The Concept of Beauty in Idoma Culture

The concept of beauty does not have a unitary universal perception or definition as it varies from individual to group, culture to tradition, having different understanding and interpretations. The concept of beauty is rooted in culture. What constitutes beauty or the aesthetic varies from one culture and individual to the other. This clearly depicts the subjectivist and objectivist notion on aesthetics. Plato cited in Hart (2019, p. 28) defines aesthetics as *beauty*, *imitation*, *inspiration*. Aristotle describes aesthetics as beautiful regarded as a species of the Agreeable or Desirable. Hume states that aesthetic is "the standard of taste" (Costelloe, 2004, p. 89). Early scholars of aesthetics appropriated the objectivist and subjectivist aesthetic enterprise. While the objectivist philosophy on aesthetics crystallises an approach in investigating the beautiful in the object itself, the subjectivist school appropriates an approach that examines the object in the perspective of the beholder. Scholars of culture and performance such as Kofoworola (2004), Enekwe (2013), among others have also argued on the concept of beauty. According to Ibanga (2017, p. 250), "beauty connotes celebration of worth, value, quality, essence, and desirability. Hence, the concept of beauty in Africa is quite broad, and varies from one cultural community to another". The contention on what is beautiful in the African situation differs from the Western context. For instance, while fat women are considered beautiful in traditional Nigerian cultures, the reverse is the case in the Western orientation. In the west, being skinny is attributed to being beautiful. Castillo et al. (2017) attests to this when they stated that, "the concept of beauty has a lot to do with slender features". Hence, the multifaceted approaches to examining, investigating and evaluating the beautiful.

In corroboration of Ibanga's statement, Carroll (2000, p. 37) articulates that, "there are many conceptions of "beauty". Some people associate beauty with proportion and harmony; some with pleasure taken in the appearance of things; and some, more narrowly, with disinterested pleasure". Nair (2005, p. 156) describes the concept of beauty from the Indian aesthetics tradition that beauty:

> Includes complex philosophical meanings relating to perception and consciousness, establishing the term as a temporal concept of . . . joy and delight, embedded in moments in our daily life . . . in this sense, is understood as a kinetic concept engaging human perception, between the object of beauty and its subjective response, transforming material qualities into aesthetic experience.

The aesthetician is imperative in the evaluation of the object. Sircello (1975, p. 80), an advocate and disciple of the approach of Kant, in his study of the aesthetic philosophy of Immanuel Kant, submits that:

> Beauty is attributed to things both in virtue of their utility (what they are good for) and in virtue of their possessing qualities according to which they are good specimens of their respective kinds. Kant admitted that the judgments of these varieties of goodness—that is, being good for something and being a good specimen of a kind—are indeed objective because they are determined by concepts, namely, the concept of the "external" purpose that a thing is good for and the concept of the kind of thing to which it belongs. To square these facts with his subjective theory of beauty. Kant distinguishes between two "kinds" of beauty: "free" or "self-subsistent" beauty, on the one hand, and "dependent,""conditioned," or "adherent" beauty, on the other. (Sircello concludes that) under "free beauty" Kant would include just those beauties that . . . are unrelated to goodness except in being good to look at or listen to.

Beauty, according to Higgins, Maira and Sikka (2017, p. 1) has "doubtlessly reflected its importance in people's lives. Beauty has the power to calm, to inspire, or to drive us onward". Amongst the Idoma people, the interpretation of what is beautiful is communal, and it is culturally rooted in Idoma tradition. Beauty is seen as the appreciation of art that appeals to the sensibility of the observer. The Idoma people collectively have the same aesthetic value for performances, the appearance of a beautiful costume, a good dancer or the dressing of a king. This has unanimous appreciation of a work of art is based on what is termed the general value of the people. "It is also important to consider that beauty ideals are culturally constructed and not the same everywhere" (Morris and Nichols, 2013, p. 52). This connotes that what is

beautiful to the Idoma is the combination of the natural and ideological factors among them. Citing Albert Vogel, Suru (2008, p. 170) states that "beauty is not only intended to please the eyes but also to uphold moral values". In the same streak, Kyo (2012, p. 107) avers that:

> When an aesthetic judgment is made, "the eye of the observer" is based on the sensibilities of the majority, not a specific individual's taste. In that sense, the determination of beauty or ugliness is always influenced by preferences of the general public.

Kyo in his aversion democratises the aesthetic judgment. To contend that the beautiful is predicated on the appeal it has on the majority might be fallacious. Bias and prejudice for an object could also influence the judgment of an aesthetician. Kyo's position is a politicisation of the aesthetic process and this is a limitation to his approach on evaluating the beautiful. The Medusa or the Monalisa portrait might not generate the same applause by an African aesthetician as it does Western aestheticians. The mask of Idia, the portrait of Imaguero, and the art sculpture of Nana of Itsekiri would generate positive and constructive review from African audience, due to their attachment to the aesthetic object. Hartman (1919, p. 13) posits that:

> Beauty is an abstract, substantive entity which transcends the many particular instances of its manifestation; that things are not beautiful in and by themselves, but that they become beautiful to the extent in which they share or participate in abstract, transcendent beauty; and that the what of beauty is either Mind, Truth, Perfection, or Meaning.

The above statement elucidates on the *beauty is in the eyes of the beholder* maxim which is also the subjectivist approach to evaluating the beautiful. Various types of beauty abound. The perception depends on the intention of the beholder.

Types and Value of Beauty

There are numerous types of beauty and the values attached to them. So, things are beautiful for a person and the purpose of it, some for the use and others for the way it has been instituted.

In this paper, beauty have classified into the following three main categories:

i. Human beauty – these includes the human body shape, colour and the general physic as created by God;
ii. Nature beauty- this includes all things considered to be beautiful that are not created by humans e.g. Language, weather, topography, animals, and so on; and
iii. Man-made beauty- these are all things that are considered beautiful and created by man which consist of arts works, habit, culture, engineering constructions, clothings and so on.

To the Idoma people, the term 'beautiful' varies. There are general perspectives in which beauty can be perceived and translated either in human or object reference. In fact, Damme (1996, p. 62) asserts that "a work of art, . . . has on the one hand a message, a content, which can only be completely comprehended within the society that produced the work". There are cultural icons that symbolise as the standard in judging Idoma concept of what is beautiful. In Idoma culture and language; "*Ebity ochohi"* is a saying in Idoma language qualifying the giraffe as the queen of beauty because of the length of its neck. A woman with long neck is regarded to be very beautiful; likewise, a woman with folds or rings around her neck or with dimples on her cheeks. A well dyed blue-black traditional cloth or a combination of bright colours of red, yellow and indigo are acknowledged as a splendid combination of beautiful colours to the Idoma people.

Furthermore, in Idoma culture, beauty is accompanied with morals and value. Eaton (2000, p. 27) affirms that, "beauty is a contextual property deeply connected to factual beliefs and moral attitudes" The object/subject of beauty must have its own moral and traditional standard to be considered to be beautiful. On the other hand, the view and interpretation determining the factor of what is beautiful is seen from the angle and purpose for which it is produced. All traditional elements, aids and performances have distinguished identities that are the result of how it is aesthetically perceived. What is "beautiful" must have the required cultural backing to have the needed aesthetic value by the people. This in turn gives it the known cultural aesthetic right on how beauty is perceived.

Conclusions

Conclusively, the Idoma culture and tradition sets the standard for what is considered as beautiful. The general perception of what is beautiful is a general agree term in Idoma culture which are in accordance with ethical norms and laid down standard for qualifying what is "beautiful". The Idoma have respect for what is beautiful as it is harmony with the choice of the people. This will go a long way in making people appreciate and respect the beauty of other culture and tradition.

Recommendations

This paper recommends that culturally accepted standard for beauty to should be encouraged in other to bring moral standard of beauty in line with the people's culture and tradition. This paper also suggests that there should be mass campaign by stake holders in local, state, federal arms of government and other stake holders for the need, acceptability and respect for the perception of how other people understand, portray, view and perceive beauty or beautify and what qualifies it. This will bring understanding, peaceful coexistence respected among people, culture and religion.

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Pronouns in Kétu: A Dialect of Yoruba

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Abstract
*Pronoun has been identified as one of the functional categories in the literature that can be understudied to trace the diachronic changes in the Language for recent past. This paper is presented to look into the detail description of pronoun in Anglo-phone Kétu residing at Ogun West Senatorial district. Data were collected from ten people, whose age ranged between 40 – 80 years. Seven were between the age range of 60 – 80 years. We decided to use data from this sub-group of people because they are more familiar with the basic form of the pronouns in the dialect. Our findings reveal that (i) pronouns in Kétu are mono-morphemic, (ii) the dialect has much more variants of pronoun occurring in different syntactic constructions than the pronouns in the Standard Yorùbá, (iii) the dialect has a complete occurrence of pronoun in all stages of person. That is, the third singular subject pronoun in the dialect is conspicuously reflected (**ún** or **ò**), (iv) the total number of pronouns in Kétu exceeds the number of pronouns in the Standard Yorùbá, (v) the dialect has six varieties of **un** which takes either low, mid or high tone in different syntactic positions. Based on the aforestated findings, we hereby encourage further researches into the pronouns of other Yorùbá dialects in the hope of bringing new items of information that will broaden our knowledge on the pronouns of the Standard Yorùbá.*

Keywords: Ketu Dialect, Morpho-Syntactic, Advanced Tongue Root, Mono-Morphemic, Persons.

Introduction

Pronoun is the only syntactic category in Kétu and Yorùbá in general where the through case system is characterized. Studies have shown that pronouns are definite and predictable. Predictable in the sense that the native speaker of any dialect knows how to use its right variant that conforms to the internationalized rule in the dialect; most especially, the use of honorific pronoun which somehow deviates from the acceptable syntactic norm. Therefore, the use of right pronoun in the syntactic position implies the competence of the native speaker in the language. Kétu, a tribe of Yorùbá, was partitioned between the French and the British colonial masters in the early 20th century. This partitioning of course, results into having Franco-phone ketoeu and the Anglo-phone Kétu. Ìlárà, a small town beside Ìmẹ̀kọ, serves as the administrative boundary between the two Kétu. However, the partitioning has great influence on their dialects because the Francophone Kétu do speak a distinct Yorùbá dialect that resembles the sub-dialects of their immediate neighbours in the Benin Republic. The diachronic overview of the Francophone Kétu results into an heteronous (see Chambers and Trudgill 1984: 11 – 12) dialects among which **Mọ̀fọ̀lí** stands out. The Anglophone Kétu which covers sub-dialects of Yorùbá, such as: Ìmẹ̀kọ, Àfọ̀n, Ìlárà, Àlàgbé, Ìdòfà, Ìwòyè, Òkè-Àgbé, Mọ́ríwú, Wáàsimi-Òkúta, Ọlogede Owode, Atapele, Obada and Obolo (Adédèji 2000: 28) maintain cohesive language relation with other sub-dialects of Yorùbá in Nigeria.

This paper tends to discuss pronouns in Auglo-phone Kétu in the hope of bringing out useful items of research information that would be explored to clear some linguistic puzzles in Yorùbá Grammar. Awóbùlúyì (1998: 2 – 3) hints that the South West Yorùbá suffers the greatest setback in the literature. Therefore, we decide to look at one of the dialects in the group (Kétu) in the hope of making literary contributions to the syntactic analysis of the standard Yorùbá.

Our theoretical analysis is basically descriptive to accord us opportunities of presenting our discussion on the basis of the intuitive knowledge of the native speakers of the dialect. We shall try to use standard Yorùbá, and most especially Bámgbóṣé (1967, 1990) as our reference language for our comparative analysis on the topic. Bámgbóṣé (1967:10-11) defines pronoun as "a word which cannot have a qualifier in the nominal group". He presents a table for the pronoun in standard Yorùbá as:

A.

Number	Subject Pronouns	Pronouns in the Object Positions
1st person singular	Mo	Mi
2nd person singular	O	o/e
3rd person singular	Ó	Vowel of the Verb
1st person plural	A	Wa
2nd person plural	E	Nyín
3rd person plural	Nwọ́n	Wọn

Bámgbóṣé (1967:10-11)
Bámgbóṣé (1967:10) explains that the first and second person pronouns have alternant forms which are variants of the base forms as in;

When preceded by verbal particle **n**.
1a.(i) 1st person singular: Mo lọ -- Mò n lo (I am going)
(ii) 2nd person singular: O lọ -- Ò n lo (You are going)
(iii) 1st person plural: A lọ -- À n lo (We are going)
(iv) 2nd person plural: Ẹ̀ n lo (You [pl.] are going). These examples are mine).

He also presents an alternant form occurring before the verb form 'a' ('will') in the subject positions as:

B.

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	Mà	A
2nd	Wà	Ẹ
3rd	A	Nwọ́n

As in:
2. (i) Mà á lo -- "I will go"
(ii) Wà á lo -- "You will go"
(iii) À á lo -- "He will"

Bámgbóṣé (1967) also hints that the tone of the pronoun object depends on that of the proceeding verb. That, it is a mid-tone after a high tone verb, and a high tone after a mid or a low tone verb, as in:

3. (i) Ó rí mí -- "he saw me"
(ii) Ó jọ mi -- "he resembles me"
(iii) Ó wò mí -- "he looked at me"
(iv) Ó gbà á -- "he got it".

All these syntactic variations would be touched upon in the pronouns in Kétu dialect. The variants of pronoun in Kétu dialect are hereby presented in the tables **C** and **D** as follows:

Pronouns in Kétu dialect

C.

Number	Subject Position	Object Position
1st person singular	Mò/mọ̀/uǹ	Un/un/mu
2nd person singular	Ò/ọ̀, uǹ, ì	e/é
3rd person singular	ò/uń	Uń
1st person plural	À	Ni
2nd person plural	Ẹ̀	Yín
3rd person plural	Uń	Uń/uń

D.

Number	Qualifier
1st person singular	Mu
2nd person singular	Rè/ẹ̀
3rd person singular	È
1st person plural	Ìni
2nd person plural	Un
3rd person plural	Uń

We shall try to provide examples of pronoun forms of various morpho-phonological variants in different syntactic positions as exemplified in the above table.

Analysis
For sequence and coherent explanations, we shall try to proceed on the 1st person short pronouns in Kétu.

First Person Pronouns in Kétu.
Generally, pronouns in Kétu adopts a system of numbers (singular and plural). The singular form refers to one person while the plural form identifies two or more peoples. First person short pronoun in Ketu have more than these. The dialect has variant forms of 1st person singular subject and object pronouns in different syntactic constructions.

Syntactic Description of First-Person Singular Pronoun (F.P.S.P) Forms in Subject Position
First person singular pronouns in Kétu are: **Mò, Mọ̀, ùn**. These alternant forms appear in different syntactic positions in the dialect. For instance, the dialect parades two forms **mò/mọ̀** as the 1st person singular subject in a declarative sentence as in:

5. (i) Mọ̀ gbọ́ bá a -- "I heard so".
   (ii) Mọ̀ fẹ́ í tètè dé -- "I expect you to come on time".
   (iii) Mò ti lọ lọ́nàá -- "I have gone yesterday".
   (iv) Mò ṣe é -- "I did it".

The usage, as identified above, in the different syntactic variations depends on the Advance Tongue Root Feature (hereafter ATR) of the vowel of the main verb. For instance, **mò** agrees with verb thus has '+ATR' feature while **mọ̀** cooccurs with verb that has '-ATR' features (see Archangel, D. and D. Pulleyblank 1989; and Adékúnlé M. A. 2001:46-56 for further explanations). However, when tense marker appears in between the subject and the verb, **mo** is usually adopt as it appears in 5iii.

Also, when the habitual or progressive tense marker, exists or intercedes between the subject pronoun and the main verb, the pronoun changes to **un**, with the mid tone'. Therefore, **un** serves as the first person pronoun for habitual and progressive tense marker constructions in the dialect as its exemplified in the below sentences.

6. (i) Un ún kanju -- "I am in haste".
   (ii) Un uń sisẹ́ un -- "I am doing my work".
   (iii) Un ún jẹ̀bà -- "I am eating ẹ̀bà)".
   (iv) Un uń rí i -- "I do see him/her/it frequently".

The use of **un** in the latest examples creates a linguistic ambiguity. One may guess that progressive assimilation does occur between the First person singular pronoun and progressive tense marker **ún** – as its conventionally claim in S. Y. However, such a claim is adulterated when one considers its variant form in habitual tense marker as in **olú máa ún sùn** (Olu use to sleep) in Kétu dialect.

Also, we observe from these latest examples that, Kétu has **ún** as the habitual and **ún** as the progressive sentence marker respectively; while the Standard Yorùbá faction uses the duo of **n** and **máa n'** respectively as shown in the below examples:

7a.(i)	Olu	máa ń	sùn	(Olu use to sleep.)
	(name)	hab. T.M	v	
(ii)	Olu	n	gbọ	(Olu is listening)
	name	prog. T.M	v	

Kétu however would have the below statements as the replacement to the latest examples as:

b.(i)	Olu	máa ún sùn	(Olu use to sleep)	
	Name	hab. T.M.	V	
(ii)	Olu	ún	gbọ́	(Olu is listening)
	Name	prog. T.M.	V	

The inferences we deduced from the above examples is that;

8. (i) **un** replaces **n** as habitual marker.
   (ii) It is phonetically possible to trace the underlying base form of nasal consonant syllabicity to **un**. This is possible having considered the phonetic realization of the duo as in: (+ nasal), (+ syllable) which are the reduction of the basic phonetic features of **un** as in:

un
+ nasal
+ syllabic
+ high
+ vowel
+ back

When **un** lost parts of its basic phonetic characterizations such as: **high**, **vowel** and **back** (as claimed in Adékúnlé 2019), the remaining phonetic feature (nasal and syllabic) could be orthographically represented as in: **n** stands for nasal, while tone represents syllabicity in Yorùbá language. Owolabi (2011) stresses that the number of syllables in a given word must correspond with the number of the tones.

Object Position

Kétu uses two variants of first person singular object pronoun. These are **un** or **mu**. The tone mark of the preceding verb would determine the tone of the pronoun. For instance, if the verb possesses low tone, the object pronoun would take high tone, but when the proceeding verb or preposition takes high tone, the object pronoun would take mid tone as in:

9. (i)	Ò puró fún mu	--	"He tells lie to me"
(ii)	Olú pè mú	--	"Olu calls me"
(iii)	Kọ́lá rí mu	--	"Kola sees me"
(iv)	Bímbó jọ̀mú	--	"Bimbo resembles me"

This tonal change phenomenon is unique to Yorùbá language in the same syntactic configuration as claim by Awóbùlúyì (2013:106).

So, either of the variants **mu** or **mú** may definitely appear as the first person singular object in such syntactic construction. Also, **un** variant takes the same objective position as a direct object in sentences where prepositional phrase modifies the objective case as in:

10.(i)	Olú jí un lówó	--	"Olu steals my money"
(ii)	Ó tà uń nípàá	--	"He/she hits me with legs"
(iii)	Bímpé jẹ un níyaǹ	--	"Bimpe argues with me"
(iv)	Bàbá fún un lórúkọ	--	"Father gives me name"

Taking cognisance of the fore-going examples, it is observed that **un** also has phonological variant depending on the tone of the verb: **ún, un**. Nonetheless, the dialect does not allow the first person singular object pronoun to take low tone. They take either **mid** or **high** tone.

Before we round off our analysis on F.P.S.P in Kétu dialect, we shall also mention its variants as a qualifier in the dialect. Kétu allows 'mu' as the only variant to represent F.P.S.P as a nominal qualifier. It has neither phonological or morphological variants as it is exemplied in the below sentences.

11.(i) Ìwé mu uń wà bẹ́ẹ̀ -- "My book is there"
(ii) Bàbá mu uń dé lọ́nàá -- "My father came yesterday"
(iii) Ògbín mu uń tóbi -- "My snail is big"
(iv) Erí or ìsèkú mu ún dara -- "My head is good"

Syntactic Description of Second Person Singular Pronoun (S.P.S.P)
The second person singular pronoun in Kétu can be divided into three different syntactic variants as: subject, object and qualifier. The S.P.S.P form in subject position in Ketu dialect are **ọ**, **o**, **i**, and **un**. These alternants observe ATR feature in their syntactic distribution and take the tonal pattern (mid tone). When they function in different syntactic constructions in the dialect, **ọ** or **o** appears as S.P.S.P form in declarative statement such as:

12.(i) Ọ lọ lọ́nàá -- "You went yesterday"
(ii) O pè mú -- "You called me"
(iii) O rí i -- "You saw him/her/it"

Notice that **ọ** co-occurs with a main verb possesses - ATR vowel feature, while **o** agrees with main verb with +ART vowel feature. Another S.P.S.P variant is **un** which serves as subject pronoun form in the same syntactic position for habitual or progressive tense marker sentence as in:

13.(i) Un ún lo -- "You are going"
(ii) Un ún bo -- "You are coming"
(iii) Un máa ún jẹ ẹ́ -- "You usually eat it"
(iv) Un máa ún rí i -- "You usually see it"

Aside from the aforementioned variants, the S.P.S.P form for negative sentence in Kétu is **i**. This form has no variant in such a syntactic construction because it occurs with either **kò/kọ̀** (as variants of negative sentence marker) in the dialect as in:

14.(i) I kọ̀ gbà -- "You do not accept"
(ii) I kò se é -- "You did not do it"
(iii) I kọ̀ í gbọ́ràn -- "You do not listen"
(iv) I kọ̀ jẹ ẹ́ -- "You do not eat it".

Also, the S.P.S.P form for objective case in Kétu is **e**. This phoneme has phonological variants as **e** or **é** depending on the tone mark of the preceeding verb. If the tone mark is low or mid the object will take high tone **é** but if the verb has high tone, the object would possess mid tone **e** as follows:

15.(i) Mọ̀ fẹ́ rí e -- "I want to see you"
(ii) Ún ún pè é -- "He/she is calling you"
(iii) Mò rí ẹ lọ́nàá -- "I saw you calling"
(iv) Olú ún kí e -- "Olu is greeting you"

Now, we shall be discussing the description of third person singular pronoun forms.

Morpho-syntactic Description of Third Person Singular Pronoun Forms

Kétu uses two variants of pronoun as third person singular pronoun in the dialect. These are **ún/ó** for subject position and **un** or **ún** in the object position. The pronoun in the object position is toneless from the base. This assumption is reached because the tone of the verb will definitely determine the tone of the object pronoun. For instance, if the verb has high tone, the object will take mid tone but if the verb has low or mid tone, the object will take high tone. This is display in the below examples:

16.(i) Ó rí ún -- "He/she sees it/her/him"
(ii) Ó se ún -- "He/she does it/her/him"
(iii) Ó jẹ ún -- "He/she eats it"
(iv) Mò pé ún -- "I called him/her"
(v) A rí ún -- "We saw him/her"

The occurrence of **un** or **ún** in the object position corroborates Awóbùlúyì (2008) claim that the basic morpho-syntactic pronoun in the object position in standard Yorùbá is **un**. Although, the subject position has two variants – **ún/ó**. **Ó** is commonly used for third person singular pronoun for subject position in the declarative statement while the dialect chooses **ún** in the habitual or progressive sentences as in:

17.(i) Ún ùn su -- "I do not sleep"
(ii) Ún ùn gbo -- "I do not hear"
(iii) Ún máa ún jẹ ẹ̀bà -- "He eats ẹ̀bà frequently"
(iv) Ún máa ún gégi -- "He/she use to fell trees"

The inferences we are able to make from the use of **ún** or **ó** as the third person singular objection pronoun in Kétu is that the two variants take high tone. Meanwhile, the third person subject pronominal in Kétu is **òun**. Therefore, if there should be any phonological reduction, it ought to be one of the following as in: **ò / ùn / o / un**.

Awóbùlúyì (2008, 2013) hints that since **ó** appears as the third person singular subject pronoun in Yorùbá literature, whereas other pronouns take mid tone, he believes the third person singular subject pronoun in Yorùbá language is zero morpheme. He stressed that what appears as the third person singular subject pronoun is basically concord marker or referential functor. However, the usage of **ó** and **ún** in the same syntactic position informs that Awóbùlúyì (2013) and Taiwo, O. and J. Asiwaju (2012:273 – 274) position on the non-occurrence of third person subject pronoun in the standard Yoruba needs to be re-examined. We observe that the same morpho-phonological process does occur in Standard Yorùbá, where **wọ́n** as third person plural subject pronoun remains the short form of **àwọn** which is the third person plural subject pronoun in the language. Our position on zero morpherme realization of the third person singular pronoun will be explicitly demonstrated in another paper.

Having explained the morpho-syntactic description of pronoun in the singular number in the dialect, we want to proceed on the plural counterparts.

Morpho-syntactic Description of the Plural Pronouns in Kétu Dialect

The graphical demonstration of pronoun tables **C** and **D** in Kétu convincingly represent the plural variants of the pronouns in the subject, object and qualifier positions in different syntactic variations. We shall proceed our description from the first-person plural pronouns.

Morpho-syntactic Description of the First-Person Plural Pronoun Forms

Kétu uses three variants of pronoun as first-person plural pronouns in various sentence constructions in the dialect as in:

18.(i) À – first person plural subject pronoun
(ii) Ni – first person plural object pronoun
(iii) Un – first person plural qualifier pronoun

These are demonstrated sequentially in the below sentences as in:

19. **a**

i.	À rí i	--	"We see it/her/him"
ii.	À jẹ ẹ́	--	"We eat it"
iii.	À ti gbọ́	--	"We have heard"
iv.	À ti sù	--	"We have slept"
v.	À ún máa ún gbọ́	--	"We do heart it frequently"
vi.	À ún máa ún sù	--	"We sleep frequently"
vii.	A kọ̀ gbà	--	"We did not accept"
viii.	A kò pè é	--	"We did not call you"

Notice that **À** is the only morpho-syntactic entity that occupies the first person plural subject position in the aforetasted examples. However, we notice phonological variants of **A** in the last two examples, **19vii – viii**. These sentences are negative statements which exhibit negator **ko** or **kọ̀**. Instead of **A** with low tone, **A** takes mid-tone. However, the changes observe is allophonic and not morphological variants. Also, the appearance of **ún** between the first person plural subject pronoun **À** and progressive sentence marker **máa ún** has been mentioned in this study. Its appearance creates an enormous linguistic constraints base on:

20.a. Should we consider it as a concord marker (cm).
b. Should we identify it as additional progressive sentence marker.
c. Could it be allotted to the noun phrase in the syntactic description.

A cursory attention ought to be observed so that we would not come with vague propositions. If option **a** is adopted, that means we will have to explain how CM do exists with pronoun in the dialect. Option **c** also has syntactic problem because pronoun in the dialect does not take qualifier. It is only option **b** that is attestable but we need to explain the reason why **ún** does not feasible in other progressive sentences in the dialect. We hope future studies would look into the problem. Furthermore, the first person plural object pronoun in Ketu is **ni**. This is exemplified in the below sentences:

21.(i)	Olú pè ni	--	"Olu called us"
(ii)	Kọ́lá bú ni	--	"Kola abused us"
(iii)	E rí ni	--	"You saw us"

Note that **ni** has no allomorphic alternants in the foregoing examples. Notwithstanding, **ini** serves as the first person plural pronoun qualifier in Ketu dialect. We believe **ni** is a shorter form of **ini**, while **ini** is a dialectal variant of **ẹ́ní** in Ijebu dialect as in:

22.(i)	Ọmọ ẹ́ní dé lọ́nàá	--	"Our child arrived yesterday"
(ii)	Iye ẹ́ní kú	--	"Our mother dies"
(iii)	Asọ ẹ́ní ra à ya	--	"Our cloth is not tore"

Also, **ini** (Kétu) or **ẹ́ni** (Ijebu) seems to be a reduction of **ọ̀nìyàn** (Ifẹ̀ dialect), **ènìyan** (Standard Yorùbá) and **onìyàn** (Ẹ̀gbá dialect). We agree that reduction and vowel shifting analysis could be used to account for the changes as proposed in Adekunle (2019).

Morpho-syntactic Description of the Second Person Plural Pronouns (S.P.P)

Kétu uses three morpho-phonological variants as S.P.P pronouns in the dialect. They are **è**, **ún** and **yin**. Their phonological characterization is basical because they have no phonological allophones. The following examples attest to this as in:

23.(i)	È dé lọ́nàá	--	"You arrived yesterday"
(ii)	È ti lọ nílé	--	"You have gone home"
(iii)	È ún maa un jẹ ẹ	--	"You usually eat it"
(iv)	È un bọ̀	--	"You are coming"
(v)	E kọ̀ ra aso	--	"You did not buy cloth"
(vi)	Mò riyin	--	"I see you"
(vii)	Ùn ún gbọ́yin	--	"I am hearing you"
(ix)	Ó pèyín	--	"He/she is calling you (pl.)".
(x)	Ọmu jọ̀yin	--	"Your child resembles you (pl.)".

Kétu operates verb + pronoun incorporation system which is peculiar to the dialect. More examples are:

24.(i)	Ọ̀gá pèmú	--	"Master called me"
(ii)	Ọmọ náà jọni	--	"The child resembles us"
(iii)	Mò ríyin	--	"I saw you pl."
(iv)	Olú pèni	--	"Olu called us"
(v)	Mò ún gbọ́yin	--	"I am listening to you".

We wish future research would look into the incorporation system in the dialect in detail.

The only irregular form or variants we observe in the dialect in the latest examples is **e** (with mid tone) as indicated in example **23v**. Here, the conventional low tone **è** changes to mid tone **e**. Our explanation on second person singular subject pronoun is strictly applicable.

Before we round off this sub-section, we want to expand upon the third person plural pronoun forms in the dialect.

Morpho-Syntactic Description of the Third Person Plural Pronoun Forms

Kétu uses **un** as third person plural pronoun form in the language. The phonological variants of **un** serves as the alternant forms in the subject, object and qualifier syntactic distributions. This prosodic phenomenon serves as the major distinction of the alternant forms endorse for each syntactic distribution as in:

25.(i)	Ún	--	3rd person plural in subject position
(ii)	Ún/un	--	3rd person plural in object position
(iii)	Ùn	--	3rd person plural a qualifier.

This may be illustrated by the following examples;

26.(i)	Ún ti lo	--	"They have gone"
(ii)	Ún délé mu	--	"They came to my house"
(iii)	Ún kọ̀ gbọ́	--	"They use to quarrel"
(iv)	Mò pèún	--	"I called them"
(v)	Olú joún	--	"Olu resembles them"
(vi)	Mò ríún	--	"I saw them"

Conclusions

The study uses descriptive grammar to discuss the morpho-syntactic analysis of the pronouns in Anglophone Kétu as a sub-dialect Yorùbá language. Aside from presentation of varieties of pronoun alternants in Kétu dialect, we presented a lot of morpho-syntactic comparative analysis between pronouns in Kétu and pronouns in Standard Yorùbá. The study explains the authenticity that surround the phono-morphological varieties between pronouns in Kétu dialect and the pronouns in Standard Yorùbá. Our findings reveal that Kétu uses many variants of pronoun than the Standard Yorùbá in different syntactic positions. All this linguistic distinctiveness is fully explained in this paper. Also, the study recommends

further studies on few syntactic configurations where we think we had inadequate information. Furthermore, the study recommends future study on Incorporation in Kétu dialect.

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Analysis of Secondary Schools Teachers' Commitment in Kwara State, Nigeria

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Abstract
The roles of teacher in a school setting is enormous and requires commitment only if the school goals would be achieved. This paper examined the commitment of secondary school teachers in Kwara State, Nigeria. Five objectives were stated which include teachers' commitment in the area of class attendance, lesson note preparation, students' extracurricular activities, students discipline and students' assessment. Population of the study comprised the entire 334 secondary school principals across the state while purposing sampling technique was used to select all the principals as respondents. Five research questions were raised and questionnaire was used to collect data while the data collected were analysed using descriptive statistics of percentage. The findings revealed that teachers' commitment in class attendance and preparation of lesson were always good while their commitment in extracurricular activities, students discipline and students' assessment were found to be moderately good. It was therefore recommended that teachers should sustain the tempo in the class attendance so as to guarantee the attainment of educational goals among others.

Keywords: Schools, Teachers, Commitment.

Introduction

Education is widely recognized as an indicator of national development. One of the basic purposes of education is to produce trained human resource, which can overcome development impediment of a given country. Teachers play an important role in educating the future members of the society through their works in schools. Teachers are dedicated professionals who have a lasting impact on students. According to Janelle (2018), the role of a teacher is to use classroom instruction and presentation to help students learn and apply concepts such as Mathematics, English, and Sciences. Teachers prepare lessons, guide papers, manage the classroom, meet the parent, and work closely with the staff. The role of a teacher is clearly more than just planning and executing lesson plans. In some cases, because the teacher spends so much time with the student, he or she can become the student's "Third Parent ". In today's world the job of a teacher has increased drastically to the level of student counselling, and helping them learn how to use their knowledge and to integrate into their lives so that they can become valuable and useful member of the society.

Ordinarily, commitment means the state or quality of being dedicated to a course activity etc. According to Mel (2009) commitment evokes a strong sense of intention and focus. It is typically accompanied with by a statement of purpose or plan of action. Miller (2003), states that commitment is the state in which an employee identifies with a particular organization and its goals, and wishes to maintain membership in the organization. Commitment is a psychological attachment to an organization in which people give their loyalty to its values and goals. Teacher commitment is the emotional bond teachers demonstrate toward their works. Teacher commitment has been recognized as one of the most critical factors in effective teaching. Thereby, teachers with high level of commitment can make a difference to the learning and achievement of their students. Committed teachers are affiliated with the school they work for and they invest their time and energy in promoting their school. Teacher commitment is associated with creating an effective learning environment in which students enhance their abilities for greater achievement. Teacher commitment is an internal force that drives teachers to show enhanced job performance (Tsui & Cheng, 1999).

In the same vein, passion that committed teachers have, is caring and learning new things. Passion is motivation and seeking for the new. It is the inclination somebody shows towards an activity in which he/she invests time and energy (Carbonneau, Vallerand, Fernet & Guay, 2008). Learning, experiencing new things and passion are closely related to each other. Day (2004) states that passion is associated with hope commitment, caring and enthusiasm. Passion is a significant factor as it inspires and motivates teachers. Consequently, the factors influencing the levels of commitment of the teachers in schools and in the wider education systems must necessarily be the focus of an important field of research leading to the introduction of reform and change with classroom, lecture theatres, school institutions, learning centres and national systems of education.

In addition, the commitment and effectiveness of teachers depend on their motivation, morale, and job satisfaction. This implies that teacher's job satisfaction and their commitment is an important phenomenon for general secondary school teachers, their employers and student at large. For the success of any organization, commitment and satisfied human resources are considered as the most important asset of an organization.

Statement of the Problem

It is obvious that the purpose of any educational institution is the production of skilful and useful citizens that will help in the political, social and economic development of the country. This can only be accomplished when the component of the educational system is in good condition. Among these components are viable, productive, functional, and committed teachers in the system. If the teachers are not committed to their job, it means that their morale is low and a lot of damage is looming to the skilled manpower supply (Naylor, 1999). It is disheartening seeing teachers showing lackadaisical attitude towards their works. It is obvious that basic schools across Kwara state are characterised by teachers who show no commitment to their works and this is manifested in their non-challant attitude towards lesson note preparation, class attendance, poor monitoring of pupils activities, poor teaching methods, absconding from duties and many other behaviours that negate the ethics of the profession.

It is however worth of note that the non-committed and satisfied teachers are the biggest danger as it could leads to inability to achieve school goals and objectives. According to Mwamwenda (2018), lack of teachers' job commitment results in frequent teacher absenteeism from school aggressive behaviour towards colleagues and learners, early exit from the profession and psychological withdrawal from the work. All of these negative results lead to poor quality teaching. Other studies showed that the lack of job satisfaction is often accompanied by feelings of gloom, despair, anger, resentment, and futility (Pinder 2008). Thus, the lack of job commitment has serious implication for the educational system. In addition, it seems that one of the prime factors that affect the achievement of educational objective of student is the scarcity of knowledgeable and committed teachers in schools which are needed in quality and quantity.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of the study is to analyze secondary school teachers' commitment in Kwara State. Specifically, other purposes are to:

i. examine the attitude of teachers in Kwara state secondary schools towards classroom attendance;
ii. examine the attitude of teachers in Kwara state secondary schools towards the preparation of lesson note;
iii. examine the attitude of teachers in Kwara state secondary schools towards instilling discipline on pupils;
iv. examine the attitude of teachers in Kwara state secondary schools towards extracurricular activities;
v. examine the attitude of teachers in Kwara state secondary schools towards pupils' assessment.

Research Questions

The following research questions were raised to guide the study

i. What is the attitude of teachers in Kwara state secondary schools towards classroom attendance;
ii. What is the attitude of teachers in Kwara state secondary schools towards the preparation of lesson note;
iii. What is the attitude of teachers in Kwara state secondary schools towards instilling discipline on pupils;
iv. What is the attitude of teachers in Kwara state secondary schools towards extracurricular activities;
v. What is the attitude of teachers in Kwara state secondary schools towards pupils' assessment?

Methodology

This study aims at analyzing teachers' commitment in Kwara state secondary schools, Nigeria. The study is further delimitated to the identified variables such as attitude of teachers towards classroom attendance, preparation of lesson note, extracurricular activities, instilling discipline and pupils' assessment. The population of the study comprises the entire secondary schools in Kwara state. There are 334 secondary

schools in the state. Purposive sampling method was employed to select all the 334 secondary school principals across the state. These principals responded to the questionnaires on the commitment of their teachers in their various schools. Likert rating scale of Always So (AS), Often So (OS), Rarely So (RO) and Never So (NS) was used to measure the level of responses given on the items. The validity of the instrument was established through face and content validity. This was done by giving copies of the draft questionnaire to expert in the field of educational test and measurement who peruse and offered useful suggestions that lead to the final production of the questionnaire. Test-retest method was adopted to ensure the reliability of the instrument used. In this case, copies of the questionnaire were given to some set of respondents and were re-administered after a period of three week while their responses were correlated and found to be reliable using Pearson moment correlation statistics. The data collected were analysed with the use descriptive statistic of percentage.

Results

Research Question 1: What is the attitude of teachers in Kwara state secondary schools towards classroom attendance?

Table 1: Attitude of Teachers Towards Classroom Attendance

S/N	Statement	AS	OS	RS	NS
1	Teachers go to classroom regularly	156 (50.2%)	124 (39.9%)	31 (10.0%)	-
2	Teachers go to classes on time	61 (19.6%)	98 (31.5%)	117 (37.6%)	35 (11.3%)
3	Teachers fix classes during free period	90 (28.9%)	160 (51.4%)	31 (10.0%)	30 (9.6%)
4	Teachers organise extra classes for their students after the school hour	124 (38.9%)	124 (39.9%)	66 (21.2%)	-
5	Teachers always ensure that the scheme of work for every term is covered	121 (38.9%)	124 (39.5%)	66 (21.2%)	-
	Total Average	**645 (41.48%)**	**625 (40.19%)**	**194 (12.48%)**	**91 (5.58%)**

Source: Fieldwork, 2018

Results in Table 1 show the attitude of teachers in Kwara state secondary schools towards classroom attendance. To this, majority of the respondents (50.2%) supported the view that teachers go to classroom regularly. Teachers' fix classes during free period were confirmed by 51.4% of the respondents. Last but not the least, 38.9% of the respondents agreed that teachers always ensure that the scheme of work for every term is covered. Thus, out of a total of 1555 respondents to the questionnaire, 645 representing 41.48% agreed that attitude of teachers in Kwara state secondary schools towards classroom attendance was always encouraging.

Research Question 2: What is the attitude of teachers in Kwara state secondary schools towards the preparation of lesson note?

Table 2: Attitude of Teachers Towards the Preparation of Lesson Note

S/N	Statement	AS	OS	RS	NS
1	Teachers prepare lesson note for all their classes	189 (60.8%)	61 (19.6%)	31 (10.0%)	30 (9.6%)
2	Teachers prepare lesson note to cover all domains of learning	61 (19.6%)	189 (60.8%)	61 (19.6%)	-
3	Teachers consider individual differences in students while preparing lesson note	155 (49.8%)	92 (29.6%)	34 (10.9%)	30 (9.6%)
4	Teachers allocate appropriate time for each step while preparing lesson note	250 (80.4%)	-	61 (19.6%)	-
5	Teachers present their lesson in accordance with the lesson note prepared	124 (39.9%)	91 (29.3%)	65 (20.9%)	31 (10.0%)
	Total Average	**779 (50.09%)**	**433 (27.85%)**	**252 (16.21%)**	**91 (5.85%)**

Source: Fieldwork, 2018

Table 2 shows the attitude of teachers in Kwara state secondary schools towards the preparation of lesson note. Majority of the respondents (60.8%) supported the view that teachers prepare lesson note for all their classes, while 49.8% also supporting the view that teachers consider individual differences in students while preparing lesson notes. Last but not the least, 39.9% of the respondents agreed that teachers present their lesson in accordance with the lesson note prepared. In summary, out of a total of 1555 respondents to the questionnaire, 779 representing 50.9% agreed that attitude of teachers in Kwara state secondary schools towards the preparation of lesson note was always positive.

Research Question 3: What is the attitude of teachers in Kwara state secondary schools towards extracurricular activities?

Table 3: Attitude of Teachers' Towards Extra-Curriculum Activities

S/N	Statement	AS	OS	RS	NS
1	Teachers are always active in extra-curricular activities	60 (19.3%)	189 (60.8%)	31 (10.0%)	31 (10.0%)
2	Teachers always ensure that students engage in extracurricular activities that are meaningful.	60 (19.3%)	160 (51.4%)	30 (9.6%)	61 (19.6%)
3	Teachers take students out for excursion for better understanding of what is taught in the classroom	61 (19.6%)	159 (51.1%)	91 (29.3%)	-
4	Teachers see extra-curricular activities as a means of achieving school effectiveness	65 (20.9%)	91 (29.3%)	64 (20.6%)	91 (29.3%)
5	Teachers coordinate student properly during extra-curricular activities such as inter-house sport, quiz and debate	95 (30.5%)	154 (49.5%)	31 (10.0%)	31 (10.0%)
	Total Average	**341 (21.93%)**	**753 (48.42%)**	**247 (15.88%)**	**214 (13.76%)**

Source: Fieldwork, 2018

Table 3 shows the attitude of teachers in Kwara state secondary schools towards extracurricular activities. To this, majority of the respondents (60.8%) supported the view that teachers are always active in extra-curricular activities, while 51.1% also supporting the view that teachers take students out for excursion for better understanding of what is taught in the classroom. Last but not the least, 49.5% of the respondents agreed that teachers' coordinate student properly during extra-curricular activities such as inter-house sport, quiz and debate. Thus, out of a total of 1555 respondents to the questionnaire, 753 representing 48.42% agreed that attitude of teachers in Kwara state secondary schools towards extracurricular activities was moderately good.

Research Question 4: What is the attitude of teachers in Kwara state secondary schools towards instilling discipline in students?

Table 4: Attitude of Teachers' Towards Instilling Discipline in Students

S/N	Statement	AS	OS	RS	NS
1	Teachers always serve as role model	99 (31.8%)	151 (48.6%)	30 (9.6%)	31 (10.0%)
2	Teachers take time to teach student about moral	31 (10.0%)	120 (38.6%)	64 (20.6%)	96 (30.9%)
3	Teachers do correct any students discovered to misbehave	30 (9.6%)	121 (38.9%)	30 (9.6%)	130 (41.8%)
4	Teachers see character modelling as part of their responsibilities	30 (9.6%)	154 (49.5%)	31 (10.0%)	96 (30.9%)
5	Any erring students are usually punished to serve as deterrent to others	30 (9.6%)	160 (51.4%)	60 (19.3%)	61 (19.6%)
	Total Average	**220 (14.15%)**	**706 (45.40%)**	**215 (13.83%)**	**414 (26.62%)**

Source: Fieldwork, 2018

Table 4 shows the attitude of teachers in Kwara state secondary schools towards instilling discipline in students. Majority of the respondents (48.6%) supported the view that teachers always serve as role model, while 41.8% also supported the view that teachers do correct any students discovered to misbehave. Last but not the least, 51.4% of the respondents agreed that any erring students are usually punished to serve as deterrent to other. Thus, out of a total of 1555 respondents to the questionnaire, 706 representing 45.40% agreed that attitude of teachers in Kwara state secondary schools towards instilling discipline in students was moderately good.

Research Question 5: What is the attitude of teachers in Kwara state secondary schools towards students' assessment?

Table 5: Attitude of Teachers' Towards Students' Assessment

S/N	Statement	AS	OS	RS	NS
1	Teachers carryout constant assessment of students' level of achievement	66 (21.2%)	120 (38.6%)	125 (40.2%)	-
2	Teachers' do give assignment regularly	95 (30.5%)	95 (30.5%)	91 (29.3%)	30 (9.6%)
3	Teachers always provide feedback to the learners about their assessment	30 (9.6%)	155 (49.8%)	126 (40.5%)	-
4	Teachers do monitor students' academic progress	90 (28.9%)	126 (40.5%)	30 (9.6%)	65 (20.9%)
5	Teacher always show concern about the outcome of students' assessment	66 (21.2%)	120 (38.6%)	94 (30.2%)	31 (10.0%)
	Total Average	**347 (22.32%)**	**616 (39.61%)**	**466 (29.97%)**	**126 (8.10%)**

Source: Fieldwork, 2018

Table 5 shows the attitude of teachers in Kwara state secondary schools towards students' assessment. Majority of the respondents (38.6%) supported the view that teachers carryout constant assessment of students level of achievement, while 49.8% also supported the view that teachers always provide feedback to the learners about their assessment. Last but not the least, 38.6% of the respondents agreed that teacher always show concern about the outcome of students' assessment. Thus, out of a total of 1555 respondents to the questionnaire, 616 representing 39.61% agreed that attitude of teachers in Kwara state secondary schools towards students' assessment was moderately good.

Conclusions

Based on the findings of the study which stemmed from the data collected and analysed with the results obtained, the following conclusions were drawn.

i. Teachers in Kwara state secondary schools are always attend classes regularly;
ii. Teachers in Kwara state secondary schools are always up and doing in the preparation note for their classes;
iii. Extracurricular activities were averagely given attention by teachers in Kwara state secondary schools;
iv. Instilling discipline in students was given average attention by teachers in Kwara state secondary schools; and
v. Students assessment was given average attention by teachers in Kwara state secondary schools.

Recommendations

From the findings and conclusions of this study, the following recommendations were made:

i. Teachers should sustain the tempo in the class attendance so as to guarantee the attainment of educational goals;
ii. Teachers should improve in their attitudes towards the preparation of lesson note for their class;
iii. Teachers should intensify effort in their commitment towards extracurricular activities for their students;
iv. Teachers should improve their effort towards instilling discipline in students; and
v. Students' assessment should be improved upon by teachers in Kwara State secondary schools.

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Teacher Education and Sustainable National Development in Ekiti State, Nigeria

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Abstract
This study examined Teacher Education and Sustainable National Development in Nigeria. Two research hypotheses were generated. The research design used for the study was the descriptive research design of the survey type. One thousand two hundred teachers selected through purposive sampling technique formed the sample for the study. The samples were taken from three randomly selected Local Government Areas, cities, towns and villages in Ekiti State, Nigeria. Teacher Education and National Development Inventory (TENDI) face and content validities of the instrument were ensured and the reliability of the instrument was established at a value of 0.65 using the test re-test reliability method. The inferential statistics techniques used for data analysis in this study was Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient to test the two hypotheses formulated for the study. The results of the analysis revealed that there was significant relationship between teachers welfare and their performance in schools in Ekiti State, again it was discovered that significant relationship existed between continuous development of teachers and pedagogical efficiency in schools, based on the findings, it was recommended that teachers welfare be prioritized to motivate them for delivery and also regular training be organized to enhance their performance in the classroom.

Keywords: Teacher Education Sustainability, National Development, Ekiti State, Nigeria.

Introduction

In recent years, much emphasis has been placed on the importance of professional teacher training, for the purpose of facilitating educational development at all levels (Okeke, 2004, FRN, 2004; and TRC, 2004). The employment of professionally trained persons is expected to yield effective and efficient job performance and ultimately enhance productivity. The need to employ professionally trained teachers cannot be over-emphasized in this regard. According to Mbat (1992), a professionally trained teacher also has the potential to develop more skills on the job and to improve on the modus operandi in certain job situations. The importance of professional training of teachers is summed up by Ayeni (2005) in the statement that "a job is best done by one who knows its technicalities". Pilot teacher training programmes are therefore not adequate in the preparation of teachers for the implementation of national education policies. The period of such training programmes which ranges between six months and one year is often too short to equip the trainee with adequate knowledge of the modus operandi of school system teaching. Pilot training programmes only succeed in flooding the school system with poorly, prepared teachers who require more training programmes to meaningfully contribute to the effective implementation of national education policies.

The provision of adequate training and regular retraining of teachers is one of the basic tools in the effective implementation of only education policy. Professional training is very important, but it is just one of several necessities required to make the teacher effective and efficient in the education process. A good professional training without the support of functional and up-to-date instructional resources; a conducive work environment; regular supply of relevant information; and competence in the language of instruction might render the best professional teachers ineffective in the instruction process. The reformation of any education system therefore requires a holistic approach to the development of the teaching process. This will make the professional training of teachers more meaningful in effecting the realization of education polices.

Education, public awareness and training should be recognized as a process by which human beings and societies can reach their fullest potential. Education is critical for promoting sustainable development and improving the capacity of the people to address environment and development issues. Both formal and non-formal educations are indispensable to changing people's attitudes so that they can have the capacity to assess and address their sustainable development concerns. It is also critical for achieving environmental and ethical awareness, values and attitudes, skills and behaviour consistent with sustainable development. Education should deal with the dynamics of both the physical/biological and

socio-economic environment; and human (which may include spiritual) development should be integrated in all disciplines, and should employ formal and non-formal methods and effective means of communication.

Teachers are expected to be the pillars of educational development in all countries all over the world. In fact, no nation can boast of a strong and effective educational system without continuous development of its teachers. To ensure sustainable education in Nigeria therefore, management should refocus on developing serving teachers in our schools. This can only be achieved through continuous teacher development programmes. It is therefore, necessary that teacher development plans should focus on what the teacher needs in terms of skill and knowledge that would help the school in achieving stated objectives. Teaching demands a continuous development of knowledge and ability. This is because primarily, education is rapidly changing and this requires constant effort on the teachers to keep with global best practices. A dedicated teacher has little or no time to rest on his oars, if he does, he will go down the stream. A good teacher considers how he will broaden his knowledge and widen his experience after graduation. Barth (1990) is of the opinion that nothing in a school has more impact on students in terms of skill development, self-competence, or classroom behaviour, than the personal and professional growth of the teachers. Okorie (1999) opines that regardless of an employee's pre-service training level ngvknowledge, skill and capabilities in order to keep pace with the rapidly changing society. One should therefore not be satisfied with just being a trained teacher. For one to excel in teaching profession, the profession demands that he/she must continue to update his/her knowledge in order to cope with the problems of education as they manifest. Teachers are expected to improve on their skills by making use of the numerous professional avenues opened to them. For instance, there are many colleges and institutions that offer part-term courses in education. There are a number of vacation courses organized by the universities and colleges of education, which lead to certificate in education. Some agencies as the British Council, Ministries of Education and professional organizations also organize induction course during vacations fur practicing teachers. Majority of these courses are organized to upgrade the skills knowledge and attitude of practicing teachers. Teachers should therefore avail themselves of these opportunities. In view of the inherent benefits therein as regard their professional/ growth.

Many school teachers seem to be satisfied with their old notes and old method(s) of teaching. It is unfortunate that the society, the students/pupils and the subject matter that need to be taught, change with time, especially with technological advancement.1t is important to note that, the rate at which these changes emerge does not help an inadequately prepared teachers to cope with. Ejiogu (1990) is of the opinion that the goal of development would be to secure the professional growth of the teachers, to improve the performance of both teachers and school, and increase the satisfaction of individual and corporate needs within the system. In fact, successful staff development is that which can contribute materially to the willingness of people who work so that both individual and organizational goals will be achieved. It is therefore, paramount that the teachers need to change with time, to answer the call for sustainable and qualitative education. Onwumere (2006) states that education is the pivot which nation development revolves. It is the springboard for socio-political economic and cultural development. There is the need for teachers to be continuously trained for them to be able to pursue and achieve the national objectives. Federal Republic of Nigeria (FRN, 2009), made provision for the development of teachers, when it stated that teacher education will continue to take cognizance of the changes in methodology and the curriculum, and be regularly exposed to innovation. Their professional in-service training will be developed as an integral put of continuing teacher education.

A lot of people in Ekiti State, notably among them are parents, students and even teachers, have expressed their dissatisfaction with the quality of teaching and learning that go on in schools. The fact is that, there is high demand for education partly due to the rising school population even in the face of dwindling economy, and partly due to the need to acquire both basic and specialized knowledge, to enable one live a responsible life in the society. In spite of the improved academic and professional qualification of teachers, people cannot understand why the school cannot produce people with the ability to solve the problems of our society. Ndu (1996) expresses her dissatisfaction when she states that, people are no longer satisfied with an educational process that ends with a mere acquisition of facts and knowledge, that are memorized and reproduced at examination without the ability to apply such knowledge to solving

real life problems in the society. Onwumere (2006) adds that individual freedom and survival is threatened by technological and automation revolution which renders one obsolete.

The society now expects accountability from the schools for the input they make. The only logical solution appears to be the continuous development of teachers to upgrade their knowledge. The quality of education in any country cannot be kept high without a virile continuous programme of developing teachers through retraining arid upgrading the serving teachers. The rate at which new technology and new knowledge get into the world of man makes it imperative to see teacher education as lifelong continuing education system one requires on the job. The Federal Republic of Nigeria (FRN 2009) states that in order to improve quality education at the primary and secondary levels, the government shall regulate in-service programmes for teachers and head teachers. This shows that the Federal Government recognizes the need for continuous development of serving teachers to ensure that their knowledge is up to date with the new technology. Teacher development is a process of guided experiences to change the serving teachers' attitudes, behaviours or opinions. It means investing on the serving teachers to enable them perform better and to empower them to make the best use of their natural abilities. 'This implies that continuous development is to be related to the job of teaching and learning. Planning a development programme for teachers must therefore start with comparing attributes already possessed by the teachers for effective teaching and learning to take place. (Armstrong, 1992).

Challenges to effective development of teachers

The problem with educational reforms in Nigeria is that policies are rarely matched with relevant actions (Awokoya, 1983; Okeke, 1997; and NTI, 2006). This result in a myriad of problems which include irregular retraining programmes; inadequate vital information to serving teachers; and inadequate institutional facilities.

(i) Irregular retraining programmes

The first major challenge in the development of teachers is the challenge of providing regular workshop and other retraining programmes for teachers in the school system. The irregularity of teacher retraining programmes in Nigeria is captured in the statement that "there has not been any systematic attention to update regularly the knowledge of teachers in the light of changes in the curriculum and the wider society" (NTI, 2006). The supply of teachers in any education system should always be relevant to the goals of the system. Continuous teacher relevance in a rapidly changing society can be enhanced and sustained through regular retraining.

(ii) Inadequate vital information

Insufficient information is another hindrance in the effectiveness of a teacher. Adequate and appropriate curriculum provides the criteria for assessing the relevance of instructional activities and instructional goals. Teachers should have easy and timely access to the National Policy on Education; and the curriculum for the specific level and areas of instructional activities. Otherwise, obsolete and inaccurate information would be passed to learners. Ikonta (2005) and Okorosaye-Orubite (2008); observe in their different works that educational curricular designed to guide instructional activities for the Universal Basic Education Programme in Nigeria are not adequately circulated. In this regard, Okorosaye- Orubite (2008) observes that:

> "*The curriculum which was expected to be utilized with effect from September 2007 concurrently in primary 1 and JSS 1 ... is yet to be circulated as at January 2008. the two documents that are in restricted circulation are The 9 - Year Basic Education Curriculum and Frequently Asked Questions on The New 9 - Year Basic Education Curriculum, not many professional officials of the SUBEBs can claim to have sighted these documents not to mention their counterparts in LGEAs. As for teachers, the executors of the curriculum, it is not yet time for them to know that these documents exist*. "

Objectives

To investigate how teacher's welfare can enhance the National development.

To examine whether teacher's development can foster National development.

Hypotheses

The following research hypotheses have been formulated in the study

1. There is no significant relationship between teacher's welfare and national development
2. There is no significant relationship between teacher's development and national development.

Methodology

Research Design

This is a descriptive research of the survey type. The plan of study in which survey research design is used is considered appropriate because it focuses on the observation and perception of the existing situation. This plan of study describes and interprets what is concerned with issues, conditions and practices that prevail and exist or views that are going on, it helps us to have a systematic analysis of the present situation and it studies relationship existing among variables.

Population

The population for this study is made up of all teachers in Ekiti State, Nigeria. Ekiti State Nigeria is made up of sixteen homogenous local government areas.

Sample and Sampling Procedure

Simple Random Sampling Technique was used to select three Local Government Areas as this gave each member of the population equal chance of being selected. Four hundred teachers of one hundred each from primary and secondary schools were sample, a total of one thousand two hundred teachers participated in this study.

Research Instrument

The instrument used was a self-designed instrument titled "'Teacher Education and National Development Inventory" (TENDI). The instrument is divided into two major parts of A and B. Part A is made up of the bio-data of the respondents which comprises of age, location, town, Local Government Area, State and qualification. Part B of the instrument is meant to elicit teachers' response to the various items raised in order to test and discuss the hypotheses generated

Validity of the Instrument

The instrument was validated by experts. They modified items of the instrument, ensured the items were representatives of the contents, practices and factors specified by the theoretical concept being measured

Reliability of the Instrument

A test re-test-method of reliability was used in this case the instrument was administered on one hundred teachers (outside the target group) twice within two weeks. The two sets of scores were correlated using Pearson Product Moment Correlation to obtain the reliability coefficient of 0.65 found appropriate enough at 0.05 level of significance

Administration of the Instrument

The researchers administered copies of the instrument with the assistance of some trained research assistants on the samples and collected back immediately.

Data Analysis

The data collected were analyzed using Pearson Product Moment Correlation. The hypotheses were tested at 0.050 level of significance.

Results

This section presents the results of the data analysis for this study. The results were presented according to the hypotheses which guided the study as shown in Tables 1 and 2.

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant relationship between teacher welfare and national development.

Table 1: Correlation of Teacher Welfare and National Development

Variables	N	r-cal	r-tab
Teacher Welfare	1,200	0.915	0.194
National Development	1,200		

$P < 0.05$

Table 1 shows r-cal 0.915 is greater than r-cal 0.194, meaning that there is significance relationship between teacher welfare and national development; hence the null hypothesis is rejected.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant relationship between teacher welfare and national development.

Table 2: Correlation of Teacher Development and National Development

Variables	N	r-cal	r-tab
Teacher Development	1,200	0.917	0.195
National Development	1,200		

$P < 0.05$

Table 2 shows r-cal 0.917 is greater than r-tab 0.195, meaning that there is significance relationship between teacher development and national development; hence the null hypothesis is rejected.

Discussion

The result of hypothesis 1 shows that significance relationship between teacher welfare and national development. It was discovered from the study that teacher's welfare is important to the efficient and maximum performance of teacher in school. The teachers when well-motivated keep abreast with the latest development in the field of education.

The result in hypothesis 2 shows that there is significance relationship between teacher development and national development. The positive relationship shows that no nation can rise above the quality of its teachers. When the teachers are developed, then they would be able to contribute their quota to the growth and development of the country as they would be able to generate ideas in this era of knowledge economy. This is in line with Okeke (2004) that says that development of teachers yields effective and efficient job performance and ultimately enhances productivity.

Conclusions

The paper therefore concluded that the effective development of teachers goes beyond the professional training. It also involves a holistic approach to the welfare of teacher. This approach will ensure that teachers remain relevant in national development. It will also provide a basis for the objective assessment of teacher education in Ekiti State.

Recommendations

The development of teachers directed at making them more relevant and effective in the in the contemporary school system. The effective development of teachers may be difficult to achieve in an education system that is deficient in vital information. This is because the teacher does not exist in isolation with the school system.

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Socio-Economic Factors as Predictors of Traditional and Faith Based Health-Seeking Behaviour of Rural-Mothers in Ogun State, Nigeria

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Abstract
Women are the highest number of patients attended to in all health care facilities either as in or out patient or mother of a patient at both maternal and child welfare clinics because they are more vulnerable to ill-health conditions with their children. They tend to seek health care at the most accessible locations for so many reasons ranging from socio-economic to cultural factors. In the rural areas, women seek health from faith-based health outlets and traditional health units more than the medical centres for several reasons which should be of concern to health promotion education practitioners because of the consequences of such unhealthy practices. Seven hundred and fifty (n=750) women were randomly selected from one of the rural and river- rine local governments in Ogun State Nigeria. Socio-cultural factors on health seeking behavior questionnaire (SCFHSBQ) r=0.80, Economic Factors Questionnaire (EFQ) r=0.82 and Traditional Health Behaviour Questionnaire (THBQ) r=0.76 and Faith Based Health seeking Behaviour Questionnaire (FBHBQ) r=0.92 were used as instrument for data collection. Data collected were analysed using inferential statistics of multiple regression and analysis of variance (ANOVA). The findings revealed that social factors of age and religious affiliation has negative effects on faith based and traditional health seeking behavior while family structure predicts FBHSB positively. Economic factors of occupation and income affect FBHSB negatively and positively respectively. It is recommended that improved health education is necessary for the improved health seeking behavior of the rural women and efforts should be made to improve the available health facilities in the rural areas.

Keywords: Social Factors, Health Seeking Behavior, Predictors, Rural Women.

Introduction

In every society, several factors are responsible for individual and group decisions on different issues. On the type(s) of health care sought by individuals, the time of taking decisions is predicated upon several factors such as economic accessibility or inaccessibility, socio-cultural accessibility or inaccessibility, geographical accessibility or inaccessibility which are the concerns of health promotion and education researchers and practitioners. An essential aspect of preserving health is to identify the factors that enable or prevent people from making healthy choices in either their life-style or their use of medical care and treatment, the underlying assumption being that behavior is best understood in terms of an individual's perception of their social environment (Tipping and Segall, 1995). The desire to choose good health and live as such is not only culturally determined but a result of environmental and socio-economic influences, and being healthy contributes to the normal functioning of the social system. Shamaki and Buang (2015) opined that socio-cultural and demographic factors are the important groups of variables that influence women's access and utilization of modern health facilities world over. The cultural factors are seen in the value system of the people, their tradition, custom, religion, education and food grown and eaten, materials, taboos and beliefs (Peplau, Veniegas, Taylor and Debro, 1997; Otalike, 2009; Johansson, Long, Diwan & Winkvist, 2000; Takela, 2017; Latunji & Akinyemi, 2018). It is a way of life of people, a sum of values transmitted overtime among community members. Culture determines social relations and gender roles, and has profound impact on the total life of members of a cultural group or community (Idowu, 2013).

Health-seeking behavior has been described as the activity undertaken by individuals who perceive themselves to have a health problem or to be ill for the purpose of finding an appropriate remedy (MacKian, 2003). Information of health seeking behavior and health care utilization has important policy implications in health system development. People seek help on health issues based on several reasons and the factors which influence the choice of treatment sources when symptoms occur include socio-economic factors, social networks, gender and socio-cultural factors. Access to healthcare facilities in terms of cost of treatment and healthcare provider attitude are also determinants of health seeking behavior. There are indications that cost of prescribed medicines, poor access to facilities and patient

delays affect the patronage and utilization of public health services which increase the use of other treatment sources such as community pharmacies, drug peddlers, herbal medicine, religious or spiritual care organizations and students in health related academic disciplines (Ward, Martens and Thomas, 1997). What people do when they have symptoms of illness has major implications for morbidity and progression of the illness and consequences for creating a healthy community. Delays or refusal in seeking and obtaining treatment can allow for a greater probability of adverse effects and lead to early complications. Some studies have examined health-seeking behavior in rural communities but there has been no enough of similar survey of healthcare preferences among women population in Nigeria (Iyalomhe, 2012; Osubor, Adesegun, Fatusi and Chiwuzie 2005; Adekunle, Filippi, Grapham, Oyeemunwa, and Udjo, 1990).

Although, socio-economic factor is a multidimensional concept; however, in this study, the socio-economic factor covers age, family background, ethnic background, education, occupation, religious belief, family income, parity and distance to available healthcare service(s). This is in consonance with similar studies conducted by Shamaki and Buang (2015) where socio cultural status (SCS) considered covered social, cultural, economic and sociological-combined total measure of an individual's or family's background as well as the social position based on cultural, income, education and occupation. Also, in a related development, Chukuezi (2010) undertakes a study on socio-cultural factors associated with maternal mortality and noted that Nigeria is by tradition a patriarchal society where women are discriminated against from infancy. He explained in terms of facilities utilization, poor access to the medical services is compounded by social, cultural and economic factors including gender inequality, access to food, by burden of work and by special dietary requirements such as iron supplements among women. Idowu (2013) also observed that high illiteracy and socio-cultural factors contributes to the low accessibility to health facilities in Nigeria.

Maternal mortality in Nigeria is very high, second to India with an estimated 58,100 Nigerian women dying from pregnancy – related complications out of a global total of 529,000 maternal deaths (WHO, UNICEF & United Nations Population Fund, 2015). It is not encouraging to note that 62 percent of births in Nigeria occur at home, 36 percent of women receive no antenatal care, only 39 percent of births were delivered by a skilled provider and 56 percent of women did not receive any post natal care within 41 days of delivery (Nigeria Demographic and Health Survey, 2000). It was discovered during preliminary survey of this study that there are over forty traditional birth attendants and faith-based health centers in Ogun waterside local government area. They are heavily patronized by women for ante natal and post natal care, whereas the ten existing health and maternity centres are poorly manned with unlicensed midwives and community health extension workers that were originally trained to assist the registered and licensed midwives in the local government health centres. Consequent upon the above scenario, only complicated cases were taken to health centres and the only state hospital in the local government as reported. Most of the times, cases become complicated on getting to the hospital especially gynaecological emergencies which has increased the maternal morbidity and complications of minor obstetrics and gynecological cases.

The general objective of this study is to examine socio-economic factors as predictors of traditional and faith-based health seeking behavior of mothers in Ogun waterside local government area of Ogun State.

Research Questions

1. Where will women from Ogun waterside Local Government Area seek health care?
2. Will women from Ogun waterside Local Government Area have preference for traditional health care over western medical care?

Hypotheses

Ho1: Social cultural factors (age, family structure, religious affiliation / belief) will not significantly predict the traditional and faith-based health – seeking behaviours of women in Ogun waterside Local Government Area of Ogun State.

Ho2: Economic factors (income, occupation) will not significantly predict the traditional and faith-based health seeking behaviours of women in Ogun waterside Local Government Area of Ogun State.

Ho3: The composite effect of socio-cultural factors will not significantly predict the traditional and faith – based health seeking behaviours of women in Ogun waterside Government of Ogun State.

Methodology

Descriptive survey research design was applied in this study. This research design is employed based on the fact that it allows the collection of information from a representative sample of a target population. Both primary and secondary were collected. The study utilized structured questionnaire, for primary data collection. The population consisted of all women in Ogun waterside Local Government Area of Ogun State. Sample size of 750 respondents was selected for the study using multi stage sampling technique. The first stage was purposive sampling technique used to select all the existing health centres from the 10 wards in the local government area, random sampling technique was used to select 75 respondents from each of the 10 existing wards including the traditional birth attendants clinics, 40 respondents from the health centers while 35 were selected from the traditional birth attendants and faith based clinics/homes. Purposive sampling technique was used to select the sample for the study. This involved the participation of pregnant women patronizing either traditional / faith-based health clinic in the study area. There are 10 wards in Ogun waterside LGAs and samples were drawn from all of the ten (10) existing wards within the local government area. Simple random sampling technique was employed to draw-out seventy-five (75) respondents each from the wards. Thus, a total of seven hundred and fifty (750) women were sampled for the study.

The instruments used for data collection were self structured questionnaires: Socio-cultural factors on health seeking behavior questionnaire (SCFHSBQ), Economic Factors Questionnaire (EFQ) and Traditional Health Behaviour Questionnaire (THBQ) and Faith Based Health seeking Behaviour Questionnaire (FBHBQ) which contains Socioeconomic Factor items and traditional and faith-based health seeking behavior items. The questionnaire was divided into section A, section B and Section C. The section A contains bio-data information of the personal characteristics of respondents. Section B contains items on socio-economic factors and section C contains items on Traditional and Faith Based Health Seeking Behaviour. To ensure the validity of the instrument, the questionnaires were subjected to face, constructs and content validity by presenting it to the researchers in the field of health promotion education and measurement. The suggestion(s) served as basis to ensure that the instrument was valid.

The reliability of the instrument was ensured by using test re-test method. The questionnaire was administered to 50 women at Ijebu East Local Government Area of Ogun State, and after about two weeks, the instrument was re-administered to the same group. The two sets of data were subjected to Pearson-Product Moment Correlation Coefficient with reliability of 0.80, 0.82, 0.76 and 0.91 respectively.

The questionnaire was administered by the researchers together with four trained research assistants (postgraduate students from the human kinetics and health education department of Olabisi Onabanjo University) to the respondents to ensure proper completion, the purpose of the study was explained to the respondents (women) before it was administered to them at the beginning and it was collected from them after it has been completed in the local government area. The respondents were encouraged to keep their response confidential and not to consult textbooks or other reference materials in answering the questions. The information obtained was saved confidentially with no names or identity information appearing on the write up for the study. For this study, relevant documents that backed up data collection were collected from the local government through the primary health care unit.

The data collected were coded and analyzed using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). Descriptive statistics of frequency count, percentages, means, and standard deviations were used to give general demographic descriptions of the study participants. multiple regressions, and ANOVA were carried out to examine the value of variables at 0.05 level of significance.

Data Analysis and Interpretation

This presents the results of the analysis in line with the research questions asked and hypotheses tested for the study in order to make valid conclusion based on the study.

Table 1: Age Distribution of Participants

Age Group	Frequency	%
20 – 29 years	200	26.7%
30 – 30 years	175	23.3
40 – 49 years	350	46.7
Above 49 years	25	3.3
Total	750	100.0

Table 1 presents the distribution of respondents by age. According to the result of the findings, 200 (26.7%) of the respondents were below 30 years of age, 175(23.3%) were between 30 – 39 years of age and 350 (46.7%) were between 40 – 49 years of age while 25(3.3%) were above 49 years of age. This showed that majority were between 40 – 49 years of age.

Table 2: Distribution of Respondents by Religion

Religion	Frequency	%
Christian	405	54.0
Muslim	290	38.7
Traditionalist	55	7.3
Total	750	100.0

Table 2 presents the distribution of respondents by religion. According to the result of the findings, 405 (54.0%) of the respondents were Christian and 290 (38.7%) were Muslim while 55(7.3%) were traditionalist. This showed that majority were Christian.

Table 3: Distribution of Respondents by Educational background

Background	Frequency	%
No formal education	15	2.0
Primary	55	7.3
Secondary	22.5	30.0
Post secondary	265	35.3
Degree	165	22.0
Post Graduate	25	3.3
Total	750	100.0

Table 3 presents the distribution of respondents by educational qualification. According to the result of the finding, majority had post secondary education (NCE/OND) equivalents followed by secondary then by degree as indicated by 35.3%, 30.0% and 22.0% respectively

Table 4: Distribution of respondents by occupation

Occupation	Frequency	%
Employed	315	42.0
Unemployed	230	30.7
Self – employed	205	27.3
Total	750	100.0

Table 4 presents the distribution of respondents by occupation. According to the result of the findings, 315(42.0%) of the respondents were employed, and 230(30.7%) were unemployed while 205(27.3%) were self-employed. This shows that majority of the respondents that constitutes the target population were employed.

Table 5: Distribution of respondents by tribe

Tribe	Frequency	%
Hausa	25	3.3
Yoruba	545	72.7
Igbo	160	21.3
Others	20	2.7
Total	750	100.0

Table 5 presents the distribution of respondents by tribe. The results showed that majority were Yoruba as indicated by 545(72.7%).

Table 6: Distribution of respondents by marital status

Marital status	Frequency	%
Single	100	13.3
Married	575	76.7
Widowed	65	8.7
Divorced/Separated	10	1.3
Total	750	100.0

Table 6 presents the distribution of respondents by marital status. According to the result of the findings, 100(13.3%) of the respondents were single, 575(76.7%) were married and 65(8.7%) were widowed while 10(1.3%) were divorced/separated. This shows that majority of the respondents that constitutes the target population were married

Table 7: Distribution of respondents by family structure

Family Structure	**Frequency**	**%**
Polygamous	285	38.0
Monogamous	465	62.0
Total	750	100.0

Table 7 presents the distribution of respondents by family structure. According to the result of the findings, 285(38.0%) of the respondents were from Polygamous home while 465(62.0%) were from monogamous home structure. This shows that majority of the respondents that constitutes the target population were from monogamous home

Answer to Research Questions

Research Question One: where will women in Ogun waterside local Government Area Seek Health Care?

Table 8: Distribution by health care seeking behavior among women in Ogun waterside Local Government

S/N	**Health Institutions**	**Yes**		**No**	
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%
1.	Local Government Health Centres	715	95.3	35	4.7
2.	Traditional Birth Attendant Centres	370	49.3	380	50.7
3.	Private Maternity Homes	670	89.3	80	10.7
4.	Churches	320	42.7	430	57.3
5.	Private Hospital	540	72.0	210	28.0
6.	Herbal Homes	335	44.7	415	55.3
7.	State Hospital	475	63.3	275	36.7
8.	Local Government Maternity Centre	625	83.3	125	16.7

Table 8 reveals that women in Ogun waterside Local Government area sought health care primarily from Local Government health Centres (95.3%), followed by Private Maternity homes (89.3%), then Local Government maternity centres (83.3%), Private Hospital (72.0%), State Hospital (63.3%), Traditional birth attendant centres (49.3%), Herbal homes (44.7%) and Churches (42.7%). From the findings here, it can be deduced that the participants combined both traditional and orthodox health facilities for their health care.

Research Question Two: Will Women in Ogun waterside have preference for traditional health over western medical care?

Table 9: Distribution by preference for Health Care among women in Odogbolu Local Government

S/N	**Health Institutions**	**Yes**		**No**	
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%
1.	Local Government Health Centre	715	95.3	35	4.7
2.	Traditional Birth Attendant Centre's	370	49.3	380	50.7
3.	Private Maternity Homes	670	89.3	80	10.7
4.	Churches	320	42.7	430	57.3
5.	Private Hospital	540	72.0	210	28.0
6.	Herbal Homes	335	44.7	415	55.3
7.	State Hospital	475	63.3	275	36.7
8.	Local Government Maternity Centre	625	83.3	125	16.7

Table 9 presents the distributions on whether women in Ogun waterside Local Government Area have preference for traditional health care over western medical care. The result presented above indicated that they seek health care more from western medical care than traditional health care. For example, out of the 750, 715(95.3%) have preference for Local Government Health Centres, 370(49.2%) for traditional birth attendants centres, 670 (49.3%) have preference for private maternity homes, 320(42.7%) for churches, 540(72.0%) for private hospital, 335(44.7%) for herbal homes and 475 (63.3%) for state hospitals while 625(83.3%) for local government maternity centres. Thus, the percentages of those who had preference for western medical centre is greater than those who had preference for traditional health centre. Therefore, it was deduced that women in Ogun waterside Local Government Area have preference for western care over traditional health care.

Hypothesis 1: There will be no significant relative effect of social factors (age, family structure, religious affiliation / belief) on traditional and faith-based health seeking behaviours of women in Ogun waterside Local Government Area of Ogun State.

Table 10: Relative effect of Social factors (age, family structure, religious affiliation / belief) on traditional and faith – based health seeking behaviours of women in Ogun waterside Local Government Area of Ogun State

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	39.016	.525		74.325	.000
Age	-.232	.241	-.033	-.963	.336
Family Structure	1.368	.442	.105	3.093	.002
Religion	-3.744	.341	-.372	-10.983	.000

(a) Dependent Variable: Traditional and Faith based health seeking behavior

Table 10 revealed the beta values -0.033 for age, 0.105 for family structure and -0.372 for religious affiliation / belief. These values indicated that religious affiliation / belief (beta value = -0.372) predicted traditional and faith – based health seeking behaviours of women in Ogun waterside Local Government Area of Ogun State most, followed by family structure (beta value = 0.105) and age (-0.033) the least predictor. While family structure affected traditional and faith – based health seeking behaviours of women in Ogun waterside Local Government Area of Ogun State positively, age and religious affiliation affected it negatively. Also, while family structure and religious affiliation have significant relative effect on traditional and faith-based health seeking behaviours of women in Ogun waterside Local Government Area of Ogun State, age did not.

Hypothesis 2: There will be no significant relative effect of Economic factors (income and occupation) on traditional and faith – based health seeking behaviours of women in Odogbolu Local Government Area of Ogun State.

Table 11: Relative effect of Economic factors (income and occupation) on traditional and faith-based health seeking behaviours of women in Odogbolu Local Government Area of Ogun State

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)		36.456	.512		71.197	.000
1	Income	.774	.174	.180	4.449	.000
	Occupation	-.093	.313	-.012	-.298	.766

(a) Dependent Variable: Traditional and Faith based health seeking behaviour

Table 11 revealed the beta values 0.180 for income and -0.012 for occupation. These values indicated that income (beta value = 0.180) predicted traditional and faith-based health seeking behaviors of women in Ogu waterside Local Government Area of Ogun State better than occupation (beta value = -0.012). While income affected traditional and faith-based health seeking behaviours of women in Ogu waterside Local Government Area of Ogun State positively, occupational status affected in negatively. Also, while income has significant relative effect on traditional and faith-based health seeking behaviors of women in Ogu waterside Local Government Area of Ogun State, occupation did not.

Hypothesis 3: There will be no significant composite effect of Social factors (age, family structure, religious affiliation / belief) on traditional and faith-based health seeking behaviours of women in Ogu waterside Local Government Area of Ogun State.

Table 12: Composite effect of Social factors (age, family structure, religious affiliation / belief) on traditional and faith-based health seeking behaviours of women in Odogbolu Local Government Area of Ogun State

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	4566.840	3	1522.280	44.488	.000[b]
1. Residual	25526.627	746	34.218		
Total	30093.467	749			

$R = 0.390$, $R^2 = 0.152$ and Adjusted $R^2 = 0.148$

From Table 12, the R – value of 0.390 has an adjusted R2 – value 0.148 which shows that 14.8% of the variance in traditional and faith-based health seeking behaviours of women in Ogu waterside Local Government Area of Ogun State is jointly accounted for by the social factors. The F – value 44.488 which is significant at 0.05 indicated that the composite effect is significant.

Discussion of Findings

The study revealed that women in Ogun waterside Local government area sough health care majorly from Local Government health centre (95.3%). This does not agree with the assertion of Okonofua, Mitchel, Popoola, Okoruwa and Elujoba (1996) and Adebimpe and Olugbenga – Bello (2012), who said that among rural Yoruba in Ile – Ife almost all sicknesses are first treated traditionally before modern medical treatment but to a large extent, it agrees that both traditional and western health facilities are patronized with at different period in time. The study revealed that women seek health care mostly at the health centres when the traditional method of health care they received failed.

The study also revealed that social factors significantly influenced mothers towards traditional and faith-based health seeking behaviours in Ogun waterside Local Government of Ogun State. This study corroborates the findings of Iyalomhe and Iyalomhe (2012) who found religious beliefs and traditional African Medicine among others as leading factors that influence the health–seeking behaviour of the average Nigerians.

Also, the findings indicated that there was a significant composite influence of social factors and economic factors in predicting mothers towards traditional and faith-based health seeking behaviours in Ogun waterside Local Government of Ogun State. The study agrees with the finding of Shaikh and Hatcher (2005) who found that women with high socio-economic status tend to seek medical help for the inconsequential health problem.

Religious affiliation / belief predicted traditional and faith-based health seeking behaviors of women in Ogun waterside Local Government area of Ogun State. The finding supports the finding of Shamaki and Buang (2015) who found that the use of modern health services is often influenced by individual's perceptions of the efficacy of modern health services and the religious beliefs of the individual woman.

Conclusions

Based on the findings obtained from the analysis of data, the following conclusions were drawn.

Women in Ogun waterside Local Government seek health care from Local Government health centre, private maternity home, private hospital, state hospital and local government maternity centre. The findings also indicated that social factors significantly influenced mothers towards traditional and faith-based health seeking behaviours in Ogun waterside Local Government of Ogun State. In addition, findings revealed that economic factors significantly influenced mothers towards traditional and faith-based health seeking behaviours in Ogun waterside Local Government of Ogun State. Moreso, findings indicated that there is a significant composite influence of Social factors and economic factors in predicting mothers towards traditional and faith-based health seeking behaviours in Ogun waterside Local Government of Ogun State. Based on the above findings, it is richly concluded that women in the studied area shows significant variation on social, economic factors, composite influence on social and economic factors as predictors of health-seeking behaviour.

Health is the main aspect of human life. A common saying is: Health is wealth. Although a healthy life is the desire of everyone, the reality is that everyone is not healthy. An essential aspect of preserving health is to identify the factors that enable or prevent people from making healthy choices in either their life-style or their use of health care and treatment, the underlying assumption being that behavior is best understood in terms of an individual's perception of their social environment. The desire to choose good health and live as such is not only culturally determined but a result of socio-economic influences. Being healthy contributes to the normal functioning of the social system. Therefore, it can thus be deduced that both social and economic factors influence traditional and faith-based health seeking behavior of women in the rural area of Ogun waterside Local Government in Ogun State Nigeria.

Recommendations

Based on the above, it is thus recommended that:

1. Women should seek health care from registered and recognized health centre facility where cases can best be diagnosed.
2. Since there is active patronage of herbal and traditional health care center, there should be active collaboration between orthodox and traditional medicine for better health services.
3. There is need for the Local Government Awareness campaign on the benefits and otherwise effects of traditional and faith-based health seeking behavior.

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Psychological Determinants of Xenophobic Behaviours

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Abstract
Xenophobia has become increasingly worrisome since 1989 till date as the world becomes more globalized and international migration increased; with number of affected nations and casualties on the increase. This study examines the contributory roles of right-wing extremism, intolerance of ambiguity and ethnocentrism to propensity for xenophobic behaviour among South African undergraduates. Descriptive research design of survey type was adopted. Non-proportional stratified and simple random sampling techniques were utilized to select 600 undergraduates across levels/colleges and faculties in selected South Africa universities. Four standardized self-report questionnaires were used for data collection. Two hypotheses were raised and tested using multiple regression and t-test statistics. Findings revealed among others that the three predictor variables (right-wing extremism, intolerance of ambiguity and ethnocentrism) when combined, predicted the criterion variable (Xenophobia). The findings also showed that intolerance of ambiguity is the most potent predictor of xenophobic behaviour, followed by ethnocentrism, with right-wing extremism as the least predictor. Consequently, the paper recommended among others, that South Africa government should create space for cultural exchange programs in the universities to enhance mutual understanding among university community members and encourage diversity education.

Keywords: Xenophobia, Right-Wing Extremism, Intolerance of Ambiguity, Ethnocentrism.

Introduction

The world is gradually becoming a compact village; people of deferring cultural background are increasingly coming into contact through travel, business, work, temporary and permanent settlement and information and communication technologies. What happens as a result of their contact can vary from mutual learning and appreciation to hostility and overt conflict arising from fear of being dominated. Xenophobia has become increasingly worrisome since 1989 as the world became more globalized and international migration (documented and irregular) increased. For example, the United States has been known throughout its history as a nation of immigrants (Smith & Edrnonston, 1997). At the same time, the United States has a long history of Xenophobia and Intolerance of immigrants (Fuchs, 1995; Takaki, 1989). This trend of hatred of strangers or foreigners was also noticed in South Africa. Before the year 1994, immigrants in different parts of the World were reported to be facing discrimination and violence including South Africa. This was attributed to an institutionalized racism as a result of apartheid in the Country during that period. With the advent of democracy since 1994, the incidence of xenophobia is yet to subside. This is evident in the various statistics available on the phenomenon from year200 till date. Between year 2000 and March 2008, nothing less than 67 people were killed in what were identified as xenophobic attacks, in May 2008, a series of riots broke out which claimed 62 lives, Although 21 of those killed were South African citizens, the attacks were apparently motivated by xenophobia (Igglesden, Misago, Landau, 2009; Seedat, Umesh, Kopano, 2010).In 2015, another nationwide xenophobic attacks against immigrants in general occurred which prompted some foreign governments to start repatriating their citizens (Robinson, 2015). Between 2016 and 2018, over one hundred and eighteen Nigerians were reported to have been killed in violent manners. While several businesses and properties were either burnt or looted. Furthermore, several xenophobic riots towards African immigrants have been on the increase since March 2019 with not less than 14 Nigerians had been killed. Another riots and looting targeting shops owned by foreign nationals broke out on 1 September, 2019. Not less than 50 businesses predominantly owned by Nigerians were destroyed during the said riotous act (*Haffajee, 2019;* The Nation, September 4, 2019).

Xenophobia, simply put, is fear or hatred of foreigners or strangers; it is embodied in discriminatory attitudes and behaviour, and often culminates in violence, abuses of all types and exhibitions of hatred (Mogekwu, 2005). Xenophobia comes from the Greek work (Xenos), meaning "stranger, foreigner" and (phobos) meaning "fear". The term is typically used to describe a fear or dislike of foreigners or of people significantly different from oneself, usually in the contest of visibly differentiated minorities (Shinsana,

2008). It is more broadly defined in the Dictionary of Psychology (1978) as "fear of strangers". It is a form of attitudinal, affective and behavioural prejudice toward immigrants and those perceived as foreigners. Xenophobia is a phenomenon that is evident in a large number of states around the world. In 2000, the United Nation's Commission on Human Rights (cited in Valji, 2003) showed concern about the world-wide rise of intolerant attitudes towards outsiders. According to that report, "despite the efforts undertaken by the International community at various levels, racism, racial discrimination, xenophobia and related forms of intolerance, ethnic antagonism and acts of violence are showing signs of increase (p. 10)". Therefore, xenophobia is a global phenomenon. It is not limited to South Africa. It is a reality in many other African Countries, in Europe, in America, among the Asia, in rich as well as in poor countries of the world. Xenophobia and its different manifestations (including amongst others, selective enforcement of bye-laws, harassments and arbitrary arrests, political scapegoating, denied access to services, and of course public violence) are an ongoing serious threat to lives and livelihoods of those deemed "outsiders" in many countries across the globe. While this situation has improved considerably in the United States of America (USA), Canada and parts of the European Union (EU) due to several factors which include intervention by workers' unions, to mention but a few, the psychological fear of discrimination still persists among blacks from Africa (Campbell, 2009).

The issue of xenophobic relations in contemporary South Africa is rooted in and conditioned by the structure of its apartheid economy, racial categorization and international isolation. The apartheid economy was a totalizing one in that it mobilized all the social forces at its disposal to further the interest of the apartheid South African State. Since the primary productive force in the apartheid South African economy was gold, and the concomitant social relations of the mining process was by mostly black labour force, the industry (dominated by white South African Capitalists) attracted heavy migrant labour from Southern African regions to the fast thriving industry. According to Murphy (2001) as quoted by Mnyaka (2003), African immigrants flock to mining and fanning industries, two fields that are not popular among South African workers because of poor working conditions and low pay. The immediate result of this was that, as the foreign labour force began to gain social mobility in the gold industry and the black South Africans continually subjected to the repressive policies of apartheid, social tensions rose in the political economy of the state and has since remained a dominant part of the social relations of the post-apartheid South African State (Konanani&Odeku, 2013; Chidozie, 2014). The black South Africans have the belief that the foreigners steal their jobs (Dodson, 2010). The isolation hypothesis situates foreigners at the heart of hostility towards non-nationals. According to Harris (2002), "Isolation hypothesis suggests that suspicion and hostility towards strangers in South Africa exists due to its history of international isolation as a consequence of apartheid". Morris (1998) points out that as "South Africans have no history of incorporating strangers and are unused to nationalities beyond Southern Africa, they may find incorporating foreigners difficult" - a problem that is fuelling anti-African Xenophobia. The isolation hypothesis is wedded to the discourse of exceptionalism as expressed by Neocosmos, which is rooted in the belief of South Africans that they are different from the rest of Africa; that they are exceptional (Steenkamp, 2009). Given South African's successful reconciliation and democratization process, its political stability and high level of industrialization, its citizens see the country as not really belonging to Africa. Instead, Africa is seen as some kind of strange backward continent characterized by primitivism, corruption, authoritarianism, poverty and failed states (Neocosmos, 2008). They have negative and superior view over other Africans. All these negative behaviours promote xenophobic behaviour among South Africans, making the country to be hot spot among African nations in xenophobia.

Apartheid law of segregation is another contributing factor to xenophobic attitude of South Africans. South Africa is a melting pot of cultures, religions, languages and ethnic groups. This multicultural and multiracial environment has formally existed for over three hundred years. For much of the twentieth century, apartheid laws segregated people along racial lines. One of the legacies of apartheid was racially segregated universities which continue to exist under the name of Historically Disadvantaged Universities (HDUs). Going by the South African past political history, it could be inferred that some factors such as socio-economic structure, international isolation, racial categorization, political fragmentation, prejudice, exceptionalism and discrimination, which are features in the apartheid South African state have had huge effect on the attitudes of South African citizens. These have also contributed in developing ethnocentrism,

intolerance of ambiguity and right-wing extremism which are manifested in xenophobic attacks in South Africa.

Ethnocentrism refers to the way we look at the world from our perspective or from our filter of meaning (Andrew, 1986). It is a psychological construct that described the tendency of an individual to reject out-groups or tendency to view any economic, political or social event only from the point of the in-group. This has been an important factor to South African's hostile attitudes towards foreigners, that is, out-group. In fact, various scholars, such as CGRMSA (2008), Valji (2003) and Yakushko (2009), argued that frustration and anger by South Africans at the worsening economic conditions and the lack of service delivery have fuelled the rise of violence. The already existing competition amongst the less well off for scarce resources is exacerbated by the widespread assumption amongst South Africans that foreigners are stealing their jobs, houses and other services and resources of which they themselves feel entitled (Dodson, 2010, London, 2004, Valji, 2003). These perceived feelings of threat are explained by the Realistic Conflict Theory, which suggests that "competition for access to limited resources results in a conflict between groups", as the in-group views the out-group as a source of competition, causing prejudices against them (Yakushko, 2009). The attitude also includes seeing one's own standards of value as universal and it is manifested by South Africans. They believed that they are different from the rest of Africans and that they are exceptional. The behaviours associated with ethnocentrism are cooperative relations with the in-group and absence of cooperative relations with the out-group (Levine cd Campbell, 1972). Membership in an ethnic group is typically evaluated in terms of one or more observable characteristics (such as language accent, physical features or religion) that are regarded as indicating common descent (Kurzban, Tooby&Cesmides 2001) in short, ethnocentrism can be in-group favouritism or out-group hostility. Ethnocentrism is also seen as the feeling that one's group has a mode of living, values, and patterns of adaptation that are superior to those of other groups. It is coupled with a generalized contempt for members of other groups. Therefore, it could be inferred that ethnocentrism played a major role in the xenophobic attitudes towards immigrants in South Africa as they view other groups as inferior and contemptible.

Worthy of note is the study of Mekonne and Bahir (2003) that found out that students displayed their ethnocentric behaviour to foreign students by resulting to name calling and refusal to cooperate with group assignments. This corroborates the findings of Crush and Pendleton (2004) where it was discovered that foreign students were referred to as 'makwere' (a derogatory form used for a black person who cannot demonstrate mastery of local South African languages). Intolerance of other cultures leading to mistreatment, negative affective reactions to out groups, distrust, hostility, contempt and so on, resulted in xenophobic attacks. Also related to ethnocentrism is South African's intolerance of foreigners' way of life, culture, language, mode of dressing, etc. as those were considered strange and ambiguous. According to Frenkel-Brunswik (1949), Intolerance of Ambiguity is the key variable in ethnocentric personality. The end of apartheid meant the waiving of international borders and for South Africans to come into contact with people previously unknown and of different culture. According to this argument, a brutal culture of hostility towards strangers and no history of incorporating them meant that South Africans were and still are unable to tolerate difference - a characteristic of Intolerance of Ambiguity. Burdner (1962) described Intolerance of Ambiguity as the tendency to perceive ambiguous situations as, sources of threat. Individual psychological differences involve two related dimensions: personality and cognitive style. Kagan and Segal (1988) define personality as the total pattern of characteristic ways of thinking, feeling and behaving that constitute the individual's distinctive method of relating to the environment. Personality refers to the attitudes or beliefs of individuals, while cognitive style refers to the ways or methods by which an individual receives, stores, processes and transmits information (Gul, 1984).

Intolerance of ambiguity is a personality characteristic that reflects the general feelings and attitudes of an individual toward ambiguity and ambiguous situations. A situation is likely to be perceived as ambiguous when it is uncertain, changing or unstable or when it confronts the individual with new and unfamiliar problem that he or she cannot adequately structure or categorise. Hartmann (2005) and Norton (1975) defines intolerance for ambiguity as a tendency to perceive or interpret information marked by vague, incomplete, fragmented, multiple, probable, unstructured, uncertain, inconsistent, contrary, contradictory or unclear meanings as actual or potential sources of discomfort or threat. It could be

inferred that South Africans saw the presence of foreigners in their state as ambiguous situation and source of discomfort. Their complaints were "the foreigners use up our resources", "took our jobs", "they were criminals" and so on. This perception is an ideology of right-wing extremists. Right wing extremist thinking was defined with 10 consisting elements: extreme nationalism, ethnocentric, anticommunism, anti-paliamentarism, anti-pluralism, militarism, law and order- thinking, a demand for strong political leader and/or executive, anti-Americanism and cultural pessimism. The violent attitudes displayed by South Africans were more of right-wing characteristic. Rigid right-wing social ideology does not support diplomatic peace buildings. Inequality and propensity to violence shape their thinking. It supports an order based on origin, achievement, national, ethnic and race affiliation (based on the fundamental inequality of the individual). The main characteristics of this personality are its antidemocratic views that are combined with anti-semitism, ethnocentrism, conventionalism, authoritarianism, law and order mentality, the feeling of being threatened by something different, cynicism and exaggerated sexuality (Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswick, Levinson, Sanford, 1950).

Although xenophobia presents itself mainly in socio-economically deprived communities as explained by Economic Theory, it is found everywhere - 'even in institutions of higher learning where one expects a higher level of broadmindedness' (Mogekwu, 2005). Here xenophobia may not be expressed in the same manner as in poor communities where outbreaks of physical violence and attacks on businesses occur, but in 'more subtle forms of making the non-national feel so unwelcome and despised in an environment that is psychologically hostile' (Mogekwu, 2005). Despite the fact that South Africa is a democratic country, racial divisions amongst South African students is very visible at higher education institutions. The policies of these institutions may contain democratic principles; however, the students' interactions with each other reflect racial divisions (Iggelsden, Monson, &Poizer, 2009). Foreign students however, perceive these divisions differently. Cross and Johnson's (2008) study at Wits University revealed, amongst other things, that xenophobia 'has had serious repercussions' and that 'xenophobia, is something that makes South Africa a very intimidating society'. Unlike the xenophobic experiences in South African communities which are more violent in nature and openly hostile, xenophobia within the higher education context manifests in more subtle ways. The effect, however, is still the same. It leads to the foreign student being made to feel unwelcome and creates a sense of 'not belonging'. Cross and Johnson's (2008) findings at Wits University showed that 'in real life, group identities on campus still reflect the apartheid legacy'. Xenophobia amongst students is more subtle and can only be uncovered by establishing the individual experiences of students who are willing to share these experiences. Xenophobia as experienced by foreigners is rooted in constant fear of reprisals. However, the manifestation of xenophobia undermines social cohesion, peaceful coexistence and good governance and constitutes a violation of human rights. To allow citizens of one member state to think and act in xenophobic ways about citizens of another, is ultimately extremely destructive of regional cooperation and harmony (Crash & Pendleton 2004).

South Africa is one of Africa's most culturally diverse nations with 11 official languages and 5 racial groups, which include black African, white, coloured, Indian and Asian. According to the last census in 2013, South Africa is also the home to nationals from 53 African countries giving the country a wider range of ethnic variety than the rest of the continent. The question that arises is what are the implications of these incidences on the economies of South Africa and the entire continent?
One which becomes clear is the effect on the economic integration of Africa. The current incidence in South Africa is an upfront to this dream of a united Africa. The xenophobic attacks also have negative economic effect on South Africa as a nation. Every investor would want to invest in a politically stable economy; one which will provide the lasting security for his /her investments. The incidence is a direct opposite of actions that attract investments into an economy.

The xenophobic mayhem has sharpened a sense of "us and them", causing bitterness among nations that hosted thousands of South African exiles during the struggle against apartheid, leading credence to the fact that if nothing is done urgently to address xenophobic attacks world-wide, the third world war is inevitable. However, there have been mixed reports on the influence of personality factor on the causes of xenophobic behaviour; while some reports (for example, Botsch, 2004) suggest that Right-wing extremism contributes greatly to xenophobic behaviour, some argued in favour of Ethnocentrism, yet

others opined that it is intolerance of ambiguity. However, it is a truism that before a problem could be solved; the genesis must be traced as this will facilitate the approach to take in solving it. The present study therefore attempts to determine scientifically and statistically, the predictive power of the independent variables (Right-wing extremism, Intolerance of ambiguities and Ethnocentrism) in predicting the dependent (xenophobia) and particularly to determine the most potent predictor of xenophobic behaviour among the three independent variables.

Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses are postulated for testing:

i. There is no significant relationship among Right-wing Extremism, Intolerance of Ambiguity, and Ethnocentrism and Xenophobic behaviour among Undergraduates in selected South African Universities.
ii. There is no significant composite influence of Right-wing Extremism, Intolerance of Ambiguity, and Ethnocentrism on Xenophobic behaviour among undergraduates in selected South African Universities.
iii. There is no significant, relative influence of Right-wing Extremism, Intolerance of Ambiguity and Ethnocentrism on Xenophobic behaviour among undergraduates in selected South African Universities.

Methodology

Design and Participants

The descriptive design of survey type was adopted in this study because attempt was only made to gather information from respondents through the use of questionnaires without manipulating any of the variables. Participants consist of the entire undergraduate students in the Tshwane University of Technology, Guateng and Durban University of Technology, Kwazulu-Natal. The two universities have an estimated number of over 60, 000 and 26,059 undergraduates respectively. Non-proportional stratified and simple random sampling techniques were used to select 400 undergraduate students across levels/colleges and faculties from Tshwane University of Technology, Pretoria and Durban University of Technology', Kwazulu-Natal. The first stage of stratification was represented by the two universities (Tshwane University of Technology, Guateng and Durban University of Technology, Kwazulu-Natal) and this was followed by the different departments and faculties in the selected universities. The selection of respondents was made randomly and not based on the percentage of the population in each of the two selected universities. The mean age of the participants was 20 years.

Instrumentation

Four standardized instruments were adopted for data collection in the study.
The instruments are described below:

Cross-National Cumulative Measure of Xenophobia

Xenophobic behaviour was measured using 9 items scale adopted from Cross-National Cumulative Measure of Xenophobia developed by Van der veer, Ommundsen, Yakushko, Higler, Woelders, & Hagen (2011). This scale consists of statements which assess the degree to which a respondent is xenophobic. Each item was rated on a 5-point likert-type scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5), The scale reliability index is 0.75 which is satisfactory; while the validity index is 0.50. The reliability index of the scale in the present study is 0.80

General Ethnocentrism Scale (GENE)

General Ethnocentrism Scale is a 21-item scale developed by Neuliep and McCroskey, (2013). It is on a 5-point scale, ranging from strongly Agree (5) to strongly disagree (1) depending on the degree to which the items on the scale apply to individuals. A series of exploratory factor analysis were conducted on GENE scale. Reliability for the scale as determined by Crombach's alpha was .92. The reliability index for the present study is 0.63.

To assess the revised GENE'S validity, participants in this study completed three scales thought to be theoretically linked to ethnocentrism, including the Adorno*et al*, (1950). Patriotism scale, Shimp and Sharma's (1987) CETSCALE, and the interdependent, and independent Self-Construal scale. The correlations were significant and most were in the r (88) = .191, p = .074. to r (88) = -.023, p = .834 range

but they were sufficiently consistent to suggest that the measure had content, concurrent and construct validity. This 22 items scale will be adopted in this study.

Budner's Ambiguity Tolerance/In tolerance Scale

Intolerance of Ambiguity was measured using 16 items scale that was developed by Budner (1962. Each item uses a 7-point frequency, based on Like-1 scale ranging from (1) Strongly Disagree to (7) Strongly agree. Although the test correlation was good (0.85 over 2 months) the internal alpha was poor (0.49). Various forms of validity were examined including concurrent and construct. Not all the correlations were significant and most were in the 0.20 to 0.40 range but they were sufficiently consistent to suggest that the measure had content, concurrent and construct validity. The reliability index for the present study is 0.79.

Rightwing Extremism Scale

Rightwing Extremism was measured using 12 items scale adopted from The Support for Diplomacy Scale (SDS) developed by Kenneth E. Vail, III and Matt Motyl (2009). Negative correlation is expected between the support for Diplomacy and Rightwing Extremism Scales because rigid rightwing social ideology does not support diplomatic peace buildings; inequality and propensity to violence shape rightwing thinking. All items were assigned a 10-point Likert-type frequency (1 = strongly disagree, 10 = strongly agree). A large Cronbach's alpha of .94 added to the evidence for internal reliability of this scale. The reliability index of the scale in the present study is 0.72). The scale validity index is 0.50.

Procedure for Data collection

Questionnaires were administered on the respondents in each faculty/colleges of the university used as sample through the assistance of some of the academic staff in each of these universities. A total of two months, three weeks and 3 days were used for the distribution and collection of the questionnaires. A total of 600 questionnaires were distributed and returned, out of which 599(99%) were properly filled and used for analysis. The data resulting from the scoring of the instrument was subjected to multiple regression and t-test statistical analyses.

Results

This study presents the results from data analysis. This is done in accordance with the stated hypotheses in chapter one as follows.

Hypothesis I: There is no significant relationship among Right-wing, Extremism, Intolerance of Ambiguity, and Ethnocentrism and Xenophobic behaviour among Undergraduates in selected South African Universities.

Table 1: Relationship among Right-wing Extremism, Intolerance of Ambiguity, and Ethnocentrism and Xenophobic behaviour among University Undergraduates in selected South African Universities

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
Xenophobia	77.84	14.895	1	0.406**	0.285**	0.140**
Intolerance	65.71	10.624		1	0.033	0.335**
Ethnocentrism	64.35	9.257			1	-0.193**
Right-wing	48.88	7.796				1

*P<.05, **p<.01.

The results in Table 1 showed the mean and standard deviation of the variables in the study. Xenophobic behaviour had a mean score of 77.84 and standard deviation of 14.895, Intolerance of ambiguity had a mean score of 65.71 and standard deviation of 10.624; Ethnocentrism had a mean score of 64.35 and a standard deviation of 9.257; whereas Right- wing extremism had a mean score of 48.88 and a standard deviation 7.796. The results also revealed that xenophobia correlated significantly with intolerance of ambiguity (r=.406, p<.01), Ethnocentrism (r=285, p<.01), and with Right-wing extremism (r=.140, p<.0l). Furthermore, the results showed that intolerance of ambiguity did not correlate significantly with Ethnocentrism (r=.033, p>.05) but correlated significantly with Right-wing extremism (r=.335, p<.01). The results also revealed that ethnocentrism correlated with right wing extremism, but in a negative direction (r= -.193, p<.01).

Table 2: Composite influence of Right-wing Extremism, Intolerance of Ambiguity and Ethnocentrism on Xenophobic behaviour among South Africans

	Sum of squares	Df	Mean square F	Sig.
Regression	40473.277	3	13491.092 63.572	.000
Residual	126480.696	596	212.216	
Total	166953.973	599		
Model Summary	R=492	R^2 = .242	$R^2_{(adj)}$ = .239	

Table 2 reveals that the R-value 0.492 has an adjusted R^2 -value 0.239 which signifies that 23.9% of the variance in Xenophobicbehaviour is jointly accounted for by Right-wing Extremism, Intolerance of Ambiguity and Ethnocentrism. The F-value 63.57 is significant at 0.05, (P<0.05). It follows that there is a significant composite influence of Right-wing Extremism, Intolerance of Ambiguity and Ethnocentrism on Xenophobic behaviour among South African Undergraduates.

Table 3: Relative in tine sice of Right-wing Extremism, Intolerance of Ambiguity and Ethnocentrism on Xenophobic behaviour among South African Undergraduates

Model		Unstandardized		Standardized	T	Sig.
		Coefficients		Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
	(Constant)	7.055	6.276		1.124	.261
1	INTOLERANCE	.391	.040	.373	9.792	.000
	ETHNOCENTRISM	.589	.075	.286	7.832	.000
	WRIGHT-WING	.129	.072	.070	1.804	.072

a. Dependent Variable: Xenophobic Behaviour

Table 3 shows the beta values, 0.373 for Intolerance of ambiguity, 0.286 for Ethnocentrism and 0.070 for Right-wing extremism. It follows that Intolerance of ambiguity predicts Xenophobic behaviour most, followed by Ethnocentrism and Right- wing Extremism the least predictor. The t-values and the level of significance show that while Ethnocentrism and Intolerance of Ambiguity have significant relative influence on Xenophobic behaviour, Right-wing Extremism does not.

Discussion

The main objective of this study was to investigate the joint and relative contributions of Right-wing extremism, Intolerance of ambiguity and Ethnocentrism in explaining the variance in Xenophobic behaviour of University undergraduates in two South African Universities. The fundamental interest for conducting the study was to provide an empirical data base for discussion on Xenophobia with a view to finding solution to its menace; more so that the world is gradually becoming a village and the efforts so far made to put an end to the incidence of Xenophobia related crises seems to be unavailing and causing great damage to nationals' unity and nations' bilateral relationship. The working assumption was that behind every human action, there is a propelling trait. Therefore, beyond environmental factors which many previous studies addressed (CORMSA, 2008; Dodson, 2010; Valji 2003, Yakushko, 2009) as possible ways of putting an end to the menace of Xenophobia, there may be that innate tendencies propelling the act; and if these are determined and worked on, it may lead to a lasting solution to the problem. In pursuit of the research objective, three main hypotheses were derived to investigate the joint composite and relative powers of the predictor variables, particularly to know the most potent determinant of xenophobic behaviour among Right-wing extremism, Intolerance of ambiguity and Ethnocentrism using undergraduates in two universities in South Africa as sample. Preliminary analysis involved inters correlations of the predictor variables (right-wing extremism, intolerance of ambiguity and ethnocentrism) and the criterion measure (xenophobia).

The findings of this study established two theoretical positions. First, in consonance with previous arguments in the literature, it found that Xenophobia has significant positive relationship with all the variables investigated by the study. This finding reflects results of studies (Adorno, 1950; Alarape, 2008;

Arogundade, 2008; Backes& Jesse, 1989; Bekker et al 2008; Carttacin, *et al*, 2006,) that have established the interrelatedness of the variables investigated by the study. Researchers have consistently argued that Ethnocentrism, Intolerance of ambiguity and Right-wing extremism are factors embedded in Ideology of inequality with traces of nationalist, over-estimation of one's ability, racism, eugenic division of worth and not-worth living, the thesis of natural hierarchies, stressing of the right of the stronger, unequal treatment of foreigners, among others. They argued that they are factors that are based on anti-democratic and anti-individualistic views, denying the democratic fundamental axiom of the equality of all human beings; a position that is directed against all liberal and democratic forces and an issue traceable to South African long history of apartheid economy, racial categorization and international isolation.

The results of this study demonstrate that the three independent variables are significant predictors of xenophobia in two respects. First, right-wing extremism, intolerance of ambiguity and ethnocentrism combine to influence xenophobia. The importance of the combined effects of the variables is underscored by the fact that it accounted for almost one- quarter of the variation in xenophobic behaviour of the respondents. This implies that to achieve a lasting solution to the menace of xenophobia, management intervention should necessarily incorporate the three predictor variables investigated by this study. These findings are in congruence with the outcomes of some studies (e.g. Dodson, 2010; Esses, Dovidio, Semenya& Jackson, 2005; Esses, Dovidio, Jackson & Armstrong, 2001; Mekonnen & Bahir, 2013) on the influence of right-wing extremism, intolerance of ambiguity and ethnocentrism on xenophobia. These scholars argued that ethnocentrism, nationalism, nativism, social dominance orientation and belief in a hierarchical world order are strongly associated with xenophobia. They argued that the end of apartheid meant the waiving of international borders, and for South Africans to come into contact with people previously unknown and of different culture. According to them, a brutal culture of hostility towards strangers and no history of incorporating them meant that South Africans were, and are still unable to tolerate differences - a characteristic of intolerance of ambiguity, ethnocentrism and an attitude of right-wing ideology. It could be inferred that South Africans imbibed the right-wing extremist's ideology of inequality with traces of nationalist, over estimation of one's ability, racism and unequal treatment of foreigners. They believed that they are different from the rest of Africans, and that they are exceptional (Steencamp, 2009). This thinking is rooted in the isolation hypothesis which states that suspicion and hostility towards strangers in South Africa exist due to its history of international isolation as a consequence of apartheid.

The second aspect of the finding is that right-wing extremism, intolerance of ambiguity and ethnocentrism independently influenced xenophobia. While intolerance of ambiguity made the greatest contribution to the prediction of xenophobia, and followed by ethnocentrism; right-wing extremism was the least predictor. This implies that while ethnocentrism and intolerance of ambiguity have significant relative influence on xenophobic behaviour, right-wing extremism does not. The non-significant finding for the predictive independent effect of right-wing extremism suggests that the construct may not be a crucial factor when it acts in isolation. It was expected, however, that it will independently, and significantly too predict xenophobia; but the research outcome shows that these possibilities may only arise if right-wing extremism is combined with other factors as indicated by the significant joint influence of all the predictor variables.

Conclusions

The findings of this study are useful for a better understanding of the influence of right-wing extremism, ethnocentrism and intolerance of ambiguity on xenophobia with meaningful implication for management of xenophobia, particularly, among South African undergraduates. Nevertheless, caution should be exercised in the interpretation of results because of a number of limitations. First, findings are based on a study that involved two universities' undergraduates. This limits generalization, and creates a need for confirmatory studies. Besides, it calls for studies that compare xenophobic behaviour of other South African citizens with greater number of universities' undergraduates. Second caution is required in interpreting findings because the data obtained from participants were self- reported. A longitudinal investigation that incorporates the qualitative approach is therefore recommended for future studies. Although the predictor variables examined in this study made significant contribution to the understanding of xenophobia, they cannot be said to be exhaustive more so that right-wing extremism,

ethnocentrism and intolerance of ambiguity could only predict 23% of the variance in xenophobic behaviour of the respondents leaving 77% unaccounted for. Thus, future studies should be incorporate other psychological construct that may be relevant in understanding xenophobia.

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Implications of Drug Use and Abuse as Perceived by Student Athletes of Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, South-West Nigeria

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Abstract
The unabated use and misuse of drugs among students as reported in recent times suggests that students are unaware of the consequences of drug use and misuse it becomes worrisome to researchers in the field of research in education. This study was hence conducted to investigate the perceived implications of drug use/ abuse among students of Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, South-West, Nigeria. Descriptive survey research design was adopted to study the target population made up of all full-time athlete students of Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, South-West, Nigeria. A representative sample of 112 athletes comprising 84 male (75%) and 28 females (25%) was obtained through purposive random sampling techniques. A validated self structured questionnaire with a Cronbach-Alpha reliability of 0.83 and standardized Drug Abuse Screening Test (DAST), developed in 1982, as instrument were used to collect data. The data collected were analysed using frequency counts, pie-chart, chi-square and t-test. The study revealed that there is inadequate education on banned drugs which encourages the continual use of drugs; also, there is relationship between high risky behaviors and illegal drug use. It was concluded that male and female athletes had similar view about drug use and abuse. It is therefore recommended that drug education should be effortlessly reinforced and taught in schools at all levels through various means.

Keywords: Drug Use, Substance Abuse, Athletes, Illicit Drugs.

Introduction

Drug use and abuse otherwise known as substance abuse or recreational drugs present health and psycho-social dilemma that can impact negatively with unquantifiable consequences, capable of tearing any society apart. Indulgence in drug use and abuse may provide a temporary relieve for pain of failure, give short-term pleasure, but at terrible cost in terms of family, social, society and even, professional life. This menace is one of the most severe problems facing the Nigerian society. Although, it is difficult to get the exact figures regarding the use of certain drugs, but it is a known fact that youths in all parts of Nigeria take drugs to enhance performance. The use and abuse of drugs is not an exclusive of male. Young ladies are also in the habit of substance abuse. Substance abuse according to Wikipedia (2019), is also known as drug abuse, and is a patterned use of a drug in which the user consumes the substance in amounts or with methods which are harmful to themselves or others, and is a form of substance – related disorder. There are growing concerns that the use of performance-enhancing substances among amateur athletes may be on the rise globally. While most studies done in Nigeria as stated by Ijaduola, Odia, Adepoju, Igwe, Ayorinde and Koyenikan (2018), have been limited to elite athletes. They opined that the fact remains that Nigeria University athletes constitute about 40% of the country's representatives in international competitions.

It is important therefore to be concerned about their well-being because anything they do will have a rippled effect on the society. This has caused the members of the House of Representative in Nigeria to demand urgent measures to be put in place by regulatory agencies. They noted that boys and girls have been abusing the drugs freely and becoming addicts in the process. The parliamentarians added that codeine and tramadol had been identified to cause health risks such as breathing disorder, asthma and kidney disease. Athletes in Nigeria University who are mainly youths are faced with the threat of being rendered useless from adverse effects of the abuse of the medicine, including health challenges and the rise in violence such as sexual abuse, civil disturbances and murder.

Drug use and abuse as explained by Sigmund (2018), is a chronic use of drugs leading to socially deviant behaviours, worsening health and behavioral inconsistency. Russell and Browne (2018) expressed that young athletes are faced with many influences to use both licit and illicit drugs. They pointed out that mood altering and psychoactive substances are not only the types of drug being abuse. Using illicit drugs, including narcotics, stimulants, depressants, hallucinogens, cannabis among others are also considered substance or drug abuse. Intake of drugs is the primary reason why many youths have been incarcerated

and it has also been a source of crime and health problems in Nigeria. Aside the attributable health problems occasioned by drug abuse, the psycho-social effects include road accidents, suicide, murder, indulgence in occultism, poor academic and job performances various forms of violence, political thuggery, more University drop-outs and the death of our societal values.

Previous literature (International Athletic Federation, 2010; Eno-Abasi, 2013; Adegboyega, 2014; Olanipekun and Ajayi-Vincent, 2016), have shown that attempts by professionals in sports, health education and medicine to make elite athletes stay – off completely from drug use and abuse, have not yielded desired results. Therefore, there is a need to embark on further research among the amateur athletes in Nigeria universities as they are aspiring to become elite athletes after completing their university education. This is expected to encourage the rationale for the adoption of psychological and mechanical aids to complement the coaches training in skills and techniques and to stem the tide of drug use and abuse for performance enhancement. Hence, this study is set to find out the implication of drug use and abuse as perceived by student athletes of OlabisiOnabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, South-West, Nigeria

Materials and Methods

Participant: One hundred and twelve (n=112) randomly selected participants constituted the sample size for this study. Eighty-four (n=84) were males, while twenty-eight (n=28) were females, full time students of Ogun Stated owned, OlabisiOnabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, South –West Nigeria. The majority of the participants were within the age-range of 19years and 21years.

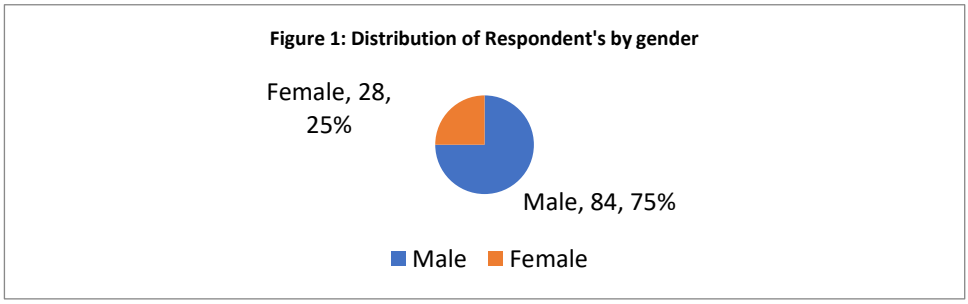
Instrumentation: The Drug abuse screening Test (DAST) developed in 1982 and reviewed by Skinner (2008) was the instrument used to collect data for thisstudy. It was originally a 28-item self-report scale, but pruned down to 20 items. The DAST instrument was slightly modified and the reliability was re-established. Using the Cronbach-Alpha, the internal consistency stood at 0.83.

Procedure for Data Collection: Ethical clearance was obtained from the University Coaches. Voluntary consent of the University athletes was obtained while codes were used in order to shield the identity of the student athletes, and thereby ensuring confidentiality. The researchers took adequate time to inform the participants on the importance of the study. The questionnaire was administered and the researchers retrieved them after completion. One hundred and twelve forms were filled and used for analysis to draw inferences for this study.

Statistical Analysis: The data retrieved were analysed using the statistical package for social sciences, with chi-square statistics. The significance level for all the hypotheses was set at 0.05 alpha level.

Data Analysis and Interpretation

Below were the results of data analysis in line with the aims and objective of the study. In this research work, the result of the Pie chart, Chi-square and t-test were presented below



The chart above represents the distribution of respondents by gender. According to the result of the analysis, 28(25.0%) of the respondents were female while 84 representing 75.0% of the entire population were male. This research showed that majority of the respondents that constitutes the sample size for the study was male gender.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis One: Risk-taking behaviours will not be significantly perceived as an implication of drug abuse by students-athletes

Table 1: Chi-Square Analysis indicated whether Risk-taking behaviours will not be significantly perceived as an implication of drug abuse by students-athletes

Response	Observed	Expected	O - E	$(O-E)^2$	Chi-Square	P
Strongly Agree	19	28	9	81		
Agree	17	28	11	121		
Disagree	31	28	3	9	17.86	< .05
Strongly Disagree	45	28	17	289		
TOTAL	112					

Table 1 presents a chi-square showing risk-taking behaviours will not be significantly perceived as an implication of drug abuse by students-athletes. From the table above, 19 out of 112 respondents strongly agree, 17 out of 112 agreed and 31 out of 112 disagreed while 45 out of 112 strongly disagreed. Going by their response rate, one can thus inferred that Risk-taking behaviours will not be significantly perceived as an implication of drug abuse by students-athletes. In support the above assertion, the result of the chi-Square calculated value of 17.86 whose probability < 0.05 shows statistically there is enough evidence to justify that Risk-taking behaviours will not be significantly perceived as an implication of drug abuse by students-athletes. Hence, the null hypothesis one is hereby rejected.

Hypothesis Two: Inadequate education about banned drugs will not be significantly perceived by students-athletes as an implication for continual drug use

Table 2: Chi-Square Analysis indicated whether inadequate education about banned drugs will not be significantly perceived by students-athletes as an implication for continual drug use

Response	Observed	Expected	O - E	$(O-E)^2$	Chi-Square	P
Strongly Agree	16	28	12	144		
Agree	23	28	5	25		
Disagree	48	28	20	400	20.64	< .05
Strongly Disagree	25	28	3	9		
TOTAL	112					

Table 2 presents a chi-square showing inadequate education about banned drugs will not be significantly perceived by students-athletes as an implication for continual drug use. From the table above, 16 out of 112 respondents strongly agree, 23 out of 112 agreed and 48 out of 112 disagreed while 25 out of 112 strongly disagreed. Going by their response rate, one can thus inferred that inadequate education about banned drugs will significantly be perceived by students-athletes as an implication for continual drug use. In support the above assertion, the result of the chi-Square calculated value of 20.64 whose probability < 0.05 shows statistically there is enough evidence to justify that inadequate education about banned drugs will be significantly perceived by student-athletes as an implication for continual drug use. Hence, the null hypothesis one is hereby rejected.

Hypothesis Three: Social alienation will not be significantly perceived as an implication of drug abuse by students-athletes

Table 3: Chi-Square Analysis indicated whether Social alienation will not be significantly perceived as an implication of drug abuse by students-athletes

Response	Observed	Expected	O - E	$(O-E)^2$	Chi-Square	P
Strongly Agree	13	28	15	225		
Agree	18	28	10	100		
Disagree	29	28	1	1	32.21	< .05
Strongly Disagree	52	28	24	576		
TOTAL	112					

Table 3 presents a chi-square showing that social alienation will not be significantly perceived as an implication of drug abuse by students-athletes. From Table 3, 13 out of 112 respondents strongly agreed,18 out of 112 agreed and 29 out of 112 disagreed while 52 out of 112 strongly disagreed. Going

by their response rate, one can thus infer that social alienation will significantly be perceived as an implication of drug abuse by student-athletes. In supporting the above assertion, the result of the chi-Square calculated value of 32.21 whose probability < 0.05 shows statistically that there is enough evidence to justify that social alienation will significantly be perceived as an implication of drug abuse by student-athletes. Hence, the null hypothesis one is hereby rejected.

Hypothesis Four: Vulnerability to infectious diseases will not be significantly perceived as an implication of drug abuse by student-athletes

Table 4: Chi-Square Analysis indicated whether vulnerability to infectious diseases will not be significantly perceived as an implication of drug abuse by student-athletes

Response	Observed	Expected	O - E	$(O-E)^2$	Chi-Square	P
Strongly Agree	14	28	14	196	18.00	< .05
Agree	20	28	8	64		
Disagree	40	28	12	144		
Strongly Disagree	38	28	10	100		
TOTAL	112					

The table 4 above present a chi-square showing vulnerability to infectious diseases will not be significantly perceived as an implication of drug abuse by student-athletes. From the table above, 14 out of 112 respondents strongly agreed, 20 out of 112 agreed and 40 out of 112 disagreed while 38 out of 112 strongly disagreed. Going by their response rate, one can thus inferred that vulnerability to infectious diseases will significantly be perceived as an implication of drug abuse by student-athletes. In supporting the above assertion, the result of the chi-Square calculated value of 18.00 whose probability < 0.05 shows statistically there is enough evidence to justify that vulnerability to infectious diseases will significantly be perceived as an implication of drug abuse by student-athletes. Hence, the null hypothesis one is hereby rejected.

Hypothesis Five: There will be no significant differences between the perception of male and female athletes on drug use and misuse

Table 5: Independent sample t-test showing significant gender differences in the perception of athletes on drug use and misuse

Gender	N	Mean	SD	Std Error	t-cal	Sig of t
Male	84	30.62	2.12	0.23	0.501	0.617
Female	28	30.86	2.35	0.44		

The result in table 5 revealed a non-significant outcome (t = 0.501, p>0.05). The outcome implies that there will be no significant differences between the perception of male and female athletes on drug use and misuse. The mean perception of athletes on drug use and misuse ($\bar{x}$ =30.62) obtained by male athletes was merely lesser than the mean perception ($\bar{x}$ =30.86) obtained by female students. The difference is statistically in-significant. Hence it can be concluded that there will be no significant differences between the perception of male and female athletes on drug use and misuse.

Discussion of Finding

This research work determined the implications of drug use and abuse as perceived by student athletes of Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, South–West Nigeria. Five hypotheses were tested and are discussed in the subsequent paragraphs.

Hypothesis One

Hypothesis one was tested and the result revealed significance. That is, the hypothesis one was rejected. This implies that the responses of the student athletes indicated that majority of them believed that they are prone to risk-taking behaviours when they use and abuse drugs. Drug abusers have the tendency of acting aggressive and causing public fights. Some dangerous driving and auto-accidents are attributable to drugs and alcohol influence. Violence, intentionally threatening and physical harms are some of the risk- taking behaviours that drug abusers are susceptible to. The finding in hypothesis one gives credence to the study of Kobulsky, Mines, Min and singer (2017), where they examined the relationship between violence exposure and early substance use as mediated by trauma symptoms. Mediation analysis

indicated direct relationships between high risk behaviours such as violence and illegal drug use. Their findings further reported that substance use is a potential high-risk factor associated with elevated threat of developing psychiatric disorder, suicidal behaviours, violent and deviant behaviours. This finding also buttresses the statement of the World Health Organization (WHO, 2019), that illicit drug use is a major public health challenge. It was stated by the WHO that involvement in drug use can increase the risks of being both a victim and/or perpetrator of violence while experiencing violence can increase the risks of initiating illicit drug use.It was noted that impacts of drug-related high-risk behaviours can be substantial, damaging individuals' health and the cohesion and development of communities, whilst disturbing peaceful coexistence.

Hypothesis Two

Hypothesis two was tested and the result revealed a significance in the responses of student athletes. In effect, the student athletes attributed the continual use of illicit drugs to inadequate drug education about banned drugs. It is imperative to note that drug education enables youths to develop the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that will make them appreciate the benefits of living healthily, promote responsibility towards the use of drugs and relate to their own actions and those of others, both now and in their future lives. Drug education avail student athletes the opportunity to make their own informed decision about drugs; whether to take them or not and to be able to assess and avoid risks. The result in hypothesis two is in agreement with the finding of Ghobain (2017), in a study on the use of performance enhancing substances (doping) by athletes in Saudi Arabia where the study confirmed that doping is a common problem in Saudi Arabia, and suggested an improvement in anti-doping screening and education to ensure a safe and fair sporting environment for Saudi Arabian athletes. It was further found out that the high prevalence of the use of stimulants and cannabis by Saudi athletes suggests that the intake of these substances is more likely to be recreational rather than intention to cheat in sport. The study therefore concluded that education can play a counterbalancing role in shaping a normative culture of safety moderation and informed decision-making.

The result of this study is in agreement with the position of Lippi, Franchini and Guichi (2008). They pointed out that competitive athletes have been familiar with the use of substances to aid performance and they will probably continue to use unfair and harmful substances, because their inclination to victory, along with the mirage of glory and money, will probably overcome health and legal risks. In sports, it was explained that doping is conventionally referred to as the use of performance enhancing drugs, particularly those that are forbidden by the organisations that regulate competitions. It was therefore recommended that general practitioners and sport physicians have particular responsibilities in addressing this issue, in that they need to be aware of the multifaceted categories and problem of doping, and sport authorities need to ensure that ethical education and guidance for athletes are of the highest standard. This, reliable educational and preventive policies starting from the schools should be on-going imitative addressed to undergraduates, young people and children.

Hypothesis Three

Hypothesis three was rejected, implying that student-athletes suggested that social alienation will be a significant implication of drug abuse. Drug use and abuse curtail brain development, hinders academic performance, increase risk of injuries, criminal activity and violence; contribution to risky sex and teenage pregnancy; and negatively affects life course trajectories. The result of this study in hypothesis three agrees with the finding of Byron, Pagano and Stephen (2018) in a study of the impact of social isolation and helping others on alcohol and other drug use and criminal activity, where it was discovered that social isolation and its counterpart, social connection, are products of substance use. The study established that drug addiction is the primary driver of isolation, pain and distress experienced by users. The study expressed that there was evidence that American youths today are more socially isolated despite technological advancement. It showed concern that the increase in youth isolation has been noted, but far less discussed are the detrimental effects of social isolation to physical and mental health. This study further buttressed the finding of Pagano, Wang, Roveles, Lee and Johnson (2015), in a study of social anxiety and peer-helping in adolescent addiction treatment, alcoholism; clinical and experimental research, where it was concluded that drug addiction results to social isolation which increases the risk

of committing violent crimes. Thus, social isolation that is due to drug abuse and addiction with little sense of control may be expressed in rage outbursts with devastating consequences.

Hypothesis Four

The result under data and interpretation regarding the hypothesis four shows that the hypothesis four stood rejected. That is, the student athletes responded that vulnerability to infectious diseases is an implication of drug abuse. It is widely believed that drug abuse impacts negatively on the immune system of the body. As such, drug abusers and addicts are prone to contracting infectious diseases such as tuberculosis, hepatitis, HIV/AIDS, syphilis among other. The result in respect of hypothesis four gives support to the statement of the National Institute on Drug Abuse (2017) that injection of drugs accounts for one in ten of cases of HIV. Injection drug is also a major factor in the spread of hepatitis C and can be the cause of endocarditis and cellulitis. Injection drug use is not the only way that drug use contributes to the spread of infectious diseases. Drugs that are mis-used can cause intoxication, which hinders judgment and increase the chance of risky sexual behaviours. It was also stated that infection of the heart and its valves (endocarditis) and skin infection (cellulitis) can occur after exposure to bacteria by injection drug use.

The centers for Disease control (2018), also clearly pointed out that a deadly consequence of the drug crisis is increased incidence of blood-borne infections, including hepatitis B virus and hepatitis C, human immunodeficiency virus (HIV), and bacteria that cause heart infections (endocarditis). The use of contaminated injection, drug equipment is a primary transmission route for both HIV and hepatitis C. Increasing injection drug use has placed new populations, including young people at risk. In people living with HIV, substance use can hasten disease progression, affect adherence to antiretroviral therapy (HIV medicine), and worsen the overall consequences of HIV. Crack cocaine is a stimulant that can create a cycle in which people quickly exhaust their resources and turn to other ways to get the drug including trading sex for drugs or money which increases HIV risk.

Hypothesis Five

The result obtained in respect of hypothesis five shows an acceptance of the postulated hypothesis. That is, student athletes believed that no difference exists in the perception of male and female regarding drug use and abuse. It has been noted that when women have drug problems, they are easier to convince to enter into a support or rehabilitation problem than their male counterparts. Although, there are similarities in the reason for drug addiction by both males and females. But differences also exist because women are more susceptible to emotional breakdown than their men counterparts. That means differences also exist in the reasons for drug use and abuse across the genders. The result of this study in respect of hypothesis five above has given credence to the study of Palis, March and Oviedo-Jockes (2017) in a study that investigated men's and women's response to treatment and perceptions of outcomes in a randomised controlled trial of injectable opiod use disorder, and it was established that women's and men's perception about drug use and abuse were not different. Also, their perception of treatment effectiveness showed no significant difference. The result of the hypothesis five equally has found a support in the report of Psychiatric Times (2018), where it was reported that drug addiction is a problem that affects people across every demographic, but the individual effects of the problem can be felt differently. It concluded that perhaps, the most basic fact is that men and women are prone to substance abuse, impacted by substance abuse or treated for substance abuse.

Conclusions

It can be deduced from this study that;

1. Risk- taking behaviours was significantly perceived by student athlete as an implication of drug abuse and use.
2. Inadequate education about banned drugs was significantly perceived by student-athletes as an implication for continual drug abuse.
3. Social alienation was believed by student-athletes to be an implication of drug use and abuse.
4. Student-athletes believed that vulnerability to infectious diseases will become resultant effects of drug abuse.

5. Male and female student-athletes had similar perception regarding the concept, effects of drugs and treatment of drug abusers.

Recommendations

This study recommends thus;

1. Support programmes should be organised for the student-athletes that are already involved in drug use and abuse by the governing council, in conjunction with the medical health center, University sports unit and the school counseling unit. This support programme will address the cause of drug abuse while student-athletes can be taught about how to increase their self-esteem, self-efficiency and positive mental attitude. This is because those who have those qualities believe more in themselves and are not likely to indulge in drugs.
2. The best solution to the problem of drug use and abuse among student-athletes and youths is drug education. Student-athletes should be reached in an organised manner and be provided with fact-based drug education.
3. Student-athletes should be exposed to the notion that consumption of drugs to enhance performance amounts to cheating. Teaching morality in all areas in the University system is capable of impacting positively on preventing drug use and abuse.
4. Coping skills such as self-confidence, stress management, positive self-talk, discouraging self-doubt are capable of inhibiting drug use and abuse by student-athletes in Universities.

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Effect of Behaviour Contract Counselling Technique on Impulsivity among Primary School Pupils in Zaria Metropolis, Kaduna State, Nigeria

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Abstract
The study determined the "Effect of Behaviour Contract Counselling Technique on Impulsivity among Primary School Pupils in Zaria Metropolis, Kaduna State, Nigeria". Four objectives were formulated to guide the study. The study employed quasi experimental design involving pre-test post-test group design in which the participants were assigned to two treatment groups. The population of the study consisted of 35 pupils identified with impulsivity. Purposive sampling technique was used to select 10 pupils used for the study. The instrument used for data collection was Impulsive Behaviour Scale adapted from Whiteside and Lynam. The four Null hypotheses were tested using the paired sample t test at 0.05 level of significance. Findings revealed that Pupils exposed to behaviour contract had a reduced premeditation impulsivity among primary schools in Zaria Metropolis (p = 0.001); Pupils exposed to behaviour contract had a reduced urgency impulsivity among primary schools in Zaria Metropolis (p = 0.021); Pupils exposed to behaviour contract had a reduced sensation seeking impulsivity among primary schools in Zaria Metropolis (p = 0.000) and; Pupils exposed to behaviour contract had a reduced perseverance Impulsivity among primary schools in Zaria Metropolis (p = 0.004). Based on the findings of the study, it was deduced that Behaviour contract was effective in reducing impulsivity such as premeditation, urgency, sensation seeking and premeditation among primary schools in Zaria Metropolis. It was recommended among others that since behaviour contract technique was effective in reducing impulsivity such as premeditation, urgency, sensation seeking and perseverance among primary school pupils, Counsellors, Psychologists and Social Workers should be encouraged to use the technique in handling pupils with impulsivity behaviour.

Keywords: Impulsivity, Behaviour Contract, Counselling, Technique, Pupils.

Introduction

Impulsivity is a behaviour disorder characterized by not being able to wait before answering a question, or answering even before it is completed; often interrupting or intruding on others; running out into the street without stopping and looking, and being unable to wait for things that they may desire. Impulsivity may make meeting the daily rigors of school challenging, difficulty in sustaining attention to a task may contribute to missing important details in assignments, daydreaming during lessons and other activities and difficulty organizing assignments. It may also lead to careless errors, responding to questions without fully formulating the best answers and only attending to activities that are entertaining or novel. Generally, pupils with impulsive behaviour may experience more problems with school performance than their reflective peers. Valiente, Spinrad, Eisenberg and Kupfer (2013) reported that impulsivity is prospectively and uniquely related to achievements and there is also a positive relationship between impulsivity and academic failure. Two main types of Impulsivity have been identified. First, there is a tendency to go for the immediate reward without thoughtful consideration of long-term effects, and second, there is a strong motivation or urge to act. However, Whiteside and Lynam (2001) (as cited in Lopez, Dauvilliers, Jaussent, Billieux & Bayard, 2015) reported four facets: the first facet is urgency, which refers to the tendency to experience strong impulses, frequently under conditions of negative affect. The second facet, premeditation, refers to the tendency to think and reflect on the consequences of an act before engaging in that act. Perseverance is the third facet; it refers to an individual's ability to remain focused on a task that may be boring or difficult. Individuals who are low in or lack perseverance are unable to complete projects and to work under conditions that require resistance to distracting stimuli. Sensation seeking is the fourth and final personality facet a tendency to enjoy and pursue activities that are exciting and openness to trying new experiences that may be dangerous. High scorers enjoy taking risks and engaging in dangerous activities.

Three causes of Impulsivity were reported by True (2014) which are Biological, Developmental and Sociological factors. Impulsive behaviours that result from biological causes can be traced to specific areas of the brain. In this regard, differences in the prefrontal cortex are associated with differences in the

inability to control certain actions that may conflict with long term goals. This is because prefrontal cortex is considered the most effective region of the brain that engages in executive control, other functions that can be linked to the prefrontal cortex include; the functions of cognitive control, decision making and planning. Therefore, damage to the prefrontal cortex suggests an increase in impulsive action or behaviour (Greene, Heilbrun, Fortune & Nietzel, 2014). In view of the developmental factor, theory and developmental research have suggested a strong link between poor parenting and problems of impulsivity among children (True, 2014). The sociological factor essentially hinges on socioeconomic status or poverty which has been reported as another cause of impulsivity (Lynam, Caspi, Moffitt, Wikstrom, Loeber & Novak, 2013). They found that teenagers with higher levels of impulsivity lived in poorer neighborhoods, and boys who lived in poorer neighborhoods took part more in different types of violent crimes.

Prevalence of impulsivity has been reported all over the world, studies worldwide on Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) prevalence in children aged 18 and under found an overall pooled estimate of 7.2% (Thomas, Sanders, Doust, Beller & Glasziou, 2015). Based on DSM-IV screening of 11,422 adults for ADHD in 10 countries in the Americas, Europe and the Middle East, the estimates of worldwide adults with ADHD averaged 3.4% (Fayyad, De Graaf, Kessler, Alonso, Angermeyer, Demyttenaere, De Girolamo, Haro, Karam, Lara, Lepine, Ormel, Posada-Villa, Zaslavsky & Jin, 2013). In different parts of Nigeria, Adewuya and Famuyiwa, (2013); Egbochuku and Abikwi (2014) found a prevalence of 3.2% among Nigerian primary school children, 7.6% among pupils in Egor Local Government Area of Edo State (Ambuabunos, Ofovwe & Ibadin, 2014) and among primary school pupils in Kano, Darma (2015) reported 8% while Dungurawa and Sani (2015) reported 8.7%. The hyperactive–impulsive subtype is reported to be the most prevalent (Rowland, Umbach, Catoe, Stallone, Long, Rabiner & Sandler, 2011, Montiel-Nava, Pena & Montiel-Barbero, 2013). Also, the researcher observed that while monitoring primary schools in Zaria Zone as a member of the UKaid sponsored Education Sector Support Programme in Nigeria (ESSPIN), all the primary four teachers complained of pupils that exhibit characteristics of impulsive behaviour. In the same programme also, the researcher had the opportunity of visiting the other Zones for the monitoring exercise in the State and the same complains were observed.

Different approaches such as class rules and regulations (Oweus, 2015); Positive Behavioural Interventions and Supports (PBIS), (Sugai & Horner, 2016); suspension (Thepa, Cohen, Guffey, & Higgins-D'Alesandro, 2013); office disciplinary referrals (Rigby, 2012) and; social and emotional learning (CASEL, 2013) were used to handle impulsivity but the problem still persists. The need to seek the use of psychological approaches such as behaviour contract to reduce the behaviour becomes imperative. Behaviour contract is a simple reinforcement intervention that is widely used to change maladaptive behaviour such as emotional and behavioural disorders, autism, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), intellectual disabilities and traumatic brain injury (Hufford, Williams, Malec & Cravotta, 2012). In addition, they reported the efficacy of behaviour contract on academic gains, improved social behaviours, weight control, adherence to an exercise programme and a reduction in aggressive and violent behaviours. Behaviour contracting is a behavioural intervention within the applied behaviour analysis literature that has been used to influence behaviour change over a decade (Bailey, Wolf & Phillips (1991) as cited in Bowman-Perrott, Burke, DeMarin, Zhang & Davis, 2016). Within the field of behaviour analysis, Colon (2016) reported that behaviour contracts have been used to address behaviours such as student studying behaviour, weight control, child aggressive behaviours, sports performance, intellectual disabilities, typically functioning children and adults and individuals with autism.

Statement of the Problem

Over the past few years, concerns have been raised about the poor performance of primary school pupils in public examinations such as the National Common Entrance Examination. Evidence from literature revealed that impulsivity is found to be one of the major factors inhibiting academic achievement among primary school pupils in Nigeria and this accounts for about 3.2% of the population (Adewuyi & Famuyiwa; 2013 and Egbochuku & Abiwi, 2014). The impulsive children perform poorly not because they are not intelligent but because they lack ability in reflective thinking in a given cognitive tasks in

schools, answering questions before the questions are completely asked, they may have a daily rigors of school challenges, difficulty in sustaining attention to a task, missing important details on assignments, daydreaming during lessons and other activities, difficulty in organizing assignments, careless errors, responding to questions without fully formulating the best answers and only attending to activities that are entertaining or novel. They may also experience low self-esteem, difficulties making and maintaining appropriate peer relationship and developing a supportive group. These problems had caused a significant distress or impaired functioning as they frequently experience deficits in social skills, impairing their abilities to function well in school and social settings. However, there is a growing concern on the consequences of impulsivity among children in Zaria Metropolis, Nigeria and indeed the world at large. In spite of the various measures adopted by parent and teachers in managing impulsivity among primary school pupils such as flogging, warning, reproach, advice, denial of rights and privileges, reprimand and suspension from school proved less effective and the problems of impulsivity among primary school pupils still persists in Zaria Metropolis. Studies had proven the effectiveness of Behaviour Contract in handling Impulsivity but were conducted in foreign culture (Rivera Flores and Barreda Parra; 2014, Ghahramani, Sohrabi, Kakhki & Besharat 2016), None of the studies considered the different facets of impulsivity such as such as premeditation, urgency, sensation seeking and perseverance. This gap constitutes a major challenge to the development of primary education. It was against this background that this study investigated the effect of Behaviour Contract Counselling Technique on Impulsivity among Primary School Pupils in Zaria Metropolis, Kaduna State, Nigeria.

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study were to determine the:

i. effect of behaviour contract on premeditation impulsivity among primary school pupils in Zaria Metropolis.
ii. effect of behaviour contract on urgency impulsivity among primary school pupils in Zaria Metropolis.
iii. effect of behaviour contract on sensation seeking impulsivity among primary school pupils in Zaria Metropolis.
iv. effect of behaviour contract on perseverance impulsivity among primary school pupils in Zaria Metropolis.

Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance:

H_{O1}: There is no significant effect of behaviour contract on premeditation impulsivity among primary school pupils in Zaria Metropolis.

H_{O2}: There is no significant effect of behaviour contract on urgency impulsivity among primary school pupils in Zaria Metropolis.

H_{O3}: There is no significant effect of behaviour contract on sensation seeking impulsivity among primary school pupils in Zaria Metropolis.

H_{O4}: There is no significant effect of behaviour contract on perseverance impulsivity among primary school pupils in Zaria Metropolis.

Methodology

*T*he design adopted in this study was quasi-experimental design involving the pre-test and post-test design. This design involved a pre-test of the subjects before the introduction of treatment followed by a post-test of the subjects after the treatment. The target population consisted of 14 primary 4 school pupils identified with impulsivity in are LEA Adamu B. Dikko Primary School, Tudun Jukun, Zaria. The sample of this study consisted of 10 participants; pupils who were identified with impulsivity and the study adopted the purposive sampling technique. The researcher adapted the 20 items SUPPS- P impulsive Behaviour Scale (Lynam, 2013) for the study. The instrument was designed to measure Impulsivity across four facets. The UPPS includes 4 sub-scales: urgency, premeditation, perseverance, and sensation-seeking. The pupils that obtained a score of 30-50 were selected to serve as subjects in the study.

To localize the instrument especially as a result of amendments made to it, the pilot testing of the instrument was established by administering 10 copies of the validated instrument on 10 pupils of Waziri

Lawal LEA Primary School Kofar Kuyanbana, Zaria. The data collected at the pilot study was subjected to the PPMC test re-test technique and a correlation coefficient of 0.88 was obtained. The Behaviour Contract Counselling Technique package intervention programmes was implemented on the subjects and treatment sessions lasted for 6 weeks.

Results

Hypothesis One: There is no significant effect of behaviour contract on premeditation Impulsivity among primary school pupils in Zaria Metropolis.

Table 1: Paired Sample t test on Effect of Behaviour Contract on Premeditation Impulsivity among Primary School Pupils in Zaria Metropolis

Variable	Tests	N	Mean	Std.de	Mean diff.	Df	t cal	P
	Pre-test	10	13.2000	0.918				
Premeditation Impulsivity					5.700	9	17.015	0.001
	Post-test	10	7.5000	0.707				

Results of the paired sample t- test in Table 1 revealed that the calculated p value of 0.001 is below the 0.05 alpha level of significance while the computed t value of 17.015 is higher than the 1.96 at df 9. This implied that, there was significant effect of behaviour contract technique on premeditation impulsivity among primary school pupils in Zaria Metropolis. Therefore, the null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant effect of behaviour contract on premeditation impulsivity among primary school pupils in Zaria Metropolis was rejected.

Hypothesis Two: There is no significant effect of behaviour contract on urgency impulsivity among primary school pupils in Zaria Metropolis.

Table 2: Paired Sample t-test on Behaviour Contract on Urgency Impulsivity among Primary School Pupils in Zaria Metropolis

Variable	Tests	N	Mean	Std.dev.	Mean diff.	Df	t cal	P
	Pre-test	10	12.5000	0.960				
Urgency Impulsivity					5.800	9	9.947	0.021
	Post-test	10	6.700	1.500				

Results of paired sample t-test in Table 2 revealed that the calculated p value of 0.021 is below the 0.05 alpha level of significance while the computed t value of 9.947 is higher than the 1.96 at df 9. This implied that, there was significant effect of behaviour contract on urgency impulsivity among primary school pupils in Zaria Metropolis. Therefore, the null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant effect of behaviour contract on urgency impulsivity among primary school pupils in Zaria Metropolis was rejected.

Hypothesis Three: There is no significant effect of behaviour contract on sensation seeking impulsivity among primary school pupils in Zaria Metropolis

Table 3: Paired Sample t- test on Effect of Behaviour Contract on Sensation Seeking Impulsivity among Primary School Pupils in Zaria Metropolis

Variable	Tests	N	Mean	Std.de	Mean diff	Df	t- cal	P
Sensation Seeking Impulsivity	Pre-test	10	12.700	0.948				
					6.400	9	18.827	0.000
	Post-test	10	6.300	1.059				

Results of the paired sample t- test in Table 3 revealed that the calculated p value of 0.000 is below the 0.05 alpha level of significance while the computed t value of 18.827 is higher than the 1.96 at df 9. This implied that, there was significant effect of behaviour contract on sensation seeking impulsivity among primary school pupils in Zaria Metropolis. Therefore, the null hypothesis which stated that there is no

significant effect of behaviour contract on sensation seeking impulsivity among primary school pupils in Zaria Metropolis was rejected.

Hypothesis Four: There is no significant effect of behaviour contract on perseverance impulsivity among primary school pupils in Zaria Metropolis.

Table 4: Paired Sample t- test on Effect of Behaviour Contract on Perseverance Iimpulsivity among Primary School Pupils in Zaria Metropolis

Variable	Tests	N	Mean	Std. dev.	Mean diff.	Df	t-cal	P
	Pre-test	10	12.800	1.229				
Perseverance Impulsivity					4.900	9	5.950	0.004
	Post-test	10	7.900	2.079				

Results of the paired sample t- test above revealed that the calculated p value of 0.004 is below the 0.05 alpha level of significance while the computed t value of 5.950 is higher than the 1.96 at df 9. This implied that, there was significant effect of behaviour contract on perseverance impulsivity among primary school pupils in Zaria Metropolis. Therefore, the null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant effect of behaviour contract on perseverance impulsivity among primary school pupils in Zaria Metropolis was rejected.

1. Pupils exposed to behaviour contract technique had a reduced premeditation impulsivity among primary schools in Zaria Metropolis (p =0.001).
2. Pupils exposed to behaviour contract had a reduced urgency impulsivity among primary schools in Zaria Metropolis (p =0.021).
3. Pupils exposed to behaviour contract had a reduced sensation seeking impulsivity among primary school in Zaria Metropolis (p =0.000).
4. Pupils exposed to behaviour contract had a reduced perseverance impulsivity among primary school pupils in Zaria Metropolis (p =0.004).

Discussion

The study assessed the effects of behaviour contract counselling techniques on impulsivity among primary school pupils in Kaduna State, Nigeria. The first finding indicated that pupils exposed to behaviour contract had a reduced premeditation Impulsivity among primary schools in Zaria Metropolis. The finding is in agreement with findings of Mruzek, Cohen and Smith (2014) which agreed with the ease of using behaviour contracts in their study of two elementary school boys, one with Asperger Syndrome and another with an emotional disability. It was also in agreement with the findings of Cutrell (2015) in a study titled "Effect of Contracts in Decreasing Inappropriate Behaviour of Pupils with Emotional/Behavioural Disabilities". It was found that all pupils exhibited a decrease in inappropriate behaviour with the use of the behaviour contract. This was also in agreement with another study conducted by Jones, Weber and McLaughlin (2015) titled No Teacher Left Behind: Educating Students with ASD and ADHD in the Inclusion Classroom. Pupils exposed to behaviour contract had reduced urgency impulsivity among primary schools in Zaria Metropolis. The finding was in agreement with Selfridge (2015), in a study titled "Contingency Contracting in the Elementary General Education Classroom". The results suggested that contingency contracts can successfully be implemented to increase a desired behaviour (engagement) with students in the general education classroom. It was also in line with the study of Enea and Dafinoiu (2014), study titled "Motivational/Solution Focused Intervention for Reducing School Truancy among Adolescents" in which they implemented a multi-modal intervention for truant behaviours that consisted of "motivational interviewing, solution-focused counselling, successive approximations of behaviour, behaviour contracts and reinforcement techniques". It was also in line with a study by Colon (2016) titled Behaviour Contracting with Dependent Runaway Youth. Results indicated that participants, caregivers and case managers found behaviour contracting to be a useful intervention and something that would benefit other youth in foster care who engage in runaway behaviour.

Pupils exposed to behaviour contract had a reduced sensation seeking impulsivity among primary schools in Zaria Metropolis. This finding was in agreement with that of a study by Gurrad, Weber and

McLaughlin, (2013) titled "The effects of Contingency Contracting for a Middle School Students with Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder during corrective reading lessons". They reported that Dodge, Nizzi, Pitt and Rudolph (2007) used a larger sample of 89 third graders to highlight the effectiveness of behavioural contracts and positive reward systems in improving student responsibility. Also, Hawkins, et al. (2011) echoed these findings when implementing behaviour contracts for assaultive, destructive and out of seat behaviours displayed by four pupils with autism. Their findings suggested that behaviour contracts are a cost effective, proactive intervention that serves as an alternative to exclusionary discipline practices. Pupils exposed to behaviour contract had reduced perseverance impulsivity among primary school pupils in Zaria Metropolis. This was in line with the findings of a study by Thorne and Kamps (2013) titled the "Effects of a Group Contingency Intervention on Academic Engagement and Problem Behaviour of at-risk Students". Overall, results demonstrated that the intervention improved student behaviours in all four classrooms. Similarly, the finding was in line with a study by Bowman-Perrott, Burke, DeMarin, Zhang and Davis (2016) titled "A Meta-Analysis of Single-Case Research on Behaviour Contracts: Effects on Behavioural and Academic Outcomes among Children and Youth". Findings suggested that the intervention is more effective in reducing inappropriate behaviours than increasing appropriate behaviours, and that academic outcomes are positively affected by behaviour contracting.

Conclusions

On the basis of the findings of this study it was deduced that Behaviour Contract Counselling Technique was effective in reducing impulsivity such as premeditation, urgency, sensation seeking and perseverance among primary school pupils.

Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusion of this study, the following recommendations were made:

1. Since behaviour contract was effective in reducing impulsivity such as premeditation, urgency, sensation seeking and perseverance among primary school pupils, counsellors, psychologists and social workers should be encouraged to use the technique in handling pupils with such behaviour problem.
2. Counsellors should organize conferences, workshops and seminars teachers, parents and pupils on behaviour contract in handling impulsivity in schools.

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Toward an Introduction to Descriptive and Derivative Hypothesis (DDH) in Morphological Analysis: Yorùbá Language as Example

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Abstract
Many morphologists have delved into provision of morphological explanations that account for decomposition of words with the intention of bringing out the morphological contents of each morphological complex word. However, findings have shown that a lot of explanations are undetailed and incomprehensive to provide lucid explanations of the basic decomposition of the base morpheme. This paper tries to propose a theoretical basis through which a lot of information could be accessed and be employed to proffer solution to the seemingly unexplainable facts in morphological decomposition. Although, the testing template for this theory – Descriptive and Derivative Hypothesis (DDH), in this paper, is Yoruba language, we hope that further implementation of the theory in other languages of the world would prove the workability and authenticity of the theory to solve some seemingly intractable morphological problems in the world languages. We observe that a lot of morphological errors is prevailing in derivative modeling of lexical morphological theories in the literature. This theory, if fully expanded, will re-direct the research focus of the researchers to the descriptive aspect of morphological findings in the literature.

Keywords: Descriptive, Stratum, Culturally Valued, Suspension Node, Lexical, Word, Reduplicant.

Introduction

Morphological operations can be broadly grouped into two. They are Descriptive Morphology and Derivative Morphology.

Descriptive Morphology

Descriptive morphology is an aspect of morphology that provides a descriptive analysis of the lexical items in the language. This division looks into the linguistic units or lexemes that are combined to form all the lexical properties in the language. The researchers have to look into the etymology and philology of all the lexical, and grammatical items most especially nouns, verbs, adjectives, prepositions, articles and adverbs etc. The researchers need to include extra linguistic facts to explain some morphological abstractness in the language. These would explain the reasons for some ill-formed morphological entities in the language. For instance, a syntacian needs to have access to morpho-syntactic information about some syntactic peculiarities, such as countable and uncountable nouns, definite and indefinite articles, regular and irregular plurals. This aspect of morphology may seem difficult to non-native researchers due to their inability to have access to correct information. This persists because many words or phrases in African language in general and Yoruba in particular, have been misrepresented in contemporary usage. Ògúnwálé (2002) provides a tip of examples among Yoruba proper names. This aspect of the theory gives information about the decomposition of the existing lexical items.

Derivative Morphology

This is an aspect of morphology that many language researchers do explore. It is an aspect that provides a linear morphological analysis of word formation in any languages of the world. However, this aspect would not be so helpful to the description of African language morphology. It is mostly laudable in the analysis of inflected languages; African languages reflect a lot of things about African culture. They are basically cultural valued. It is the combination of the two aspects of DDH (descriptive and derivative) that can provide explicit explanation of morphological analysis of the concatenation of morphemes of African languages. This and other understated reasons call for the introduction of DDH in this study.

Reasons for Descriptive and Derivational Hypothesis

There are many differences between this new hypothesis and Beard's Derivational and Inflexional Hypothesis (see Beard 2001). The DDH covers a wide morphological scope in the sense that analytical explanations would be provided to clarify some morphological puzzles. For instance, the Derivative model of Beard's Hypothesis cannot provide an extensive morphological reason/reasons on irregular plurals in English as in:

1.	**Singular**	**Plural**
(i)	Foot	Feet
(ii)	Goose	Geese
(iii)	Mouse	Mice

The irregular past tense

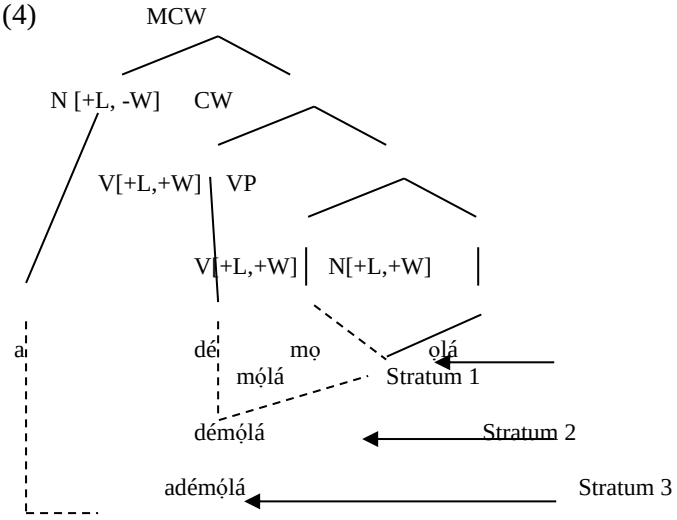
2.	**Present Tense**	**Past**
(i)	Run	Ran
(ii)	Take	Took
(iii)	Ring	Rung

The only available explanation on the foregoing in the literature is that they are foreign to English language. They emerged from proto -Germanic (see Napoli 1996:195). Also, the feasibility of some nouns in English where the same phonological entity stands for singular and plural such as: sheep (singular) sheep (plural), which are morphologically indecomposable (Zero-morphemic realisation, lend credence to the new Descriptive model of DDH. Not that alone, linguists in English Language have not come up with any other reason than the prescriptive modeling on the choice of definite and indefinite article variants in the language, (that is [a] before consonant - initial word and [an] before vowel and glide, initial word). We hope efforts should be geared towards provision of fuller explanations in the afore-mentioned lexical entities. Of central significance to our DDH are the findings in Ògúnwálé (1998). Ògúnwálé divides Yoruba personal names into two viz: mono-morphemic and poly-morphemic. Examples of mono-morphemic proper names are; Àìná, Òjó, Ìgè etc. while Adémọ́lá, Ògúnranti, Ọlabiyi etc. are poly-morphemic. However, Ògúnwálé (2012) descriptive capacity cannot be equal to what we intend to provide on such classification of names. For instance, Ògúnwálé (1998) accounts for 'Adémọ́lá' morphologically as Adé (crown), mọ́ (plus), ọlá (riches/wealth). However, a descriptive analysis would look beyond this meaning. 'Adémọ́lá' may possesses semantic ambiguity as:

3. (i) Adémọ́la ⟶ Crown join with honour
(ii) A-dé-mọ́-ọlá ⟶ He who comes with honour

We can therefore, put the second morphological composition on a tree matrix as:

(4)



Source: We adopt Cann (1986) morphological terms whereby categorized words possess [+Lexical, + Word] features while affixes have [+Lexical, -- Word] features. MCW means Morphological Complex Words. Any word that can be decomposed into more than one basic morpheme.

A proven evidence of decomposability of 'adé' to {'a-}+de' is evident in Ife dialect as its shown in the example below:

5.	**Names**	**Reduced form**
(i)	Adédire	Dédire
(ii)	Adémọ́lá	Démọ́lá
(iii)	Adéníyì	Déníyì
(iv)	Ọmọ́túndé	Mọ́túndé
(v)	Ọmọladé	Mọladé

Notice that a morpheme is internally cohesive and naturally indivisible. It is therefore apparent on the latest examples that 'adé' and 'ọmọ' are morphologically decompossible. The latest example shows that the above- morphological description is novel in the literature of Yoruba analysis. Such an oversight faults Adéoyè (1982) conclusion that (àwọn tí a kò bí láti ìdílé ijòyè náà ti ń jẹ́ orúkọ tó jẹ mọ́ 'Adé'), 'a person that does not belong to royal family has started bearing Adé's name'. The foregoing morphological explanation has therefore permitted anybody to bear Ade's name. We believe this decomposition of *'Adémọ́lá* is fuller and more comprehensive; it would not be a problem to identify the 'head' of the morphological component of the "Adémọ́lá" as it is graphically decomposed in the latest tree diagram.

Importance of Descriptive Morphology

Four factors are most consequential in the Descriptive Morphology. They are summarized as:

(1) What is the etymology of a word?

The idea of tracing the etymology of a word may refer to the base form. For instance, the genitive pronominal adjectival qualifier: 'àwọn' (they) in S. Y can be manifested as àhun or ùn in different sub-dialects of Kétu as:

6. (i) Àwọn Bọ́lá (S.Y)
   (ii) Bọ́lá ùn (Ìmẹ̀kọ) } Kétu
   (iii) Bọ́lá àhun (Ìlarà) }

Aside from the recursiveness of the lexical properties in the two dialects as aforestated, Ketu attests two variants **ùn** and **àhun**. Ordinarily, if a researcher is working on Ìmẹ̀kọ sub-dialect of Kétu, such a researcher without adequate etymological consideration would consider 'ùn' as a variant of 'un' (3rd person plural pronoun). However, looking into the etymology of the **ùn** in such a syntactic position would reveal the **ùn** (Ìmẹ̀kọ) as a reduction of **àhun** (Ìlára) which is also sub-dialect of Kétu. So therefore, sorting beyond phonetic characterization of words in morphological explanations and analysis underlies the introduction of DDH in the literature. Awobuluyi (2008:100-101) though not literally specified, explains the constraint that beset the tracing of some counting nouns such as:

7.				
	(i)	Mẹ́tàdínlógún	-	mẹ́ta ó dín ní ogun three PN reduce from twenty (seventeen)
	(ii)	Mẹ́tàdínlógún	-	Seventeen
	(iii)	Méjìdínlógún	-	Eighteen
	(iv)	Méjìdínlógún	-	méjì ó dín ni ogun two PN reduce from twenty

He posits that instead of "mẹ́tàdínlógún" as it appears in the lattest example, the output ought to be "mẹ́tádínlógún". His postulation has a phonological backing because high-tone in the language always maintains unmarked status in tonal configuration. He therefore, presents the above-examples as:

8.				
	(i)	Ọ̀kàndínlógún	<	Ọ̀kan-ẹ̀dín-ní-ogún One reduce – from – twenty (nineteen)
	(ii)	Ẹ̀tàdínlógún	<	Ẹ̀ta-ẹ̀dín-ní-ogún Three reduce – from twenty (seventeen)
	(iii)	Ẹ̀rìndínlógúun	<	Ẹ̀rin-ẹ̀dín-ní-ogún Four reduce from twenty (sixteen)

(see Awobuluyi 2008:100-101 for more comprehensive examples). This Awobuluyi (2008) proposition has philological basis in the central Yoruba (Èkìtì. Ìjẹ̀ṣà and Ifẹ̀) where 'ẹ̀din' is phonetically realized.

(2) Does the word possess morphological variants?
Two words possess morphological variants when configuration does occur in the phonetic realization. A good example is 'Ṣọ́nibárẹ́' and 'Ṣónibaré' (personal names among Ìjẹ̀bú and Ègbá people in Ogun State). The two names can be analyzed morphologically as:

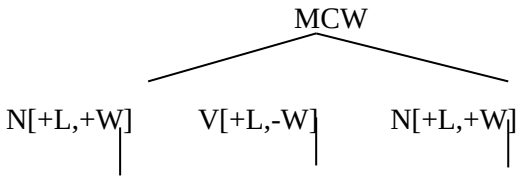
9. (i) Ṣónibarẹ́ ---------- Oṣó ni bá rẹ́ (be friendly with Oso cult)
(ii) Ṣọ́nibarẹ́ ---------- sọ ẹni (ènìyàn) bá rẹ́ (beware of people)

It is through the next process that a researcher could pick the variant that is culturally valued in the contextual usage, that is whether 'Ṣọ́nibare' (Be selective in your personal dealings with other people) or Sónibarẹ (Oso cult should be your friend), which incidentally relevants to the adherents of Oso cult among the Yoruba.

(3) Which of the compositional variants is culturally valued?
For instance, 'Òkúbánjọ' in the contemporary usage means, "Òkúbánjọ (The dead befits me), culturally, such an interpretation contradicts the Yoruba ethics and culture. 'Okù' among the Ìjẹ̀bú people of Ogun State, is a sign of royalty. It is a type of bead that people from royal families use to identify themselves by wearing it on the wrist of their right-hand. It is therefore morphologically right to decompose it as 'Okù-bá-n-jọ (sign of royalty befits me). The change in the tonal pattern of **Òkú** and **Okù** creates morphological distinctiveness. For instance, **òkú** is a derived word while **okù** is an underived word. **Kú** is the stem, while **ò-** is an affix (prefix). It shows, therefore, that though, the word 'Òkúbánjọ' in the contemporary usage can be mistakenly decomposed into the two identified variants, the second variant form is culturally more valued and decompositionally acceptable.

(4) Is the head easily identifiable?
For instance, previous studies in Yoruba morphology has a morphological explanation for such a word as 'ayeraye' in the literature as:

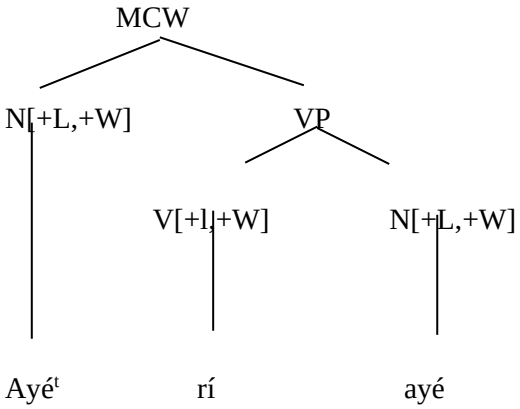
10.



ayé rí ayé (See Táíwò Oye 2011)

The latest tree-diagram can also be drawn linearly in line with the Descriptive analysis as thus:

(11)

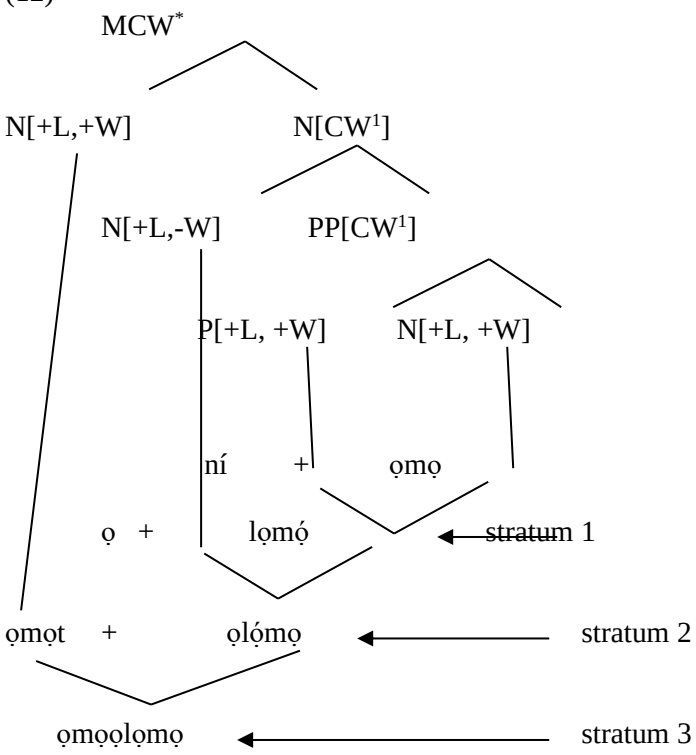


Ayé[t] rí ayé

The tree-diagram in **11** shows **rí** as a lexical verb, while **rí** is identified as infix in **10**. The head of the morpheme 'ayé[t]' is first suspended and morphologically identified in **11**. The 'aye[t]' is a reduplicant of 'ayé'. The 'ayé[t]' is the morphological head.

The appearance of the compositional morphemes at the same stratum would make it almost impossible to identify the Head. Although it is proposed in Táíwò (2011) that such words have two heads. This study does not oppose to bi-headed idea but not in such example as foregoing. In the DDH, it is believed that in the process of decomposing a compound morphological word, the head is easily linearly identified. That is, the morphological breakdown of a word is linearly arranged into levels or strata which allow easy identification of the morphological head. For instance, the derivative breakdown of complex morphological word must commence graphically and linearly. This principle underlies the affixal head parameter in Yoruba concatenative morphology (see Táíwò (2009:29), Táíwò (2012:109–110) and Adéwọlé [2000]). The Yoruba morphology maintains a left-headed parameter similar to its syntactic phrasal structures. For instance, a compound morphological word like "Ọmọọlọ́mọ" in S.Y. would be morphologically, and linearly analysed as:

(12)



The left-handed morphological component obtains prominence. Other symbols are hitherto refers. Note that 'lọ́mọ' stands for stratum **1**; 'ọlọ́mọ' represents stratum **2**; while 'ọmọọlọ́mọ' is stratum **3**. That simply show that three complex morphological (CW) decomposable words with three identifiable heads occur in the word; ọmọọlọ́mọ. Each head is identifiable in each stratum. However, 'ọmọt' serves as the general morphological head of 'ọmọọlọ́mọ'. Cultural preeminency is mostly put into consideration as a guide in morphological decomposition under the Descriptive model of Descriptive and Derivative Hypothesis. For instance, there are some place names, especially in Lagos and other big cities, which have been misrepresented morphologically in pronunciation such as:

* 'CW' means complex word. Two internal complex words occur within the composition – CW^1 and CW^2. The two cannot occur at the same time 'CW^2' emerges before 'CW^1'. That is why the decomposition has to pass through three strata. Each stratum contains morphological process.

Contemporary Pronunciation	**Morphological Source**
Màgódò (looks like a borrowed word)	Máà gún odó (don't pound in mortar)
Amùkòkò (The smoker of traditional-cigarette)	A mú ìkokò (He who captures life leopard)
Abúléọjà (a market village)	Abúlé-ọjà (the village of ọjà family) (ọjà is a family name in Adó-Èkìtì
Aláúsá (Owner of Hausa People)	Aláùsá (owner of walnut)

Note that broadcasters in Lagos state have realized this age-longed wrong pronunciation and have been trying to pronounce those place names correctly as identified above under the morphological source.

Not this alone, this wrong morphological pronunciation has gone very deep into the fabric of Yoruba personal names across the Yoruba dialectal zones, as in:

14.

Contemporary Pronunciation	**Morphological source**	**Dialect Zone**
Awósìkà (Awo did bad thing)	Awo éè se ìkà (Awóòsìkà) (Awo has never disappointed or doing bad things)	Onḍó
Òkúnẹ́yẹ (the dead deserves recognition)	Okù ní èyẹ (Okunẹ́yẹ) ("Okù" worth recognition/ celebration)	Ìjẹ̀bú
Fápoùndà (Ifá has reneged on its promise)	Ifá éè pa ohùn dà (Ifáàpoùndà) (Ifá has never reneged on its promise)	Ìjẹ̀ṣà

There are a lot of such examples among the Yoruba personal and place names. We hope that this new area of morphological findings needs to be more expanciated upon to bring forth new findings into the morphology of Yoruba language in specific and languages in the world generally. Furthermore, the DDH provides a morphological account of some mono-morphological words, which have been misrepresented in contemporary usage. For more clarification we can consider the usage of these words 'ẹni' (relation/mat) 'ara' (thunder/body) in these below sentences:

15. (i) Olóòótọ́ kìí ní *ẹni*
(ii) Àsìkò *ara* làá bú ara

The italicized words are being confused in contemporary usage. They possess variant semantic interpretations as in:

16. (i) Olóòótọ́ kìí ní ẹní/ẹni
Option a (the righteous person has no mat)
Option b (the righteous person has no relation)

(ii) Àsìkò ara làá bú ara/búràá
Option a (we invoke the body at the right time)
Option b (we invoke the thunder at the right time of the season)

Considering the etymological interpretations of the aforestated sentences, it is obvious that options **b** are culturally valued. That shows that options **b** are morphologically accepted in the language. This conclusion has not invalidated the contraction of bu + ara = bura (to swear) but changes the established

phonographic representation to *Ìgbà àrá làá búràá* meaning "we invoke the thunder at the right time of the season". Note that the adoption of DDH has helped to come up with the true orthography "*búràá*".

Conclusions

This paper tends to introduce researchers to a new approach in morphological analysis of African Languages. We used Yorùbá language as a testing language to establish our propositions. The study hereby presented the advantages of Descriptive and Derivative Hypothesis as follows:

17(i) It describes the morphological composition of a word beyond its phonetic representation.
(ii) Its analysis may bring some important historic and cultural facts to the fore.
(iii) The head of a word/morphological component is easily identifiable.
(iv) The source of intuitive knowledge of a native speaker of a language, which lends credence to his competence in the language is identified.
(v) It makes the native speaker of a language to be more helpful in the research process.
(vi) It creates a new research area for scholars to dip into with the aim of bringing new facts about lexical items to the fore. This is unavoidably necessary in the synchronic analyses of the morphological studies of any language. This will therefore brighten the importance of the historical linguistics (see Bynon 1996).

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Lecturers' Perception of Academic Staff Retention Strategies, Job Satisfaction and Goal Achievement in Private Universities in South-West, Nigeria

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Abstract
Academic staff retention and job satisfaction in Nigeria has raised deep concern among educational stakeholders. Thus, effective retention strategies capable of engaging competent workforce must be put in place to achieve institutional goals. Thus, the study examined academic staff retention strategies, job satisfaction and goal achievement in private Universities in South-west, Nigeria. The study adopted a descriptive research design. The population of the study comprised 1,921 academic staff and 139 management staff in all the 23 private Universities from in the South-west, Nigeria. Purposive sampling technique was used to select 10 out of the institutions that were established before the year 2000 to provide information pertinent to the study. Purposive sampling technique was employed to select 60 Management staff. Proportional sampling technique was used to select 200 employers of labour. "Academic Staff Retention Strategies Questionnaire" (ASRSQ), "Job Satisfaction Questionnaire" (JSQ) and "Goal Achievement Questionnaire" (GAQ) were used to collect data for the study. Mean and Standard Deviation were used to answer the research questions raised. The findings of the study revealed that the levels of academic staff retention strategies, job satisfaction and goal achievement were average. The study concluded that effective retention strategies enhanced job satisfaction of academic staff in private Universities in South-west, Nigeria. The study recommended that compensation packages for academic staff in private Universities be enhanced and made relevant to prevailing economic circumstances through periodical review.

Keywords: Academic Staff Retention Strategies, Job Satisfaction, Goal Achievement, Private Universities.

Introduction

University education in contemporary era globally is vastly becoming a complex enterprise due to huge resources required, differential in productive capacities, earning potentials and increasingly demanding environment. This complexity demands for a high degree of competence and proven scholarship from the institutional academic employees in particular and the entire personnel in general. Thus, adequate retention techniques and measure capable of enhancing academics job satisfaction must be put in place for private Universities to concentrate on their mandates of teaching, research and community development. It is however alarming that private owned Universities in Nigeria are threatened by continuous brain drain and the pressure to retain knowledgeable personnel especially in the 21st Century when the institutions are losing experienced academics to both developed and developing countries (Grace-Odeleye, 2020; Mitchell, Chorney, Gural, Simmons-Swinden, Picheca&Baxter, 2019; Osasuli, 2014; Zhou & Wang, 2019). Retention of workers which are considered the hub of knowledge has become a critical issue in universities, especially the private Universities as explained by Mubaraq, Wahab and Khan (2012). This has raised deep concern among university managers, administrators, parents, students and relevant educational stakeholders that retention of competent, gifted, knowledgeable and staff with special academic experience poses a great problem to private Universities in Nigeria.

The Federal Ministry of Education (2013) revealed that despite the concerted efforts made by the National Universities Commission to retain talented workforce, there is very low lecturers' retention as private Universities alone had 66.1 % of academics turnover and attrition. Also, it was reported through the National Universities Commission (2013) that there were 79 private Universities legally recognized in Nigeria, yet, the institutions are still experiencing paucity of key lecturers due to brain drain syndrome. Thus, academic staff retention remains a great challenge to private Universities in Nigeria due to continuous brain drain and pressure to attract and retain specialized, experienced and verse academics due to pivotal but eschew reasons. Tetty (2016) affirmed universities owned by private bodies in Nigeria do not seem capable of mobilizing the intellectual strengths required for driving the process as most of their experts bases have left to the degree that adequate teaching capacity is not available to give standard education for the students left behind. This is increasingly becoming prominent in private Universities

and research landscape, where establishments do not only compete with one another in attracting and retaining experienced academic staff and researchers, but also with other universities abroad.
An evaluation of private Universities in Nigeria in the past twenty years showed that the institutions are beleaguered by myriad of problems that affect their roles as Centre for intellectual excellence that they were conceived to be (Task Force on Higher Education and Society, 2014). This was corroborated by Osalusi (2014) who affirmed that brain drain was a phenomenon that afflicted the Nigerian private Universities most especially in the 21st Century that the institutions have lost experienced academics to even smaller African countries like: Ghana and Rwanda and developed countries like: Britain, America, France and Germany. Academic staff turnover has grave implications on service quality, image of institutions, academic synergies, scope of knowledge production, consistency and stability of academic enterprise. There is need to attract, motivate and retain knowledgeable, competent and proven scholars from the University academic staff through competitive pay, stimulating work environment, promotional opportunity and progressive human resource policies that consequently enhance academics job satisfaction towards the actualization university goals. This study therefore considered effective measures of retaining competent work force a vital input to enhance job satisfaction of academic staff towards the goal achievement of institutions.

Purpose of the Study

1. To investigate the level of academic staff retention strategies that are put in place in private Universities in South-west, Nigeria;
2. To assess the level of job satisfaction of academic staff in private Universities in South –west, Nigeria and;
3. To determine the level of goal achievement of private Universities in South- west, Nigeria

Research Questions

The following research questions were raised to guide the study:

1. What is the level of academic staff retention strategies that are available in private Universities in South-west, Nigeria?
2. What is the level of job satisfaction of academic staff in private Universities in South-west, Nigeria?
3. What is the level of goal achievement in private Universities in South-west, Nigeria?

Literature Reviews

Academic staff retention strategies and job satisfaction play substantial roles in overall performance of the institution and sine-qua-non for achieving university goal. Extensive studies like: Mak and Sockel (2011); Netswera (2005); Rapport (2013); Dentol (2012); Oluwole (2009); Jame, Mike and Namusong (2012); and Wisdom (2006) overwhelmingly proved that retaining high caliber of competent and proven scholars have lasting influence on university goal achievement. Universities operate in highly competitive environment and call for the institutions to retain qualified, competent and experienced academics cannot be over accentuated for the actualization of set goals. Abdulkadir and Abdulkalam (2015) carried out a research on factors that determine lecturers' job fulfillment among Private Universities in Bangladesh. A total of 346 respondents were considered from 10 private Universities using non probability sampling. A pre-tested, closed ended questionnaire and five-point Likert scale were employed to collect data. Also, descriptive statistics, multiple regression, factor analysis and Pearson product moment correlation statistic were employed as statistical tools. The outcomes of the findings showed that pay package, administrative back up, work safety and group solidarity were significant contributors of lecturers' job satisfaction. The study recommended that management of private Universities should give priority to compensation package, job security and working conditions for maintaining overall work contentment of academics.

Adenike, Oluwaseun and Sunday (2017) conducted a comparative study on job satisfaction between lecturers' in Private and government owned universities in Nigeria. Job satisfaction was considered using recognition, pay and functioning atmospheres. The sample of the study was 120 academic staff comprises 32 lecturers' from Landmark University, OmuAran and 88 academics from University of Ilorin. Three research questions were raised and answered to guide the study using percentage, while three hypotheses

were formulated and tested using T- test statistics. Besides, interviews were orally carried out arbitrarily with eight lecturers in both institutions. The results of the work showed that significant disparity exit between career contentment of academic staff in private and public institutions of higher education in the country. Demetria, Jacinta and Theonestena (2007) carried out a study on workplace administrative strategies and academic staff retention in South Highland Private Universities, Tanzania. The findings showed that workplace factors and administrative strategies contributed to low academic retention in the institutions. Jocylin (2009) examined academic staff recruitment and retention strategies in the University of Limpopo, South Africa. The study revealed that academic staff complained of bureaucratic bottleneck that surround recruitment and retention strategies which resulted to frustration, stress and feelings that no one cares about their situation and dissatisfaction with their institutions.

Tetty (2006) investigated employees retention strategies in universities in developing countries: Elements of sustainable strategies. Five universities were selected (University of Bostwana, Kwazuli Natal University, Makere University, University of Ghana and University of Ibadan) for case study analysis. Each case was conducted via a staff member from selected institutions under the supervision of the learning coordinator. Questionnaires were administered to all lecturers in all the selected institutions through a web based electronic format to which research subjects were directed. The results of the research shown that African universities are confronted with challenging tasks concerning retention of lecturers. It was recommended that African Universities should institutionalize sustainable strategies to rejuvenate staffing capabilities thereby enhancing their roles in socio- economic development. Micheal and Chipunza (2013) examined erosion and preservation of high-ranking lecturers at tertiary institutions in South-Africa. The research employed mixed method research design. Fifty-two items of self-developed questions were employed for gathering relevant information from the participants. Convenient sampling method was employed to select 255 senior lecturers from 10 universities that cut across South Africa. Chi-square statistical analysis was made use of to find the connection among abrasion and maintenance of experienced lecturers as hypothesized in the study. The results of the research showed that attrition of academic employees in the institution of higher education influence interpersonal relationship, job security, stimulating academic environment and work autonomy. It was recommended that University authority should devise principles as well as plans that promote and sustain research collaboration, interpersonal relationship and spirit of collegiality with a view to completely eliminate xenophobia tendencies in South African Higher Institutions of Learning.

Methodology

The study adopted descriptive survey research design. The population of the study comprised 1,921 and 139 non-academic staff in all the private Universities in the South- West, Nigeria. Purposive sampling technique was used to select three out of the six States and 10 private Universities that were established before the year 2000. Purposive sampling technique was used to select 60 Management Staff in each of the institutions, while 565 lecturers were proportionally selected. Random sampling technique was employed to select 200 employers of labour. Mean and Standard Deviation were used to analyze the data obtained and answered the research questions raised. The instruments used for the study were three researcher-designed questionnaires titled: "Academic Staff Retention Strategies Questionnaire" (ASRSQ),"Job Satisfaction Questionnaire" (JSQ) and "Goal Achievement Questionnaire" (GAQ). The reliability coefficients of the instruments were ascertained using test re-test method of reliability giving .69, .85 and .73 for 'ASRSQ, 'JSQ and 'GAQ respectively. This affirmed that the instruments were reliable to be used for the study.

Findings

Research Question 1: What is the level of academic staff retention strategies in private Universities in South-west, Nigeria?

Table 1: Level of Academic Staff Retention Strategies in private Universities in South-west, Nigeria

S/N	Variables	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	Decision
1.	Academic Freedom	**57**	2.71	0.38	Average
2.	Job Security	**57**	2.75	0.47	Average
3.	Compensation packages	**57**	2.88	0.77	Average
4.	Training opportunities	**57**	2.80	0.44	Average
	Weighted Mean Score		2.78	0.52	Average

Table 1 shows that academic freedom, job security, compensation packages and training opportunities had mean scores of 2. 71, 2.75, 2.8 and 2.80 respectively and were found to be average. Thus, the weighted mean score of 2.78 clearly indicates that the level of academic staff retention strategies in private Universities in South-west, Nigeria was average.

Research Question 2: What is the level of academic staff job satisfaction in private Universities in South-West, Nigeria?

Table 2: Level of Academic Staff Job Satisfaction in private Universities in South-west, Nigeria

S/N	Variables	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	Decision
1.	Working Conditions	530	2.77	0.48	Average
2.	Promotional Opportunities	530	2.80	0.35	Average
3.	Leadership Qualities	530	2.98	0.72	Average
	Weighted Mean Score		2.85	0.52	Average

Table 2 indicates that working conditions, promotional opportunities and leadership qualities had mean scores of 2. 77, 2.80 and 2.98 respectively and were found to be average. Thus, the weighted mean score of 2.85 shows that the level of academic job satisfaction in private Universities in South-west, Nigeria was average.

Research Question 3: What is the level of goal achievement in private Universities in South west, Nigeria?

Table 3: Level of Goal Achievement in private Universities in South-west, Nigeria

S/N	Variables	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	Decision
1.	Manpower Development	190	3.07	0.42	Average
2.	National Development	190	3.00	0.97	Average
	Weighted Mean Score		3.04	0.70	Average

Table 3 reveals that manpower developments had mean scores of 3.07, while national development had 3.00 and were found to be average. Therefore, the weighted mean score of 3.04 shows that the level of goal achievement in private Universities in South-west, Nigeria was average.

Discussion of Findings

The answer to research question one showed that the level of academic staff retention strategies made available in private Universities in South-west, Nigeria was average with the weighted mean score of 2.78. This implies that private Universities in South-west, Nigeria still need to intensify efforts in making available effective retention strategies and measures capable of engaging competent and proven academic staff to prevent continuous brain drain as it could have adverse effect on productivity and service delivery. This is premised on the fact that the eminence of universities cannot surpass their abilities to attract and retain first class academic employees to focus on their obligations of teaching, research and community engagement. This finding corroborated the study of Netswera (2005) which revealed that universities serve as storehouse of knowledge that cannot afford to lose their valued and trained academics as it could be difficult to find better replacement. Appropriate strategies aimed at retaining academic employees must be made available by the administration of private Universities irrespective of the institutional size so as to keep the top talents. Persistent turnover of lecturers from universities make it difficult for the institutions to immediately fill the vacuum and maintain high institutional performance (Babakuse, 2008).

The answer to research question two showed that the level of academic staff job satisfaction in private Universities in South-west, Nigeria was average with the weighted mean score of 2.85. This shows that there is still need for improvement in the job satisfaction of lecturers' in these institutions. Therefore, the institutions should be mindful of the fact that job satisfaction is fundamental to the tenable and institution of higher education standard. Employees demonstrate pleasurable attitudes if provided with stimulating work environment, prompt promotional prospect and consultative management approach that consequently enhance productivity. The findings agreed the studies of Adenike, Oluwaseun and Sunday (2017) that employees' job contentment is a fundamental determinant of service quality, productivity and overall job performance. Satiated staff are creative and enthusiastic towards the actualization of institutional objectives. This is because, the higher the fulfillment of employees, the greater the goal accomplishment of the organization; and the lower their satisfaction, the lower the goal achievement would be. Ogbwobi (2014) study revealed that when academic staff discovered that their needs are not fulfilled in the work environment, rise in the speed of voluntary break off of the work will arise. Therefore, for any private Universities to start and actualize its goals of providing the manpower requirements to advance national development, the institution must retain experienced and fulfilled lecturers through conducive working conditions, promotional opportunities and leadership qualities.

The answer research question three revealed that the level of goal achievement in private Universities in South-west, Nigeria was average with the weighted mean score of 3.04. This affirms that the goal achievementin private Universities in South-west, Nigeria regarding the provision and development of manpower required to accelerate socio-economic and scientific development of the country have not been maximally achieved. As the level of the goal achievement of these institutions was average, the implication of this is that the graduates turnout from the private Universities that are engaged in both public and private establishments are narrowly trained and do not maximally meet the manpower requirements of the vital sector. This shows that the products of the institutions required management training besides their professional skills for the actualization of the set goals. The findings corroborated the study conducted by Kazeem (2010) that that the ineffectiveness of many graduates of private Universities to maximally apply the acquired knowledge for the demand of labour market could be attributed to inadequate possession of basic skills and knowledge acquired during their days in these institutions. This is evidence that goal attainment of these schools was not fully actualized.

Conclusions

Universities operate in highly competitive environment and the need for the institutions to retain qualified, competent and experienced academics cannot be over accentuated for the actualization of set goals. Retention and satisfaction of lecturers' who are key resources in universities system is germane for academic recital and maintenance of evergreen improvement. Thus, effective academic staff retention strategies would go a long way in enhancing job satisfaction of lecturers' in private Universities in South-west, Nigeria thereby leading to the effective actualization of the goals of these institutions. Therefore, the administration of these establishments must take serious direction attrition speed and put proper retention techniques such as academic freedom, training opportunities, stimulating work environment and effective leadership in place for quality instructional service delivery.

Recommendations

Based on the findings in this study, it was recommended that:

i. the management of private Universities should intensify concerted efforts towards effective measures capable of retaining competent academics through granting of autonomy to academic staff to pursue intellectual inquiry, assurance of job security, attractive compensation packages and improved training opportunities.
ii. prominence should be given to stimulating working conditions, timely and fair promotion and leadership by consensus by the institutional management to enhance the realization of the institution goals;
iii. academic staff should be given autonomy to pursue intellectual inquiry related to their fields of expertise in a way that they deem most appropriate to the course and consistent with the core values and mission of the university without unreasonable restriction;

iv. the management of private Universities should make provision for inbuilt packages for insurance policies and retirement benefits that will keep academic staff fit with socio-economic demand at old age; and

v. the compensation package of academic staff in private Universities should be enhanced and mad relevant to prevailing economic circumstance by reviewing them periodically.

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Application of Technical Aesthetics of Costume, Make-up, Props and Performance Space in Idoma Traditional Performance Theatre

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Abstract
Traditional performances in Africa are cherished and honoured with divinity despite the advent of modernity. These performances are taken with seriousness of life and death because they embody the people's culture, belief, life and life after death. Consequently, these performances are often accompanied by music, dance, songs, masquerades and so on to actualise and merge their corporal and spiritual cosmos. Therefore, the technicality of costume, make-up, props, performance space and so on are harnessed and utilised to establish the performance and to bring out the massage, meaning and aesthetics in the performances. The study hinges on the descriptive and analytical methods, complemented with materials from books, journal articles and appropriate internet sources. Findings reveal that, technical aesthetics defines the performance, brings out its beauty and establishes the Idoma cultural identity. The paper concludes that, technical aesthetics of costume, make-up, props and performance space create communication and identity in Idoma culture. We therefore, recommend that, traditional performances should be encouraged and sustained to unite and maintain the people's identity, using it as a cultural voice for the Idoma people.

Keywords: Belief, Culture, Technicality, Costume, Performance Space.

Introduction

Technical aspect of the theatre is a conglomeration of costumes, light, sound, properties, make-up, music, dance, drama, and so on which are also the core component of what gives meaning and essence to a theatrical performance. When properly utilised, these components enhance and give a production the desired outlook and concept by creating a harmonised blend for a performance and the way it is perceived. Enendu (2014, p. 21) describes technical theatre as the:

> Coordination of diverse professional skills, talents and crafts of the production team, using appropriate tools and equipment, within a suitable work-space and environment for a unified stage result. In practical terms, theatre production is a synthesis of the elements of production, and bringing them into meaningful stage concordance and congruous whole by ingenuous creativity for a singly aesthetic impression. The elements of . . . productions which are brought before the audience are a combination of both technical and artistic elements.

These challenges give room for the technical aspect of the theatre to feel in these gaps with artistic technical knowhow of the director and actors to achieve a good performance be it traditional or modern theatre. African art is not art for art sake. It is derived from the society and shapes the society and those therein. Idoma art like other African art, art has diverse effect and greatly reflects in all aspect of their life. These arts are explored within the elastic space of technical aesthetics such as costume and make-up, props, performance space in relation to this study.

Costume

Costume is one of the major components that make up African performances and this fact cannot be discountenanced. Its relevance can be seen from the irreplaceable role that it plays within the various contraptions of African traditions and cultures. With the use of costumes, performances are enhanced, conceptualised and contextualised within the cultural realities of the society in which they are being worn. Consequently, costumes help to identify and define a people in light of the backdrop of their cultural background.

The indispensable role of costumes in African performances has encouraged various scholarly opinions on the need to contextualise and re-contextextualise the notion and functions of costumes across time and space. For example, Shuaib (2009, pp. 133-153) examines the uses of costume and make-up in traditional and modern theatre practice in Nigeria. She submits that the art of costumes and make-up are paramount among the elements used in communicating human experiences to an audience. She insists that in the Nigerian traditional performances, costumes and make-up are crafted with great artistic and aesthetic artistry which are deeply rooted in the various cultures of Nigeria.

More also, Eze and Akas (2005, p. 25) reflect critically that:

> Costumes serve as a vibrant medium of performance, a tool for cultural expression which apart from its feature as an item of clothing worn by the performers to make a statement, serves a great purpose of cultural identification. It showcases the cultural aesthetics, artistic styles and traditional representation of a people. A metaphor of cultural space, providing an identity and consciousness among the people. It is a known fact that costumes worn by people of a tribe reflects them, even as it preaches the aesthetics and artistic nature of that tribe.

The views of the above scholars on costume in performances capture the view in which we look at costume and make-up in this paper. For example, in Idoma culture, particularly Idoma performances, costume is regarded as the life-wire. Subsequently, costume represents so many things to the Idoma people, and can be accepted as indispensable in the way it is applied based on colour(s). For example, the use of colour red in Idoma tradition signifies royalty. In Idoma tradition, colour white can be seen as evil, a concept which originated based on the historical myth of Onugbo and Oko. This legendary account was converted to a play by S. O. O. Amali titled *Onugbo Mloko* in 1972. In this story, a white horse deceived Onugbo to kill his younger brother (Oko) during a hunting expedition. As such, white colour is seen as evil in Idoma culture. On the other hand, black colour in Idoma culture is seen as good and matured colour for elders and men of honour. This is further buttressed by Okwori (2010, p. 101) who notes that, "royal colour red and the ancestral and fertility colour black were adopted" as the national Idoma colours. All these views are widely accepted as contrasts to the Yorùbá perception in which

> white "Funfun" represents the categories of colours which include white, which connotes peaceful feeling, this category includes turquoise, blue, silver, chrome, and other icy colours. The primary influence and purpose of white is seen as a replica of purity. The next group of colour is referred to as "pupa", which can be translated as "red". The colour of fire is regarded as red which connotes danger and fearful individuals. "Dudu" is the last group of colours, and can be translated as "black". "Dudu" also includes any colour that is dark with a resemblance of the earth. Brown, and leafy dark greens and moss greens are also considered "dudu". (Oluwole, Ahmad and Ossen, 2013, p. 80).

Furthermore, costume has been conceptualised and re-conceptualised, and it has several definitions by several scholars from the core aspect of traditional performances as against the modern theatre in which it is used to delineate characters. In the traditional performance Ododo (2001, p. 18) accentuates that costume, "apart from pure aesthetic values, they serve as identity marks". This situates the fact that, in traditional performances, the use of costume gives the patent to the character adorning the costume, thereby giving validity to the role and act being undertaken.

Within the nexus of the scholarly definitions that have been explored above, one can conclude that:

i. Costume is the cloth we wear;
ii. Costume represents so many things to different cultures across time and space;
iii. Costume is important and it is the life-wire of the African culture and performance; and
iv. Costume serves as a mode of transformation of perception and identity.

Therefore, for us in this paper, we evaluate costume as the major vivacious medium in which the indigenous performances are being transmuted or transformed into its essence of existence. Through this means, mystify characters are brought into actuality to showcase and reflect the aesthetics, artistic nature and cultural expression.

Make-up

Make-up plays dominant roles in most African theatre. It is one the most visible and dominant elements in a performance. Make-up is the use of created enhancement of either liquid or solid to transform a character or an actor to fit into the specification of an act. It is also applied to give an identity and form to a character in a performance be it traditional or modern. Shuaib (2017, p. 414) substantiates this that make-up ethos

> has always been perceived as a means to an end. Where the human body is primarily conceived and adopted by man through his indigenous artistry as canvas for inscriptions and adornment of

> cosmetic substances by the artist in diverse religious, secular, and theatrical activities, performed by man in the bid to understand, master and even coerce cosmic nature and his environment to his advantage.

In light of the above, it can be deduced that make-up plays a wide range of multifaceted and important roles in African performances. However, in Idoma performances, make-up plays a very important but limited role in performances. Make-up is used on the masks of masquerades such as *Ichahoho, Ibo, Alinga,* and so. In these instances, make-up is used for decorative purposes without any intrinsic meaning beneath its use. Interestingly, make-up is applied on the faces of the warriors when going for war as camouflage and to instill fear in the minds of the enemies. Make-up is also used in performance arena by warriors when enacting war actions, and this is done without any connotation beyond the creation of war aesthetics. By implication, make-up becomes one of the elements employed by the organisation as part of the spectacles for entertainment. Nevertheless, make-up is a very prominent and important feature in other Idoma masquerade performances such as *Idadu* and *Akpulu*. In these instances, the actor has his face covered by powdery make-up as the only form of concealing his identity rather than the wearing of mask as against the prevalent practice of masquerades within Idoma culture.

Props

Properties are of extreme necessity in a performance because they assist the creativity and realisation of a performance. Props help the narrative and enhance the imaginative and overall physical picture of a performance. Koski (1966, p. 2) defines props or property as

> any object that an artist utilizes to further enhance or communicate the plot or story line. The term derives from live-performance practice, especially theatrical methods. However, its modern definition extends beyond traditional dramas and musicals, as well as circus, novelty, comedy, and even public-speaking performances, all the way to film, television and electronic media.

Be it in traditional or modern performances, props help to enhance or complement the artist or the artistic image. This notion is corroborated by Chen (2015, p. 110) who states that, "prop can create the artistic image with unique charm". This uniqueness helps to contextualise a performance while simultaneously situating the character, the act and the art. Props used in performance can be:

i. Realistic – that is, using the object as it is applicable in real life;
ii. Stylised – this design is done to replicate the original with resemblance; and
iii. Mimed – pretending or miming to use the object with the aid of gestures, action, nuances and so on.

Drawing from the above, props are classified into different types and are used in performance be it traditional or modern.

Performance Space

The ceremonial and robust nature of African performances are usually characterised by ancestral belief, myth, spirit medium and so on. These are often expressed by means of masquerades, dance, music and songs which are displayed in festival styles that necessitate a great demand for the use of space. Performance in Idoma culture is like other African theatre performances which involved the audience as full participants and part of the performance. By implication, it consists of communication and response from both the performers and the audience to make the performance complete.

To this end, the definition of performance space is in this study is in tandem with Ukaegbu (2013, p. 31) who is of the view that

> performance spaces in Africa communicate and reinforce cosmological unity and the universe of the presenting community. They are more than architectural buildings and spaces—such sites and locales are chosen for more than pragmatic reasons and are used specifically for performances because of their "mythical symbolism". They are not mere theatrical or narrative aids used to embellish and reinforce plots. They have cultural meanings and play active parts in the unfolding performances, and are, thus, significant "actants" that contribute to the atmosphere and meaning of performances.

Contextually, performance space is not an ordinary space to the Idoma people and their spiritual existence but ordained with respect as the core essence of the performance. It is accepted as the venue for the transition of the celestial relationship between human and spirits. To the Idoma culture, it is a space seen as the boundary that sets the creation from the transition of power to the mystic guided with the reality of fluid and autonomous boundaries. In this instance, the performance space is seen as one of the core rites of passage which enhance the transition from one level in the Idoma cosmology to another. This it is emphasised by Anyebe (2015, p. 582) who indicates that, "the cosmological rite of passage involved in the practice notwithstanding, the art remains essentially ephemeral performance involving a combination of drama, dance, music, mime, language, aesthetics and costume".

It is important to note that, performance space can also determine the type of performance or the time it would take place. The use of space depends on the intention and purpose of the performance because sometimes, quotidian spaces used for public performance can also become a sacred place for a sacred-ritual performance.

It should be emphasised that, in Idoma culture, performance space can be classified into:

i. Public performance space; and
ii. Sacred-ritual performance space

In the public performance space, the performance is held at the full glare of all to see and in most cases, the participation of the audience is necessary as characteristic of Idoma and most African traditional performances.

On the other hand, a sacred-ritual performance space is usually regarded as an exclusive preserve of the initiates with limited participants and it could be in a secluded place or in the open. The space is usually sanctified for the performance to take place.

Conclusions

This study concludes that, in Idoma traditional performance, the application of technical aesthetics of costume, make-up, props and performance space have greatly contributed as the core of defining the performance and as the main medium of how the performance is perceived. These technical aspects of the performance are usually within the toga of the performance and therefore, bring a combination to give a holistic aesthetics and values to the performance.

Recommendations

It is therefore, recommended that there should be financial investment by government and relevant stake holders in to our indigenous arts of Costume, Make-up, Props and Performance Space to bring out the cultural effervescence of our traditional performances which would exposure our unique art internationally and attract tourism to boost our economy. It is also recommended to educate, encourage and enlighten the developing population the importance and the need to sustain traditional performances in the face of the changing dynamics ushered in by modernisation and globalisation.

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Effective Counselling through Media Advocacy and Eradication of Child Abuse in Ekiti State

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Abstract
This study investigated effective counselling through media advocacy and eradication of child abuse in Ekiti State. The descriptive design of the survey type was used for this study. The population of the study comprised of all counsellors in Ekiti State public secondary school. The sample size of one hundred and fifty (150) counsellors were used for the study. Multistage sampling technique was used to select the samples. The research instrument for this study was a self-structured questionnaire. The questionnaire was made up of two sections, A and B. Section A was used to collect the bio-data of the respondents; Section B was used to elicit information for data analysis which was designed to portray the research variables of the study. The face and content validation of the instrument was done. The split half method of reliability was used for the study; the value of the reliability coefficient was 0.87. which adjudged the instrument as usable. The study found that television and radio mediums have the efficacy of eradicating child abuse and abuse in Ekiti State and that counsellors through media advocacy have special roles to play in the eradication of child abuse. Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations among others were put forward, counsellors should be more proactive in using television and radio programmes to promote child right and freedom of association. Counsellors should also be alive to their responsibilities as well as being sensitive in handling child abuse cases mostly in the case of referrals to avoid violating the ethics of the job.

Keywords: Effective Counselling, Media Advocacy, Eradication, Child Abuse.

Introduction

School counselors are on the front line when handling situations of abuse and neglect. For this reason, school counselors have a higher reporting rate than other educators due to their duties, trusting relationships with students, and greater knowledge of child abuse. Not to mention, but school counselors often function as experts or consultants within their schools to others who have questions about child abuse or child abuse reporting. School counselors can be helpful in gathering pertinent information that aids in helping child protection agencies, but when the counselor speaks with the child he or she must document the exchange, utilizing professional discretion to decide whether a report is warranted and can make use of media to communicate this to government agencies and every citizen. Media can be defined as the communication channels through which every individual disseminate news, music, movies, education, promotional messages and other data (Market Business News, 2019). Nity and Singh (2017) stated that media can be in print form that is through physical and online newspapers, magazines, television, radio, billboards, telephone, the internet, fax and billboards, books etc. Media includes an electronic form for spreading information which is one of the most used media of mass communication. With the help of radio and TV, listeners and viewers not only get updated but it also creates an understanding of current happenings. The role that media had played and will still continue to play is momentous in its role in informing, forming and changing people's attitudes and behaviour towards child abuse. Of particular note is the part played by media outlet such as news through radio and television, newspaper, billboards, social media and features that reported on specific child abuse cases, research and intervention strategies.

Despite all the joy and merriment that child brings to the family and society at large, child abuse occurs in diverse forms and have become a daily reality for many Nigerian children and only a few do receive help. Child abuse is any actor failure to act on the part of a parent or caretaker which results in death, serious physical or emotional harm, and sexual abuse or exploitation (Clark, Clark & Adamec, 2007). Umobong (2010) stated that abuse against children is rampant although it is largely under-reported. Under-reporting stems from cultural justification of certain forms of abuse associated with cultural practices and the reluctance of children to speak about prior abusive experiences. Fear of their assailants' threats or their parent's reaction may be the cause of this reluctance. Also, some children may be either too young to understand their experience or unable to speak for themselves. According to United Nations Children's Fund [UNICEF] (2019), six out of every 10 children experience some form of violence and one in four girls and 10 per cent of boys have been victims of sexual violence. Of the children who reported violence, fewer than five out of a 100 received any form of support. The drivers of violence

against children are rooted in social norms, including around the use of violent discipline, violence against women and community beliefs about witchcraft, all of which increase children's vulnerability. Umobong (2010) stated that parents now push over the responsibility of caring for their children to the school. Many young children who would have been at home at about two years have been pushed over to the school. The tasks thus become enormous for the teachers and the school management to carry leading role to many children being neglected, despised and abused on a daily basis. This clearly undermines the provision for the right of the child on 'protection against indecent and inhuman treatment like abuse and neglect' earlier stated. Rather, the child has been subjected to all kinds of abuse, is not protected, valued nor defended.

School counselor's role in providing services for children that have experienced any form abuse is important. Counselors should demonstrate an understanding of child abuse problems, recognize and detect indicators of abuse, and provide strategies for preventing and combating the cycle of child abuse (Brown, Brack & Mullis, 2008). School counselors are legally, ethically, and morally mandated to report suspected child abuse or neglect to proper authorities. Until then, school counselors must keep information confidential unless legal requirements demand that confidential information be revealed or a breach is required to prevent serious or foreseeable harm (Dahir & Stone, 2012). Deeming whether an action is harmful is up to the judgment of the counselor. Determining whether certain behaviors such as disciplining a child constitutes as abuse can be a judgment call and demonstrates the importance of counselors being educated about signs and symptoms of abuse (Herlihy & Corey, 2015). The media attention to child abuse has, at times, positively influenced public, professional and political responses to the circumstances in which children and young people find themselves. Goddard and Saunders (2019) affirmed the role of media in curbing child abuse as the media sensitize citizen on the awareness of, and response to, child abuse and neglect. In addition to news stories, feature articles, and investigative journalism, sporadic mass media education and prevention campaigns are launched. These campaigns usually endeavour to broaden community knowledge of child abuse and neglect, to influence people's attitudes towards children and young people, and to change behaviours that contribute to, or precipitate, the problem of child abuse and neglect in our communities.

The media play a key role in revealing child abuse to the whole world as a major social problem. The issue of child abuse has been covered across a range of category of media which news programmes, TV drama, films, call-in shows, soap operas and thereby reaching a diverse range of audiences (Powell and Scanlon, 2019). Media representations of sexual abuse not only transformed public knowledge, but also had profound implications for private knowledge. While acknowledging the importance of the media in raising awareness, stakeholders in child education have also noted that the media's interest is very recent and has generally relied on others (e.g. activists, professional groups) to lay the groundwork. Counsellors teaching an abused child how to create their own happiness alone is a key part of building self-confidence and overcoming fears of rejection. As long as they do not believe that they can create their own happiness and enjoy life alone, then the child will be less confident and more dependent on others creating their happiness and thereby allowing him/herself to be abused (Murphy, 2008). According to Murphy (2008), the feelings associated with child abuse like sexual abused are a self-perpetuating cycle, the abused client feels. It is too hard for them to come out and take the bold steps to break out of their abusers because of fear of being killed by the perpetrators. So, it is then harder for them to commit to change. As with changing any pattern of behaviour, it takes effort and commitment for the abused children to begin to move out and tell the story of what he or she is facing.

Meanwhile, counsellor can fill the gap and help the child to overcome the problem of abuse and bring the perpetrator to book. From a counselling perspective, breaking the cycle of child abuse requires finding its cause. Warwick (2006) suggested that the counsellor needs to identify any existing dysfunctional ways the client deals with like hiding away, drinking alcohol and sleeping. The next steps usually include identifying the settings and conditions under which one feels willing to communicate with others.
Olukoya (2013) stated that it has been discovered that child abuse could cause and lead to various side effects directly or indirectly. Child abuse may permanently alter the psychological well-being of a child; following abuse, children are known to display the following problems: unusual high level of anger and aggression, feeling of guilt and shame, for sexual abuse victims this could be severe, general fearfulness

and specific manifestations of phobia, depression symptoms, social withdrawal, low self-concept, feelings of stigmatization, intrusive thoughts, fear, depression and loneliness are some of the effects of child abuse. Thus, making the roles of a school counsellor sacrosanct and very essential.

Statement of the Problem

All over the world, the place and pride given to children are well pronounced and recognized. Despite all the joy and merriment that child brings to the family and society at large, child abuse occurs in diverse forms and have become a daily reality for many Nigerian children and only a few do receive help. Van der Kolk, Hopper and Crozier (2016) reported that almost 81% of child abuse cases find the parents to be the perpetrators of the abuse. While the exact numbers vary from every source, the scope of the problem that child abuse is very large and complex regardless of where it happens. Children are indiscriminately given away for fostering, some are apprenticed to masters and abandoned to their fate; in some parts, betrothal of underage girls and the genital mutilation of female children are regular and acceptable practice. Children cannot speak for themselves as this is obvious in the way they are being treated but they need someone or any form of communication to speak for them. Having media in focus, the school counsellor can make use of the media to inform the society about their findings and understanding of child abuse among school age children. Specifically, this research work looked into using effective counselling through media advocacy to eradicate child abuse in Ekiti State.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to evaluate the use of counselling through media advocacy on the eradication of child abuse Ekiti State. In specific, the study seeks to determine the efficacy of television on eradication of child abuse, ascertain the efficacy of radio on eradication of child abuse and finally to find out the role of counsellors on eradication of child abuse in Ekiti State.

Research Questions

The following research questions are raised for answers in this study:

i) Will counsellor's usage of television media have effect on eradication of child abuse in Ekiti State?
ii) Will counsellor's usage of radio media have effect on eradication of child abuse in Ekiti State?

Research Hypothesis

Sequel to the research questions raised above, one hypothesis was formulated for the study.

i. There is no significant difference in counsellor's usage of audio visual and eradication of child abuse in Ekiti State.

Methodology

The descriptive design of the survey type was used for this study. The population of the study comprised of all counsellors in Ekiti State public secondary school. The sample size of one hundred and fifty (150) counsellors were used for the study. The counsellors were selected all across the public secondary schools in Ekiti State. Multistage sampling technique was used to select two local government areas from each of the three (3) senatorial districts. Then a purposive sampling technique was used to select counsellors from secondary schools and institution across the selected local government areas in the state. The research instrument for this study was a self-structured questionnaire. The questionnaire was made up of two sections, A and B. Section A was used to collect the bio-data of the respondents. Section B was used to elicit information for data analysis which was designed to portrait the research variables of the study. The face and content validation of the instrument was done.

The split half method of reliability was used for the study; the value of the reliability coefficient was 0.99.

Research Question 1

Will counsellor's usage of television medium have effect on eradication of child abuse in Ekiti State?

Table 1: Responses to usage of television media has effect on eradication of child abuse

S/N	Item	SA (%)	A (%)	D (%)	SD (%)	Mean	SD
1.	Through television programmes more awareness programmes on child abuse can be introduced	90 (60.0)	39 (26.0)	8 (5.3)	13 (8.7)	1.63	.931
2.	Television programmes can help to discourage parents' act of using their children for hawking during the school hour	86 (57.3)	52 (34.7)	10 (6.7)	2 (1.3)	1.52	.683
3.	Television kiddies' programmes enhance parents understanding of the need for self-freedom	68 (45.3)	57 (38.0)	16 (10.7)	9 (6.0)	1.77	.868
4.	Television news reporter can give present documentary report on the punishment for parents who maltreat their children	74 (49.3)	55 (36.7)	16 (10.7)	5 (3.3)	1.68	.797

Table 1 showed the mean and standard deviation scores of items 1 to 4 regarding the responses to the efficiency of television in eradicating child abuse. The table showed the mean scores ranging from 1.52 – 1.68 and standard deviation values (.683 - .868). Analysis of statement revealed that (86.0%) of the respondents agreed that through television programmes more awareness programmes on child abuse can be introduced while the remaining (14.0%) of the respondents expressed contrary opinion. It was also observed from the table that majority of the respondents (92.0%) also agreed that Television programmes can help to discourage parents' act of using that through television programmes more awareness programmes on child abuse can be introduced that Radio house can provide a strong support for the fight against child abuse their children for hawking during the school hour, while (8.0%) disagree to this assertion. The table equally revealed that (83.3%) of the respondents agreed to the assertion that Television kiddies' programmes enhance parents understanding of the need for self-freedom while (16.7%) of the respondents does not support the opinion. Lastly, it was revealed by the table that (86.0%) of the respondents believed that counsellors through television news reporter can present documentary report on the punishment for parents who maltreat their children while (14.0%) of the respondents disagreed to the assertion.

Research Question 2

Will counsellor's usage of radio media have effect on eradication of child abuse in Ekiti State?

Table 2: Responses to counsellor's usage of radio media has effect on eradication of child abuse

S/N	Item	SA (%)	A (%)	D (%)	SD (%)	Mean	SD
1.	Radio house can provide a strong support for the fight against child abuse	80 (53.3)	53 (35.3)	9 (6.0)	8 (5.3)	1.63	.823
2.	Though news and adverts, law against child abuse can be communicated to the parents and guardians	87 (58.0)	46 (30.7)	14 (9.3)	3 (2.0)	1.55	.747
3.	Radio presentation can help to educate parents on the possible danger or luring their children into child abuse	94 (62.7)	46 (30.7)	8 (5.3)	2 (1.3)	1.45	.661
4.	Through radio since it is most common means of media, awareness on child abuse becomes easier and faster	89 (59.3)	43 (28.7)	15 (10.0)	3 (2.0)	1.55	.756

Table 2 showed the mean and standard deviation scores of items 1 to 4 regarding the responses to the usage of radio in eradicating child abuse. The table showed the mean scores ranging from 1.45 – 1.63 and standard deviation values (.661 - .823). Analysis of statement revealed that (88.6%) of the respondents agreed that Radio house can provide a strong support for the fight against child abuse while the remaining (11.4%) of the respondents expressed contrary opinion. It was also observed from the table that majority of the respondents (88.7%) also agreed that though news and adverts, law against child abuse can be communicated to the parents and guardians while (11.3%) disagree to this assertion. The table equally revealed that (93.4%) of the respondents agreed to the assertion that Radio presentation can help to educate parents on the possible danger or luring their children into child abuse while (6.6%) of the respondents does not support the opinion. Lastly, it was revealed by the table that (88.0%) of the respondents believed that through radio since it is most common means of media, awareness on child abuse becomes easier and faster children while (12.0%) of the respondents disagreed to the assertion.

Hypotheses Testing: There is no significant relationship in counsellor's usage of audio visual and eradication of child abuse in Ekiti State.

Table 3: ANCOVA analysis of relationship in counsellor's usage of audio visual and eradication of child abuse

Source	SS	Df	MS	F	P
Corrected Model	406.586[a]	2	203.293	7.111	0.001
Intercept	2985.926	1	2985.926	104.445	0.000
Effective counselling and Child abuse	406.190	1	406.190	14.208	0.000
Audio visual	73.572	1	73.572	0.04	0.110
Error	5060.142	177	28.588		
Total	181123.000	180			
Corrected Total	5466.728	179			

i) R squared = 0.74 (Adjusted R squared = 0.064)
ii) Computed using alpha = 0.05

Table 4 showed that the F-value, $F_{cal}(0.04)$, with a P value <0.05 alpha level obtained for audio visual effectiveness which was significant at 0.05 level of significance. The null hypothesis was therefore rejected. Hence, there was significance in effective counselling through the use of audio visual in eradicating child abuse.

Discussion of Findings

The study found that television and radio mediums have the efficacy of eradicating child abuse and abuse in Ekiti State. This is achievable through series of awareness programmes, special editorial report, documentary relay, news and adverts, as well as law against child abuse and abuse. This supported the claim of Powell and Scanlon (2015) who posited that while it is undoubtedly selective with the news, the

mass media like television and radio has had a powerful influence in augmenting children's rights within civil society, simply by reporting child emotional abuse cases. Also, it supported Adekunle (2019) who posited that through television and radio, information on the penalty for parents, guardian, caregiver, etc. who cause children to go through all forms of abuse will be watched with an example of erring individual being showcase on the television. He also stated that the role of radio house in achieving the set goals of fight against child physical abuse cannot be overlook. It also corroborated Saunders & Goddard (2019) who submitted that understanding media influences, and how to use the media constructively, may thus be an essential tool for counsellors who advocate for children, young people and their families.

Also, the findings of the study indicate that counsellors through media advocacy have special roles to play in the eradication of child abuse as they are supposedly very close to the children and understand them better, hence it will be very easy for them to detect and identify an abused child. They can equally leverage on their level of closeness to the abused children to help in expediting healing process on their damaged emotions. Relevant law enforcement agencies can also leverage on the information gotten from the counsellors to help them in full prosecution of the culprits of child abuse. This supported the claim of Murphy (2008) who opined that counsellor will engage children in talking to boost their self-esteem so as to achieve a positive sense of self-acceptance, and find relating to others is both achievable and enjoyable. Also, Warwick (2006) posited that the counsellor needs to identify any existing dysfunctional ways the client deals with hiding away, drinking alcohol and sleeping. The inferential analysis of the study revealed that there was a significant efficacy of audio visual in eradicating child abuse and abuse particularly.

C**onclusions**

Based on the findings of this study, it is evident that significant relationship exists between effective counselling using media advocacy in eradicating child abuse. The study also concludes that there was significant efficacy of radio and television in eradicating child abuse particularly in Ekiti State.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are put forward, Counsellors should be more proactive in using television and radio programmes to promote child right and freedom of association. Counsellors should be alive and active to their responsibilities as well as being sensitive in handling child abuse cases mostly in the case of referrals to avoid violating the ethics of the job. All child abuse culprits should be made to face the full wrath of the law. Finally, parents should be very close to their children in order to protect them from pedophiles and child abusers.

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Private Investment and University Ranking: The Role of Media Coverage in Africa

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Abstract
This study examined the role of media coverage in the ranking universities and its influence on the private investment decisions in University in Africa. Using the descriptive survey design and purposive sampling technique to select 62 respondents comprising of 42 students and 20 parents/Guardians to ascertain their perception on the extent to which media coverage, with particular reference to university ranking reports correlates with education consumer investment decisions in university education. An online questionnaire tagged "Questionnaire on Media Ranking Reports and Private Investment in University Education (QMRRPIUE)" and secondary data from available literature were used as instruments to collect the data for the study. The data collected were analysed using the correlation statistical analysis. Media coverage, university ranking in particular had a significant positive correlation with education consumers' investment decision in University education. A balanced media coverage of universities issues; creation of deeper awareness and effective communication network with news reporters as an investment in public understanding of what is happening in the school and partnership with grassroot global media outlets for effective information dissemination as a way forward amongst others.

Keywords: Private Investment, University Ranking, Media Coverage, Africa.

Introduction

In recent times, the attitude of private consumers of higher education has been primed by the type and quality information received from the different media access points ranging from the newspapers to personal telephone handset. The role of media in Higher Education from an African perspective with special reference to universities in developing nations is that of an influential intermediary medium which has power to translate information to inform and enlighten the consumers of University education with the view of guiding their understanding and investment decisions. Also, the media has the powers to also exclude certain information from their reportage thereby making the issues reported on to seem unfamiliar or even threatening. Amongst others, the education stakeholders of Universities in Africa are challenged on how ensure quality university education as well as make informed education investment decisions in the mist of the low-ranking results. Furthermore, the cost of university education in Africa has escalated beyond the income of an average household due the cost sharing policy adopted by most African countries (Imogen, 2016; Teferra (2014); Randriamahenintsoa, 2013; UNESCO, 2011; Chikeziri, 2009). However, students, parents and guardians want to have real value for their investment in education; they want to compare the cost and value added among their institutional choices. An average prospective consumer or shopper of higher education be it the students, parents, government, or employer of labour will frequently supplement their search by turning to the media (Print, audio and visual) via publications (newspapers), radio, television and internet or may refer to one or more ranking publications for information. This is because the media through their coverage of universities and rankings reports is believe could provide the public with direct up-to date information and in-depth understanding of happenings in higher education systems and the place values of these universities to guide them in making rational investment decisions; but they have often than not been very frustrated as the content of media coverage of universities in Africa has been very scanty and most unbalanced(Arun, 2019; Ofem, 2015 and Mockler, 2012); mostly reactive rather than proactive. The global ranking positions and reports have also not favoured African universities, making ranking results to appear unreliable and even more difficult for the stakeholders to make their school /career choice. This study examined the role of media coverage in the ranking universities and its influence on the private investment decisions on University in Africa.

Literature Reviews

The Concept of Media Coverage

Media coverage as a concept has been viewed from different dimensions. The Collins dictionary sees media coverage as the reporting of something in the television, radio, newspapers, and magazines. While the Lawinsider (2020) sees media coverage as any reporting, recording, broadcasting, narrowcasting, cablecasting or webcasting of events by the media using television, radio, photographic, recording, or

other electronic devices. Furthermore, the term media coverage is used to refer to all blog articles, RSS feeds, video content or other types of digital content (produced by individuals or organisations other than your own company) where your brand, products or services are discussed or shown (Shine and O'Donoghue.2013). Also, Atinternet, (2020) aver that analysing media coverage can help in the understanding of performance in terms of brand awareness and market presence. Simply put, media coverage is whatever the media decides to broadcast. The power of media is extensive and huge; ranging from educating and influencing people at a very little cost, to informing the people about the latest happening around them and the world. Hence, expected should perform a noble mission of enlightening people and discourage sectarian, communal and divisive trends, Preeti (2014).

The media can affect the scope and form of public knowledge, values, and action via its agenda setting, issue framing, and audience priming functions. The media can propagate better public knowledge by providing more information that reflects an accurate understanding of issues and problems in any particular field (**McCluskey, and Swinnen,** 2011; and Prat & Strömberg 2011). Media outlets, whether publicly or privately owned are believed can provide the required supportive coverage and messages in to enhance the visibility of education programmes, broaden its audience and lend added credibility to the message. In other words, it can aid in the decision making through their story lines. According to the UN Women Virtual knowledge Centre (2020), media coverage can either be placed or earned. It is Placed coverage when paid for and are produced by a public relations (PR) agency of a specialised organization hired for a particular purpose. While the Earned media coverage is usually not paid for but produced by journalists, or a free contribution submitted by the campaign (e.g. letters to the editor, open editorials). Despite these importance and diversities of media coverage for public understanding of education, news reporting on universities in Africa is said to be highly biased.

Media Coverage and University Ranking

With the globalisation of higher education with international press coverage, the impact that rankings on universities in the developing world is worth exploring. Generally, ranking of universities are mostly done by the webometrics, Times Higher Education (THE) and Academic Ranking of World Universities (ARWU) also known as the Shanghai ranking (Salmi, 2011). While ranking reports most often than not serve as a strong determinant of educational policy competition and a catalyst for improvements in quality; they also tend to signal and showcase high quality universities from which prospective consumers can readily demand from.

Table 1: 2019 Webometric ranking of First 10 African Universities

Ranking	World Rank	University						Excellence Rank*
1	276	University of Cape Town						251
2	425	Stellenbosch University						447
3	433	University of the Witwatersrand						357
4	448	University of Pretoria						492
5	621	University of Kwazulu Natal						462
6	668	Cairo University						521
7	822	University of Johannesburg						563
8	937	University of South Africa						1118
9	944	University of the Western Cape						1054
10	1016	Alexandria University						837

Source: 2019 Webometric of Universities

However, about 65% of Africa's higher education system are universities and the 2019 Webometric ranking result shows that the best university in Africa has a World Rank of 276 and Excellence Rank of

251 as shown on Table 1. From inception, global ranking systems are criticized for favouring certain types of universities and certain aspects of higher education (e.g. science and research) without understanding the context in which HEIs operate and their unique missions and goals in dealing with social and economic priorities of their region (Okebukola, 2010). This led to the establishment of the African Quality Rating Mechanism to mitigate the challenges facing African Higher Institutions African Union Commission (2008). Despite these realities of the challenges of African universities reported by the media, it is pertinent to note that, what is not represented or is excluded can just be as important or more so than that which is included in the media coverage. For instance, there are significant development efforts in higher education in Africa geared towards promoting quality higher education and fostering the African Unity.

Some of these efforts include:

- The harmonisation of higher education to:
  - Foster collaboration and partnerships among higher education institutions particularly in the area of research in pursuit of solutions to both African and global problems.
  - Promote inter-regional and internal cooperation in the fields of recognition of studies, certificates, degrees, etc
  - Facilitate exchange programmes which encouraged the mobility of students, teachers, and researcher in the region.
  - Encourage the efficient use of human resources available in Africa and of the diaspora to help speed up development in the individual countries and limit African brain drain.
- Introduction of African credit system
- Introduction of the African Reform Qualification framework (License – Master – Doctorate Reforms)
- African Quality Rating Mechanism
- Creating regional centres of Excellence
- African Higher Education Research Space (AHERS)
- Pan African university

For most African universities, global rankings results are used as opportunities to increase efforts at quality improvement and capacity building which have stimulated efficiency, promoted accountability and enhanced proprietor funding. At the regional and national levels, African Scholars, have reported that while good ranking results improves institution's self-esteem and quality improvement efforts, it like to receive too much attention at the detriment institutional goals and missions; and violation of academic integrity whereby institutions falsify information and manipulations to increase their ranking scores which will by extension misguide the consumers of university education (Adeyemo, 2015; Liu, 2011; Okebukola, 2010 & Oyewole, 2010).

Media Coverage and University's Private Investment Decisions

Media coverage of universities has a strong impact on consumers' perception of the quality of education and viable programmes on offer in universities. **DellaVigna** & Gentzkow (2010) and Glynn & Huge (2014) aver that exposure to media can systematically alter beliefs and consumer behavior. This therefore calls for extra care to be taken by media outlets to ensure the university education consumer behaviour are well guided. The media outlets have been criticised for most times portraying Africa and her education system in a negative perspective (Shine, 2017; Alhamdan, Al-Saadi, & Baroutsis, 2014; Mockler, 2012). Since negative news are believed to sell best; could this in part explain why news coverage on higher education in Africa is predominantly on crime, disaster, student/staff unrest, school vacancies, sporting event, etc; rather than on the improvement and development efforts?; could it also be the reason why the African universities do not have a chance of appearing top on the global rankings? This is in line with Bellah (2020) that, most media outlets tend to cover issues that they assume will interest the public; focusing on processes and personalities; favoring reports regarding problems in schools rather than paying attention to what is actually happening in the education sector; explaining why it is happening and highlighting what people need to know as well as focusing on student success and inspirational stories. McCluskey, **Swinnen, & Vandemoortele,** 2015; developed a simple theoretical model that explains the

slant towards negative coverage in news media to how consumer preferences affect the information market and found out that where news is informative and consumers are risk averse, consumers derive higher utility from news with negatively biased information which drives the media's tendency to publish mostly bad news. This call for balance in media reportage. Balance is also central to reporting. Balance gives or articulate the views of both sides of a given story. The media plays an essential role in society, but surveys indicate that the public views the media as biased. In this context, the opposite of balance is bias. Media bias is said to lie in the eyes of the beholder. Baron (2006), defines Media bias as the absence of balance resulting in one side of a story receiving unwarranted attention.

Several scholars have identified the reasons for media bias to include: response to consumer references, pressure to attract attention, ideology for partisan politics in which the owner of the media outlet tend to support popular views, relationship between the Journalist and the source of information, and incentive to attract large number of readers (Baron, 2006; Groseclose and Milyo, 2005; Dyck and Zingale, 2002. This is supported by McCluskey et al. (2015; Dionne, Darrell and Whitehurst, 2009) who explained that negative news coverage has likely ability to dominate positive news stories. Their argument is based on the premise that consumers use the information from positive media stories to take advantage of opportunities from positive shocks and use the information from negative stories to avoid negative shocks. If utility is concave, the marginal loss in utility from not consuming the first bad news story is greater than the marginal gain in utility from consuming the first positive news story. As a result, consumers will choose to consume more negative stories than positive ones. However, Poortinga & Pidgeon (2004) have criticize these studies, warning about possible confusion between pure negativity bias and confirmatory bias in exploring the impact of new information and media reports on citizens' perception. Prior beliefs may play an important role in selecting and processing the information provided by media. Despite the bias that the media sources may represent, mass media can be considered as a good proxy for people's opinions in certain situations (Ofem, 2015; Baron, 2005).

Methodology

The descriptive survey and purposive sampling technique were used to select 62 respondents comprising of 42 students and 20 parents/Gaurdians to ascertain their perception on the extent to which university ranking reports influence their choice and investment in university education. An online questionnaire tagged "Questionnaire on Media Ranking Reports and Private Investment in University Education (QMRRPIUE)" and secondary data from available literature were used as instruments to collect the data for the study. The data collected were analysed using the correlation and Liner regression analysis statistical tool.

Research Questions

i. Is there any significant relationship between private investment decisions in university education and media coverage of HEIs?
ii. Is there any significant relationship between media coverage and ranking of universities in Africa?
iii. Is there any balance in the media coverage of universities in Africa?

Research Hypotheses

i. There no significant difference between private investment decisions in university education and media coverage of HEIs

Table 2: Distribution of Respondents by Status and Gender

Degree Type	**Number**	**Male**	**Female**
Students	42	22	20
Parents/ Guardian	20	11	9
Total	**62**	**33**	**29**

Table 2 shows the distribution of respondents by *Status and Gender* comprising of 42 students and 20 parents of which 33 were male and 29 were female.

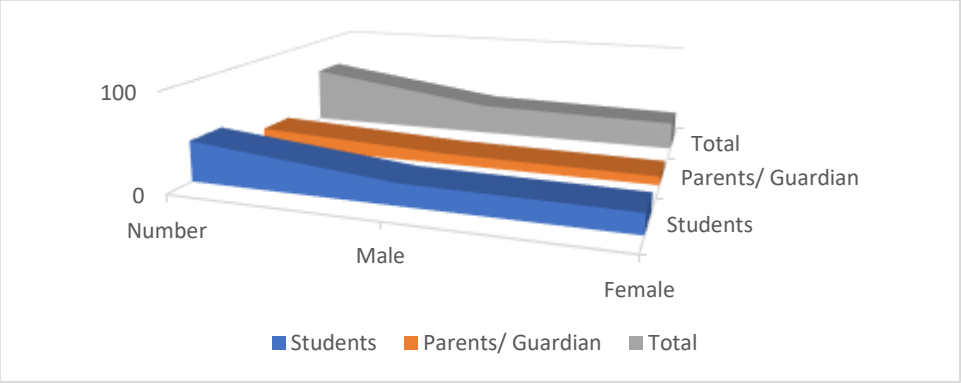


Figure 1: The 2-D line graph showing the distribution of Respondents by Status

Table 3: **The Correlation Analysis of Private Investment Decisions in University Education and Media Coverage of Universities**

		Private Investment Decisions	Media Coverage
Private Investment Decisions	Pearson correlation	I	.852**
	Sig (2- tailed)		.000
	N	62	62
Media coverage	Pearson correlation	.852**	1
	Sig (2- tailed)	.000	
	N	62	62

Source: Author's computation ****Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)**

Table 3 shows that, the Pearson correlation value of r = 0.852 with a significant value of p < 0.000 suggests that approximately 85 percent variation of Media Coverage of Higher Education is explained by the changes in the variation of the Private investment decision of University Education consumers. Hence, Private investment decisions of students and parents significantly correlates with media Coverage (r = 0.852, n = 62, p < 0.00, two tailed).

Table 4: The **Liner regression** ***Analysis of Private Investment Decisions in University Education, Ranking Status and Media Coverage of Universities***

Coefficients						
Model		**Unstandardized Coefficients**		**Standardized Coefficients**	**t**	**Sig.**
		Beta	**Std. Error**	**Beta**		
1	(Constant)	17.131	6.335		2.856	.006
	Private investment Decisions	0.265	0.041	0.471	5.963	.000
	Ranking Status	0.306	0.05	0.523	6.170	.000
	Balanced Media Coverage	0.162	0.056	0.251	2.953	.005

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.816[a]	0.654	0.635	4.842

a. Predictors: (Constant), Private investment Decisions, Ranking level, Balance Media Coverage

Media coverage explained the 65 percent variation in private investment decisions of university education consumers, therefore an important predictor of private investment decisions and ranking status. Also, the linear regression the values of R= 0.816; R^2 = 0.654 and P< 0.05 shows a high, positive and significant correlation media coverage and private investment decisions of university education consumers.

Conclusions

This study shows the interaction between media coverage and higher education consumers investment preferences. While efforts of media outlet at covering Higher Education globally, regionally and nationally are commendable; the depth of the coverage of African Higher Education will need to broaden to enable stakeholders ascertain the quality of education delivery and guide prospective higher education consumers in making informed career / institutional choices so as to enable them have value for their investment. To redressed these imbalances in media coverage of higher education as well as how global news outlets can better cover higher education all over the world and especially in developing nations.

Recommendations

The following are recommended as the way forward

1. Government and University Management should put in more efforts to create an awareness in the Universities and among the students on the importance of maintaining good communication network with news reporters as an investment in public understanding of what is happening in the school.
2. National, International and Global media outlets should partner with local media outlets who are close to the grassroots development. In this way, information disseminated at the global level can get to the local level and all over the world and vice versa.
3. The quality of media coverage can be improved by featuring the African perspectives through ensuring that more African Higher educational experts are interviewed. This will also enhance broader reporting and in-depth coverage of higher education issues thereby putting news from Africa in a clearer perspective.
4. Government through media regulatory bodies to ensure that Media outlets news reportage is more proactive and void of controversial issues with the ultimate purpose of enhancing quality information dissemination and education consumers' understanding of issues of interest being reported.
5. The University Management should encourage students' journalism, students' newspapers and reforms in African universities' social media outlets to provide the appropriate guidance for parents, employers and the society as a whole.
6. Government and Educational Managers to ensure media attention is drawn to school event and noteworthy reforms in African Universities.
7. The Government should encourage the transmission of global programmes in local languages as is the case of BBC broadcast in the three major Nigerian languages (BBC Yoruba, BBC Igbo and BBC Hausa).
8. Many African universities have websites and maintain webpages although most have low bandwidth which means webpages may be slow to load; however, media outlets should consider adding high quality education blog to their websites.

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Effect of Romantic Relationship on Undergraduate Students' Academic Performance: A Case Study of Islamic University in Uganda

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Abstract
This study was conducted to discover the effect of involvement in a romantic relationship amongst Undergraduate students at University academic performance and. The variables looked at are Romantic relationship status (single or involved), years of involvement in the relationship (more than or less than a year) and grade point average (GPA) change between two semesters in the academic year. Sixty-five (65) of the students across the different faculties studying in undergraduate degrees at Islamic University in Uganda were surveyed. Approximately 48 students (73.8 percent) of those surveyed were involved in a relationship. Overall, students engaged in romantic relationships were more likely to attend at least 70% of the classes. However, students engage in romantic relationships experienced a decrease in their GPA for the academic year under consideration. It is therefore recommended, that students engaged in RR must be counselled on how to read hard so that their GPA can increase. This could be done by forming discussion class presentation.

Keywords: Academic Performance, Romantic Relationships, Attendance, GPA.

Introduction

Academic achievement is a concept that is affected by several different factors of the individual and the environment. There has been a vast amount of research published on discovering what factors motivate a student to achieve success in their educational setting. Also, there have been studies focusing on the reasons behind why some students struggle throughout school. Schwinger, Wertheim, Lemmer, and Steinmayr (2014) studied, the explanation of self-handicapping, a frequently used strategy for regulating the threat of self-esteem elicited by the fear of failing in academic achievement settings. One of the results of their experiment was that younger students show higher relations between self-handicapping and performance (Schwinger et al., 2014). One potential factor that has been largely overlooked thus far in the academic achievement literature is the potential role of romantic relationships, with Giordano, Phelps, Manning, and Longmore (2008) claiming that "despite the ubiquity and general importance of dating, the role of romantic partners on academic achievement has not been systematically investigated" (p. 38).Most of the research on the link between social factors and academic achievement are concerned with parental and peer relationships and their association with the academic achievement of adolescents; far fewer studies have analyzed romantic relationships and college students. To address this gap in the literature, this study investigates the relationship between romantic relationships and academic achievement among students at private university (Islamic University in Uganda – Kampala Campus).

Globally, education is accorded as a weapon which can be used to eradicate the illiteracy raise the social status of human beings as well as building a nation (Ajegbomogun & Salami, 2011).Education should be made as easy as possible in order to realize the mass literacy advocated by the Government of Uganda, and to actualize the objectives of the National Policy on Education. After the school activities, students retire to study on their own. For that personal education to be meaningful, the students require the skills that would help them to regulate their education. It therefore becomes necessary for teachers to teach the students' metacognitive skills which have been found to aid students in the regulation of their learning. Metacognition is thinking about thinking (Maduabuchi & Angela (2016).

Literature review on Romantic Relationships and Academic Achievement

Many people have defined the term "romantic relationship" differently based on their perspectives, experiences and preferences. According to Matsumoto (2011), "When you have a romantic relationship with someone, you share attitudes, visions, dreams, strengths and vulnerabilities with that person, and there is also some kind of mutual support." However, a "romantic relationship" is not necessarily an intimate relationship in which partners are truly themselves, completely open and honest. Rather, those

involved in a romantic relationship may overpower each other, which can create instability, hence demanding both partners to respect each other to build a healthy one (Romantic Relationships, n.d.). Based on Sutter Health's (n.d.) definition, "a romantic relationship is viewed as a part of an intimate relationship in which you can truly be yourself with someone who you respect and are respected by in return." Therefore, on the top of that, a romantic relationship is widely known as love and affection which is one of the most profound emotions of human beings.

Humans, particularly adolescents get involve in romantic relationships with variety of reasons. According to Aristotle, humans are social animals which made them long to form an intimate relationship in which love can be given and received freely which the psychologists called the "need to belong" (Myers, 2010). Raman (2010) stated that being in romantic relationship involves physical contact which causes chemical arousal to the persons involved and at the same time gain love and confidence in which they are longing for. Koob and Bloom (as cited in Bernales & Colonia, 2011) also explained this by stating that the individuals who are in love release several chemicals within the brain such as oxytocin, vasopressin and endorphins which cause "short-term" joy and pleasure.

Academic Performance has also been viewed differently**.** According to Steinmayr, Meibner, Weiddinger and Wirthwein (2014), that academic achievement represents performance outcomes that indicate the extent to which a person has accomplished specific goals that were the focus of activities in instructional environments, specifically in school, college, and university. School systems mostly define cognitive goals that either apply across multiple subject areas such as critical thinking or include the acquisition of knowledge and understanding in a specific intellectual domain such as numeracy, literacy, science, history. Steinmayr, Meibner, Weiddinger and Wirthwein (2014), also added that, academic achievement should be a multifaceted construct that comprises different domains of learning. Because the field of academic achievement is very wide-ranging and covers a broad variety of educational outcomes, the definition of academic achievement depends on the indicators used to measure it. Among the many criteria that indicate academic achievement, there are very general indicators such as procedural and declarative knowledge acquired in an educational system, more curricular-based criteria such as grades or performance on an educational achievement test, and cumulative indicators of academic achievement such as educational degrees and certificates. All criteria have in common that they represent intellectual endeavours and thus mirror the intellectual capacity of a person. In developed societies, academic achievement plays an important role in every person's life.

Positive effects of teenage romantic relationships on academic performance

A study conducted by Campble, Olivier and Sedikides (1994) found that romantic relationships provide significant positive impacts on academic achievement. They can bring companionship, feelings of happiness, feelings of being loved or loving another, intimacy, self-growth and self-understanding and more positive esteem. Romantic relationships therefore are said to be the cause of motivation for teenagers in pursuing their studies. Additionally, a research paper studied by Giordano, Kenyatta D. Phelps, Manning, and Longmore (2008) had discovered that a romantic relationship has a positive link in adolescent academic achievement. They argued that adolescent romantic relationships contribute to a personal development prior to the student being successful in their studies. For instance, teens who have romantic partners with higher grades are themselves more likely to earn higher grades (Giordano *et al.*, 2008). Significantly, the level of motivation has played a key role in determining the academic achievements of students. It is believed that students who seem to be passionate about learning needed inspiration and encouragement in order to accomplish any task. In this regard, by having a romantic relationship, it makes teenagers feel affection, care and love, which make them motivated. Hence, a sense of motivation to students who are involved in love affairs made them perform better in their studies (Bernales and Colonia, 2011). Additionally, the Phnom Penh Post (2010) interviewed radio personalities whose programs deal with the topic of love to share their ideas on how Cambodian youth can find a place for love in their busy lives and enjoy the benefits of romance without getting hurt in the process.

In this light, it is believed the result is possible to be a great student and be in a healthy romantic relationship when they encourage each other to study hard; therefore, they will have better results in their studies. Similarly, Chhy Rotha (2010) also shared the same belief that romantic relationships will urge

people to study harder when they get involved with a romantic partner who is a high-performing person. Despite these advantages, Heng- Sokchannaroth (2010) claimed that "It depends on our partner. If our partner encourages us to study hard, it is good. He believes that an honest partner is the one who takes care of us and thinks about us all the time, but also motivates us to study and work hard. A caring lover would never ask us to go out with him or her if we didn't want to or had unfinished work. But if our partner doesn't like studying and instead likes going out, we will bump into failure. So, the weight is in our partner. If we have a good partner, we will be more likely to be good" (The Phnom Penh Post, 2010).

Negative effects of teenage romantic relationships on academic performance

Although some people believe that having a relationship while studying can be beneficial, opponents of this idea would argue that teenage relationships can cause problems on academic performance in some ways. Based on a study at the University of the Philippines by Bernales and Colonia (2011), when teenagers are involved in romantic relationships, they tend to pay less attention to their academic work. The study reveals that students who engage in relationships are unable to manage their time well and mostly spend only 1 to 4 hours per week for their studies. As love grows fonder, along with the desire to keep the relationship going, more time is allotted to various dating activities, leaving only a small amount of time for learning (Newman, n.d.). This tendency then has connection with course attendance; it was reported that students are likely to be absent for at least three times in a semester (Schmidt & Lockwood, 2015).

A study from the University of Denver found that teenagers who are engaged in romantic relationships are likely to experience emotional problems such as anxiety and depression (Scott, 2015). They tend to feel worried if they look good enough, if their partner loves them or even how to impress them. They can feel even more distracted when that person is in the same class with them (Mwaura, 2012). Regarding the distractions, Laflamme claimed that when people are in love, they simply cannot concentrate on anything but only thinking about their lovers (Lannarone, 2014). Rather than paying attention to their teachers, some teenagers turned out to be texting their partners during class time, and their level of anxiety even increased when they had conflicts with their partner (Baleros,2017). A study conducted by Kopfler (2003) also pointed out that "students who were involved in romantic relationships would not perform well in undergraduate course works." He argued that students involved in relationship are forced to manage their time by facing higher stress levels than who are not in a romantic relationship (Kopfler, 2003).

Methodology

Data: Data gathering is crucial in research, as the data is meant to contribute to a better understanding of a theoretical framework (Bernard 2002). The purpose of the current study is to estimate the effects of romantic relationships on the academic performance of University students in Uganda. In this study we collected data from the finalists in the different faculties of Islamic university in Uganda at Kampala Campus. Finalist according to this study are students in their final year of study either in the bachelor's degree or diploma course.

Sample and Sampling: The study uses Random sampling technique. The method is used to cull a smaller sample size (65 students) from a larger population (university student) and use it to research and generalize about the larger group. The method was preferred and used in order to avoid sample bias its ease of use and its accurate representation of the larger population.

Dependent Variables: The effect of romantic relationships is estimated for two different dependent variables representing academic performance. The first outcome measure represent the change in grade point average (GPA) across the two semesters. It is constructed by asking respondents to specify whether the change in their GPA for both the first and second semesters was an increase or decrease. We used this proxy since most students were not willing to specifically mention their GPA but found it increase to tell us about the increase or decrease generally. The second outcome measure represents poor class attendance over the course of the academic year. Two survey items asked respondents to describe how often they were absent from each of their classes during both the semesters. We then constructed a dichotomous measure of poor attendance that represents students who were absent for 70 percent their courses on average. The Islamic University in Uganda has a policy of 70 percent attendance rate that is compulsory to students and is a requirement for writing the final exam. Those who attended either exactly

70 or above 70 percent were considered as having good attendance and those who had below 70 percent were considered to have had poor class attendance.

Independent Variable: In this paper, the romantic relationship (RR) is operationalized where students were asked whether or not they were involved in any romantic relationships in the previous academic year of study. In the questionnaires, Romantic relationship was defined for respondents as one in which two partners commit to being exclusively dating as well as being intimate together and spending more and more time together as the relationship progresses (Shelly, 2017).

Control Variables. Several variables are included as controls in the study based on their observed links with academic performance in universities. In this study we included length of the RR and engagement in other co-curricular activities plus demographic characteristics (gender, age bracket, marital status, region of origin).

Empirical Model

The logistic model is used in this study because of the nature of the dependent variable. The logistic model is used to model the probability of that a student attend at least 70 % or not. The model takes a value of 1 if the student attended 70 or above 70 % and 0 if the attendance was below 70%. The model also investigates the probability that a student's GPA increased or decreased in between the two semesters. The model is expressed as below:

$$ln\left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 RR_i + \beta_2 LengthRR_i + \beta_3 Z_i + \mu_i \quad (1)$$

$$P(Y=1) = \left(\frac{\exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1 RR_i + \beta_2 LengthRR_i + \beta_3 Z_i + \mu_i)}{1 + \exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1 RR_i + \beta_2 LengthRR_i + \beta_3 Z_i + \mu_i}\right) \quad (2)$$

Where: P is the probability that a student attends at least 70 percent or GPA increase (probability of success) and 1-P otherwise. RR is a dichotomous variable with 1 if the students is engaged in a RR and 0 otherwise. LengthRR is the length of the RR. The length was discrete with either less than a year (0) or more than a year (1). Z is a vector of the background characteristics of the students and it includes age, marital status and region and μ_i is the stochastic error term.

Results and Discussions

The study starts by giving a summary of the background characteristics of the respondents of the study. This presents their gender distribution, marital status, region of origin, age groups. This information was required to ensure that the sample that participated had characteristic distribution like that of the population it was drawn from. This determines accuracy, prediction reliability, and representativeness of the information drawn from the sample to the entire population. The results are summarized in Table 1.

The questionnaires were randomly given out to students who were writing their final exam and advised to fill it after the exams for about 15-20m minutes. The survey instrument included several items that asked respondents to describe their demographic characteristics, engagement in a RR, Length of a RR, extracurricular activities engaged in while at the university, academic achievement in terms of class attendance and change in GPA among others. Sixty-five (65) undergraduate students completed and returned the survey.

Table 1: Background characteristics of the respondents

Characteristics	Category	Frequency	Percentag
Gender	Male	27	41.5
	Female	38	58.5
Age bracket	Below 25 years	53	81.5
	25-35 years	11	16.9
	Above 36	1	1.5
Region of origin	Eastern	16	24.6
	Northern	2	3.1
	Central	34	52.3
	Western	13	20
Marital status	Married	5	7.7
	Not married	60	92.3

Source: Authors (2019)

Distribution of respondents by Gender: Most of the respondents were Female (38) compared to males (27) which shows exactly the gender bias. The Female dominance in the university can contribute to lack of ability to perform as expected of them and leading to poor performance which tend to be more associated with Female employees.

Distribution of respondents by Age group: This table indicates that most (53) of the respondents were below 25-45 (81.5 percent) while 11 (16.9 percent) were in the age bracket of 25- 35 years. Only 1 respondent (1.5 percent) was above 26 years of age. This showed that most of the students are still youth and perhaps engage in Romantic relationship.

Region of origin: This is the region in which the student originates. Results in table above shows that most of the respondents, that is 34 (52.3percent) are coming from the Central Region. This could have been true since the university itself is also located in Buganda, Central region. This was seconded by Eastern region which produced about 16 (24.6percent) of the respondents. About 13 (20 percent) were originating from the Western region. The minority represented region was the Northern part of Uganda, with only 2 (3.1) and this could perhaps be since the university has a branch in Arua, Northern Uganda. Students feel convenient studying from there rather than commuting to Kampala.

Respondents' Marital status: Marital status is any of several distinct options that describe a person's relationship with a significant other. In this study, marital status was classified into two, that is married and not married. From the study, we found out that majority of the respondents, that is 60 accounting for 92.3 percent were not married. Only 5 respondents (7.7 percent) were married.

Engagement in any romantic relationship

Having found out that majority of the students were not married, we asked them whether there were engaged in any romantic relationship as seen in Figure 1.

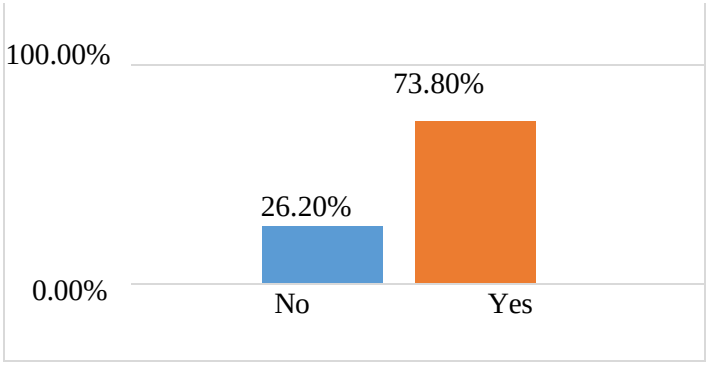


Figure 1: Romantic relationship status

Figure 1 indicates that majority of the students, that is 48 (73.80%) were engage in RR. Only 17students (26.2%) were not engaged. University students are usually happy to have a partner, because their relationship gives joy and happiness. Many of them look for a partner that gives them joy and contentment. Sometimes they gain better self-esteem or self-confidence (Meredith,2014). The 48 who had been in a RR were further asked how long they had been in the RR and results are in Figure 2.

Out of the 48 explained in figure 1, 29 of them (60.5 percent) had been in a RR for more than one year. The rest, that is 39.5 were in a RR for less than a year. When engaged further about what encouraged them to engage in a RR. They students gave a lot of opinions. Majority were motivated by mutual support and feeling of happiness (15, 15) respectively. Others were motivated by the outside environment (6). Entertainment reasons motivated 2 of them and only one mentioned being engaged just for granted. Nine (9) students were engaged due to other reasons such as being part of life, sexual satisfaction, peer pressure, financial benefits.

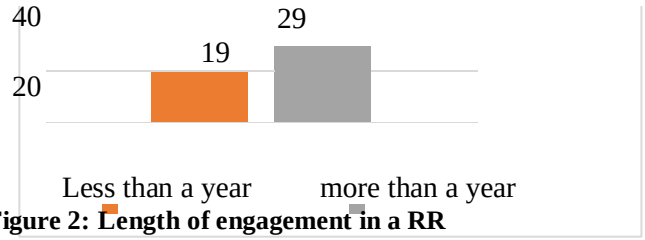


Figure 2: Length of engagement in a RR

To investigate further why students are not in support o RR, we asked students whether they take part in extracurricular activities and findings are indicated below.

Table 2: Participation in extracurricular activities

	Freq	%
Yes	54	83.1
No	11	16.9

Majority (54) of the students (above 83.1 %) participate in extracurricular activities such as sports and swimming. This perhaps explain why students are not in support of RR since a portion of their time is already allocated in extracurricular activities and therefore are hesitant to get engaged and waste it. This is in line with the finding of Shelly, 2017. We then investigate the students views on the effect of RR on Academic performance and findings summarized in Table 3.

Table 3: RR and Academic Performance

RR and academic performance	1	2	3	4	5
RR helps me pay more attention on studying	27(43)	16(24.6)	18(27.7)	1(1.5)	2 (3.1)
RR motivates me to study hard	12(18.4)	22 (33.8)	13(20)	13(20)	5(7.7)
RR supports me when i meet difficult lessons	15(23.1)	13(20)	18(27.7)	15(23.1)	4(6.2)
RR contributes to personal development	11(16.9)	11(16.9)	17 (26.2)	21(32.3)	5(7.7)
RR makes me perform better	19(29.3)	22(33.8)	14(21.5)	9 (13.8)	1(1.5)
RR builds self confidence	8(12.3)	131(20)	15(23.1)	19(29.2)	10(15.4)
RR makes me complete tasks on time	22(33.8)	18(27.7)	11(16.9)	12(18.5)	2 (3)
RR makes me achieve good grades	15(24.6)	19(29.2)	20(30.8)	7(10.8)	3(4.6)
RR cannot help me concentrate	22(33.8)	6(9.2)	13(20)	11(16.9)	13(20)
RR discourages me to learn when we have love arguments	18((27.7)	12(18.5)	12(18.5)	9 (13.8)	14(21.5)

From Table 3, generally students are not in support of RR. From these findings, the study asked respondents a simple question of whether we should have RR basing on their experience. The findings still indicated that 32 students (49.2%) were not in support, 28 students (43.1%) were in support. We also noted that 5 of them, that is 7.7% were indifferent. To them it all depends on how couples treat their relationship visa-viz the courses offered. To make further clarification on these findings, we estimate the logistic model stated in equation 1 and findings summarized in Table 3:

Analysis Procedure of the effect of RR on Academic Performance

We estimate two models. The first model estimates the effect of RR on class attendance using binary logistic regression model while controlling for length of the RR, involvement in extracurricular activities and background characteristics of the students. Attendance was coded as 1 if the student has at least 70% and 0 otherwise. The second model estimates the change in Grade Point Average (GPA), where positive or negative between the two semesters. Since it was difficult to get data on the actual GPA between the two semesters (most students were not willing to answer this part), we relied on the change in GPA. Students were given three options, that is GPA reduced, GPA increased, and GPA remained constant. it is worth noting that no student maintained his or her GPA. This prompted the researchers to zero down the model and use a logistic model again. The model takes a value of 1 if the GPA increased 0 otherwise. The model was estimated while controlling for length of the RR, involvement in extracurricular activities and background characteristics of the students.

Table 4: Effect of RR on Academic performance (Logistic regression results)

Variables	**Model 1**	**Model 2**
Dependent Variable	**Attendance Rate**	**GPA**
Independent Variables		
Romantic Relationship (Engaged in a RR)	1.383*** (0.092)	0.801**(0.332)
Length of the RR (More than a year)	1.003**(0.001)	0.212**(0.09)
Extracurricular Activities (Participation)	0.261(0.091)	0.517(0.066)
Constant	2.015** (0.753)	2.574** (1.97)
Marital status (Married)	0.059*(0.027)	0.123 (0.03)
Sex (Male)	0.185**(0.049)	0.979 **(0.422)
Region: Eastern	0.804(0.33)	0.156 (0.026)
Western	0.508(0.161)	0.219(0.038)
Northern	0.002(0.001)	0.185(0.048)
Number of Observations	65	65
Pseudo R2	0.0453	
Prob > chi2	0.0781	
LR chi2	42.46	

The coefficients before the brackets are the Odds Ratio (O.R). OR >1 means that the event (success) is more likely to occur in the first group. ***Significant at 1%, ** Significant at 5%*Significant at 10%. This analysis tested the effects of romantic relationships on academic outcomes to show that being in a romantic relationship while at the University is significantly associated with class attendance and GPA. From model 1, The intercept / constant is the expected mean value of academic performance when all independent variables are zero. The results indicate that, other factors constant, students engaged in a RR are more likely to attend at least 70 percent of the classes. However, much as they attend, they are less likely to have an increase in GPA. This is in line with the findings of Crede´ *et al.*, 2010 in their study about class attendance in college a meta-analytic review of the relationship of class attendance with grades and student characteristics. Students engaged in a RR for more than a year were more likely to have at least 70% class attendance compared to their counterparts. Also, those engage for more than a year are less likely to have an increase in GPA. Participation in Extracurricular activities has no significant effect on academic performance, both in terms of class attendance and GPA, just like the students' region of origin. We found out that being married is less likely to result into class attendance of at least 70%. However, the variable was found insignificant in explain student performance in terms of GPA.The likelihood ratio (LR) chi-square of 42.46 with a p-value of 0.0001 tells us that our model fits significantly.

Conclusions

To conclude this study, we were able to identify that the Undergraduate university students involved in a relationship tend to view them differently. It was found out that having a romantic relationship is associated with increase in class attendance and a decrease in GPA. Those engaged in the relationship for more than year were attending more than their counterparts who are less than one year in the relationship. However, despite the attendance, we found out that their GPA kept decreasing.

Recommendations

Based on the findings, the study recommends:

(i) Students engaged in RR must be counselled on how to read hard so that their GPA can increase or at least be maintained. This could be done by forming discussion, class presentation, continuous assessment among others.

(ii) Male students should be motivated to attend more of the classes say through awarding the student with the highest attendance at least 70% as the university policy states.

(iii) Devoting greater empirical, educational, and community efforts to romantic development in the stages leading up to adulthood should be considered as necessary actions in promoting the well-being of university students.

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CATEGORY THREE: SCIENCE/ENGINEERING/ICT
(Science, Engineering, ICT, Medical Sciences)

Effect of Weed Phytosociological Characteristics on Control Practices in Upland Rice Production Under Sudan Savanna of Nigeria

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Abstract
Weed infestations usually consist of several species present at various densities and frequencies and emerge at different times to compete with the crop for essential farm resources. The experiments were conducted in 2016 and 2017 raining seasons at Bayero University Kano in the Sudan savanna agro-ecological zone of Nigeria to evaluate the effect of weed phytosociological characters on their control methods in upland rice. The experiment consisted of twenty weed control strategies by the use of Butachlor at two levels i.e 1.0 and 1.5 kg a.i. ha^{-1} (pre-emergence), Orizo-plus (2,4-D+Propanil) at two levels i.e. 2.8 and 4.5 kg a.i. ha $^{-1}$, Rainbow-SD (Penoxsulam) at two levels i.e 0.025 and 0.030 kg a.i. ha^{-1} and Solito 320 EC (Pretilachlor +Pyribenzoxim) also at two levels i.e 0.320 and 0.480 kg a.i. ha^{-1} (post-emergence). All the post-emergence herbicides were applied in various combinations with Butachlor and in some cases followed by supplementary hoe weeding (SHW) at 4, 8 and 4 & 8 weeks after sowing (WAS). Weed free and weedy plots were employed to serve as control. The experiments were laid out in a randomized complete block design and replicated four times. The result indicated that use of Butachlor at 1.5 kg a.i. ha^{-1}fb Orizo plus at 4.5 kg a.i. ha^{-1} to produce significantly lower weed cover score and dry weight, as well as higher weed control efficiency and paddy yield. It also revealed that in area with high relative density and frequency of grassy weed like Rottboelia cochinchinensis, Digitaria horizontalis, Cynodon dactylon, and sedges such as Cyprus rotundus, Fimbriyalis ferruginea, Kyalingya squamulata to resist normal doses of herbicides unless followed by supplementary hoe weeding at later stages of the crop growth.

Keywords: Herbicides, Phytosociological, Rice, Weed.

Introduction

Weeds are a serious constraint to rice production which resulted from continuous rice cropping and this allows weeds to emerge in successive flushes. Identification of weeds is the basic step for planning sound weed management programme. Depending upon the weed species, different weed management options are given keeping in view their susceptibility when growing in a crop (Walia, 2006). Cultural and/or chemical methods are generally employed to control weeds. Manual weeding though effective is getting increasingly difficult due to labor scarcity, rising wages and its dependence on weather conditions. Thus, herbicides usage seems indispensable for weed management in direct seeded rice (Azmi *et al.*, 2005). Weed management in direct seeded systems is more critical than transplanted systems as weeds in direct seeded system can emerge at the same time or before the rice plants, resulting in a serious problem of competition (Johnson *et al*., 2004). Weed species resistant to herbicides have been reported in countries with high adoption rates and this might be as a result of the use of the same herbicides for long time.

Nigeria has the potential to be self-sufficient in rice production, both for food and industrial raw material needs and for export. However, a number of constraints have been identified as limiting to rice production efforts by farmers. Ukungwu and Abo (2004) reported that weed is the greatest bottleneck to increased yields and quality of rice in Nigeria, particularly in the upland ecology and rank only second to drought stress. Accurate estimates of weed population's abundance and distribution variables are very important if we are to manage agricultural land for higher productivity.

Weed phytosociological characteristics entails the study of weed distribution, description, classification and overall information of all the weed species in a community of plant population and compare them in a crop-weed ecosystem (Zimdhl, 2007; Das, 2011). Although weed-crop competition reduces the yield and other yield component of rice but mere presence of weed without considering their density and threshold effect on crop will not be economical to start the process of controlling it. Many issues related weed control in direct seeded rice (DSR) still remain unaddressed and a lot of work remains to be done to develop technologies which are site-specific, effective and economically viable. The objectives of this study were to determine the effect of weed phytosociological characteristics on rice yield and the effectiveness of various weed control methods used to overcome their infestation.

Experimental Sites

The experiments were conducted in 2016 and 2017 raining seasons at Bayero University Kano (BUK) Teaching and Research Farm (11^0 39'N;08"02E) in Kano State within the Sudan savanna agro-ecological zone of Nigeria. The total amount of rainfall received in the area was 863 mm and 820 mm for 2016 and 2017 respectively. The minimum and maximum temperatures were 24.1^0C and 32.6^0C for 2016, and 23.8^0C and 33.4^0C for 2017 respectively. The soil was sandy loam and the soil pH was neutral. Total nitrogen content was generally low; very low organic carbon and high available P. It also indicated moderate potassium and calcium content and low cation exchange capacity (CEC).

Treatments and Experimental Design

This consisted of twenty weed control strategies by the use of Butachlor at two levels (1 and 1.5 kg a.i. ha^{-1}), 2,4-D + Propanil mixture (Orizo-plus) at two levels 2.8 kg a.i. ha^{-1} (1.0 2,4-D +1.8 Propanil) and 4.5 kg a.i. ha^{-1} (1.6 2,4-D + 2.88 Propanil), Penoxsulam (Rainbow-SD) at two levels (0.025g and 0.030g a.i. ha^{-1}) and Pretilachlor + Pyribenzoxim mixture (Solito 320 EC) also at two levels 0.320 g a.i. ha^{-1} and 0.480 g a.i. ha^{-1} they were all applied in various combinations with Butachlor as pre-emergence and in some cases followed by supplementary hoe weeding (SHW). Weed free and weedy plots were employed to serve as control among the treatments. The experiment was laid out using randomized complete block design and replicated four times. The gross size of the plot was 3x3m while the net plot is 2.4x2.4m. However, a discard of 1m and 50cm was provided between the blocks and individual plots respectively.

Rice Variety Used

The rice variety used for the trial is NERICA 8 (FARO 59). It is a hybrid between *Oryza sativ*a and O*ryza glabberima* developed by WARDA in 1994. The variety is an upland type, medium height, it has 50% days to heading of 55 - 60 days, it matures in 80 -90 days, it has long grain and potential yield of 5 t ha^{-1}. It is resistant to leaf blast disease and lodging. (Gridley *et al.*, 2002) The seed was supplied by Greenspore Agric. Nigeria Ltd.

Data Collection

Weed Species Composition

Weeds were harvested from the $1m^2$ quadrant placed randomly once in each of the treatment plots at harvest. The harvested weed samples were identified, classified by species with the help of hand book of West African Weeds by Akobundu and Agyakwa (1998). The weeds were counted to get the number of individual species which was used to compute the weed abundance, frequency, density, relative abundance, relative frequency, relative density and importance value index as described by Das (2011).

Weed Dry Weight (g)

This was done by harvesting all the weeds that were within the $1m^2$ quadrant that was placed at random in each of the plots, the weeds were oven dried to a constant temperature of $70\ ^0$C.

Weed Control Efficiency (WCE) (%)

This was done by using $1m^2$ quadrant that was placed in each of the treatments plot at random and the weeds within the quadrant were harvested and oven dried to get the WCE by the use of the formulae:

$$WCE = \frac{\text{weed dry weight in weedy check - weed dry weight of treatment in question}}{\text{weed dry weight in weedy check}} \times 100$$

Relative Density (RD) %

It measures the numerical strength of a species of a plant in an area in relation to total number of individuals of all species in a community.

$$\text{Relative density (RD)} = \frac{\text{Density of a specie}}{\text{Density of species}} \times 100$$

Relative Frequency (RF) %

It measures the degree of uniformity of occurrence or dispersion of a species of plant in an area in relation to total occurrence of individuals of all species.

$$\text{Relative frequency} = \frac{\text{Frequency of specie}}{\text{Frequency of all species}} \times 100$$

Relative Abundance (RA) %

This measures the dominance of a species of a plant in an area in relation to total dominance of individuals of all species in a community.

$$\text{Relative Abundance (RA)} = \frac{\text{Abundance of specie}}{\text{Abundance of species}} \times 100$$

Importance Value Index (IVI)

Describes which species are the most important within the study area.

IVI = Relative density (RD) + Relative frequency (RF) +Relative abundance (RA)

Paddy Yield (kg ha^{-1})

The paddy yield was measured after threshing the sun-dried plants harvested from each net plot and the yield was adjusted at 10 % seed moisture content.

Data Analysis

Data generated were subjected to analysis of variance as described by Snedecor and Cochran (1967) using the general linear model in SAS (SAS, 1987). Where significant, the treatments means were separated by using Student-Newman-Keuls test (SNK).

Results

Weed Species and Phytosociological Characteristics

The weed species composition and Phytosociological Characteristics during 2016 and 2017 rainy seasons is presented in Table 1. There was a total of thirteen (13) weed species identified in 2016 with grass family being six (6), broad leaved five (5) and sedges were two (2). *Rottboelia cochinchinensis* had the highest number of relative density and frequency and importance value index (IVI). However, *Fimbryistylis furreginea* had the highest relative abundance while the lowest relative density and importance value index was recorded by *Cyperus esculantus* but *Commelina benghalensis* had the least relative abundance. In 2017 however, a total of sixteen (16) weed species were identified. Weeds from grass family are seven (7), and broad leaves weeds were five (5) while sedges are four (4). *Rottboelia cochinchinensis* had the highest number relative frequency, relative density and importance value index.

Weed Dry Weight (g)

Effect of weed control strategies on weed dry weight in 2016 and 2017 rainy seasons is presented in Table 2. The result on weed dry weight (WDW) was significantly different ($P < 0.05$) at both growing seasons. Weedy check produced the heaviest WDW while the least WDW was recorded by the application of Butachlor at1.0 kg a.i.ha^{-1} fb SHW at 8 WAS in 2016 and by hoe weeded control (HWC) in 2017 wet season.

Weed Control Efficiency (%)

Effect of weed control strategies on weed control efficiency (WCE) for 2016 and 2017 rainy seasons is presented in Table 2. WCE was significantly affected by the methods of weed control in both growing seasons. Application of Butachlor at 1.5 kg a.i.ha^{-1} fb SHW at 4 & 8 WAS produced the highest weed control efficiency but was at par with application of Butachlor at 1.5 kg a.i.ha^{-1} fb SHW at 4 WAS, at 4 & 8 WAS, HWC at 2,4,6 & 8 WAS and Butachlor at1.5 kg a.i.ha^{-1} fb Orizo plus at 4.5 kg a.i.ha^{-1} in 2016 rainy season. In 2017, however, the highest WCE was produced by HWC at 2, 4, 6 & 8 WAS but at par with considerable number of treatments.

Paddy Yield (kg ha^{-1})

Effect of weed control methods on paddy yield of upland rice in 2016 and 2017 wet seasons is presented in Table 3. Paddy yield was significantly affected ($P < 0.05$) by weed control strategies at both growing seasons. Application of Butachlor at 1.5 kg a.i.ha^{-1} fb Orizo at 4.5 kg a.i.ha^{-1} produced the statistically highest paddy yield in both 2016 and 2017 rainy seasons. The second higher position was occupied by all the treatments except the application of Butachlor at 1.5ha^{-1} fb Rainbow at 0.025 kg a.i.ha^{-1}, Butachlor at 1.5 kg a.i. ha^{-1} fb Rainbow at 0.030 kg a.i.ha^{-1}, Butachlor at 1.0 kg a.i. ha^{-1} fb Solito at 0.480 kg a.i.ha^{-1}, Butachlor at 1.5 kg a.i. ha^{-1} fb Solito at 0.320 kg a.i.ha^{-1} and Butachlor at 1.5 kg a.i. ha^{-1} fb Solito at

0.480 g a.i.ha^{-1} in 2016. However, in 2017 it was at par with the application of Butachlor at 1.5 kg a.i. ha^{-1} fb Solito at 0.320 kg a.i.ha^{-1}, Butachlor at 1.5 kg a.i.ha^{-1} fb Solito at 0.480 kg a.i.ha^{-1}, Butachlor at 1.0 kg a.i.ha^{-1} fb SHW at 4 WAS, Butachlor at 1.0 kg a.i.ha^{-1} fb SHW at 8 WAS, Butachlor at 1.5 kg a.i.ha^{-1} fb SHW at 8 WAS and the weed free control (HWC at 2, 4, 6, & 8 WAS). The weedy check had the least paddy yield in both seasons.

Discussion

Weeds are usually best adapted to survive in a crop with a similar life cycle, germination time, or growth habit. The most effective control methods are often based on the life cycle of a weed. Weed characteristics that allow them to grow and be competitive with desirable plant species include the ability to germinate and grow in different environments, rapid seedling growt, ease of pollination, ability to reproduce vegetatively and tolerate adverse environmental conditions. In a report by Akobundu (1987) and Zimdhl (2007) they asserted that, most grasses and sedges were adopted to overcrowding and can survive in a densely populated area. The weed flora of the experimental site was similar during both seasons and comprised *Rottboelia cochinchinensis, Digitaria horizontalis, Cynodon dactylon, Cyprus rotundus, Ipomae asarifolia, Eluecine indica, Fimbriyalis ferruginea, Kyalingya squamulata* etc. All the weed control treatments significantly reduced the weed population over the weedy check. Maximum reduction in total weed density, frequency and total weed dry weight was recorded by the application of Butachlor at 1.5 kg a.i.ha^{-1} fb Orizo plus at 4.5 kg a.i.ha^{-1} and hoe weeded control. This is however, more visible in less or moderately dense area of the experimental site. High weed density and frequency retard crop growth, encourages disease problems, serve as alternate host for deleterious insects and diseases, slow down harvesting operation, increase the cost of production and reduce the market value of crops (Akobundu, 1987). *Rottboelia cochinchinensis* which is prevalent weed at the experimental site is an aggressive weed that is difficult to control due to its characteristic features like waxy and pubescent leaf surface, rapid growth, mimicry habit and very strong root system that enable it to withstand difficult environmental conditions. Similar result was recorded by Yahaya (1993) and Ishaya & Mahadi (2004) who both reported greater reduction in weed dry weight due to herbicides application in rice field. It could also be observed that weedy control plots recorded higher weed cover score and weed dry weight and this also corroborated with the work of Ibrahim (2001) and Ishaya (2004) who also registered higher weed dry weight in weedy plots compared to herbicides control treatments and manual hoe weeding.

It could be observed that application of Butachlor at 1.5 kg a.i.ha^{-1} fb Orizo plus at 4.5 kg a.i.ha^{-1} recorded higher paddy yield and its components in both growing seasons. This increase in paddy yield could be attributed to better crop growth by the absence of weed-crop competition for any of the growth factor. The weed free environment thus created helped the rice crop to put forth better growth without any competition for nutrients and in turn resulted in higher paddy yields. Sultana (2000) observed that weed infestation of 100 to 200 weeds per meter square reduced paddy yield by 51 to 64% compared with weed-free conditions. Mahajan *et al.* (2009) concluded that herbicides are the most effective means of securing rice yields against weeds. In another report Yawale *et al. (*2015*)* confirmed the Application of Butachlor at the rate of 2.25 kg a.i. ha $^{-1}$ followed by Propanil - 2, 4 - D mixture at the rate of 2.52 and 1.44 kg a.i. ha^{-1} respectively, produced higher number of tillers per plant, grain bearing panicles and grain yield per hectare.

Table 1: Weed Species and Phytosociological Characteristics during 2016 and 2017 Rainy Seasons

Weed Species	2016				2017			
	RA %	RD %	RF %	IVI	RA %	RD %	RF %	IVI
Grasses								
Roattbolia cochinchinenesis	8.4	51.7	42.3	102.4	35.5	8.6	21.2	65.3
Imperata cylindrical	-	-	-	-	1.2	2.2	3.0	6.4
Panicum maximum	10.7	2.2	1.4	14.3	3.1	8.1	2.0	13.2
Digitaria hOrizontalis	8.8	1.7	1.4	11.9	5.7	9.7	3.0	18.4
Cynodon dactylon	5.0	4.6	6.3	15.9	7.6	4.9	8.1	20.6
Eluecine indica	6.8	1.4	1.4	9.6	4.5	11.4	2.0	17.9
Commelina benghalensis	3.2	2.5	5.6	11.3	3.8	9.7	2.0	15.5
Broad leaves								
Ipomea asarifolia	4.5	12.4	1.4	11.9	19.9	7.9	13.1	40.9
Seena occidentalis	8.8	1.7	2.8	17.1	3.8	3.9	5.0	12.7
Amaranthus spinosus	10.2	4.1	18.6	35.5	4.5	5.7	4.0	14.2
Acathusparnum hispidum	-	-	-	-	-		-	
Tridex procumbens	4.9	8.5	11.8	25.2	20.2	7.4	14.1	41.7
Phylathus amarus	6.7	3.8	4.2	12.9	7.6	4.3	9.1	21.0
					-	-	-	-
Sedges								
Leersia hexandra	-	-			1.9	4.9	2.0	8.8
Cyperus esculantus	7.8	0.8	0.7	9.3	3.5	6.0	7.3	16.8
Kylingya squamulata	-	-	-	-	4.1	10.5	3.0	17.6
Fimbristylis ferruginea	14.9	4.6	2.1	21.6	2.7	4.6	3.0	10.3

RA – relative abundance, RD – relative density, RF – relative frequency, IVI – importance value index

Table 2: Weed Dry Weight and Weed Control Efficiency of Upland Rice as Affected by Weed Control Strategies in 2016 and 2017 Rainy Seasons

Treatments	Rate (kg a.i.ha^{-1})	WDW (g)		WCE (%)	
		2016	2017	2016	2017
Buta fb Orizo	1 fb 2.8	168.0b-f	133.0b-e	44.2efg	42.6c-f
Buta fb Orizo	1 fb 4.5	138.3c-h	151.8bcd	50.0b-g	37.7def
Buta fb Orizo	1.5 fb 2.8	109e-h	92.5def	66.2a-e	64.1abc
Buta fb Orizo	1.5 fb 4.5	93.5f-i	72.0ef	69.2a-e	70.3ab
Buta fb Rbow	1 fb 0.025	130.5e-i	108.8def	69.2a-e	54.8-d
Buta fb Rbow	1 fb 0.030	222b	186.5bc	29.5g	23.8efg
Buta fb Rbow	1.5 fb 0.025	191b-e	86.4def	34.3fg	66.0abc
Buta fb Rbow	1.5 fb 0.030	210.8bcd	119.3def	46.8c-g	51.1a-d
Buta fb Solito	1 fb 0.320	154.3b-h	18.0b	46.8c-g	23.3efg
Buta fb Solito	1 fb 0.480	161.9b-g	196.0b	44.9d-g	18.8fg
Buta fb Solito	1.5 fb 0.320	218.5bc	107.8def	26.3g	53.9a-d
Buta fb Solito	1.5 fb 0.480	125.3e-i	136.0b-e	56.6a-f	44.1cde
Buta fb SHW @ 4 WAS	1	75.3hi	89.3def	73.7abc	62.4a-d
Buta fb SHW @ 8 WAS	1	61.3i	139.0b-e	79.5a	40.5c-f
Buta fb SHW @ 4 WAS	1.5	80.3igh	97.5def	71.8a-g	61.3a-d
Buta fb SHW @ 8 WAS	1.5	61.5i	117.8def	79.6a	51.9a-d
Buta fb SHW @ 4 & 8 WAS	1	79.0igh	121.3c-f	74.1ab	45.6b-e
Buta fb SHW @ 4 & 8 WAS	1.5	66.5i	134.3b-e	77.5ab	45.3b-e
MHW @ 2, 4, 6 & 8 WAS	_	92.3igh	59.8f	69.7a-e	74.1a
Weedy check	_	305a	262.3a	_	_
SE ±		50.9	40.1	16.3	15.4

Means with the same letter in the same column are not significantly different $P < 0.05$ using SNK, WAS – Week after sowing, WDW – weed dry weight, WCE – weed control efficiency, SHW – supplementary hoe weeding, HWC – hoe weeded control, Buta - butachlor

Table 3: Paddy Yield of Upland Rice as Affected by Weed Control Strategies in 2016 and 2017 Rainy Seasons

Treatments	Rate (kg a.i.ha^{-1})	Paddy yield (kg ha^{-1}) 2016		2017					
Buta fb Orizo	1 fb 2.8	1419b-f		1428bc					
Buta fb Orizo	1 fb 4.5	1507b-f		1304bc					
Buta fb Orizo	1.5 fb 2.8	1783b		1722bc					
Buta fb Orizo	1.5 fb 4.5	2111a		2001a					
Buta fb Rbow	1 fb 0.0 25	1456b-f		1474bc					
Buta fb Rbow	1 fb 0.030	1558b-f		1514bc					
Buta fb Rbow	1.5 fb 0.025	1347c-f		1435bc					
Buta fb Rbow	1.5 fb 0.030	1257ef		1533bc					
Buta fb Solito	1 fb 0.320	1457b-f		1533bc					
Buta fb Solito	1 fb 0.480	1302def		1384bc					
Buta fb Solito	1.5 fb 0.320	1372c-f		1688abc					
Buta fb Solito	1.5 fb 0.480	1294ef		1697abc					
Buta fb SHW @ 4 WAS	1	1497b-f		1690abc					
Buta fb SHW @ 8 WAS	1	1726bc		1715abc					
Buta fb SHW @ 4 WAS	1.5	1723bc		1470bc					
Buta fb SHW @ 8 WAS	1.5	1642b-e		1577abc					
Buta fb SHW @ 4 & 8 WAS	1	1711bc		1455bc					
Buta fb SHW @ 4 & 8 WAS	1.5	1535b-f		1400bc					
HWC @ 2, 4, 6 & 8 WAS	_	1691bcd		1581abc					
Weedy check	_	1190f		1238c					
SE ±		230		273					

Means with the same letter in the same column are not significantly different P < 0.05 using SNK,
WAS – Week after sowing, SHW – supplementary hoe weeding, HWC – hoe weeded control, Buta - Butachlor

Conclusions

Base on the findings of this research work on upland rice production in the Sudan Savanna tropics, farmers shall apply both pre and post emergence herbicides especially Butachlor at1.5 kg a.i.ha^{-1} fb Orizo plus 4.5 kg a.i.ha^{-1} for better weed management or the use of pre-emergence Butachlor at 1.5 kg a.i.ha^{-1} fb supplementary hoe weeding at 4 & 8 WAS in places with high density and frequency of stubborn grasses and sedges.

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Design and Simulation of a Secured Routing Protocol for Mobile Ad-Hoc Network

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Abstract
Mobile Ad-hoc Networks (MANET) consist of mobile nodes capable of performing self-configuration, communicate wirelessly with no centralized control and require routing protocols for its operation. However, the existing routing protocols used in MANETs are not secured and faced many security challenges which degrade the performance of the network. Therefore, there is need to build security feature in the existing routing protocol to enhance its performance in the face of emerging threats. In this paper, a proposed model was formulated to provide secure routing in MANET. The model used Public key cryptography also known as RSA with MD5 for authentication and observation-based cooperation enforcement and graph theory-based trust and reputation techniques, built on AODV routing protocol to enhance its security. The simulation of the model was carried out in NS2.35. Performance evaluation of the proposed model AODVRM was carried out by comparing its performance with an existing protocol, AODV using metrics like throughput, End-to-End delay and Packet delivery ratio. Simulation result showed that the proposed AODVRM recorded throughput of 291,502,502,461,506 kilo bytes per seconds (kbps), packet delivery ratio of 94%, 95%, 95%, 86%, 83% and an end-to-end delay of 132, 235, 272, 272, 258 seconds. While AODV recorded throughput of 280, 319, 227, 223, 74 kilo bytes per seconds (kbps). packet delivery ratio of 94%, 93%, 90%, 82%, 65% and an end-to-end delay of 186, 369, 341, 292, 278 seconds. In conclusion, the proposed model AODVRM is more efficient and performs better in the presence of attacks than the conventional AODV in terms of performance metrics used.

Keywords: MANET, Route, AODV, Algorithm, Performance, Simulation.

Introduction

Mobile ad hoc networks (MANETs) is an autonomous collection of mobile users without fixed infrastructure (Alem and Xuan, 2010; Adwan and Mahmoud, 2018] Sanzgiri *et al.*, 2002). Mobile ad-hoc networks (MANETs) are independent and non-centralized wireless connection of nodes. MANETs involve mobile nodes which are free in moving in and out in the network. Nodes are the devices like cell phone, laptop computer, individual electronic devices, MP3 player, and PC that form the mobile network. The nodes can function like a host, router or both at the similar time. They can form different topologies based on their connection with each other in the network. The nodes in MANET have self-configuration capability so they can be implemented quickly without the need for any infrastructure (Lu *et al*., 2009). However, wireless network like MANET is quite insecure due to the fact that wireless communication channels are unguided. Specifically, they are prone to eavesdropping and vulnerable to jamming, identity-based attacks, address spoofing, and Sybil attacks (Adwan and Mahmoud, 2018; Marepalli and Nagabhushana, 2008). Additionally, node mobility and resource constrain on mobile devices create significant challenges in detecting such attacks that have detrimental impact on network operations. Therefore, securing MANET is crucial to reliable operation and wide spread deployment of cyber–physical systems. There are existing routing protocols that determine how nodes in MANET communicate with each other and how to select routes between any two nodes on the network. Some of these protocols include: AODV, OLSR, DSR, etc. (Lu *et al*., 2009).

AODV is one of the well-known On-Demand Routing techniques (Patel and Jhaveri, 2016; Gupta *et al*., 2010). AODV protocol is prone and unprotected against so many attacks, namely; black hole, wormhole, jellyfish, gray hole, flooding and impersonation attacks. However, there have been research efforts to mitigate these attacks in MANET through enhancement of routing protocols. Some of the methods used in the course of research efforts to secure routing protocol include: RSA algorithm, RSA Digital Signature, CA distribution, Trust based threshold revocation method and identity (ID) based method (Gagan and Pallavi, 2013; Spinder and Harpreet, 2015; Banoth and Narsimha, 2016; Karamjeet and Chakshu, 2014; Marepalli and Nagabhushana, 2019; Waleed and Uttam, 2014). Unfortunately, the results and products from previously conducted research have not addressed the security challenges of the existing AODV completely as emerging threats are discovered in MANET on daily basis. Therefore, there is need to further enhance AODV in terms of security of information transmitted and determining

reputed routes for data transmission to avoid likely data interception in the network. This was achieved through the formulation of a secured protocol, AODVRM using techniques like MD5, RSA to secure information transmitted in the network, and the use graph-based trust model for determining reputation of route for data transmission in the network. The rest of the paper is organized as follows: review of related literature is presented in section 2. Section 3 presented the research methodology, description of the proposed model and algorithms. Section 4 presented simulation results and discussion, while conclusion is in section 5.

Literature Reviews

There are quite a good number of works regarding the state- of- the- art, secured routing protocol in MANET. Gagan and Pallavi (2013) proposed data transmission by using RSA algorithm for authentication purpose and a blacklist to prevent sending data packets to those nodes that are malicious. The proposed algorithm was more secured as compared to normal AODV routing algorithm. The performance was also analysed on different performance metrics using the NS2 simulator. The challenge with this proposed method is that it can only detect byzantine attack. In the same manner Spinder and Harpreet (2015) implemented RSA Digital Signature on AODV protocol and then compare the performance with RSA algorithm that is implemented on AODV protocol. The result showed that the energy consumed by RSA Cryptosystem is less as compared to RSA digital signature. This means that there is a need to reduce the complexity of the algorithm and save the energy of mobile nodes. Similarly, Mohammed and Sofiane (2017) proposed an enhanced approach based on first-hand reputation to detect misbehaved node in MANET. The approach comprises of three-phase which are monitoring, calculating reputation value and node isolation. The reputation value is enhanced by the packet dropped due to other events such as overloading of queue and node availability. The node with a negative reputation will be isolated, and an alert packet will be distributed to neighboring nodes. The simulation results showed that the proposed approach can detect and isolate a malicious node, which improved the packet delivery ratio and throughput but the approach is only limited to detecting misbehavior among nodes in MANET.

Banoth and Narsimha (2016) proposed a CA distribution and a Trust based threshold revocation method. In the work, the authors explained that many trust establishment solutions in MANET rely on public key certificates. Therefore, they should be accompanied by an efficient mechanism for proper certificate revocation and validation. The certificate authorities distribute the secret key to all the nodes. Followed by this, a trust-based threshold revocation method was computed which allows the misbehaving nodes to be eliminated. The performance analysis showed that this method can only eliminate misbehaving node. Waleed and Uttam (2014) presented an identity (ID) based protocol that secures AODV and TCP so that it can be used in dynamic and attack prone environments of mobile ad hoc networks. The proposed protocol protects AODV using Sequential Aggregate Signatures (SAS) based on RSA. It also generates a session key for each pair of source-destination nodes of a MANET for securing the end-to-end transmitted data. Here each node has an ID which is evaluated from its public key and the messages that are sent are authenticated with a signature/MAC. The proposed scheme does not allow a node to change its ID throughout the network lifetime. Thus, it makes the network secure against attacks that target AODV and TCP in MANET. When the performance analysis is taken, it showed that the proposed protocol is secured against attacks that are associated with AODV and TCP in MANET.

Masroor *et al.* (2018) proposed a framework that detected the selective forwarding attacks and computed the harmful host residing in an ad-hoc structure. The solution was further split into two phases: initial phase is the detection of selective forwarding attacks and the second phase performed the identification of malicious nodes. Performance of the proposed model was evaluated based on the network throughput, which was for the enhancement of security. Simulation of the proposed model was performed using Net Logo and the results showed an improvement of 20% in throughput of the network.

Sunilkumar *et al.* (2010) proposed a scheme called 2ACK which detected and mitigate routing behaviors. The scheme was based on simple 2-hop acknowledgment packet that is sent back by the receiver of the next-hop link. The 2ACK transmission takes place for only a fraction of data packets, but not for all. The researcher embedded some security aspects with 2ACK to check confidentiality of the message by verifying the original hash code with the hash code generated at the destination. If 2ACK is not received

within the wait time or the hash code of the message is changed then the node to next hop link of sender is declared as the misbehaving link. After the simulation was done, the result showed that the misbehavior in MANET was mitigated but the problem was that the 2ACK scheme only worked for detecting misbehavior.

Patel and Jhaveri (2016) proposed a method that combined the route discovery phase and the data transmission phase to detect malicious node. In route discovery phase, if the sequence number of destinations exceeds a threshold value then the RREP will be rejected. Then during the data transmission phase, the node calculates the difference between transmitted and received packets. If this difference exceeds a threshold value, then the node is malicious. The identities of malicious node are distributed to neighboring node and a blacklist is maintained.

Lu *et al.* (2009) proposed a protocol called SAODV after working with AODV and discovering that it is not secure enough. The researcher explained that the secured AODV prevent any security threat in which a node receives data and then drop it instead of forwarding it. The SAODV uses the hash chain algorithm to better secure AODV and then calls it SAODV. Performance analyses performed on SAODV showed that the rate at which packets were dropped by nodes on the network was low compared to AODV. The author did not consider packet delivery ratio and throughput as performance metrics.

Adwan and Mahmoud (2018) proposed a lightweight technique that uses timers and baiting in order to detect and isolate single and cooperative black-hole attacks in MANET. This technique was implemented on AODV routing protocol. The implementation of the proposed technique is performed by using NS-2.35 simulation tools. Simulation results of the proposed technique in terms of Throughput, End-to-End Delay, and Packet Delivery Ratio are very close to the native AODV without black holes. The proposed technique is only limited to detecting and isolating of single and cooperative black-hole attack.

Marepalli and Nagabhushana (2008) proposed a technique called (SDPEGH) which is used to secure, detect, prevent and eliminate Gray Hole. The authors explained that MANET are exposed to various security assaults especially gray hole, and in gray hole attack, selective dropping of packets arises, and the packet is unable to transmit further. Therefore, the Secure Detection Prevention and Elimination Gray Hole (SDPEGH) technique is considered the best method to solve the problem. In this study, DSDV routing protocol was considered and the recommended technique is implemented in NS-2 software. Performance evaluation of the proposed technique in terms of Throughput, End-to-End Delay, and Packet Delivery Ratio were analyzed and the result showed that the Secure Detection Prevention and Elimination Gray Hole (SDPEGH) technique worked effectively. The problem with the proposed technique is its limitation to gray hole.

The above reviewed literatures have contributed in no small measure to secure routing protocol in MANET. However, none of the contribution has achieved 100% efficiency as there are still compromises as a result of emergent threats. Therefore, there is a need to do more, by extending frontier of knowledge in this area of research and develop an improved security model for routing in MANET.

Methodology

The proposed system was modelled using RSA, MD5, observation-based cooperation enforcement and graph theory-based trust and reputation techniques, built on AODV routing protocol. RSA generates a private key and a public key for each node in the network. The keys are assigned to each node from source to destination. The RSA made the proposed model to output the private key and its corresponding public key as used in (Spinder and Harpreet, 2015). The MD5 message-digest algorithm is a widely used cryptographic hash function producing a 128-bit (16-byte) hash value, typically expressed in text format as a 32-digit hexadecimal number. MD5 accepts a message of any size as input, and produces as output, a fixed-length message digest also known as signature (Fashoto *et al.*, 2010).

The Proposed Protocol Description

The proposed protocol model formulation assumed that nodes in MANET can be made to cooperate, thereby efficiently, reliably and securely route packets in the network. The proposed model has five phases described as follows:

Route Request Phase:

The source node broadcast route request message (RREQ) to its neighbor in order to find a route to the destination node. Each neighbor of the source node forwards the RREQ to their neighbor and so on until the destination node is reached. The destination node in turn send a route reply message (RREP) for each RREQ packet it received as shown in Figures 1 and 2.Each intermediate node receiving the RREQ update its routing table for the next-hop RREP and then send the PREP in the reverse-part using the store previous-hop node information. This process is repeated until the PREP reaches the source node.

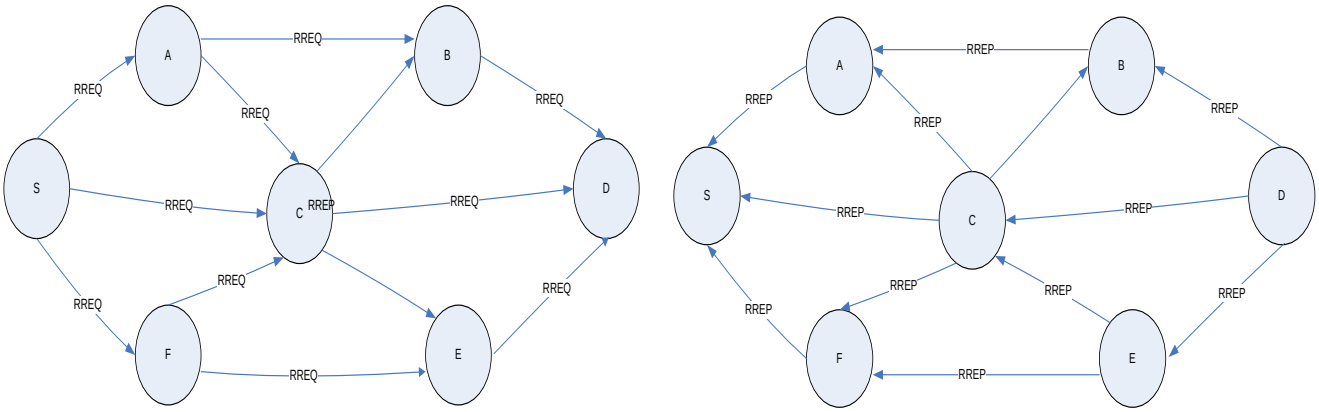


Figure 1: Route Request and Reply Phase

The Route Monitoring Phase:

Each node forwards a packet through the high reputed path. Route monitoring occurs based on the method designed for nodes in the MANET to forward their packets. The Source node creates an input message (M) and computes its message digest (sMD) using MD5 message digest algorithm as used in (citation). The source node also uses its private key in RSA to further encrypt message digest to get (esMD). The encrypted message digest (esMD) is attached to the input message (M) and the whole message (M, esMD) is sent to Destination. The destination gets the message (M, esMD) and extracts the encrypted message digest (esMD). It then computes its own message digest (dMD) of the received message (M). It also decodes received message digest (esMD) with source's public key provided by RSA and gets decoded message digest (desMD). The destination node then compares both message digest (dMD==desMD). Intermediate nodes between source and destination also perform this check. When both message digests matched, i.e. dMD and desMD, it means the message was not modified during the data transmission. But if both message digests are mismatched, it means the message was modified during the data transmission. With this process, misbehavior among nodes in the MANET is monitored; node which performs modification is identified by the next hop node, tagged it as attacker node and report to the source node to shut down the path and renegotiate a fresh or new route. Route monitoring is actually done by all the nodes in the MANET at any particular point in time as result of route monitoring mechanisms built into them. Figure 2 is an algorithm showing route monitoring phase of the MANET. If the number of dropped packets as a result of a node modification exceeds a threshold, it is considered as a selfish node and a notification is sent to the source node.

Route Monitoring Algorithm
{
Source node create an input message, M
// Source node call MD5 and RSA to compute message digest M and encrypt message digest, sMD respectively
sMD = MD5 (M) // message digest called as function
esMD = RSA (sMD) // function call RSA
// Source node send both esMD and M together to the destination through intermediate nodes
M-esMD = sNodeSendPacket (esMD, M)
// Both Intermediate and Destination nodes receive and decode M-esMD to detect modification of packets and node misbehaviours
(esMD, M) = dNodeReceivePacket (M-esMD)
dMD = MD5(M) // destination computes its own message digest dMD
Destination node uses public key to decodes the received message digest (esMD) from the source to get message digest (desMD)
//Destination node makes comparison
If
{
dMD==desMD
msg = "message was not modified during the data transmission, and no misbehavior"
}
Else
{
Msg = "message was modified during the data transmission, and there is misbehavior"
}
Shut the path, renegotiate a new path
End.
}

Figure 2: Route Monitoring Algorithm

The Data Transfer Phase:

During data transfer phase, the source node sends packets to the destination node choosing the highly reputed next hop node. The next hop node chooses highly-reputed next hop node from the routing table and stores the information in its sent table as the path for their data transfer. This process continues until the data packet reaches the destination node. Once the data packet reaches the destination the destination nodes sends a data acknowledgement (DACK) packet to the source node. The DACK traverses the same route as the data packet, but in the reverse direction.

The Reputation Phase:

In this model, nodes get reputation in two ways: First, during route monitoring, when source node send data packets through intermediate nodes to the destination nodes. The source node applies message digest and also encrypt the message digest to prevent modification by a malicious node. All intermediate nodes that pass the sent message or packet without modification get reward by getting its reputation or trust value incremented. Second, because of sophistication of MANET threats as a result of emergence of new applications, calculating trust must be multilayered. Other threats may not be interested in modification but just want unnecessary disruption of the MANET to degrade its QoS. We therefore, introduce another layer of trust and reputation based on graph theory to determine a secured route during data transfer.

A Graph is an ordered pair , $G = (V, E)$
Comprising, V is a set of *vertices* (also called *nodes* or *points*);
$E \subseteq \{\{x, y\} \mid (x, y,z,w,r,k, p) \in V^2 \wedge x \neq y\}$ a set of *edges* (also called *links* or *lines*), which are unordered pairs of vertices (i.e., an edge is associated with two distinct vertices). Figure 3 is an example of a typical graph.

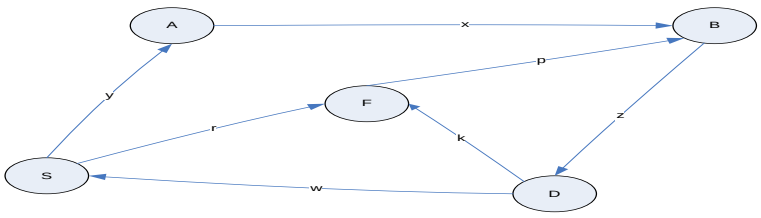


Figure 3: A Typical Graph

A graph can be directed and undirected. In a directed graph, all the edges are directed from one node to another while the edges of undirected graphs have no direction. In a directed graph, each node has in-degree and out degree. The in-degree of a node is the number of edges directed on a node, while the number of edges emanating from a node is the out-degree. This mathematical model was used to model trust and reputation through which secured route were determined in the proposed model. The assumption is that every node could receive and also send packets. The number of edges pointing to a node (in-degree) indicate the number of packets received by the node, while the number of edges originating (out-degree) from the node is the number of packets sent or forwarded by the node. When a source node sends packet to the destination, all intermediate nodes between the source and destination must have in-degree equal to the out-degree. This indicates that the number of packets sent through the intermediate nodes in the network is forwarded to the next-hop node. Any intermediate node that behaves contrary will have it trust value decremented by -1 otherwise incremented by +1.

The Shutdown Phase:

In the shutdown phase, nodes are demoted for misbehavior, selfish act or maliciousness. The proposed model also incorporated monitoring agent (MA). The MA watches and counts the in-degree and out-degree of intermediate nodes between source and destination. If at any point in time there is mismatch between in-degree and out-degree within a set period 5seconds within which the node is expected to forward the pack for the next hop node, the packet is suspected to misbehave, thereby have its trust value reduced by -1. If the set period of 5seconds is exceeded, it is termed malicious. The MA raises alarm and informs the source node for shutdown of the path and renegotiates a new path. Such node will have it trust value reduced by -2. If the trust or the reputation of the next hop node goes below the threshold of (-20), the current node deactivates this node in it routing table and send an error message RERR to upstream nodes in the route. Nodes whose reputation value reached (-40) is temporarily isolated from the MANET for five minute and latter join the network as a new node with a value of (0). The source node will have to reinitiate the route discovery process again. The algorithm for shutdown phase is as presented in figure 4. Figure 5 presents the step by step description of the various phases in the proposed protocol model.

Shutdown Phase Algorithm

```
{
Source node create an input message, M
Intialise in-degree, out-degree and set time counter
Monitoring Agent, MA set to active state
Source nodes send packet
Packets received by intermediate nodes
Calculate both in-degree and out-dergree of intermediate nodes
//Compare in-degree and out-degree
For node ith
Is in-degree ==out-degree
{
Node behaving well
Increment reputation by +2
}
Else
{
Is the set time for normal processing of 5s not exceeded?
{
Target node to be selfish
Decrement reputation by -1 for the node
}
Else
{
Tag node as malicious
Decrement reputation by -2
MA to raise alarm, notify source node to shutdown the current path and initialize a fresh path
}
}
}
```

Figure 4: *Shutdown Phase Algorithm*

```
//Proposed AODVRM Model
Get the source nodeX ready to send information to the Destination node
// Broadcast a route request through intermediate nodes between source and destination
 SendRREQ (nodeX)
{
SET Sqn#_rq =1, Hop_count_rq = 0
 BROADCAST RREQ to Neighbors
}
 ReceiveRREQ (RREQ, nodeX)
{
 IF (nodeX == Destination)
{
UPDATE Route, SendRREP (nodeX, RREQ)
IF (nodeX! = Destination)
{
Broadcast and do necessary update until it reaches the destination node
}
// Return Route reply RREP from Destination node
SendRREP(nodeX, RREQ)
{
SET Sqn#_rp = Seq#_rq, Hop_count_rp = 0
BROADCAST RREP to Neighbors
}
ReceiveRREP (RREP, nodeX)
 {IF (nodeX == Source) UPDATE Route, DATA
 IF (nodeX != Destination) {
Broadcast and do necessary update until it reaches the source node
}
// Source nodeX sending information after establishing route to the destination node
{
Source node inputs message, M
// Source node call MD5 and RSA to compute message digest M and encrypt message digest, sMD respectively
sMD = MD5 (M) // message digest called as function as used in
esMD = RSA (sMD) //   RSA called as function to encrypt message digest sMD
// Source node send both esMD and M together to the destination through intermediate nodes
 M-esMD = sNodeSendPacket (esMD, M)
// Both Intermediate and Destination nodes receive and decode M-esMD to detect modification of packets and node misbehaviours
(esMD, M) = dNodeReceivePacket (M-esMD)
dMD = MD5(M) // destination computes its own message digest dMD by calling MD5 function
Destination node uses public key to decodes the received message digest (esMD) from the source to get message digest (desMD)
//Destination node makes comparison
If
{
dMD==desMD
msg = "message was not modified during the data transmission, and no misbehavior"
}
Else
{
Msg = "message was modified during the data transmission, and there is misbehavior"
}
Shut the path, renegotiate a new path
End.
}
```

Figure 5: Proposed protocol (AODVRM) Algorithm

Performance Evaluation of the Proposed Model

The proposed AODVRM was benchmarked with the existing AODV using metrics as described below:

Network Throughput

In MANET, network throughput is the average rate odf successful message delivery of a communication channel. These data may be delivered over a physical, logical or through a certain network node. It can be expressed as the ratio of the data packet delivery to the destination to those generated by the source in bit per second (bps), kilobyte per second (kbps) or megabyte per second (mbps). A high network throughput is desirable for any protocol. One factor that affects throughput in MANET is mobility. The

higher the mobility, the lower the throughput. This is because a higher mobility leads to frequent topology changes which in turn affect data being sent to different destinations. Mathematically, throughput T is expressed using equation 1 as in (Gupta *et al.*, 2010).

$$T = \frac{1}{c}\sum_{f-1}^{c}\frac{R_f}{N_f} \quad (1)$$

Where, T is the network throughput, C is the total number of connection, f is the unique flow identifier R_f is the count of packet received, N_f is the count of packet transmitted.

End-to Delay

The average delay includes the end-to-end delay and media access delay. The end-to-end delay refers to the time taken for a packet to be transmitted across a network from source to destination, it includes all possible delays caused by buffering during rout discovery latency, queuing at the interface, queue propagation and transfer time. Different applications have different levels of tolerance delays. While an MTP application can tolerate delay up to a certain threshold, voice and video application require low delays to avoid jitters. End-to-end delays, therefore measures the effective reliability of a routing protocol. A strong factor here is a mobility of the nodes. A higher mobility rate leads to increase in delay. The average end-to-end delay D is defined in equation 2 in (Gupta *et al.*, 2010) as:

$$D = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i-1}^{n}(r_i - s_i) \quad (2)$$

Where, D is the end-to-end delay measured in ms, N is the number of successfully received packet, I is the unique packet identifier, r_i is the time at which a packet with unique id i is received, s_i is the time at which a packet with unique ID i is sent. Media access delay is the time from when data reaches the MAC layer until it is successfully transmitted out on the wireless medium. The reason for studying average access delay is that many real-time applications have maximum tolerable delay, after which the data will be useless. Therefore, it is important to provide low delay for real-time flows.

Packet Delivery Ratio

PDR is the ratio of the packet sent from the sender to the packets delivered to the receiver.

Experimental Design and Simulation Environment

Simulation was setup for the proposed secured AODVRM protocol using NS 2.35 on Ubuntu Linux 18.04.2 desktop Operating System environment. The performance of the AODVRM was benchmarked with the existing AODV protocol, simulation of AODV was done in (Gupta *et al.*, 2010). Each node on the proposed AODVRM protocol was configured to run MD5, RSA algorithms to secure data being transmitted. The nodes were also designed to have trust table and MA for handling malicious and selfish node misbehavior. The existing AODV protocol was configured in such a way that all connecting nodes communicate with the server for information. In a nutshell, the AODV was implemented as an office network using the configuration setting as shown in simulation setup setting presented in Table 1. The simulation was run on 20 nodes network for different simulation time scenarios. The mobile nodes and the server were spread randomly within the geographical area. The ad hoc routing protocol was set to AODV and TCP traffic was used to study the effects of the protocol. In the profile configuration, FTP application was deployed for the study and all other settings were left at default. The nodes were WLAN mobile client with a data rate set at 11 mbps and transmitting with 0.005 watts power. Random waypoint mobility model was used because it is a simple and widely accepted mobility model to depict more realistic mobility behavior. The nodes move at a constant speed of 10 m/s. The simulation was run for different chosen time.

The implementation of AODVRM protocol was carried out by modifying the AODV protocol configuration. The fixed WLAN server was modified to FTP server to serve as the destination node for the FTP application. On Each WLAN workstation advanced node model interface, four (4) processes were created: MD5, RSA, the trust table process and MA process. The MD5 produces message digest sMD of message M sent by a source node. Figure 6 is a screenshot of message digest of MD5 during one of the simulation scenarios. The RSA encrypts the message digest for further security of the information sent by the source node. Figure 7 is the snapshot of public key and private key generated for each Node.

The encrypted message digest (esMD) was attached to the input message (M) and the whole message (M-esMD) was sent to Destination. In the course of transmission, the trust table process which was configured to store the trust reputation value was invoked to connect nodes having reputation in the network so as to create a secured route through which message sent could be securely delivered. The MA process configuration enables the current node to monitor the next hop on the network against selfish behavior. When the destination gets the message (M-esMD), it extracted the encrypted message digest (esMD) and computed its own message digest (dMD) of the received message (M). The source also decoded received message digest (esMD) with source's public key and gets decoded message digest (desMD). The destination then compared both message digest (dMD==desMD). At any simulation running scenario, when both message digests matched, it means the message was not modified during the data transmission. However, if both message digests are mismatch, it means the message was modified during the data transmission. The node with such modification will be identified and tagged as malicious node. Figure 8 is a screenshot showing malicious node detection during simulation. Figure 9 is a Snapshot of new secure route established after a malicious node was detected along a route.

Table 1: Parameter Settings for the Proposed protocol Simulation Environment

Simulation Tool	NS2.35
Operating System	Ubuntu Linux 18.04.2 desktop
Interface Queue Length	1500
Channel	Wireless Channel
Simulation Stops	6.0min
No. of Nodes	20
Mac	Mac/802_11
Antenna model	Antenna/Omni Antenna
Interface QueueType	Queue/Drop Tail/PriQueue
Link Layer Type	LL
Energy Model	Energy Model
Radio Model	Radio Model
Initial Energy	1000
Ad-hoc Routing	AODV
Simulation Area	1200M*1200M



Figure 6: Snapshot of Signature of each Node

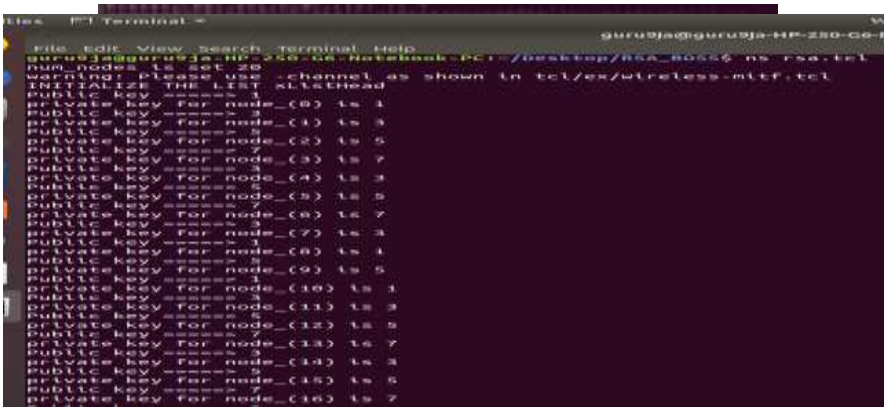


Figure 7: Snapshot of Public key & Private Key generated for each Node

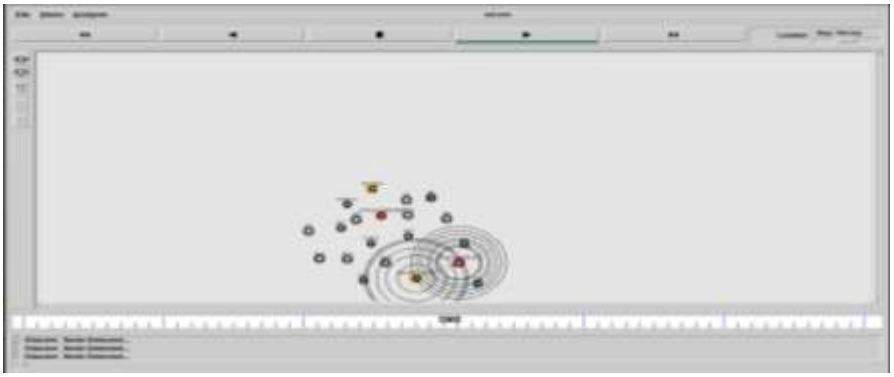


Figure 8: Attacker Node Detected

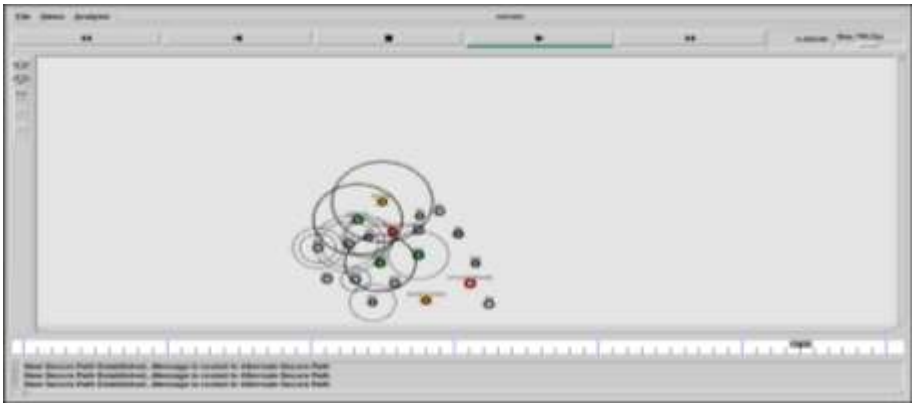


Figure 9: Snapshot of New Secure Route Established

Result and Discussion

In this study, the proposed AODVRM protocol performance was evaluated using the following performance metrics

The Throughput

Throughput is the ratio of total number of data packets that are delivered or received per unit simulation time. The higher the throughput, the better is the protocol. AODVRM recorded throughput of 291, 502, 502, 461, 506 kilo bytes per seconds (kbps) while AODV recorded throughput of 280, 319, 227, 223, 74 kilo bytes per seconds (kbps) as shown in Figure 10.

The Packet Delivery Ratio (PDR)

PDR is the ratio of the packet sent from the sender to the packets delivered to the receiver. Figure 11 shows that AODVRM recorded packet delivery ratio of 94%, 95%, 95%, 86%, 83% while AODV recorded packet delivery ratio of 94%, 93%, 90%, 82%, 65%. This is so because AODVRM protocol is secured and has a way to avoid malicious node and route in the network, hence the increased PDR.

The End to End Delay

The end to end delay signifies the time taken for message to be transmitted from the source to the destination. AODVRM recorded delay of 132, 235, 272, 272, 258 seconds while AODV recorded delay of 186, 369, 341, 292, 278 seconds as shown in Figure 12. The reason for this is that, AODVRM protocol is secured, using the protocol, it was easy to identify malicious node. Therefore, data transmission did not route thee malicious node unlike in the AODV protocol which is not secured. The malicious node was able to intercept some of the messages sent; this increased the delayed experience I the network.



Figure 10: Graph Showing Throughput



Figure 11: Graph Showing Packet Delivery Ratio

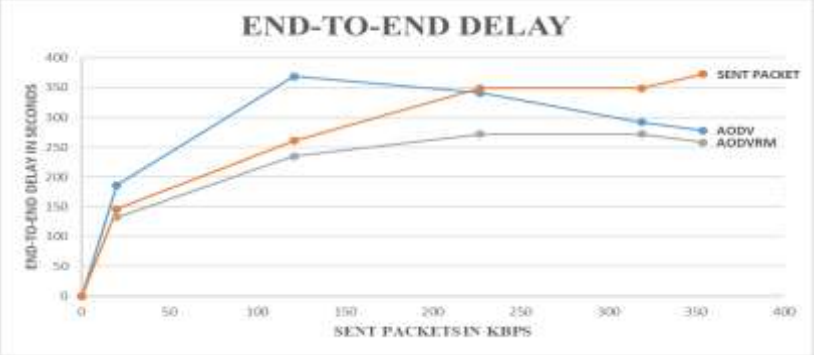


Figure 12: Graph Showing End-to-End Delay

Conclusions

In this research work, various security techniques to mitigate routing attacks on MANET were investigated. A secured routing protocol was modelled using RSA, MD5, observation-based cooperation enforcement and graph theory-based trust and reputation techniques, built on AODV routing protocol for MANET. The choice of RSA and MD5 used in the model formulation enable the proposed model to pace up with dynamism of emerging threats in MANET. The RSA was used to generate public key and private key while the MD5 was used to generate signature or message digest. The proposed model when simulated, its results were compared with conventional AODV in the face of attacks using metrics such as throughput, end-to-end delay and packet delivery ratio. The results showed that the proposed model, AODVRM in this research performed better in terms of the metrics used. We conclude that AODVRM

is efficient, reliable and secured. The model will enhance MANET protection if adopted in place of conventional and available routing protocols.

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Predictor of Nursing Mothers' Accessibility to Child Welfare Services: A Case of Palm Avenue Primary Health Care Centre, Mushin, Lagos State, Nigeria

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Abstract

Child welfare is an integral part of maternal and child health care that constitutes a major component of primary health care services designed to promote health and prevent diseases among children. This study main objective is to investigate the predictors of nursing mothers' Knowledge, accessibility to and willingness to use child welfare services in Palm Avenue Primary Health Care Centre, Mushin, Lagos, Nigeria. A descriptive cross-sectional survey is used in this study. The study population for this study were all nursing mothers attending clinic at Palm Avenue Mushin Local Government Area, Lagos, Nigeria from which 134 respondents were selected by convenient sample method for this study. A 38 question-items questionnaire was used to obtain data from nursing mothers and analysis of the data was done using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software Version 20.0. Findings revealed that, attitude of health workers (56.3%), lack of money (49.2%), and support received from the families, (46.9%) influenced mothers' health seeking behaviour visit child welfare centers. A significant association also existed between the attitude, the age, marital status of nursing mothers (X^2=7.317, P-value= 0.026) and nature of their occupation (X^2 =15.423, P-value=0.001respectively with the attendance of the child welfare health facilities in study area. This study concluded that attitudinal issues of workers, economic factors, marital status and occupational affiliations of mothers are predictors of nursing mothers' accessibility to and utilization of child welfare services. It is therefore recommended that healthcare professionals and managers should intensify effort on ameliorating these factors to encourage access to and utilization of child health welfare services.

Keywords: Accessibility; nursing mothers; child welfare care; Palm Avenue Mushin Local Government Area, Lagos State.

Introduction

Children's welfare as a crucial index of social and economic development of any society and they require a special and extra attention (Bronson & Ashley (2010). Obayendo (2014) observed that the child welfare services are essential for both mother and child but the main purpose is to promote health and prevent diseases among children after the birth of the baby. Bronson and Ashley (2010) further opined that in recent times, vast majority of children under the age of three with working parents now spend substantial time under non-parental child care. This fact of contemporary life represents a dramatic re-apportioning of the care of young children from parents to others, starting in the first few months of life. As a result, child care environments now constitute a central context for early development (Patrinos & Psacharopoulos; 2014).

Sani 2011 identified that the main aim of child welfare services is to prevent illnesses through immunization against communicable diseases, health education on various aspect of life, assessment of growth and development of the child, encouraging exclusive breastfeeding and treatment of minor ailments. The World Health Organization and UNICEF had launched several programmes like the baby friendly hospital initiative and the International Code of Marketing of Breast Milk Substitutes (ICMBMS) in order to protect, promote and support breastfeeding in response to persistent decline in the rate of breast feeding globally (UNICEF; 2014). Appropriate health care seeking is of significant particularly in the areas with limited access to health services (Sani, 2011).

The healthcare seeking interventions among nursing mothers have the potential to substantially reduce child mortality, large numbers of children in developing countries die without ever reaching a health facility due to delays in seeking care (Ogunjuyigbe, 2014). In recent years, studies have focused attention on the relationship between illness and health-seeking behavior. Ray, (2013) reported evidences on health seeking-behavior has documented in few studies by Sasaki, Masaru and Tilahun Temesgen (2015) as

includes consulting professional healthcare provider during the prenatal (for mother's immunization against tetanus), natal (place of delivery and help at delivery) and postnatal (immunization of the child) period, prompt seeking of health care services especially when disease symptoms are apparent are highly crucial for the survival of children. Oloko, in 2015, observed that education of some nursing mothers and their work status has strong effect on child survival in Nigeria. Delay in health seeking by nursing mothers can also be associated with home/self-treatment, use of traditional treatment, accessibility to health care services and money especially for children with acute fever and diarrhea (Ajibade, Okunlade, makinde, amoo, Adeyemo, 2013). Other factors which determine the child's access to health care by nursing mothers in Nigeria include Cultural practices, economic insecurity, and political factors impede on equitable distribution of health care leading to health insecurity in Nigeria (Adelekan, 2013).

Problem Situation in Mushin, Local Government of Lagos

Despite the health education given in Mushin health clinics concerning the importance of child welfare services, it was discovered by researchers that after delivery of children in health centers, next appointment is given for revisit to infant welfare clinic; the nursing mothers are usually not seen coming up for visits to complete the treatment process. The attitudes of mothers have hindered children from having optimum benefit of the healthcare services and mad children more susceptible to various diseases that claimed so many lives in Mushin Local Government of Lagos State.

During the researchers six weeks community-based visit and careful study of past attendance register of nursing mothers at Palm Avenue Infant Welfare Clinic Mushin, an irregular attendance of mothers for child care was observed. This indicated a form of underutilization of the child welfare clinic by nursing mothers. This prompted the researchers to undertake a study on the willingness of nursing mothers to attend child welfare clinics and examine factors that influence the attendance of child welfare clinics by nursing mothers in Mushin area of Lagos, Nigeria. The study was guided by the following research questions:

Research Questions

I. What is the knowledge level of nursing mothers about child welfare services?
II. What is the willingness of nursing mothers to attend child welfare services in Mushin Local Government Area of Lagos State?
III. What are the factors that influence the nursing mothers towards attending child welfare services?

Material and Methods

Design: A cross-sectional research design was adopted to assess predictors of nursing mothers' accessibility to and factors that influence their utilization of child welfare services in Mushin Local Government Area of Lagos State.

Study Population and sampling Procedure: Nursing mothers residing in Mushin LGA of Lagos State, Nigeria constituted the target population; accessible population was the mothers attending Infant Welfare Clinic in Mushin LGA. A convenient sample of 134 mothers was obtained for this study.

Instrument for Data Collection: A researcher-designed questionnaire was used for data collection and it consisted 30 questions items made up of three sections: Section A obtained information on knowledge of nursing mothers about child welfare services; Section B obtained information on willingness of nursing mothers towards child welfare services visit, while Section C was on factors influencing the attendants of child welfare services by nursing mothers. The validity of instrument was ensured based on the variables contained in objectives of this study and the reliability of instrument was determined by test retest reliability of the instrument with value of 0.76 obtained using 20 nursing mothers in Agege a similar health care center as pilot study.

Data Collection: A thirty question items (10 questions in each three sections) was administered on 134 mothers from whom 128 were retrieved for analyses. Questionnaires were distributed personally by the principal researchers by face to face interaction with the respondents.

Ethical Clearance: Ethical approval for the study was obtained from Research and Ethical Committee of Federal Neuro-Psychiatric Hospital, Yaba. The permission for the study was also given by the Lagos

State Government Primary Health Care Board, Yaba. Informed consent was also given by the nursing mothers before the conduct of the study. Data Analysis was done using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 20 and descriptive statistics was used to calculate variables on knowledge and presented on frequency and percentages tables. While, Inferential Statistics of Chi-Square was used to analyze association of demographic variables scores on child welfare services among nursing mothers in Mushin, Lagos, Nigeria.

Results

Table 1: Socio-Demographic Variables of Respondents

Variable	Respondent	Frequency (n=128)	Percentage (%)
Age	12-19 years	8	6.3
	20-29 years	43	33.6
	30-39 years	69	53.9
	40-50 years	8	6.3
Marital status	Single	10	7.8
	Married	114	89.1
	Separated	4	3.1
Religion	Christianity	73	57.0
	Islam	55	43.0
Educational qualification	No formal education	1	0.8
	Primary education	13	10.2
	Secondary education	66	51.6
	Tertiary education	48	37.5
Nature of occupation	Trading/artisan	74	57.8
	Civil servant/government	20	15.6
	Corporate organization	21	16.4
	Full house wife	13	10.2

Results in Table 1 show nursing mothers who were predominantly middle age with mean age of 35 years old, and majority (89.1%) are married. Most of them had their secondary and tertiary education (51.6% and 37.5% respectively), while their main occupation was trading/artisans (57.8%) compared with 10.2% who were full housewives.

$H0_1$: There will be no relationship between utilization of child welfare centers and demographic characteristics of nursing mothers in Mushin LGA, Lagos.

Table 2. Association between level of utilization and demographic variables of nursing mothers in Mushin LGA, Lagos

	X^2	Df	P-Value
Age	3.777	3	0.287
Marital Status	7.317	2	0.026*
Religion	0.344	1	0.595
Type of family	1.269	1	0.332
Educational status	3.419	3	0.331
Occupation	15.423	3	0.001*

Results in Table 2 reveal association of demographic variables with utilization of CWC among nursing mothers, with calculated chi-square values showed a statistically significant association between the attitude of nursing mothers and their marital status (X^2=7.317, P-value= 0.026) and nature of their

occupation (X^2 =15.423, P-value=0.001), but showed no significant relationship between attitude score when compare with age, religion, type of family and educational qualification respectively.

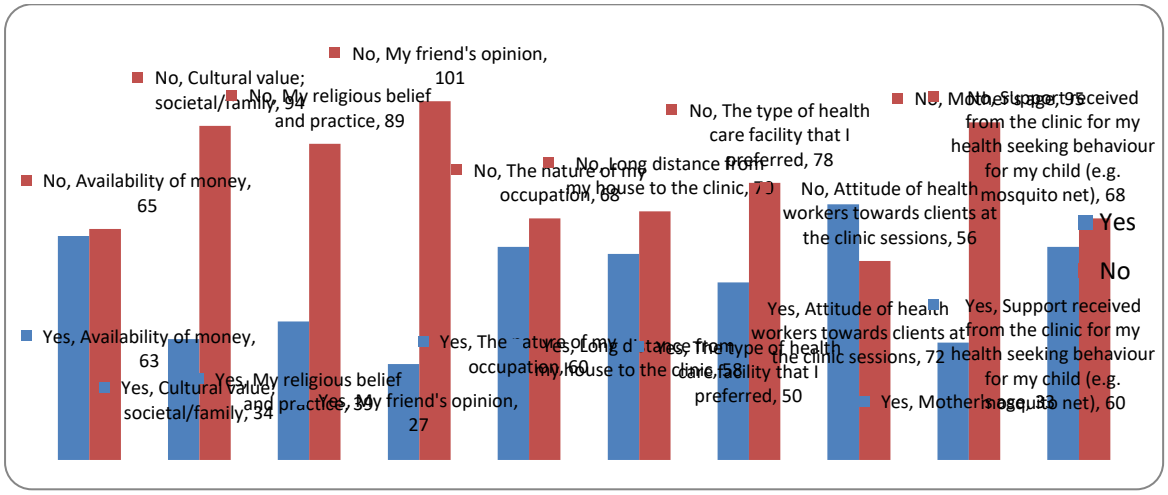


Figure 1: Factors Influencing the Attitude of Nursing Mothers towards Child Welfare Services

On various factors that militate against accessibility of child welfare services by nursing mothers, Figure 1 above revealed attitude of health workers towards clients at clinic sessions constituted the major (56.3%) challenge to nursing mothers towards accessibility of child welfare service in Mushin Areas of Lagos. This was followed by lack of money (49.2%) to visit the clinics and poor support received from the family (46.9%). There was no association between mean score of attitudes, age, religion, type of family and the educational qualification of nursing mothers that attended child welfare care center in Mushin Area (Table 2). However, significant association exists between attitude of nursing mothers and their marital status as well as nature of occupation toward utilization of child welfare care services in Mushin LGA. Lagos, Nigeria.

Discussion

Demographic Characteristics of Nursing Mothers

This study on the assessment of predictors of nursing mothers' accessibility to child welfare services in Mushin Local Government Area of Lagos State revealed that majority of mothers in this study were married with mean age of 35 years old. This implied that nursing mothers who attended Mushin child welfare clinic are in their prime reproductive age and equal percent of them were educated. The mothers' knowledge about child welfare services was quite impressive as they claimed to have understood and are aware of various child welfare care services rendered at the health centers of Mushin Area of Lagos State. The high level of knowledge among nursing mothers was not surprising as almost 60% of them were educated. The results agreed with Omer, Al-lela, Moh'd, Harith Al-Qazaz, Muhannad, and Salih., Shazia (2014), opinion that mothers with adequate knowledge will influence positively the health seeking behaviour to regularly access health care services for themselves and their children. This finding show that the nursing mothers minimum educational qualifications afford them the needed level of knowledge to appreciate the importance of child welfare services the community. This study also revealed that even though the cost of transportation and medical treatment was reasonably high, mothers' various sources of income were used to augment their financial strength to access child welfare services provided in the health centers in Mushin, Lagos.

On the nursing mothers' attitude regarding attendance to child welfare services, this study posited that an average number of nursing mothers declared their willingness to attend child welfare clinics for services regularly. This study corroborates study conducted by Femke, John and Wimvan (2013), which showed positive attitude of childbearing women towards attendance of child welfare clinics for services. This study also supported the report that positive parental attitudes towards child welfare services are an important component in child developmental milestone and prevention of child abuse (Manpreet, Baba & Shyam, 2017)

There are several factors identified as predictors of nursing mothers' attendant to child welfare services in this study, principal among them was poor attitude of health workers towards the mothers during clinic visits significantly influenced their plan for next visit to child welfare clinics. This finding corroborates studies by Esi Faith, Albert and Timothy, (2018) study in Ghana, posited that inflexible schedule visit, public scolding, inpatient listening and lack of rapport by health workers hindered mothers from attending child welfare clinics in Ghana. Closely related to health workers attitude was non-availability of money for mothers to access child welfare care services available at the center this has kept mothers away from buying basic requirement for child care in both health centers and at home. This finding was supported by Esi *et al*., (2018), who claimed mother poor economic status and constant persuasion of mothers by health workers to purchase stuffs sold at the clinic such as weighing pant, wean mix, cosmetic and diapers prevented mothers from attending CWC.

On the association of demographic variables with attitudes of nursing mothers toward accessing child welfare care clinics, the calculated chi-square values showed a statistically significant association between the attitude of nursing mothers and their marital status (X^2=7.317, P-value= 0.026) and nature of their occupation (X^2 =15.423, P-value=0.001), but showed no significant relationship between attitude score when compare with age, religion, type of family and educational qualification respectively.

Conclusions

Despite the nursing mothers' demonstration of good knowledge and positive attitude towards attendants of child welfare services, this study concluded that there was a significant association between the attitude of nursing mothers and their marital status and nature of their occupation. The study also concluded the health workers poor attitudes to nursing mothers determined the mothers' next visits to CWC. Hence, effort is needed by the governments at all levels to empower women economically so as to enable them to receive needed child care services to their children in Mushin Area of Lagos State, Nigeria.

Implication for Nursing Practice

I. The findings of this study provide opportunity to nursing personnel and other health care givers who are in the best position to provide child welfare service to both the child and the nursing mothers to know more of factors militating against nursing mothers from accessing child welfare services in the health centers.
II. The findings of this study have enlightened both the nurses and other health care providers that adequate knowledge influenced nursing mothers' willingness to seek child welfare services.
III. The findings of this study have also brought to knowledge of nurse managers and policy makers that health workers attitudes including nurses played a greater role toward preventing mothers from effectively utilizes child welfare services coupled with non-availability of fund for mothers to access child welfare services in Mushin Areas of Lagos State, Nigeria.

Recommendations

Based on the conclusion of this study, we recommended that health workers particularly nurse must have a positive attitudinal change towards rendering health care services to nursing mothers in the health centers.

i. The husbands must as a matter of matrimonial responsibility provide the needed financial supports to the nursing mothers to be able to access child welfares services without financial hindrance.
ii. The local Government, the State and the Federal Ministry of Health should intensify effort on creating more awareness on the importance of child welfare services through the media, newsprints and outreaches.
iii. Government should intensify efforts on the employment more workforce, especially nurses, to commensurate the workload as shortage of staff (nurses) at the child welfare centers
iv. Efforts should be intensified by the government at all levels to employ women and empowering them to improve their economic status in the communities.
v. Workers attitudes to client especially nursing mother need to be improved to encourage mothers to comply with scheduled revisit to CWC for services.

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On the Use of Linear Programming Model Approach in Profit Optimization of a Product Mix Company

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Abstract
This study employed the utilization of a slack starting solution approach of the Simplex Optimization method to build a Linear Programming (LP) model. Data were extracted from the record unit for an item blend fabricating industry, Fortunate Bakery, Ilorin, Nigeria. The information was collected on four noteworthy sorts of bread produced by the bakery which includes; Special Delight (SD), Ordinary Slice Bread (OSB), Ordinary Gala (OG) and Saloon (S) regarding their unit costs and selling prices, the raw materials utilized and the amount of each of the crude materials held in stock every day. In view of the data supplied, a linear programming problem was developed with the goal of maximizing the daily profit of the organization. The optimal daily profit that would be achievable to the organization in the item blend was resolved utilizing the methodology specified earlier. The results showed that the organization would achieve ideal daily profit level of ₦ 9,500 (or monthly profit level of ₦285,000) if she concentrates on the production of type alone is given to the unit offers of Saloon bread and disregard other lines of items produced by the company. By this, aggregate daily offers of about 380 (or monthly offers of about 11,400) units of Saloon bread would be sold by the organization. The data analyses were carried out USING Tora software package.

Keywords: Objective Function, Product Mix, Constraints, LP, Slack Variable, Tora.

Introduction

Businesses anywhere in the world including Nigeria are often confronted with inadequacies of some necessary materials which consequently lead to reduction in capacity utilization. As a result, optimal utilization of few available resources to achieve maximal benefits to the organization becomes paramount. Therefore, firm's Directors are continually confronted with how to make right choices among competing alternatives in order to meet their targets (objectives) which is either of maximizing the profit or minimizing the costs.

The development of businesses puts weight on administration in finding the optimal planning, organizing, leading and controlling levels of production in the various production industries of the economy. As a consequence of this pressure, administrative hypotheses of the firm are acquainted with investigating business situations and to take care of handy business issues like operational issues radiating from inside the business and ecological issues in which industry works. Both hypothetical and quantitative procedures are created to demonstrate and break down these choice issues technically known as decision problems. Among these quantitative procedures is the linear programming (LP) model, which utilizes numerical techniques as a part of searching for the optimal course of action in any decision situation under the restriction of limited resources and uncertainties.

The LP method proposed by Kantorovich (1960) is a mathematical technique used in operations research or management sciences to solve specific types of problems such as allocation, transportation and assignment problems that permit a choice between alternative courses of action. Linear Programming as described in Yahya (2004) can be characterized as a scientific system for deciding the best allocation of a company's restricted assets to accomplish ideal objective. As reported in Yahya *et al.* (2012), LP is one of the most viable techniques in operations research which is designed for linear objective functions and constraints. LP is a term that covers an entire scope of numerical methods that is meant for enhancing tasks execution regarding blend of assets (Lucey, 1996). Application of LP techniques has been demonstrated in literature such as; Albright and Wayne (2009), Byrd and Moore (1978), Lee and Plenert (1996), Chung *et al*. (2005), Savsar and Aldaihan (2011) and Yahya *et al* (2012) among others.

The objective of any linear programming problem is either to maximize the profit of an organization which is the case in this work or to minimize the cost of production with respect to the firm's limited resources. Dantzig (1963) provided an algorithm known as Simplex method for solving a linear programming problem. A – slack starting solution approach of the simplex algorithm requires the introduction of only the slack variables in a maximization problem. This allows determining the starting

basic feasible solution in the simplex algorithm and the algorithm proceeds until the process terminates at optimal iteration level.

This work shows the utilization of linear programming methods in a production company in Nigeria. The issue attended to in this study was to decide the item blend (mix of products) to be focused on by the organization for production purpose at which the optimal profit level would be achieved.

Methodology

The data used for this work included four unique varieties of bread produced by Fortunate Bakery, Ilorin, Nigeria, as well as their cost prices and selling prices. These varieties included Special Delight (SD), Ordinary Slice Bread (OSB), Ordinary Gala (OG) and Saloon (S). Information on the raw materials include; flour measured in kilogram, sugar measured in gram, salt in gram, nectar measured in milliliter, flavor measured in unit, yeast in gram, spread in kilogram, water in liter, nutmeg in gram, additive in gram, conditioner in gram, groundnut oil in liter, machine time in minutes, work labour (in minutes) was also obtained.

Table 1: Unit Cost, Selling Prices and Unit profit for each of the Products

Products	Unit Cost of Production (₦)	Unit Selling Price (₦)	Unit Profit (₦)	% Unit Profit
Special Delight	120	200	80	40
Ordinary Slice Bread	90	150	60	40
Ordinary Gala	80	120	40	33.33
Saloon	35	60	25	41.67

The analysis was completed utilizing linear programming methods by developing a linear programming problem from the information obtained from the company. The linear programming issue created here is a numerical project in which both the objective function and constraints are linear in the unknown decision variables. Table 1 presents the unit cost of producing each of the four types of bread and their respective unit selling price.

Table 2: Quantity of Raw Materials used per Unit Product

Materials	Special Delight	Ordinary Slice Bread	Ordinary Gala	Saloon
Flour (kg)	0.4717	0.3876	0.2463	0.1316
Sugar (g)	61.3208	50.3876	32.0197	17.1053
Salt (g)	14.1509	11.6279	7.3892	3.9474
Honey (ml)	4.7170	3.8760	2.4631	1.3158
Flavour (unit)	0.2830	0.2326	0.1478	0.0789
Yeast (g)	4.7170	3.8760	2.4631	1.3158
Butter (kg)	0.0094	0.0078	0.0049	0.0026
Water (liter)	0.3019	0.2481	0.1576	0.0842
Nutmeg (g)	0.1887	0.1550	0.0985	0.0526
Preservative (g)	1.3208	1.0853	0.6897	0.3684
Softener (g)	0.2358	0.1938	0.1232	0.0658
Groundnut oil (liter)	0.0094	0.0078	0.0049	0.0026
Machine (min)	0.3302	0.2713	0.1724	0.0921
Labour (min)	7.9245	6.5116	4.1379	2.2105

Table 2 provides information on quantity of raw materials used for each of the product lines and Table 3 contains the stock capacity at production line for each of the raw materials used in the production of the four products.

Table 3: Stock Capacity of the Raw Materials

Materials	Quantity Available in Stock
Flour	50kg
Sugar	6500g
Salt	1500g
Honey	500ml
Flavor	30unit
Yeast	500g
Butter	1kg
Water	32lt
Nutmeg	20g
Preservative	140g
Softener	25g
Groundnut oil	1 liter
Machine	35min
Labour	14hrs (840min)

The general form of a linear programming problem as used in this work is stated below:

$$Maximize\ z = c_1x_1 + c_2x_2 + c_3x_3 + \ \dots + c_nx_n \quad (1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} Subject\ to\colon\ & a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + a_{13}x_3 + \ \dots + a_{1n}x_n \le b_1 \\ & a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + a_{23}x_3 + \ \dots + a_{2n}x_n \le b_2 \\ & \dots \quad \dots \quad \dots \quad \dots \\ & \dots \quad \dots \quad \dots \quad \dots \\ & a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + a_{m3}x_3 + \ \dots + a_{mn}x_n \le b_m \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

$$\text{for } x_1,\ x_2, x_3, \dots\ x_n \ge 0 \quad (3)$$

Every linear programming problem is characterized by equations (1), (2) and (3) above referred to as the objective function, constraints and non–negativity restrictions respectively. Where $x_1,\ x_2, \dots\ x_n$ are called decision variables of the problem, $c_1,\ c_2, \dots\ c_n$ are the known contributions of the decision variables respectively, b_i $(for\ i = 1, 2, \dots, m)$ are the amount of the raw materials available for each product mix and a_{ij} $(for\ i = 1, 2, \dots, m\ \ and\ \ j = 1, 2, \dots, n)$ are called the technological coefficients.
For the purpose of using the all-slack starting solution approach, a standard linear programming model would be determined by adding slack variables into the model. The standard linear programming model is then given as:

$$Maximize\ Z - c_1x_1 - c_2x_2 - c_3x_3 - \ \dots - c_nx_n = 0 \quad (4)$$

$$\begin{aligned} Subject\ to\colon\ & a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + a_{13}x_3 + \ \dots + a_{1n}x_n + s_1 = b_1 \\ & a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + a_{23}x_3 + \ \dots + a_{2n}x_n + s_2 = b_2 \\ & \dots \quad \dots \quad \dots \quad \dots \quad . \\ & \dots \quad \dots \quad \dots \quad \dots \\ & a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + a_{m3}x_3 + \ \dots + a_{mn}x_n + s_m = b_m \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

$$\text{for } x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots x_n,\ s_1, s_2, \dots s_m \ge 0 \quad (6)$$

Where s_i $(i = 1, 2, \dots, m)$ are called the slack variables.

The whole analysis was performed by utilizing the TORA software package developed by Hamdy (2007).

Data Analysis

The data obtained from Fortunate Bakery, Ilorin, Nigeria was analyzed to determine the best product mix of the company that will maximize the daily (monthly) profit for the organization. We represent each of the company's product lines, Special Delight, Ordinary Slice Bread, Ordinary Gala and Saloon, by $x_1,\ x_2,\ x_3\ and\ x_4$ respectively. Hence, the linear programming model was formulated as:

$$Maximize\ Z = 80x_1 + 60x_2 + 40x_3 + 25x_4 \quad (7)$$

$Subject\ to$: (raw materials constraints)

$$\begin{aligned}
&\textit{Flour:} && 0.4717x_1 + 0.3876x_2 + 0.2463x_3 + 0.1316x_4 \leq 50\\
&\textit{Sugar:} && 61.3208x_1 + 50.3876x_2 + 32.0197x_3 + 17.1053x_4 \leq 6500\\
&\textit{Salt:} && 14.1509x_1 + 11.6279x_2 + 7.3892x_3 + 3.9474x_4 \leq 1500\\
&\textit{Honey:} && 4.7170x_1 + 3.8760x_2 + 2.4631x_3 + 1.3158x_4 \leq 500\\
&\textit{Flavour:} && 0.2830x_1 + 0.2326x_2 + 0.1478x_3 + 0.0789x_4 \leq 30\\
&\textit{Yeast:} && 4.7170x_1 + 3.8760x_2 + 2.4631x_3 + 1.3158x_4 \leq 500\\
&\textit{Butter:} && 0.0094x_1 + 0.0078x_2 + 0.0049x_3 + 0.0026x_4 \leq 1\\
&\textit{Water:} && 0.3019x_1 + 0.2481x_2 + 0.1576x_3 + 0.0842x_4 \leq 32\\
&\textit{Nutmeg:} && 0.1887x_1 + 0.1550x_2 + 0.0985x_3 + 0.0526x_4 \leq 20\\
&\textit{Preservative:} && 1.3208x_1 + 1.0853x_2 + 0.6897x_3 + 0.3684x_4 \leq 140\\
&\textit{Softener:} && 0.2358x_1 + 0.1938x_2 + 0.1232x_3 + 0.0658x_4 \leq 25\\
&\textit{Groundnut oil:} && 0.0094x_1 + 0.0078x_2 + 0.0049x_3 + 0.0026x_4 \leq 1\\
&\textit{Machine:} && 0.3302x_1 + 0.2713x_2 + 0.1724x_3 + 0.0921x_4 \leq 35\\
&\textit{Labour:} && 7.9245x_1 + 6.5116x_2 + 4.1379\,x_3 + 2.2105x_4 \leq 840
\end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

$$\text{for } x_1,\ x_2,\ x_3,\ x_4 \geq 0 \quad (9)$$

In order to write the above linear programming model in standard form, fourteen (14) slack variables, x_i $(for\ i = 5\ to\ 18)$ were introduced into the model as stated earlier and the introduction of these slack variables changes the inequality signs in the constraints to an equation. Hence, the set of inequalities in (7), (8) and (9) respectively become (10), (11) and (12).

$$Maximize\ Z - 80x_1 - 60x_2 - 40x_3 - 25x_4 = 0 \quad (10)$$

$subject\ to$: (Raw materials constraints)

$$\begin{aligned}
&\textit{Flour:} && 0.4717x_1 + 0.3876x_2 + 0.2463x_3 + 0.1316x_4 + x_5 = 50\\
&\textit{Sugar:} && 61.3208x_1 + 50.3876x_2 + 32.0197x_3 + 17.1053x_4 + x_6 = 6500\\
&\textit{Salt:} && 14.1509x_1 + 11.6279x_2 + 7.3892x_3 + 3.9474x_4 + x_7 = 1500\\
&\textit{Honey:} && 4.7170x_1 + 3.8760x_2 + 2.4631x_3 + 1.3158x_4 + x_8 = 500\\
&\textit{Flavour:} && 0.2830x_1 + 0.2326x_2 + 0.1478x_3 + 0.0789x_4 + x_9 = 30\\
&\textit{Yeast:} && 4.7170x_1 + 3.8760x_2 + 2.4631x_3 + 1.3158x_4 + x_{10} = 500\\
&\textit{Butter:} && 0.0094x_1 + 0.0078x_2 + 0.0049x_3 + 0.0026x_4 + x_{11} = 1\\
&\textit{Water:} && 0.3019x_1 + 0.2481x_2 + 0.1576x_3 + 0.0842x_4 + x_{12} = 32\\
&\textit{Nutmeg:} && 0.1887x_1 + 0.1550x_2 + 0.0985x_3 + 0.0526x_4 + x_{13} = 20\\
&\textit{Preservative:} && 1.3208x_1 + 1.0853x_2 + 0.6897x_3 + 0.3684x_4 + x_{14} = 140\\
&\textit{Softener:} && 0.2358x_1 + 0.1938x_2 + 0.1232x_3 + 0.0658x_4 + x_{15} = 25\\
&\textit{Groundnut Oil:} && 0.0094x_1 + 0.0078x_2 + 0.0049x_3 + 0.0026x_4 + x_{16} = 1\\
&\textit{Machine:} && 0.3302x_1 + 0.2713x_2 + 0.1724x_3 + 0.0921x_4 + x_{17} = 35\\
&\textit{Labour:} && 7.9245x_1 + 6.5116x_2 + 4.1379\,x_3 + 2.2105x_4 + x_{18} = 840
\end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

$$\text{for } x_1,\ x_2,\ x_3,\ \dots,\ x_{18} \geq 0 \quad (12)$$

Generally, the slack variables introduced in any linear programming model represent the level of unused resources or raw materials if such occurs at the optimal solution of the simplex algorithm. This new representation generates the initial tableau in Table 4 as used for our LP implementation.

Table 4: Initial Tableau of the Linear Programming Model

Basis	X_1	X_2	X_3	X_4	X_5	X_6	X_7	X_8	X_9	X_{10}	X_{11}	X_{12}	X_{13}	X_{14}	X_{15}	X_{16}	X_{17}	X_{18}	**Sol**
Z	−80	−60	−40	−25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
X_5	0.4717	0.3876	0.2463	0.1316	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	50
X_6	61.3208	50.3876	32.0197	17.1053	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6500
X_7	14.1509	11.6279	7.3892	3.9474	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1500
X_8	4.7170	3.8760	2.4631	1.3158	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	500
X_9	0.2830	0.2326	0.1478	0.0789	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	30
X_{10}	4.7170	3.8760	2.4631	1.3158	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	500
X_{11}	0.0094	0.0078	0.0049	0.0789	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
X_{12}	0.3019	0.2481	0.1576	0.0842	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	32
X_{13}	0.1887	0.1550	0.0985	0.0526	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	20
X_{14}	1.3208	1.0853	0.6897	0.3684	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	140
X_{15}	0.2358	0.1938	0.1232	0.0658	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	25
X_{16}	0.0094	0.0078	0.0049	0.0026	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
X_{17}	0.3302	0.2713	0.1724	0.0921	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	35
X_{18}	7.9245	6.5116	4.1379	2.2105	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	840

Table 5: Values of the Unused Raw Materials at Optimal Iteration Level

Slack Variable	**Corresponding Raw Material**	**Unused Amount**
X_5	Flour (kg)	0
X_6	Sugar (g)	1.03
X_7	Salt (g)	0.23
X_8	Honey (ml)	0.08
X_9	Flavor (unit)	0.02
X_{10}	Yeast (g)	0.08
X_{11}	Butter (kg)	0.01
X_{12}	Water (liter)	0.01
X_{13}	Nutmeg (g)	0.02
X_{14}	Preservative (g)	0.03
X_{15}	Softener (g)	0
X_{16}	Groundnut oil (liter)	0.01
X_{17}	Machine (min)	0.01
X_{18}	Labour (min)	0.14

Table 6: Final Tableau of the Linear Programming Model

Basis	X_1	X_2	X_3	X_4	X_5	X_6	X_7	X_8	X_9	X_{10}	X_{11}	X_{12}	X_{13}	X_{14}	X_{15}	X_{16}	X_{17}	X_{18}	**Sol.**
Z	9.61	13.63	6.79	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9498.48
X_{13}	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0.02
X_6	0.01	0.01	0.01	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1.03
X_7	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.23
X_8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.08
X_9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.02
X_{10}	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.08
X_{11}	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.01
X_{12}	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.01
X_{14}	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0.03
X_4	**3.58**	**2.95**	**1.87**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**379.94**
X_{15}	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0.00
X_{16}	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0.01
X_{17}	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0.01
X_{18}	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.14

Findings and Discussion

From the analysis carried out on the linear programming model stated above using the all-slack starting solution of the Simplex method, the optimal solution for the LP was obtained at the fifth iteration. The daily estimated value of the objective function was obtained to be 9498.4802 (approximately 9,500) and the daily contributions of each of the four decision variables x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 into the objective function are 0, 0, 0, and 379.94 (approximately 380). The values of the slack variables corresponding to the unused raw materials are provided in Table 5. The final optimization results as reported by our algorithm are presented in the final tableau of Table 6.

Conclusions

This work has clearly demonstrated the appropriate use of the all-slack starting solution approach of the simplex algorithm in linear programming model. This is obvious from the analysis and results obtained in the profit maximization type of the linear programming model fitted to the data collected on four different varieties of bread produced by Fortunate Bakery, Ilorin, Kwara State, Nigeria.

Based on the analysis carried out and the results obtained from the linear programming model, it is recommended that the Fortunate Bakery be focus more on the production of saloon bread based on the available daily raw materials. By this decision, a total number of 380 units of saloon bread would be produced and sold by the Bakery daily. This would allow the organization to realize an optimal daily profit of ₦9,500 based on the available raw materials. A very quick check of this daily realization is to divide the value of the objective function at optimal level (₦9,500) by the value of the decision variable (saloon bread) also at the same optimal level (380). This gives a unit profit of ₦25 (41.67%) per saloon bread and consequently, agrees perfectly with the expected daily profit of the company on a unit sale of the saloon bread as reported in Table 1. Results from Table 5 show that virtually all the raw materials are efficiently utilized in the daily production of the four varieties of bread produced by Fortunate Bakery. This suggests the importance of the raw materials collected in the production of the products.

Recommendations

Finally, since it is almost difficult for any researcher to impose an idea on an operating management of a system that one does not belong to, therefore, the results of the LP model in this work are only based on daily availability of raw materials for the production of the four types of bread produced by Fortunate Bakery which could serve as a guide to the management of the company in the production strategies of their products.

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Prevalence of Low Back Pain Among Adult Patients Attending Family Medicine Clinics in Irrua Specialist Teaching Hospital, Edo State, Nigeria

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Abstract
Low Back Pain (LBP) has been found to be a leading cause of disability which significantly restricts normal activity and occupation of individuals who experience it. The objective of this study was to determine the prevalence of low back pain in adult patients attending family medicine clinics of Irrua Specialist Teaching Hospital, Edo State. It was a descriptive cross-sectional study carried out in 2013 among 245 adult patients with LBP using a semi-structured interviewer administered Oswestry Low Back Pain Disability and the General Health Questionnaires. Data analysis was done using SPSS software. The modal age group was 51-60 years, 71 (29.0%), majority of the respondents in this study were female (68.6%) and married (67.8%). Prevalence of low back pain for the period (May-October) was 31.3 per 1000 population (3.1%). Low back pain was a significant contributor to morbidity in the adult outpatient clinics and there is a need to design suitable interventions to reduce its prevalence in the population.

Keywords: Low Back Pain, Adults, Prevalence, Risk Factor, Edo State.

Introduction

Low Back Pain affects approximately 60-85% of adults at certain points in their life but fortunately for the large majority of individuals symptoms are mild, transient with 90% subsiding within 6 weeks (Middleton and Fish, 2009). It is common in Nigeria with a prevalence ranging from 20% in office workers to 67% in farmers (Omokhodion and Sanya, 2003; Birabi, *et al.*, 2012). Low Back Pain has been found to be a leading cause of disability which significantly restricts normal activity and occupation of individuals who experience it. It occurs in similar proportions in all cultures and is the most common reason for medical consultation in primary care setting (Ehrlich, 2003). Though a substantial contributor to morbidity in adults, it is morphed in significance by the attention given to other non-communicable diseases such as hypertension and diabetes mellitus globally. The situation is made worse in low- and middle-income countries where it usually ranks low as a public health priority (Ogunbode *et al.*, 2013).

Important structures of the low back that can be related to symptoms in this region include the vertebrae, intervertebral disc, facet joints, dura or theca, the ligaments and tendons, muscles and nerve roots. The lumbar spine has a genetic lordotic curve, the size of the vertebral body increases from L1 to L5, indicative of the increasing loads that each lower lumbar vertebra absorbs. Low back pain (LBP) is the pain felt in the region below T12 to the inferior gluteal folds. It usually originates from the muscles, nerves, bones, joints and aforementioned structures in the spine (Davies, 2008). LBP may be referred from adjacent or distant focus or may be psychological (Popoola, 2009). Pain in the lower part of the back is the primary symptom of low back pain. Mechanical back pain is related to activity and generally relieved by rest. Non mechanical back pain is constant and has little variation in intensity with or without activity. Inflammatory pain is associated with marked morning and inactivity stiffness and improves with activity. Radicular (nerve root) pain has a severe, sharp and lancinating quality, radiates down the back of the leg beyond the knee and is aggravated by coughing, sneezing and straining at stool. There may be numbness or weakness in the part of the leg that receives its nerve supply from a compressed nerve (Popoola, 2009; Levin, 2010).

The objective of this study was to determine the prevalence of low back pain in adult patients attending Family Medicine clinics of the Irrua Specialist Teaching Hospital, Edo State, Nigeria.

Materials and Methods

The study was carried out in the Family Medicine clinics of Irrua Specialist Teaching Hospital, a 288-bed tertiary institution with facilities for residency training in many specialties and subspecialties, such as Internal Medicine, Surgery, Paediatrics, Obstetrics and Gynaecology, Ophthalmology, Community

Medicine. It serves as a teaching hospital to Ambrose Alli University, which is an Edo state owned institution. The study population consisted of adult patients between ages 18 years to 64 years who presented at the Family Medicine clinics of ISTH with acute (less than 4 weeks), sub-acute (4 to 12 weeks) and chronic LBP (more than 12 weeks). Severely ill patients were excluded from this study. This was a descriptive cross-sectional study conducted between May and October 2013 (6 months). Two hundred and forty-five consecutive patients with LBP were recruited into the study. Data was collected using a semi-structured interviewer administered questionnaire, the Oswestry Low Back Pain Disability Questionnaire and the general health questionnaire GHQ-12. This was divided into 3 sections for socio-demographic characteristics, medical history and physical examination of respondents respectively.

The physical examination included: the weight which was measured using the analogue weighing scale (Harris scale) and measurements recorded in kilogram (kg) to the nearest 0.1kg, height was recorded in meters with a stadiometer (Harris) to the nearest 0.1 centimeter, the Body Mass Index (BMI) of the respondents was determined using the measured weight in kg and height in m^2. BMI was calculated using the formula weight in kilogram divided by height in meters squared. Blood pressure was measured using the Accoson mercury sphygmomanometer. Musculoskeletal as well as neurological examinations of the lower limbs were done; Observation of gait, observation of posture in sitting position. Inspection of the spine for previous surgery, trauma, asymmetry, lesions, scars. Range of motion including flexion, extension and lateral flexion were assessed. Palpation and percussion of the vertebrae to elicit tenderness, Straight leg raising test was done. Muscle bulk, power, tone, reflexes and sensation were all assessed. All results of the examinations were taken as normal or abnormal irrespective of the degree. Radiological and haematological investigations (lumbosacral x-rays, FBC, ESR,) were requested in cases of suspected fracture, chronic LBP, radicular symptoms.

Data was analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20.0. Data was measured using continuous variables (age, weight, height, blood pressure) and categorical variable (sex, marital status, education, ethnicity, occupation, religion, duration of pain, severity of pain, functional disability and psychological disability). The frequencies, percentages, mean and standard deviation were calculated for continuous variables while frequencies, percentages and charts were used for categorical variables. Period prevalence for six months (May to October) was calculated using the formula (Rajvir, 2008).

$$\text{Prevalence} = \frac{\text{Number of cases of disease present in a population during a specific time period}}{\text{Number of persons at risk of having the disease at the specified time}}$$

The above ratio is multiplied by 1,000 or 10,000 to yield statistics that are more readily interpretable.

Ethical clearance was obtained from the ethics and research committee of Irrua Specialist Teaching Hospital Irrua, Edo State. The proposal was vetted and approved by the National Postgraduate Medical College of Nigeria.

A prepared informed consent form was given to the respondents to sign in an appropriate column after verbal explanation about the nature of the study had been provided and their full comprehension ascertained. Subjects were assured of strict confidentiality of information and non-use of invasive procedures during the exercise. Patients were given the opportunity to decide if they wanted to participate in the study and that it would in no way affect their professional care. Health education was given on the possible causes of LBP and preventive measures subsequently.

Results

Table 1: Socio-demographic characteristics of respondents (n=245)

Characteristic		Frequency	Percentage
Age			
	≤30	39	15.9
	31-40	35	14.3
	41-50	60	24.5
	51-60	71	29.0
	≥61	40	16.3
Gender			
	Male	77	31.4
	Female	168	68.6
Marital Status			
	Single	46	18.8
	Married	166	67.8
	Divorced	1	0.4
	Widowed	32	13.1
Ethnicity			
	Esan	150	61.2
	Etsako	34	13.9
	Ibo	17	6.9
	Owan	13	5.3
	Akoko-Edo	7	2.9
	Others	24	9.8
Occupation			
	Farming	70	28.6
	Trading	41	16.7
	Civil Servant	54	22.1
	Student	24	9.8
	Others	56	22.8
Educational Status			
	No Formal Education	48	19.6
	Primary	57	23.3
	Secondary	36	14.7
	Tertiary	104	42.4
Religion			
	Christianity	227	92.7
	Islam	18	7.3

Results in Table 1 show the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents. Two hundred and forty-five patients presented to the family medicine clinic and were diagnosed with low back pain in the six-month study period. More of the patients representing (29.0%) were within 51-60 years age groups, followed by age group 41-50 which represented (24.5 %). Majority of the respondents in this study were females (68.6%) with the males constituting (31.4%) with a male: female ratio of 1: 2.2. Majority of the respondents were married (67.8%), while (18.8%) were single and (13.1%) widowed. Only one respondent was divorced representing 0.4%. With regards to ethnicity, most of the patients were Esan, constituting (61.2%), followed by Etsako 34 (13.9%), Ibo (6.9%), Owan (5.3%) and Akoko Edo (2.9%). With regards to occupation, majority of the respondents were farmers (28.6%), other occupations represented included civil servants (22.1%), traders (16.7%), students (9.8%). The occupational category "others" which included unemployed and housewives was (22.9%). With regards to education, (19.6%) respondents did not have any formal education, (23.3%) had primary education, (14.7%) had secondary education and (42.4%) had a tertiary level of education. With regard to religion, the study population was predominantly Christian (92.7%).

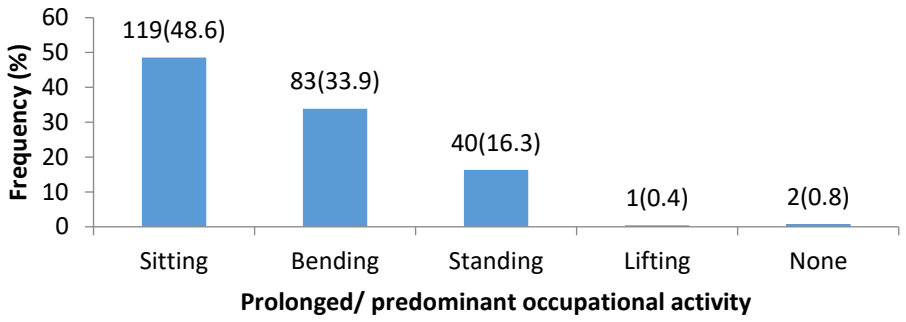


Figure 1: Distribution of predominant activity associated with respondents' occupation

Figure 1 shows the predominant activity the respondent's occupation mostly entailed. Prolonged sitting (48.6%), bending (33.9%) and prolonged standing (16.3%) were important occupational risk factors for LBP. Only one respondent reported lifting as most frequent activity while two patients could not tell what their activity mostly entailed.

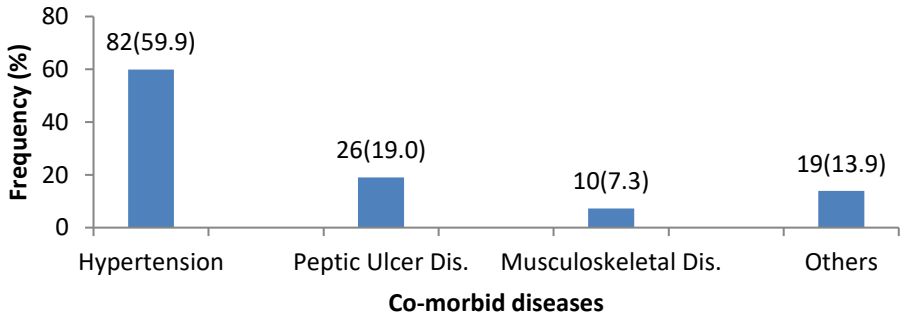


Figure 2: Distribution of co-morbid conditions identified among respondents

Figure 2 shows the distribution of co-morbidities identified among respondents. Majority (59.9%) of the patients were hypertensive, (19%) had peptic ulcer disease while (7.3%) had various forms of musculoskeletal abnormalities apart from LBP. Other forms of co-morbid conditions as stated above represented (13.9%) and were Diabetes Mellitus, DM (4), Erectile Dysfunction, ED (2), Asthma (3), Depression (1), Fibroid (1), Goitre (1), Haemorrhoid (1), Infertility (1), Pelvic Inflammatory Disease, PID (3), Psychiatric disorder, (1), and Rash (1).

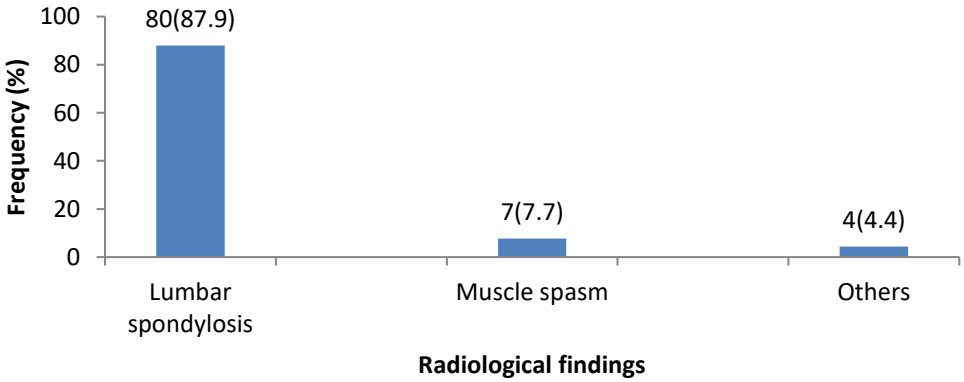


Figure 3: Radiological findings in respondents

Figure 3 shows the radiological findings of the patients. Majority of the respondents (87.9%) had lumbar spondylosis, (7.7%) patients had muscle spasm while (4.4%) of the respondents had radiological findings of spondylolisthesis, discitis or both (others)

Table 2: Prevalence of low back pain

Month of Presentation	Population (N=7,838)	No of Patients (n=245)	Prevalence Rate (/100)
May	1,429	47	3.3
June	1,440	43	3.0
July	1,689	51	3.0
August	1,033	35	3.4
September	1,488	41	2.8
October	753	28	3.9
Total	7,838	245	3.1

Prevalence = Number of cases of disease present in a population during a specific time / Number of persons at risk of having the disease at the specified time

The above ratio is multiplied by 1,000 or 10,000 to yield statistics that are more readily interpretable (Rajvir, 2008).

Prevalence of Low back pain for the period (May-October) $= \frac{\text{Number of cases of LBP (May}-\text{ Oct)}}{\text{Entire population of patients (May}-\text{ Oct)}}$

$= \frac{245}{7{,}838} X\ 1000 = 31.3$

31.3 Per 1000 population or 3.1 per 100 population.

Prevalence of Low back pain for the 6 month period (May-October) among adult patients attending outpatient clinic $= \frac{\text{Number of cases of LBP (May}-\text{ Oct)}}{\text{Total no.of adult patients (May}-\text{ Oct)}}$

$= \frac{245}{7{,}838} X\ 1000 = 31.3$

31.3 Per 1000 population or 3.1 per 100 population.

Discussion

In this study more respondents were in the age group 51-60 years representing 29% followed by those in age group 41-50 years which was 24.5%. Ogunbode *et al.* (2013) in their study found age group 50-60 years as age of highest prevalence of LBP. Their peak incidence of LBP within the age group 50-60 years was however at variance to that of Omokhodion and Sanya (2003) in which the peak incidence of LBP occurred within the age group of 34-40 years. Omokhodion and Sanya's study corroborated that of Birabi *et al.* in which the peak incidence was within the age group 31-40 years (Birabi *et al.*, 2012). This study therefore reflect the effect of age degenerative changes on the structures of the Lower back as well as the fact that the cumulative effect of activities associated with the productive years of life when individuals are engaged in various occupational and daily activities may present as low back pain in the later part of life (51 – 60 years).

Majority of the respondents were married (67.8%) with a high proportion being females (68.6%) compared to males (31.4%). This could probably be because this locality is agrarian, females compared to males engage in activities like farming which was shown to be the prevalent occupational activity of the area. In a study done by Birabi et al among rural farmers in South- South Nigeria, LBP was higher among females compared to males because of sociocultural factors where women are primarily responsible for farming to provide food for the family (Birabi *et al.*, 2012). Galukande *et al.* (2005) also found a higher prevalence of LBP among females in an orthopaedic center in Uganda probably because women seek more medical attention in their setting. This is at variance to the study by Ogunbode *et al.* in South-West Nigeria in which males had a higher prevalence of LBP compared to females (Ogunbode, *et al.*, 2013). Similarly, Punnett *et al.* (2005) in their study on the estimate of the global burden of LBP also found a higher prevalence of LBP in men compared to women. The higher prevalence in males was alluded to the fact that men usually engaged in occupations associated with heavy physical workload and whole-body-vibration compared to females (Fabunnmi, *et al., 2005;* Ogunbode *et al.*, 2013).

The principal occupation of the respondents was farming (28.6%), which describes the occupational and income characteristic of rural dwellers. Civil servants, traders, and students represented 22.1%, 16.7%

and 9.8% respectively which may be a reflection of the presence of institutions like the Local Government Secretariat, Ambrose Alli University in Ekpoma and the Federal Polytechnic in Auchi around the locality of the Teaching Hospital. Over eighty percent (80.4%) of the respondents had formal education as opposed to only 19.6% who did not have any formal education. Of those who had formal education, most of them (42.4%) had tertiary education. This could be due to a positive health seeking behavior amongst educated patients as well as the fact that this study area is a rural one where the inhabitants combine educational pursuit with other activities like farming and trading.

Prolonged sitting (48.6%), prolonged bending (33.9%) and prolonged standing (16. 3%) are important postural patterns associated with farming and trading activities of the respondents. In a study done in a rural hospital in South-West Nigeria, prolonged sitting and standing as well as poor posture were among the activities that predisposed the workers to LBP (Omokhodion and Sanya, 2003). Similarly in another study done among farmers in South-West Nigeria, prolonged bending, prolonged sitting, wrong body posture combined with awkward posture in which these activities were carried out also accounted for LBP in them (Ogunbode *et al.*, 2013).Therefore prolonged sitting, prolonged bending and prolonged standing can be assumed to be predisposing factors for LBP in this study group.

Majority of the patients were hypertensive (59.9%), 19% had peptic ulcer disease (PUD) as a co-morbid condition. 7% had other forms of musculoskeletal disorder. Caution should then be exercised in the use of NSAID in hypertensive patients presenting with LBP. Peptic ulcer disease is also known to be caused or aggravated by NSAID. The prevalence of LBP was found to be 3.1% in Family Medicine clinics of Irrua Specialist Teaching Hospital. This means for every 100 patients seen in the clinics, 3 will have LBP. This prevalence differs from occupational prevalence ranging from 20% in office workers to 72.4% in farmers (Birabi *et al.*, 2012; Fabunmi *et al*., 2005) and hospital-based prevalence of 20.6% and 46.8% (Galukande *et al.*, 2005; Punnette *et al.*, 2005). The reason for this difference might be due to the study population, while this study referred to a total population of patients seen in the family medicine clinic during the period May and October, the earlier highlighted studies targeted distinct occupational groups. The risk for LBP is expectedly higher in certain occupational groups when compared to the general population of patients in the adult outpatient clinic (Guo, 2002; Taechasubamorn *et al.*, 2011; Nagasu *et al.*, 2007).

Conclusions

The period prevalence of LBP was found to be 3.1% in the Family medicine clinics of ISTH.
The age group 51-60 years had the highest number of patients with LBP followed by those within the age group of 41-50 years making these age ranges probably more prone to LBP. Females were more compared to males with a ratio of 1:2.2. Majority of the patients were farmers, civil servants and traders forming the predominant occupations that are known for high risk for LBP. Prolonged sitting, standing as well as bending were predominant occupational activities of these patients and are also known predisposing factors for LBP.

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Prevalence of Antibiotic Self-Medication Among University Students in Kampala, Uganda

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Abstract
Self-medication with antibiotics is a global health challenge of major public health consequences such as the development antimicrobial resistance (AMR). The objective of this study was to determine the prevalence of self-medication practices with antibiotics among the university students in Kampala. It was a descriptive cross-sectional study using a structured self- administered questionnaire among 392 University Students. Selection was by proportional allocation from three universities in Kampala, Uganda. Data was analysed using SPSS software. The prevalence of antibiotic self-medication among respondents was found to be 245 (69.4%). Male students 152 (62%) had the highest percentage of antibiotic self-medication while students aged 15-24 (68.5%) had the highest percentage of antibiotics self-medication, a higher proportion of foreigner students 119 (51.3%) self medicated on antibiotics compared to indigenous students 113 (48.7). In conclusion, the prevalence of antibiotic self-medication was high. It is recommended that the management of various higher educational institutions raise awareness on the dangers of antibiotic self medication, design and implement strategies to improve school heath services to subsequently reduce the burden of this public health problem.

Keywords: Self-medication, Antibiotics, University Students, Kampala.

Introduction

Self-medication can be defined as the self-consuming of medication without getting advice from a physician for either diagnosis or treatment (Machado-Alba *et al.*, 2014). According to a study carried out by Gebeyehu and his colleagues (2015) stated that Antibiotics are one of the major medicines across the globe that people are using in the treatment of the occurrence of the infectious and deadly disease are common without the advice of a physician. The idea and act of using this drug have created a lot of problems to human health such as the adverse effects, poor treatment attitude and long-term effects on human (Roca *et al.* 2015). Generally, self-medication is one of the global health challenges with major public health consequences, for example, the resistance of drug, destruction of essential and prominent organs in the body, also added to the death mainly interaction of antibiotic with another drug (Osemene K, Lamikanra A. 2012). Among the African countries, the prevalence of using drugs ranges from 11.9% to 76% (Sapkota *et al.*, 2010). The majority are buying antibiotics form pharmacies outlet without prescription from a physician (Gitema *et al.*, 2011) for the treatment of some infectious diseases such as cough, common cold, sore throat, runny nose, diarrhoea, menstrual symptoms, gastrointestinal tract infection, skin infection and urinary tract infection (Fadare *et al*., 2011).

The major reason why most people are using antibiotics without a prescription from a physician in treatment similar disease, very cheap, accessibility and availability of antibiotics, common diseases, accept without verification or proof of antibiotics and also use in a difficult or dangerous situation (Akrami *et al.*, 2015). The problems associated with using the drug without physician prescription in Kampala-Uganda are dangerous and rampant. It was reported by Mbonye Martin (Makerere University Reports, 2014) that self-medication has continued to increase driven by the increasing levels of poverty, poor health services and ever mushrooming drug shops with varying degree of quality. There is an increase in the antibiotic resistance even to well-tolerated antibiotics. A study in Uganda recorded the larger percentage of people (75.5%) using antimicrobial medicine without a prescription from doctor such as fever, headache, not willing to eat, pain and general weakness of the body were used to cure them without prescription (30.3%) (Moses, 2014). Knowing those reasons or causes of using the medicine without a prescription from a physician in a particular environment will provide a good way of addressing it. Kampala as a city and capital of Uganda plays a vital role in housing many foreigners and different

tribes within Uganda. This study is intended to determine the prevalence of practice self-medication with antibiotics among the university students in Kampala, Uganda.

Methodology

Study Design, Site and Population

The descriptive cross-sectional study design was used to collect data on the factors associated with self-medication of antibiotics among University Students in Kampala. A structured, self-administered questionnaire was given to individual undergraduates from the chosen universities after explanation and consented. This study was carried out among three (3) Private Universities within Kampala, namely: Kampala International University, Kansanga; Cavendish University, Nsambya; and Islamic University in Uganda, Kibuli. The population was drawn from the entire population of the three (3) selected Private Universities. The total population of all the Institutions summed up to 20,780 which is our study population.

Sample Size Determination

The sample size of the study was extracted for the study population (20780), which was determined using sloven's formulae.

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

where; n= Sample size, N= Target population, E= Margin of error (0.05), giving n= 392**.**

Sampling Strategy

Convenient sampling was used in selecting the three universities as they were easily accessible to the researcher. A simple random sampling strategy was used to sample the population of each university selected. The population of each university that was sampled from the entire university population were determined using a proportional calculation.

Table 1: Sampling Strategy

University	**Sample Population**	**Sample Size**
Kampala International University	13938	262
Islamic University in Uganda	3883	73
Cavendish University Uganda	2959	56
Total	**20,780**	**392**

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using SPSS version 22; the information extracted from the respondents using questionnaire were entered into the SPSS using appropriate coding methods then descriptive, bivariate and multivariate analysis was done. Descriptive analysis was used to determine, common ailments related to self-medication and to analyze the rate of using the medicine without a prescription from physician. Categorical variables were summarized using proportions and then presented in tables and graphs.

Ethical Consideration

Ethical clearance was collected from Cavendish University Uganda (CUU) Research Ethics Committee after the approval of the research. Permission was also obtained from selected universities for data collection, after proper permission by the universities, data were then collected. Informed consent was obtained from respective participants in the survey.

Results

The results of this study will be presented inform of tables and graphs with some details explanations.

Table 2: Demographic Data of University Students

Variable	Categories	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	231	62.8
	Female	137	37.2
Age group	15-24	229	63.4
	25-34	111	30.7
	35 and above	21	5.8
Marital Status	Single	312	84.8
	Married	44	12
	Divorced	7	1.9

The majority 231 (62.8%) students interviewed were the male and most, 229 (63.4%) of the student were of age 15-24 years. Out of the 368 respondents, 312 (84.8%) were not married as shown in Table 2.

Table 3: The Prevalence of Self-Medication of Antibiotics Among the University Students in Kampala

Variable	Categories	Frequency	Percentage
Self-medication	Yes	245	69.4
	No	108	30.6

When the students were asked if they had ever self-medicated themselves with antibiotics, 245 (69.4%) reported yes as presented in table 3 students out of 353 students sampled practiced self-medication of antibiotics. The prevalence of self-medication was found to be 69.4%, which indicated that 7 out of every 10 Uganda students practice self-medication of antibiotics as indicated the table 3. Out of 245 students that practice self-medication of antibiotics, male students 152 (62%) have the highest percentage of anti-biotic self-medication while female students have 93 (38%). Students between the ages of 15-24 165 (68.5%) have the highest percentage of antibiotics self-medication, follow by students between the ages of 25-34, 63 (26.1%) and students between the ages of 35 and above 13 (54%). Comparing the foreigners and indigene in Uganda, foreigners 119 (51.3%) have slightly higher percentage above the indigene 113 (48.7) in antibiotic self-medication as shown in Table 4 below.

Table 4: The Distribution of the Prevalence Among the Demographic Factors

Variable	Categories	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	152	62
	Female	93	38
Age Group	15-24	165	68.5
	25-34	63	26.1
	35 and above	13	54
Nationality	Indigene	113	48.7
	Foreigners	119	51.3

Discussion

The prevalence of antibiotic self-medication was found to be 7 out of every 10 students. The male students' anti-biotic self-medication is almost twice as that of the female; this could be as a result of more males willing to consent to the research and also could be due to poor health-seeking altitude of male and the high tendency of risks taking by the male. Students between the ages of 15-24 have high self-medication with antibiotics while students with ages 25-34 have least in self-medication with antibiotics, this can be attributed to the likelihood of young people taking risks. Comparing the foreigners and indigenes in Uganda, the foreigner is slightly higher than indigene in antibiotic self-medication as shown in the frequency table 4. In the prevalence between the foreigners and indigenes, most of the foreigners in this study population were mainly from developing countries, the conclusion could be drawn that self-medication is a problem of developing countries which Africa is one of them.

This result is similar to a study by Yousif and Abubakar, 2014, which found 8 out of 10 prevalence of antibiotics self-medication in a population, the survey was done in Taif city. Another study by Tadele Eticha et al., however, show relatively low in the prevalence of antibiotics self-medication with 4 out of 10 among regular undergraduate students of ACMU in April 2014. So also, Girma et al., 2011 found self –medication prevalence of 2 out of 5. The above findings highlighted widely high prevalence of antibiotic self-medication. The implications of antibiotics self-medication are high resistance to the drugs, the strain on the metabolic system of the body, severity of diseases, uncontrollable diseases etc. it may also lead to a very strong strain or burden on the government budget on diseases and its curative processes. If these acts persist, it may be very hard to avert the emerging diseases and reduce diseases spread which may later result in widespread of diseases.

Conclusions

The prevalence of antibiotic self-medication was high. It is recommended that the management of various higher educational institutions raise awareness on the dangers of antibiotic self medication, design and implement strategies to improve school heath services to subsequently reduce the burden of this public health problem.

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A Building Information Modelling Framework for Enhanced Public Participation in Customised Mass Housing Projects in Africa

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Abstract
Government's response has witnessed phenomenal increase in mass housing infrastructures in a deliberate attempt to provide accommodation to the citizenry. Attainment of liveability standards and other personal tastes are a growing source of concern to many housing facility users, mass housing projects' (MHP) stakeholders, and researchers alike. This study identifies the public participatory methods used in MHP; examines the challenges of identified public participatory approaches in MHP; assesses the prospects of Building Information Modelling (BIM) or Information Communication Technology (ICT) participatory framework for customised MHP; proposes an integrated BIM/ICT public participatory framework for customised MHP. The study methodology involved a critical review and exposition of relevant related literature, and concludes that Nigeria and other African nations adopt mass housing programmes that do not reflect the specific needs of end users. The study recommends the use of 'citizen control' in order to share the responsibilities of decision making; to take advantage of the compatibility of BIM/ICT for an interface that ensures user participation; and finally, a wide adoption of the study's BIM/ICT framework in order to reap the benefits of public participation in customised MHP that meets users' requirements.

Keywords: BIM, ICT, Housing Infrastructure, Mass Housing, Public Participation.

Introduction

Housing is central in the growth of emerging cities in order to fill the gap created by increasing urban housing deficit. The last six decades has been marked with a growing concern of government for intervention in the procurement of urban housing (Wakely, 2014). In a bid to curtail the current huge deficit in the stock of available houses, the three tiers of government in Nigeria -local, state, and federal- have adopted mass housing schemes as a method of solving the problems (Folaranmi, 2012a). The Centre for Affordable Housing Finance in Africa (CAHF, 2016) declares that housing deficit in Nigeria is estimated at 17 million dwelling units, with at least 1 million units needed annually to bridge the gap. Although government's efforts towards provision of mass housing for low-income earners in Nigeria has been considered somewhat adequate, it has however been viewed as unsatisfactory (Mohit and Iyanda, 2016). Jambol *et al.* (2013) reported that this is because the government has consistently used a top-down approach in the design and implementation of mass housing schemes which has failed to engage the relevant stakeholders (the end-users, inclusive of land owners and private institutions) in the decision-making process. Ilesanmi (2010) posits that the public housing as a product of direct state intervention in housing shortages has elicited quite a great deal of criticism worldwide. Jusan and Sulaiman (2005) states that although completed houses assumedly meet building and planning regulations, there is often failure of the design in meeting expectations of users from different backgrounds. Zarewa (2019) argues that for the successful delivery of large infrastructure projects, such projects largely depend on the effective involvement of all stakeholders who have shared interests in such projects. This is because of the need to capture various stakeholders' needs and expectations within the framework of a project delivery process. Bashari *et al.* (2019) assessed how residents in Jigawa State, Nigeria perceived the delivery of mass low-income housing of the state. The study showed the critical need for consumers or end-users to be involved right from the onset in the delivery of such housing.

Additionally, an earlier study by Olayiwola *et al.* (2005) on the problems and challenges plaguing the delivery of public housing in Nigeria highlighted the inability of the houses provided to meet the requirements of occupants, citing the provision of one-bedroom houses for the low-income group with an average family size of six (6) persons. In another development, Ilesanmi (2010) study of five low-income and three medium income housing estates in Lagos, Nigeria -aside from assessing the physical characteristics of the public buildings- fundamentally examined the extent to which the houses satisfy the

needs of the residents. In all cases, the occupants' desired liveability conditions are barely met thereby hindering the satisfaction derived from such housing. Ultimately, this goes to infer that housing provisioning for the public has failed due to limited inquiry and analysis of housing requirements from the occupant's point of view. In this direction, the concept of Post-Occupancy Evaluation (POE) has attracted the attention of several scholars and many definitions of this phenomenon have consequently been made. The numerous POE studies severally aim at determining whether or not design decisions made by the architects are delivering the performances required by building users. Therefore, the context of Mass Housing Projects (MHP) needs to consider a bottom-up approach where consumers' inputs, opinions and interest are sought in order to meet end user requirements from concept planning to public housing delivery. Similar to the case of Nigeria, housing policies in other African countries like, Ghana, Uganda, Cameroon, Swaziland, Johannesburg, and many more have not had the desired effectiveness and impact either, hence the need for people or community engagement in MHP (Shelter Afrique, 2010).

Public participation is therefore imperative in the processes of housing provision (UN-Habitat, 2007) in order to customise housing to meet their target needs (Folaranmi, 2012c). Nour (2011) described public participation for housing and the management of urban services as a process where people as consumers and producers of housing and urban services, and as citizens, influence the course and quality of housing and related services available to them. User participation is vital in mass housing personalization or customisation as the home environment is reflective of man's physical and psychological needs which are ever changing (Jusan and Sulaiman, 2005). The role citizens play in defining the advancement or improvement in public housing delivery is critical. While the conventional public participatory approaches are salutary, they however, lack the desired cutting-edge qualities for an impactful and effective public participation (Moobela and Mahdjoubi, 2010). They fail to ensure genuine end-user participation thereby, depriving the public of the opportunity to make their ideas known at conceptual design stages (Innes and Booher, 2004). In most cases there is no interchange of information between the multiple sides of communicating parties as interest groups or vocal persons often hijack the overall process (Petts and Leach, 2000). This indicates that there is hardly any room for dialogue between the corresponding parties.

Statement of the Problem

Housing provision through mass housing schemes needs to consider a new approach of public participation towards customisation to meet the desires of the eventual residents (Duarte, 2005; Niemeijer and Vries, 2007). Mass housing customisation is a relatively new concept especially in the construction industry which requires the participation of customers in design (Khalili-Araghi and Kolarevic, 2016). By operationalizing the concept of mass housing customisation, the hopes of residents will be better reflected. In order to meet up with the desired requirements of the end-users to ensure customisation, it is beneficial to consider and learn from past projects through POE. The studies by Zubairu (2002); Zubairu and Olagunju (2012); Zubairu and Ayuba (2012); Adedayo and Zubairu (2013); Anunobi and Zubairu (2015); Adedayo and Zubairu (2016); on POE -albeit not targeted towards MHP- emphasised the need for end-users involvement in the design decision making process of some facilities (informal housing, hotels, schools, factories) within Minna, Niger State, Nigeria. The studies revealed vital information on design requirements that are often ignored that could lead to better user satisfaction. POE establishes the fact that if users of public housing are engaged in the initial design stage, better and more user-friendly designs will be produced that are geared towards meeting the desired liveability conditions of occupants (Zubairu, 2006). This means that learning from the failure of past MHP, future projects can shift towards mass customisation so as to adequately meet with the needs of end-users. In doing so, the paradigm shift in the realisation of mass housing schemes can adopt an innovative approach in such project delivery. Essentially, the design team should be enlarged to accommodate end-users for a holistic experience and salutary results.

Justification of Study

Building Information Modelling (BIM) alongside associated Information and Communications Technology (ICT) presents novel shift in the way buildings are realised. Through BIM, project participants can efficiently collaborate in real-time thereby facilitating communications from the idea/conception stages down to schematic design, and through to completion/handover (Khalili-Araghi

and Kolarevic, 2016). Studies abound on customisation in developed countries involving public participation for mass housing (Duarte, 2005; Niemeijer and Vries, 2007; Shin et al. (2008); Benros and Duarte, 2009). However, these studies were more focused on computer programming rather than BIM. The studies of Yenerim *et al.* (2011); Yenerim and Clayton (2013; 2016) used BIM to ensure that residents of US low-income communities are engaged in housing design decision making. However, the studies were limited to self-help housing rather than customised mass housing (CMH), and without relevant ICT techniques to engage the residents. While the aforementioned studies reflect the importance of public participation in housing in developed countries, related studies in mass customisation of housing in developing countries and specifically Africa is lacking. Hence, this research seeks to explore the potential of BIM and related ICT capabilities in adopting a bottom-up approach towards effective public participation in customised MHP in Nigeria and other nations of Africa. While this research focuses on the Nigerian perspective, it is envisaged that the model prescribed in this study can also find its relevance in the wider African continent and other developing economies.

Research Objectives

1. To identify the public participatory methods used in MHP.
2. To examine the challenges of identified public participatory approaches in MHP.
3. To examine the prospects of BIM/ICT based participatory framework for customised MHP.
4. To propose an integrated BIM/ICT based public participatory framework for customised MHP.

Theoretical Framework

The Concept of Mass Housing Projects (MHP)

The term "mass housing" simply means to mass-produce a house. MHP means to build the same model/design many times in order for it to be useful to many people as possible. Ahadzie (2007) declares that mass housing was imbibed into the construction industry from the manufacturing sector to describe mass production techniques of housing development. Adebayo (2012) defined mass housing as the provision of large number of housing units for a selected or prospective group of people or in some cases, the general public. MHP is also viewed as the design and construction of standardised multiple domestic housing units, usually in the same or several geographical locations, executed within the same project scheme and under the same management and contract (Kwofie *et al.* 2014). The concept of MHP was brought into existence by the continuously increasing global population and constant transformation (Tabet *et al.* 2016). This has led to the consequential increase in demand for housing to adequately respond to the needs of the masses. Mass housing, as the name suggests, is intended for the masses. According to Oxley (2000), mass housing was driven in Western European housing policies due to housing shortages after the Second World War. The origin of mass housing can be traced to 1860s where the earliest social housing was said to have been established. The first England local authority housing was built between 1863 and 1869 (HPD, 2006). The reasons for mass housing vary amongst countries though the aim is often in response to housing shortages. Several authors aver that housing problems are often caused by rapid increase in population, urbanization, and in some cases natural disaster (Tabet *et al.* 2016; Tian et al., 2015; Kwofie *et al.* 2014; Onder, 2007;). As such, population increase in urban cities without adequate provision for housing units is responsible for the housing shortages.

In the Nigerian context, the adoption of the colonial masters' method of housing led to the formation of what is referred to as the Government Reserved Areas (GRAs), which catered for the upper-class in the society. The improvement in the economic capability of the middle- and low-income class saw the government providing staff quarters for them also (Adebayo, 2012). Mass housing in recent times has constituted a major concern for urban dwellers, especially with the population explosion, and massive rural-urban drift in Nigeria. This typically resulted in increased population densities, and scarcity of urban housing which as a counteractive measure, the government resorted to mass and social housing to deal with the challenges.

Housing Personalization

Personalization approach to mass housing allows users to be involved in the design or improvement of their living environment for achieving sustainable development UN (1992). Personalization as a concept

of self-provision housing which is about building quality homes within the standards set by the households themselves (Jusan and Sulaiman, 2005) which also has excellent cost saving potentials (Duncan and Rowe, 1993). Personalization as a sustainable housing approach enables users to have affordable quality houses and which often relates to the structural modification of houses involving house extension, renovation, transformation and remodelling (Jusan and Sulaiman, 2005). The practice of personalization is prevalent in India, Egypt, Bangladesh, Ghana, Zimbabwe, and Malaysia (Tipple, 2000) and this allows users to realise their aspirations in the built environment (Rapoport, 1982). There is a significant value gap between a house designer and a house user, with the user's values considered more important (Rapoport, 1982; 2000).

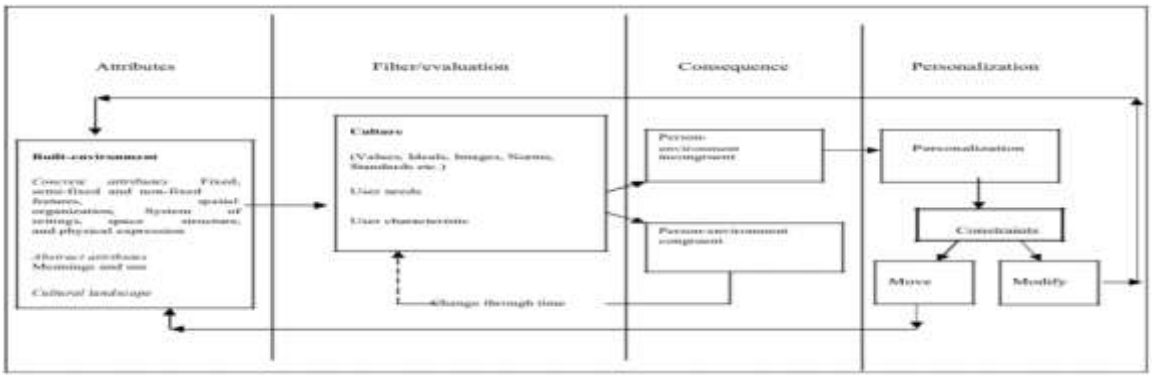


Figure 1: Theoretical model for personalization in built environment
Source: Jusan and Sulaiman (2005)

The formal sector of Ghana's housing delivery is dominated by players in the public sector (Table 1). The activities of the sector contribute about 10% of total dwelling units with focus on middle and high-income households (UN-Habitat, 2011). Ghana's formal sector public actors are led by Ministry of Water Resources, Works and Housing (MWRWH) and its Directorate of Housing provides policy design in the housing sector. A key challenge in Ghana's housing provisioning is the division between public policy and the key players - more specifically households and informal institutions. This is because Ghana's public policies and regulations on housing do not take into account the capacities and needs of households within the present context of increasing land scarcity, rising cost of housing provisioning, and the escalating prices of building materials among several others.

Table 1: Key Actors in Ghana's Housing Sector

Key Housing Sector Actors				
Traditional	Public	Private	NGO	International
Chiefs	MWRWH	GREDA	Habitat for Humanity	Cities Alliance
Queen mothers	MLGRD	GHACEM	People's Dialogue	UN-Habitat
Family heads	MLNR	Universal Banks	COHRE	World Bank
Clan heads	NDPC	Mortgage companies	Housing the Masses	GIZ
Land priests	ECG	NBFIs	Amnesty International	
Individual households	GWCL	Building/architectural firms/consultants	GFUP	
Artisans/small-scale contractors (carpenters, masons, electricians, plumbers, steel bender, etc.)	CWSA DUR Lands Commission MMDAs TCPD EPA	Steel/roofing manufacturing companies		
Land/housing agents	State Housing Company Ltd			

Source: Adopted from Ghana Statistical Service, 2014

Issues of Public Participation in Africa's MHP

Widely regarded as an approach towards sustainable development, public participation presents a promising edge towards ensuring improved living conditions for the residents of mass housing

schemes. Andre *et al.* (2006) defines public participation as the engagement of persons or groups that are positively or negatively affected by, or interested in a proposed project, program, plan or policy that is subject to a decision-making process. Moseti (2010) argues that the precept of public participation holds on the fact that people affected by any resolution, have the right or entitlement to be involved in the decision-making process. This basically means that authorities or policy makers will have to set aside a collaborative platform where the government and the general public or civil society will contribute in the decision-making process of any development. By so doing, the public is empowered through such platform to directly influence decisions that are otherwise determined by a centralised system of authority thus nurturing justice and equity. Some key benefits germane to public participation according to UN-Habitat (2007) include: sense of tolerance and cooperation among ethnic groups; sense of ownership among stakeholders; increased abilities for citizens to negotiate and manage projects; recognition of the needs of the civil society and better targeting of decisions to satisfy such needs; and increased cost efficiency and effectiveness of projects based on societal requirements. While the aforementioned benefits (of public participation) are hugely acknowledged in literature, methods adopted for public participation can prove challenging even for mass housing provision thus exposing their weakness towards such development.

Existing Participatory Approaches and their Weaknesses

There is no doubt that public participation has an immense role to play in MHP but the fundamental question here, as a matter of fact is "how can the limiting factors of the existing approaches be tackled for effective public engagement towards customised mass housing schemes (CMHS)?" An extensive awareness of the limitations of the various approaches will wholly uncover strategies that can be adopted to bridge the gap between existing participatory approaches and the realization of CMHS. Dibra (2010) identified public hearings, participatory budget processes, and referendums as some of the major participatory mechanisms in practice. This is backed by Moseti (2010) who indicated that some key participatory tools include: study circles; citizen advisory boards; government contract committees; public hearings; and public watchdog groups. Innes and Booher (2000; 2004) argued that key participatory techniques mostly adopted (in the context of the US) include: public hearings; written public comments (on proposed projects); and citizen-based commissions. Public hearings appear to be the most commonly used system of participation where information, views, and any objections are expressed in a formal meeting between citizens and government authorities with the aim of influencing the authorities for, or against a particular subject of discussion (Dibra, 2010). However, while there are benefits associated to it, its drawback is that it does not allow for the interchange (of information) between the public and the authorities as it is typically a one-way communication process where the opinions of the public are merely channelled to policy makers. This makes it non-binding in the sense that opinions expressed do not compel to act accordingly (Innes and Booher, 2000). This is indicative of the fact that there is hardly any room for debate between the communicating groups. These are also tantamount to written public comments. Referenda alongside public hearings, is another technique of involving the public in any decision-making process. Referenda allow for people to vote in favour of, or against a proposal for establishing a new plan or strategy for a subject under consideration.

BIM for Enhanced Collaboration in MHP

BIM is widely acknowledged as a technology that will curtail the inefficiencies associated with the construction industry. It allows for the digital creation of a virtual building model which contains rich information needed for design, procurement, fabrication, and construction activities required to realise the building (Eastman *et al.*, 2008). Such information is then stored for use in the building's operation and maintenance phases, and eventual deconstruction. Furthermore, it ensures efficient and effective collaboration between all stakeholders (owners, architects, contractors, engineers, and consultants) having a shared interest in the success of a project. This means that as the model is being developed, these stakeholders can constantly refine and adjust project decisions based on the preferences of the owner to ensure accuracy before the project is realised (Carmona and Irwin, 2007). However, while BIM has been hugely successful with regards to housing development in developing countries, its application in developing countries is very much limited (Nuramo and Haupt, 2016), more so in the context of mass housing development. The limitations of the traditional participatory

techniques mean that there is the need to adopt innovative methods for collaborating with communities to develop their housing projects (Baldauf *et al.*, 2013). Marzouk and Metawie (2014) argue that BIM can be used for the selection of optimum housing alternatives for sustainable development. Drawing from the merits of BIM in terms of its collaborative platform as a result of its technological prowess, there is a huge potential that it can promote efficient and effective public participation when compared to the traditional participatory techniques. Arguably, BIM has potentials that ensure real time collaboration between societies and the relevant authorities to curb the problems of substandard housing. Given the scope of this study is further related to the development of CMHS using BIM in the African context, this research sought to explore other related BIM research studies in Africa.

Related BIM/ICT Based Researches in Africa

BIM has gained ground and is continuing to become a major force in the western world. This is indicative of the numerous researches conducted on BIM in developed nations which surpasses that done in developing nations and more specifically, Africa. The study by Jung and Lee (2015) to uncover the status of BIM adoption in six continents revealed that North America is the most advanced. Europe and Australia ranked the next most advanced ahead of Asia, while the Middle East and Africa ranked the lowest as BIM adoption there is still in its infancy. While this is arguably the case, research about BIM in Africa has picked up and is slowly advancing. Smallwood *et al.* (2012); Froise and Shakantu (2014) evaluated the extent to which BIM is in practice in South Africa based on the views and practices of architects and general contractors. Abanda *et al.* (2014) investigated the BIM implementation practice alongside major barriers hindering its uptake in Cameroon. Abanda *et al.* (2014) examined the embodied energy and CO_2 impacts of mud-brick and cement-block building materials for houses in Cameroon using BIM. Abubakar *et al.* (2014) investigated the level of awareness, drivers and barriers to the adoption of BIM in the Nigerian construction industry. Nuramo and Haupt (2016) investigated the role of BIM in sustainable infrastructure design and delivery, coupled with the readiness of Architecture, Engineering and Construction students to implement BIM into practice in Ethiopia. Albeit not specific to Africa, Abanda and Tah (2014) examined the availability and potential of open source BIM software systems for developing countries with limited resources. Kori and Kiviniemi (2015) investigated the prospects of the digital technology market presented by BIM and the readiness of architectural firms to adopt such technology in Nigeria.

The numerous amounts of aforementioned literature indicate the auspicious delve into research about BIM in Africa. However, while this is a welcome approach, research is quite scarce revealing how BIM can be used to support community members' involvement in developing their communities. This is a debatable issue considering the availability and level of ICT use in Africa. Steyn *et al.* (2013) investigated how ICT can be used to drive community participation to solve business related problems. Although the research was not BIM specific, it outlines the vital role of ICT in identifying, and taking the necessary measures to solve community problems by community members. A study conducted by Marzouk and Metawie (2014) proposed a framework for developing low income housing in Egypt by integrating BIM and Generic Algorithms (GA) to ensure sustainable construction. The research uncovered optimum construction materials and techniques that will minimise construction cost and duration while achieving maximum Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED) points for low-income housing projects. Notwithstanding, the study did not consider the involvement of community members. With the availability of ICT and BIM, it is argued that ICT can complement BIM towards developing communities by engaging the community members to fill the gap created by previous studies for more holistic results.

The Prospects of ICT Based Participatory Approaches

In the past few decades, there has been a rapid use of ICT most especially in developing countries (Chinn and Fairlie, 2006). This is often a necessary tool for the sharing of experiences, coordination, and organisation of activities and events. In line with this, an active participatory environment that uses ICT boosts effective engagement of public in decision-making (Garau, 2013). An assessment of the various participatory approaches studied by Rowe and Frewer (2000); Petts and Leach (2000) against

the ladder of participation proposed by Arstein (1969) provides an insight into the various levels that each participatory approach falls into. By examination, most of the approaches from the study of Petts and Leach (2000) are rather one-way involving both traditional, and a number of innovative approaches. Approaches such as advertising, and local/national newspapers strictly inform the public on decisions only in order to raise awareness without any room for true participation. This indicates that they are of rungs 1 and 2. Public hearings and other innovative approaches like focus groups/forums, open house on internet website, and deliberative polls allow the public to give their opinions. However, these approaches are merely for information gathering where the public is seen as a research tool without having any power to influence decision making. Such indication places these approaches in rungs 3-5. Further up the ladder are more innovative approaches that allow for true participation. According to the US Environmental Protection Agency (2016), Citizens' juries involve a randomly selected set of individuals (representing the citizens) who are briefed in detail on the background and current thinking related to a proposed project. It quite involves the ordinary citizens, aiming to empower them for healthy decision making. However, not all interest may be represented and taken into cognisance (Petts and Leach, 2000). Consensus conference is another approach similar to citizens' juries aiming to empower citizens in some way. Community advisory committees involve small groups selected to proffer the views of the community they represent (Rowe and Frewer, 2000). Altogether, these approaches tend to steer towards true participation, but still lack full engagement of the citizens, and as such do not guarantee full satisfaction of the public's interests. If anything, they ensure genuine partnership at rung 6 in figure 2. Planning for Real (PFR), Public Participation Geographic Information System (PPGIS), multimedia, and visioning on the internet tend to be the approaches that push towards genuine participation.

PFR is a nationally recognised community planning process drawn from the assessment of a 3D model of a proposed community plan. This involves a partnership between the community and the local agencies (PFR, 2012). Usually, the plan is modelled manually so that the public can see and touch it as they put forward their views and opinions. PPGIS is a web-based version of PFR involving a virtual version of a community plan which is launched on the web together with the physical model during an organised local event (Kingston et al., 2000). Through both means, the public raise their opinions which are taken into consideration for the final decision on any proposed plan, hence satisfying the rungs of delegated power and total citizen control for true participation in figure 2. Multimedia which allows for virtual simulation of a proposed project is another participatory approach as studied by Moobela and Mahdjoubi (2010). The study demonstrated using a case study of Barton Hill redevelopment in Bristol, UK that multimedia is a viable approach that can substitute futile traditional approaches by engaging the public. In this regard, such approach satisfies rungs 7-8.

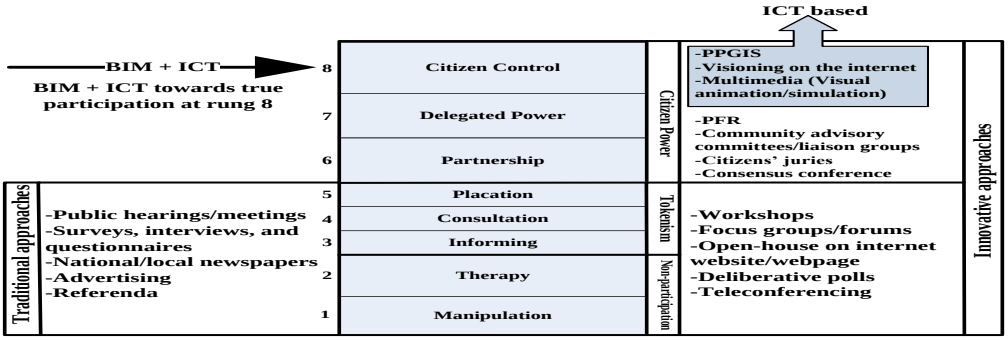


Figure 2: Assessment of Participatory Approaches Against the Ladder of Participation
Source: Authors (2020) adapted from Arnstein (1969)

From an assessment of the model in figure 2, it is evident that ICT based approaches allows for a genuine participation in customized mass housing provisioning. Sabie *et al.* (2016) argue that ICT is pertinent to housing development in the context of scarce resources as it allows for better provision of amenities. BIM which signifies a paradigm shift from the traditional construction approaches presents a technological approach for development supported by ICT. Using BIM coupled with the strengths presented by ICT, communities can be empowered towards deciding, alongside relevant authorities, on the appropriate

practices relevant for developing their housing. While this presents a novel approach for housing development, very little research has been directed towards CMH development using BIM.

Related BIM Studies for Customised Housing Developments

Ever since BIM became a much talked about topic in the Architecture, Engineering, and Construction (AEC) industry, it has been successfully implemented in numerous projects of which it proved quite advantageous. But the bottom line is that it has been used for large and complex projects. While this is commendable, little is known about its ability towards customers' or public participation for the delivery of mass housing. In recent times, there is beginning to be some consensus about BIM use for the delivery of CMH. Park and Kim (2014) examined the potential of BIM towards ensuring sound decision-making for housing refurbishment projects. The study indicated the significance of customers' preferences with regards tochoice of material use in refurbishment elements under the guidance of construction professionals. However, the study was directed towards ensuring energy efficiency in already existing self-help housing by refurbishment and not the realisation of mass housing schemes from inception. Parn *et al.* (2015) argue that BIM presents better opportunities through which CMH can be achieved. Hence, sound customer engagement will ensure that their views and concerns are well incorporated in customised housing delivery. However, the study did not expound on practical processes through which BIM can be used alongside other ICT systems for the delivery of CMH. Rather it focused on how BIM can facilitate customer experience by understanding BIM processes and/or information in the delivery of housing at a holistic level. Andujar-Montoya *et al.* (2015) proposed a theoretical model for mass customisation of buildings through integrating users into the process. The study focuses on users' engagement throughout the construction/execution phase of traditional construction project with particular emphases on integral management of works/tasks towards achieving project goals and objectives. The study of Badaulf *et al.* (2013) proposed a method for modelling the requirements of public housing clients with the support of BIM. Conversely, it did not directly engage the users as only the technical expertise of construction professionals was considered in enhancing the modelling of such requirements using BIM. Yenerim *et al.* (2011) argues that by facilitating a participatory approach (amongst city/county officials, service providers, architects, planners, engineers, and residents), the housing and living conditions of residents can be improved. However, based on the lack of comprehensive information on design patterns, materials, construction, and parameters of individual housing, no meaningful collaboration can be achieved. Drawing form this, Yenerim *et al.* (2011) developed a database of individual case study houses through the analysis of their forms, orientation, materials, and energy systems using BIM, and proposed that such database would allow for the estimations of energy use, replacement cost, and value for low-income communities. Furthermore, Yenerim and Clayton (2013) proposed a conceptual framework for delivering sustainable cost-effective architecture and construction knowledge from experts to residents of Texas colonias. The study argues that best practices for sustainable cost-effective building design and construction from professionals' views, together with preferences and patterns of construction, compatible with the lifestyle of residents can be incorporated into BIM. This can then be used to produce a toolkit for designing sustainable homes for the residents of Texas colonias by relevant professionals. Building on Yenerim and Clayton (2013), Yenerim and Clayton (2016) developed a Colonias BIM toolkit (CBT) consisting of exclusive library of building components and materials used in their case study. They demonstrated how the CBT can be used to model homes to ascertain utility demands, and concluded that this can be helpful towards determining policy decisions related to design and construction.

Case study examples exist where BIM is being used for mass housing. An example is the development of a component-based system for single and multi-storey homes construction in India by Kieran Timberlake associates. The development takes into account affordable cost, efficient construction, mass-customisable materials, resource conservation, thermal comfort, water recycling, and owner involvement factors (AECbytes, 2016). Also, BIM has been important for the conceptualization and proposal of the Honeycomb Village which will serve as a mass housing option for people living in slums like the Dharavi in India. Rather than having to use mainstream construction materials, the use of local materials and components will be used. A prototype of the project with a few units has since been completed (AECbytes, 2016). The potential of BIM is not yet fully uncovered in the construction industry when compared to other industries, however there is a strong conviction that its capabilities will become more pronounced in due course (Raji and Gomez, 2012). In line with this, this study seeks to propose a

framework that is capable of adapting BIM, facilitated by ICT, into communities in Nigeria and Africa at large as a means of delivering CMHS.

Methodology

This research is a qualitative study involving an exploratory research undertaken towards revealing or uncovering observations and findings, whereby such findings allow for the emergence of a theoretical framework. Naoum (2013) asserted that with a qualitative research, a theory emerges which can be put further to test in subsequent studies. Neuman (2006) argues that qualitative studies create concepts, stressing the development of theoretical emergence whereas quantitative studies tend to test theories previously developed. Since this study is purely a desktop study, it started with a thorough literature review of peer-reviewed sources by way of extensive examination of scientific journal databases to understand the domain of existing public participatory approaches alongside their limitations. Upon understanding their limitations with regards to MHP, studies such as Moobela and Mahdjoubi (2010); Twitchen and Adams (2011) argue that technology can serve to improve upon such bottlenecks presented by the conventional participatory approaches. In line with this, further review of literature was conducted to uncover means through which BIM can prove auspicious towards realising CMH. By aligning the core elements of BIM with its associated ICT capabilities, a framework was developed using the Business Process Modelling and Notation (BPMN) to demonstrate how genuine public participation can be achieved in CMH delivery using BIM. BPMN aims at illustrating components that form an inclusive model which serve to present the manner in which a service and/or product can be provided by ensuring effective automation in a schematised form (Aldin and Cesare, 2009). Hence, it offers a conceptual model of how operations are to be performed with relevant activities and/or events in a control flow logic (Fan et al., 2016). The tool adopted for this is the Bizagi open source process modelling software. This software checks developed models by way of validation so as to guarantee that such a model is free from any error.

Underlying Philosophy

BIM is more than just a suite of software. It is a tool that aligns technology with people, process, and management.

The People

Communities in Africa consist of community development groups or associations which are even more prominent in rural areas. These groups seek to improve themselves through self-help efforts which are organised on a wider scale exceeding the boundaries of villages to local governments, states, and national levels (Okwakpam, 2010). Such groups embark on development projects like construction of roads, markets, health centres, maternity homes, schools, bridges, water supply projects, civic centres, and even electricity projects. Some examples of associations in Nigeria include: All Farmers association of Nigeria, Forolagba community Development Association, Ogunbiyi Community Development association, and the plethora of cooperative societies. Rural Development Centre (RUDEC) is an example of a well-established voluntary association in Cameroon. Some smaller groups are Adashe groups in northern Nigeria, Nago in Ivory Coast, and Jojuma in Togo, where these groups meet weekly or monthly to make small contributory savings scheme which can serve as a source of borrowing in the case of emergencies (Premium Times, 2014). In the context of this study, in order to meet the housing conditions of the public, such associations or groups can participate profoundly in the development process of their housing. This way, they can deliberate with their community or association/group leaders on acceptable building design taking into consideration patterns of construction and their lifestyle without compromising best practices for construction. Additionally, this is facilitated with the expert input of professionals.

The Technology

The strong ability of BIM, coupled with mainstream ICT technology such as the internet, and mobile phones penetration in Africa will be central towards the aim of this study. While BIM constitute the design and construction management tools/software systems that will aid in achieving the desired housing design for CMHS, a platform on which residents/communities can participate and put forth their opinions will be required. This is where mobile computing comes in. According to Rebolj and Menzel (2004), the concept of mobile computing consists of computers, networks, and mobile applications. Computers consist of tablet PCs, pocket computers, palmtops, and wearable computers which can be used indoors,

or outdoors. Networks basically consist of wireless wide, local, and personal area networks not forgetting satellite networks too which can support the connection and communication of mobile computers. Mobile applications on the other hand can support user's processes enabling them to work together collaboratively in a mobile computing environment (Chen and Kamara, 2008). Using mobile computing, leaders of community groups will be able to share and communicate the views and opinions from group members through BIM cloud applications from which project team members can access to incorporate into designs.

The Process

The process constitutes the entire system of how the people involved will use the available technology effectively in the required manner to achieve the ultimate aim of improving their living conditions. While some or most of the members in such community development groups can be ignorant or lacking in the knowledge of best construction practices, they can be enlightened by construction professionals on proper housing developmental methods or techniques. The leaders of such groups, who in most cases are well-educated and informed, can be taught how to use BIM mobile applications. Through meetings, the group members can communicate and share opinions on suitable designs through "words of mouth" which can then be passed on to the BIM professionals using mobile applications by their leaders. The professionals on the other hand, can then be able to review those opinions, advice on the acceptable practice, and then incorporate satisfactory and acceptable techniques of design into BIM models. Through such means, a database of housing components and/or requirements will be available in a BIM system which can facilitate the development of CMHS in present and future cases.

Process Conceptual Diagrams

Figure 3 below illustrates the conceptual map of the process. It demonstrates the participatory approach that can be enhanced by BIM and ICT. Although, figure 3 represents the conceptual map, a detailed process model in fig. 4 below provides an elaborate framework of procedures encompassing both community participation via ICT, and the BIM process. The argument here is that by aligning BIM and the prowess of ICT, residents can participate and collaborate effectively with construction experts, albeit through their leaders to decide on design issues. Such approach will drive towards the delivery of CMHS which will prove beneficial towards sound living conditions in their respective communities.

Discussion of Findings

The findings of this study are fourfold. Table 2 briefly describes how the research objectives were achieved. Having achieved the set objectives, the following findings are discussed. Firstly, common participatory approaches used for citizens' engagement were identified and it was understood that most of the approaches were social science based that tend to lack the power of genuine participation. For example, common traditional participatory approaches like public hearings, focus groups, and opinion polls are merely one-way interactive processes where citizens' opinions do not necessarily affect policy making decisions. Hence, such processes can prove abortive in CMHS delivery since public opinions on housing requirements need to be satisfied. Secondly, while there are a number of innovative participatory approaches that tend to drive towards true participation albeit some limitations, it was realised that ICT based approaches can prove effective in bridging the gap between healthy public participation and decision-making process. This is seen as established in fig. 2. In line with this, the technological finesse of BIM (as an efficient collaborative tool), taking into consideration the three main BIM paradigms of people, process, and technology were used to establish how BIM can align with ICT in Customised MHP. Lastly, the critical discourse due to the findings uncovered led to the development of a process model for BIM/ICT-based process model for CMHS delivery. It is envisaged that such a framework can enhance the achievement of CMHS through genuine public engagement.

Table 2: How the research objectives were achieved

S/No.	Objectives	Achievement of objectives
1	To identify the public participatory methods used in mass housing projects (MHP).	This was achieved through an in-depth literature review where the study started off with the appreciation of public participation in the general context. Subsequently, thorough assessments of the existing participatory approaches were discussed.
2	To examine the challenges of identified public participatory approaches in MHP.	This was achieved through an extensive assessment of peer-reviewed literature similar to objective 1. The challenges with existing public participatory approaches were illustrated in Fig. 2.
3	To assess the prospects of BIM/ICT based participatory framework for customised MHP.	The findings arising from critical exposition of literature on objectives 1 and 2 corroborate that BIM and ICT techniques are compatible, and can successfully be interfaced for use in ensuring user participation in the delivery of CMHS. This was established through the numerous studies considered for this research.
4	To propose an integrated BIM/ICT based public participatory framework for customised MHP.	Arising from the prospects of objective 3 as stated above, the integration of BIM and the relative capabilities of ICT were employed in developing a framework for public participation in the delivery of CMHS. This was established in fig.3, which was integral in achieving a schematised model in fig. 4.

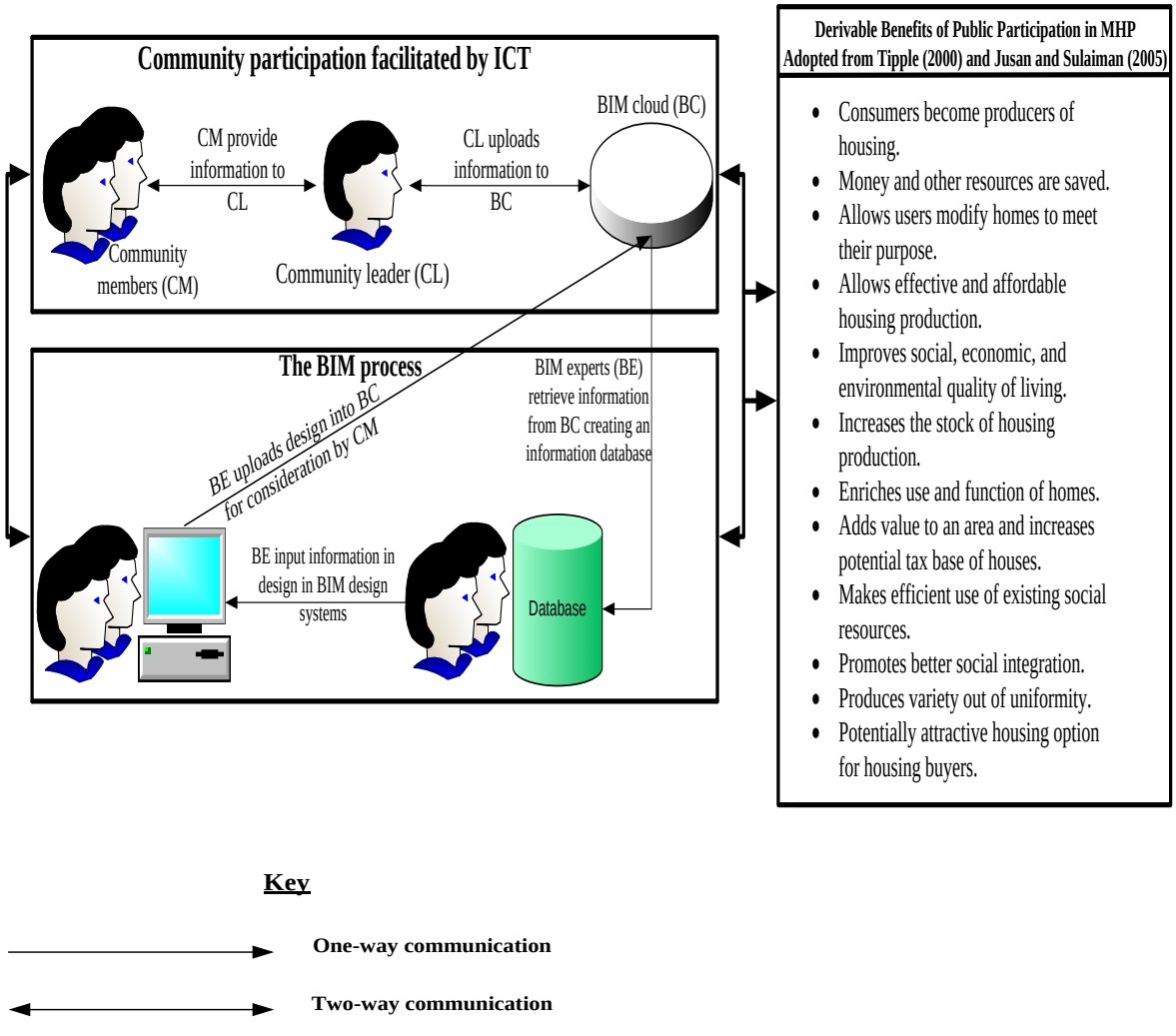


Figure 3: BIM-ICT based public participation conceptual map for CMH development
Source: Authors (2020)

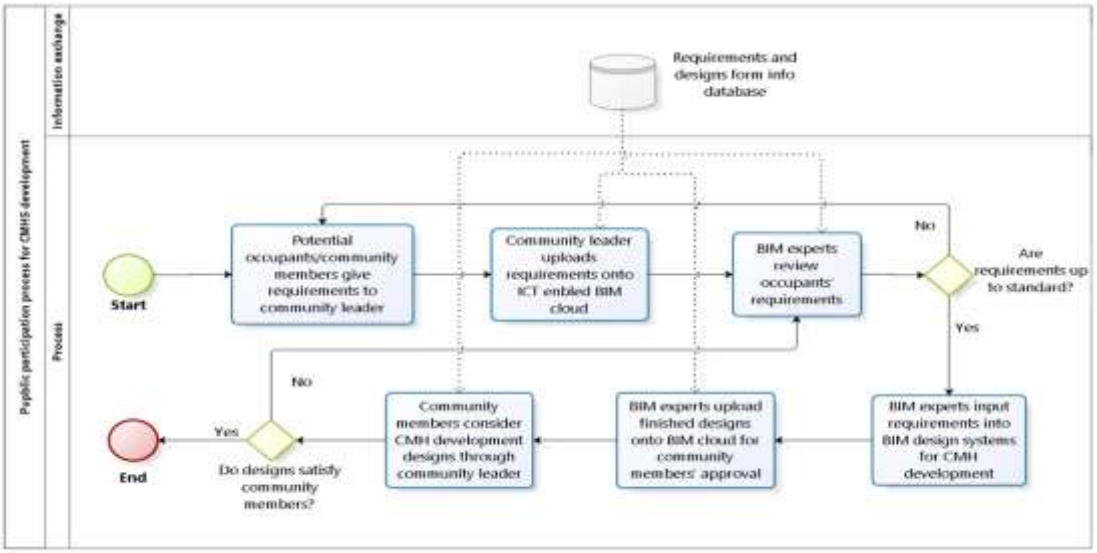


Figure 4: BIM-ICT Based Process Model for CMHS Delivery
Source: Author (2020)

Conclusions

Housing is an integral element of social welfare and an urgent response to meet the growing infrastructure deficit occasioned by urban sprawl. Recent years have been characterized by the need to customise mass housing in order to meet the desired liveability conditions of occupants. Nigeria and most other nations of Africa adopt a somewhat generic mass housing programmes that do not reflect the specific needs of the end users. Housing infrastructure users desire distinct housing conditions to reflect their personal desires, socio-cultural biases, religious inclinations, eco-political divergences, etc. In order to meet such housing conditions, it is imperative for mass housing designers, public utility organisations, financial institutions and mass housing policy makers to integrate end users at early stages of project development cycle. The need to adopt Customized Mass Housing Scheme (CMHS) for sustainable housing delivery where the public needs are fully integrated in the critical decision-making processes of MHP is critical. Thus, this in-depth and critical literature review has explored the domain of public participation in MHP in order to gain insight and explore the various public participatory approaches possible, in order to propose an integrated BIM/ICT based public participatory framework for customised MHP. Consequently, the study revealed that most of the participatory approaches do not include in their decision-making processes all the parties required to be involved in CMHS. The study also revealed that BIM/ICT based public participatory approaches have the needed effectiveness to push for genuine public participation in CMHS. BIM has been widely adopted as a tool that can curb the inefficiencies of the built environment as it serves as a platform for real-time collaboration of project stakeholders. The conceptualized BIM/ICT framework can aid public participation in Customised MHP; hence ensuring a bottom-up approach instead of the conventional top-down approach that fails to meet users' peculiar requirements.

Recommendations

Arising from the discussion of findings and conclusion reached on the study, the following recommendations are made:

(i)The use of 'citizen control' in MHP to allow participants to negotiate with project power holders in order to share the responsibilities of decision making.
(ii)To take maximum advantage of the compatibility of BIM and ICT techniques to develop an interface that ensures user participation in the delivery of CMHS.
(iii)A suggested wide adoption of BIM/ICT framework developed by the researchers in order to reap the benefits of public participation in customised MHP that meets users' requirements, needs, and preferences.

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The Effects of Heat and Mass Transfer on Magnetohydrodynamic Oscillatory Flow

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Abstract
In this paper, the effects of heat and mass transfer on Magnetohydrodynamic oscillatory flow in a porous medium under optically thick limit radiation was examined. The system of equation (governing equation) was dimensionalised and then solved analytically. Numerical evaluation of the analytical results obtained was performed and results were drawn graphically to illustrate the influence of various parameters on the velocity and temperature. It is observed that an increase in Peclet number increases the temperature and decrease in the velocity. Also, an increase in radiation parameter increase the temperature and the velocity. The concentration decreases with an increase in Reynolds number, Schmidt number and chemical reaction parameter. Furthermore, the magnitude of fluid velocity decreases with an increase in the thermal Grashof number while it increases as Hartmann number increases. Lastly, the amplitude of the profile of Nusselt increases as the frequency of the oscillation increases and the response of the skin friction is negligible with increasing frequency of oscillation.

Keywords: MHD, Oscillatory Flow, Optically Thick Radiation, Porous Medium, Chemical Reaction.

Introduction

Convective heat and mass transfer in a porous media have varied and wide applications in several areas of science and engineering like energy reservoirs, thermal insulation engineering, exploration of fossil fuel and gas fields, water movements in energy reservoirs, drying of porous solids, chemical catalytic reactors, nuclear waste repositories etc. The study of convective heat and mass transfer mechanisms through a porous medium has been examined by Nield and Bejan (1998, 2017). Bejan and Khair (1985) treated one among the foremost basic cases, specifically buoyancy -induced heat and mass transfer from a consistent plate embedded in a saturated porous medium. Unsteady effect on MHD free convective and mass transfer flow through porous medium with constant suction and constant heat flux in a rotating system studied by Sharma (2004). Shao *et al.* (2018) studied the semi-analytical solution for density-driven flow in a porous media. There has been a revised interest in the study of MHD flow and heat transfer in porous and non-porous media because of the impact of magnetic fields on the boundary layer flow control and on the performance of many systems using electrically conducting fluids. This type of flow has attracted the interest of many researchers such as Chamkha (2000) considered MHD free convection flow from a vertical plate embedded in a thermally stratified porous medium with its hall effects. Kumar and Prasad (2014) analyzed the solution for MHD pulsatile flow driven by an unsteady pressure gradient between permeable beds of a viscous incompressible Newtonian fluid-saturated porous medium.

Combined heat and mass transfer problems with chemical reaction are of importance in several processes and have thus, received a substantial quantity of attention in recent years. In processes like drying, evaporation at the surface of a water body, energy transfer in a wet cooling tower and the flow of desert cooler heat and mass transfer occur at the same time. Dekha *et al.* (1994) investigated the effect of the first order homogeneous chemical reaction on the process of unsteady flow past a vertical plate with constant heat and mass transfer. Uwanta et al (2011) studied the chemical reaction and thermal radiation effects on free convection flow through a porous medium. Senapati and Dhal (2013) studied the magnetic effect on mass and heat transfer of hydraulics flow, past a vertical oscillating plate in the presence of chemical reaction. Ibrahim *et al.* (2015) presented a study on the radiation and mass transfer effects on MHD oscillatory flow in a channel filled with a porous medium in the presence of chemical reaction. Mohammed and Suneetha (2016) considered the impacts of thermal diffusion and chemical reaction on MHD transient free convection flow past a porous vertical plate with radiation, temperature gradient heat source in slip flow regime. The thermosolutal free convection for Newtonian fluid in a saturated porous medium past a vertical porous plate in the presence of chemical reaction, uniform suction or injection and Soret-Dufour

effects has been considered in El Haroui *et al.* (2017). Results revealed that chemical reaction has a significant effect on the concentration field.

However, the interaction of radiation and mass transfer in an electrically conducting optically thick fluid through a channel filled with a porous medium has received little attention. Hence, in this present paper, we investigate the combined effect of magnetic fluid and radiative heat transfer on the unsteady flow of a conducting optically thick fluid through a channel filled with saturated porous medium.

Nomenclature

Thermal Grashof number	G_r		Coefficient of the volume expansion due to temperature	B
Solutal Grashof number	G_c		Coefficient of the volume expansion due to concentration	β^*
Peclet number	Pe		Specific heat at a constant temperature	C_p
Hartmann number	H		Thermal conductivity	K
Schmidt number	S_c		Porous medium permeability coefficient	$\bar{K}$
Concentration reaction parameter	K_r		Electromagnetic induction	B_0
Porous medium shape factor parameters	S		Magnetic permeability	μ_e
Raynolds number	Re		Nusselt number	Nu
Radiation parameter	J		Intensity of the magnetic field	H_0
Constant	Λ		Conductivity of the fluid	σ_e
Concentration	C		Fluid density	P
Skin friction	T		Kinematic viscosity coefficient	V
Magnetic field parameter	M		Friction coefficient	T
Gravitational acceleration	G		Darcy number	Da
Temperature	T		Dimensionless concentration	ϕ
Sherwood number	Sh		Dimensionless velocity	v
Cartesian coordinates along the channel	x,y		Dimensionless temperature Subscripts	θ
Axial velocity	$\bar{u}$		wall condition	W
Pressure	$\bar{p}$			
Radiative heat flux	$\overline{q_r}$			

Formulation of the Problem

Consider an unsteady two-dimensional convective heat and mass transfer flow of a viscous, incompressible, electrically conducting optically thick fluid in a channel filled with saturated porous medium under the influence of an externally applied homogeneous magnetic field and radiative heat transfer. It is assumed that the field has small electrical conductivity and the electromagnetic force produced is very small. A Cartesian coordinate $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$ is assumed where $\bar{y}$-axis lies along the centre of the channel and $\bar{x}$-axis in the distance measured in the normal direction. Then under the usual Boussinesq's incompressible fluid, the equations governing flow field under consideration are:

Momentum Equation:

$$\frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial \bar{t}} = -\frac{1}{\rho}\frac{\partial \bar{P}}{\partial \bar{x}} + \nu \frac{\partial^2 \bar{u}}{\partial \bar{y}^2} - \frac{\nu}{k}\bar{u} - \frac{p_e B_0^2}{\rho}\bar{u} + g\beta(\bar{T} - \overline{T_0}) + g\beta^*(\bar{C} - \overline{C_0}) \quad (1)$$

Energy Equation

$$\frac{\partial \bar{T}}{\partial \bar{t}} = \frac{k}{\rho C_p}\frac{\partial^2 \bar{T}}{\partial \bar{y}^2} - \frac{1}{\rho C_p}\frac{\partial q_r}{\partial y} \quad (2)$$

Species Equation:

$$\frac{\partial \bar{C}}{\partial \bar{t}} = D\frac{\partial^2 \bar{C}}{\partial \bar{y}^2} - \overline{K_r}(\bar{C} - \overline{C_0}) \quad (3)$$

The boundary conditions for the velocity, temperature and concentration fields are:

$$\begin{aligned} &\bar{u} = 0, \bar{T} = \overline{T_w}, \bar{C} = \overline{C_w} \text{ on } \bar{y} = 1 \\ &\bar{u} = 0, \bar{T} = \overline{T_0}, C = \overline{C_0} \text{ on } \bar{y} = 0 \end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

where $\bar{u}$ is the axial velocity, $\bar{t}$ is the fluid temperature, $\bar{p}$ is the pressure, g is the gravitational force, $\overline{q_r}$ is the radiative heat flux, β and β^* are the coefficient of the volume expansion due to temperature and concentration respectively, C_p is the specific heat at constant pressure, K is thermal conductivity, $\bar{K}$ is the porous medium permeability coefficient, $B_0 = (\mu_e H_0)$ is the electromagnetic induction, μ_e is the magnetic permeability, H_0 is the intensity of magnetic field, σ_e is the conductivity of the fluid, ρ is the fluid density and v is the kinematic viscosity coefficient.

It is assumed that the temperature of the walls $\overline{T_0}, \overline{T_w}$ are high enough to induce radiative heat transfer. Here, we assume that the fluid is optically thick, where the flow absorbs its own emitted radiation. For optically thick fluid, the radiative flux term using the Rosseland differential approximation is given as

$$\frac{\partial q_r}{\partial y} = -\frac{16\sigma}{3k}\overline{T_w}^3 \frac{\partial \bar{T}}{\partial \bar{y}} \tag{5}$$

Hence substituting equation (5) into equation (2), we have

$$\frac{\partial \bar{T}}{\partial \bar{t}} = \frac{k}{\rho C_p}\frac{\partial^2 \bar{T}}{\partial \bar{y}^2} + \frac{1}{\rho C_p}\frac{16\sigma}{3k}\overline{T_w}^3 \frac{\partial \bar{T}}{\partial \bar{y}} \tag{6}$$

The following non-dimensional quantities are introduced to write equations (1)-(3) and the boundary condition in dimensionless form:

$$x = \frac{\bar{x}}{a},\ y = \frac{\bar{y}}{a^2},\ u = \frac{\bar{u}}{U},\ t = \frac{\bar{t}U}{a},\ J^2 = \frac{16\sigma \overline{T_w}^3}{3\rho C_p U a},\ Da = \frac{\bar{k}}{a^2},\ Re = \frac{Ua}{v}$$

$$\theta = \frac{\bar{T} - \overline{T_0}}{\overline{T_w} - \overline{T_0}},\ \phi = \frac{\bar{C} - \overline{C_0}}{\overline{C_w} - \overline{C_0}},\ Sc = \frac{v}{D},\ P = \frac{a\bar{P}}{\rho v U},\ kr = \frac{\overline{kr}a}{U},\ H^2 = \frac{a^2 \rho_e B_0^2}{\rho v},$$

$$Pe = \frac{\rho U a C_p}{k},\ Gr = \frac{g\beta(\overline{T_w} - \overline{T_0})a^2}{vU},\ Gc = \frac{g\beta(\overline{C_w} - \overline{C_0})a^2}{vU},\ S^2 = \frac{1}{Da}$$

The dimensionalise equations for momentum, energy and species equation are respectively

$$Re\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial P}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} - (S^2 + H^2)u + Gr\theta + Gc\phi \tag{7}$$

$$\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{Pe}\frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial y^2} + J^2 \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial y} \tag{8}$$

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{ScRe}\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y^2} - k_r \phi \tag{9}$$

The corresponding boundary conditions are:

$$\begin{aligned} &u = 0, \quad \theta = 1, \quad \phi = 1, \qquad \text{on } y = 1 \\ &u = 0, \quad \theta = 0, \quad \phi = 0, \qquad \text{on } y = 0 \end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

where $Gr, H, J, Pe, Re, Da, S = (1/Da)$ are Gashoff number, Hartmann number, Radiation parameter, peclet number, Raynolds number, Darcy number and porous medium shape factor parameter respectively.

Method of Solution

To be able to solve the equations (7)-(9) for pure oscillatory flow, we assume the solution of the form

$$\begin{aligned} -\frac{\partial P}{\partial x} &= \lambda e^{iwt}, \\ u(y,t) &= u_0(y)e^{iwt}, \\ \theta(y,t) &= \theta_0(y)e^{iwt}, \\ \phi(y,t) &= \phi_0 e^{iwt} \end{aligned} \tag{11}$$

where $-\lambda$ is the constant oscillation amplitude for pressure gradient and ω is the frequency of the oscillation. Substituting the values for equation (11) into (7)-(10), we obtain

$$\frac{d^2u_0}{dy^2} - b_1^2 u_0 = -\lambda - Gr\theta_0 - Gc\phi_0 \tag{12}$$

Where $b_1^2 = S^2 + H^2 + Reiw$

$$\frac{d^2\theta_0}{dy^2} + J^2 Pe\frac{d\theta_0}{dy} - iwPe\theta_0 = 0 \tag{13}$$

$$\frac{d^2\phi_0}{dy^2} - b_2^2\phi_0 = 0 \tag{14}$$

where $b_2^2 = (kr + iw)ScRe$

The corresponding boundary conditions becomes:

$$\begin{aligned} u_0 = 0, \quad \theta_0 = 1, \quad \phi_0 = 1, \qquad & \text{on } y = 1 \\ u_0 = 0, \quad \theta_0 = 0, \quad \phi_0 = 0, \qquad & \text{on } y = 0 \end{aligned} \tag{15}$$

Solving equations (12)-(14) subject to boundary condition (15), we obtain the momentum, energy and specie
equation as follows

$$\phi_0 = \frac{\sinh(b_2 y)}{\sinh b_2} \tag{16}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(y,t) &= \phi_0(y)e^{iwt} \\ &= \frac{\sinh(b_2 y)}{\sinh b_2} e^{iwt} \end{aligned} \tag{17}$$

$$\theta_0 = \frac{1}{e^{m_2} - e^{m_1}}(e^{m_2 y} - e^{m_1 y}) \tag{18}$$

$$m_1 = \frac{-J^2 Pe + \sqrt{(J^2 Pe)^2 + 4(iwPe)}}{2}, \qquad m_2 = \frac{-J^2 Pe - \sqrt{(J^2 Pe)^2 + 4(iwPe)}}{2}$$

Therefore,

$$\theta(y,t) = \theta_0(y)e^{iwt} = \frac{1}{e^{m_2} - e^{m_1}}(e^{m_2 y} - e^{m_1 y}) \tag{19}$$

$$\begin{aligned} u_0 = &-\frac{Gr}{(e^{m_2} - e^{m_1})}\left[\frac{e^{m_1}(m_2^2 - b_1^2) - e^{m_2}(m_1^2 - b_1^2)}{(m_1^2 - b_1^2)(m_2^2 - b_1^2)}\right]\frac{\sinh b_1 y}{\sinh b_1} \\ &+ \frac{Gr}{(e^{m_2} - e^{m_1})}\left[\frac{e^{m_1 y}(m_2^2 - b_1^2) - e^{m_2 y}(m_1^2 - b_1^2)}{(m_1^2 - b_1^2)(m_2^2 - b_1^2)}\right] + \frac{\lambda}{b_1^2}\frac{\sinh b_1 y}{\sinh b_1}(\cosh b_1 - 1) \\ &+ \frac{Gc}{(b_2^2 - b_1^2)}\left(\frac{\sinh b_1 y}{\sinh b_1} - \frac{\sinh b_2 y}{\sinh b_2}\right) + \frac{\lambda}{b_1^2}(1 - \cosh b_1 y) \end{aligned} \tag{20}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} u(y,t) &= u_0(y)e^{iwt} \\ &= \left\{ \frac{\lambda}{b_1^2}\frac{\sinh b_1 y}{\sinh b_1}(\cosh b_1 - 1) \right. \\ &- \frac{Gr}{(e^{m_2}-e^{m_1})}\left[\frac{e^{m_1}(m_2^2-b_1^2)-e^{m_2}(m_1^2-b_1^2)}{(m_1^2-b_1^2)(m_2^2-b_1^2)}\right]\frac{\sinh b_1 y}{\sinh b_1} \\ &+ \frac{Gr}{(e^{m_2}-e^{m_1})}\left[\frac{e^{m_1 y}(m_2^2-b_1^2)-e^{m_2 y}(m_1^2-b_1^2)}{(m_1^2-b_1^2)(m_2^2-b_1^2)}\right] \\ &\left. + \frac{Gc}{(b_2^2-b_1^2)}\left(\frac{\sinh b_1 y}{\sinh b_1}-\frac{\sinh b_2 y}{\sinh b_2}\right)+\frac{\lambda}{b_1^2}(1-\cosh b_1 y)\right\}e^{iwt} \end{aligned} \tag{21}$$

The Nusselt number, Sherwood number and skin-friction are important physical parameters for this type of boundary layer flow.

Knowing the temperature field, the rate of heat transfer coefficient at both walls of the channel can be obtained, which in the terms of the Nusselt number, is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} Nu &= -\left(\frac{\partial\theta}{\partial y}\right)_{y=0,1} \\ &= -\frac{m_2 e^{m_2 y}-m_1 e^{m_1 y}}{e^{m_2}-e^{m_1}}e^{iwt} \end{aligned} \tag{22}$$

Knowing the concentration field, the rate of mass transfer coefficient at both walls of the channel can be obtained, which in terms of the Sherwood number, is given by

$$\begin{aligned} Sh &= -\left(\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial y}\right)_{y=0,1} \\ &= -\frac{b_2\cosh(b_2 y)}{\sinh b_2}e^{iwt} \end{aligned} \tag{23}$$

Knowing the velocity field, the skin friction at both the walls of the channel can be obtained, which in non-dimensional form is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} \tau &= -\mu\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\right)_{y=0,1} \\ &= -\mu\left\{\frac{\lambda}{b_1^2}\frac{\cosh b_1 y}{\sinh b_1}(\cosh b_1 - 1)-\frac{\lambda}{b_1^2}\sinh b_1 y\right. \\ &- \frac{Gr}{(e^{m_2}-e^{m_1})}\left[\frac{e^{m_1}(m_2^2-b_1^2)-e^{m_2}(m_1^2-b_1^2)}{(m_1^2-b_1^2)(m_2^2-b_1^2)}\right]\frac{\cosh b_1 y}{\sinh b_1} \\ &+ \frac{Gr}{(e^{m_2}-e^{m_1})}\left[\frac{m_1 e^{m_1 y}(m_2^2-b_1^2)-m_2 e^{m_2 y}(m_1^2-b_1^2)}{(m_1^2-b_1^2)(m_2^2-b_1^2)}\right] \\ &\left. + \frac{Gc}{(b_2^2-b_1^2)}\left(b_1\frac{\cosh b_1 y}{\sinh b_1}-b_2\frac{\cosh b_2 y}{\sinh b_2}\right)\right\}e^{iwt} \end{aligned} \tag{24}$$

Numerical Simulation

Numerical evaluation of the analytical results in the previous section was performed and results are drawn graphically which illustrates the influence of various parameters on the momentum, energy and species. For numerical validation of the analytical results, we considered the real part of the results obtained in the equation. The following parametric values are adopted: Thermal Grashof number $G_{r,}$=1; Solutal Grashof number G_c=1; Peclet number Pe=0.75; Hartmann number H=1; Schmidt number S_c=1; Concentration reaction parameter K_r=1; porous medium shape factor parameters S=1; Reynolds number Re=1; Radiation parameter J=1; λ =1. The velocity, temperature, Sherwood number, Nusselt number and skin-friction are evaluated computationally for different sets of governing parameters via thermal Grashof number G_r, solutal Grashof number G_c,

Hartmann number H, Peclet number Pe, Concentration reaction parameter k_r, Schmidt number S_c, Raynolds Number Re, porous medium shape factor parameters S and radiation parameter J.

Figure 1 shows the concentration profiles for various values of chemical reaction parameter Kr. The results show that, with an increase in the chemical reaction parameter, the concentration decreases.

Figure 2 shows the effect of the Schmidt number Sc on the concentration of the channel. It is observed that an increase in the Schmidt number Sc results to decrease in the concentration. This causes the concentration buoyancy effects to decrease.

Figure 3 shows the concentration profiles for different values of Reynolds number Re. It is noticed that an increase in the Reynolds number results in a decrease in the concentration of the channel.

Figure 4 shows the temperature profiles for different values of radiation parameter J. The results show that the effect of increasing values of radiation parameter J results in a rise in the temperature.

Figure 5 displays the influence of the Peclet number Pe on the temperature of the fluid. It is observed that an increase in the value of Pe increases the temperature of the fluid. The reason is that larger values of Pe are equivalent to an increase in the thermal conductivity of the fluid and therefore heat can diffuse away from the heated surface more rapidly than smaller values of Pe. Hence in the case of larger Peclet number, the rate of heat transfer is reduced.

Figure 6 shows the variation in the Sherwood profile at the upper wall with time. It is observed that there is periodic variation in the Sherwood at the upper wall with time and the amplitude of the profile of Sherwood increases with increasing frequency of oscillation. The pattern of the variation is repeated for higher value of time.

Figure 7 displays the variation in the Nusselt number profile at the upper wall with time. It is observed that there is a periodic variation in the profile of Nusselt at the upper wall with time and the amplitude of the profile of Nusselt increases as the frequency of the oscillation increases. The pattern of the variation is repeated for a higher value of time.

The influence of Peclet number Pe on the velocity profile is shown in Figure 8. The Peclet number defines the ratio of momentum diffusivity to thermal diffusivity. The numerical result shows that the effect of increasing the Peclet number Pe results in a decrease in the velocity.

The velocity profile for different values of the radiation parameter is illustrated in Figure 9. The results show that the effect of increasing values of radiation parameter J increases the magnitude of the fluid velocity.

Figure 10 shows the velocity profile for different values of Grashof number Gc. The solutal Grashof number Gc define the ratio of the specie buoyancy force to the viscous hydrodynamic force. It is observed that the magnitude of the fluid velocity decreases as the solutal Grashof number Gc increases.

Figure 11 illustrates the velocity profile for different values of thermal Grashof number Gr. It is observed that the magnitude of fluid velocity decreases with an increase in the Grashof number G_r.

Figure 12 shows the velocity profile in the boundary layer for various values of Hartmann number H. It is observed that the magnitude of fluid velocity increases with an increase in the Hartmann number H.

Figure 13 presents the variation of the skin friction at the upper wall with time t. It is observed that with an increase in time, the response of the skin is negligible with increasing frequency of oscillation.

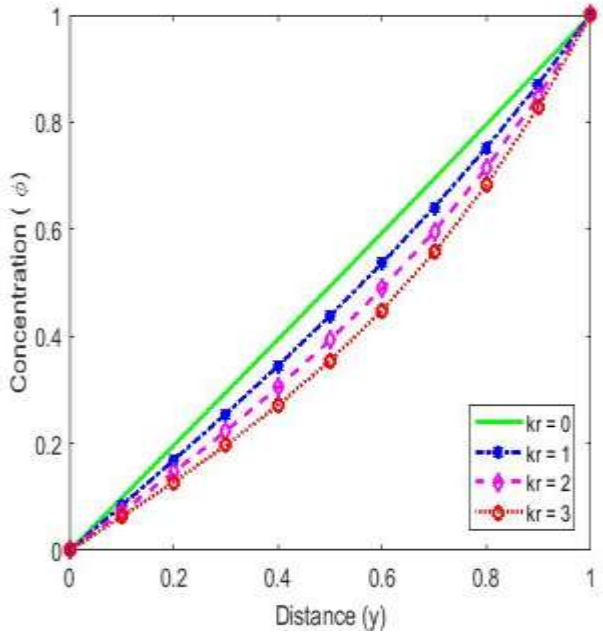


Figure 1: The concentration profile for various values of Kr

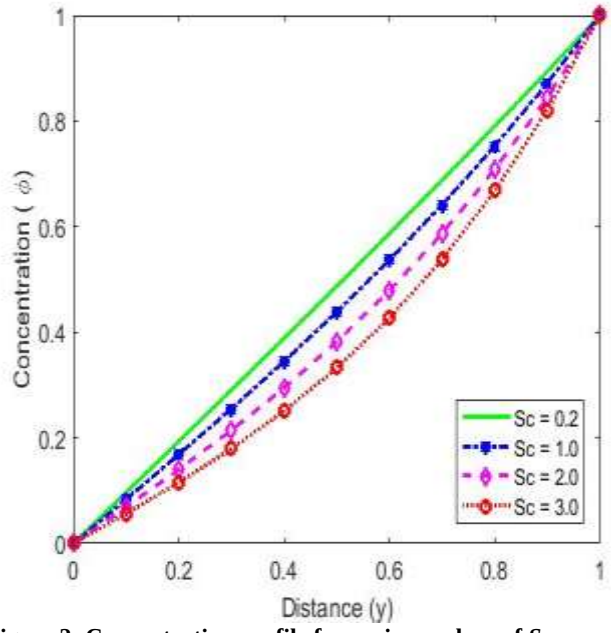


Figure 2: Concentration profile for various values of *Sc*

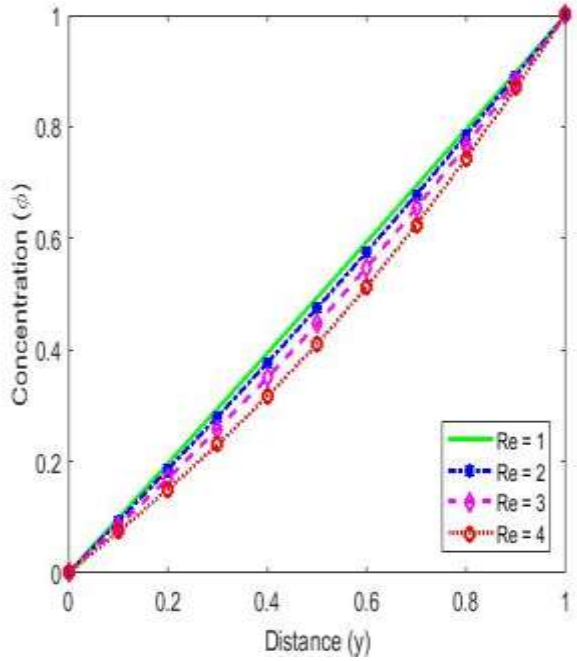


Figure 3: The concentration profile for various values of *Re*

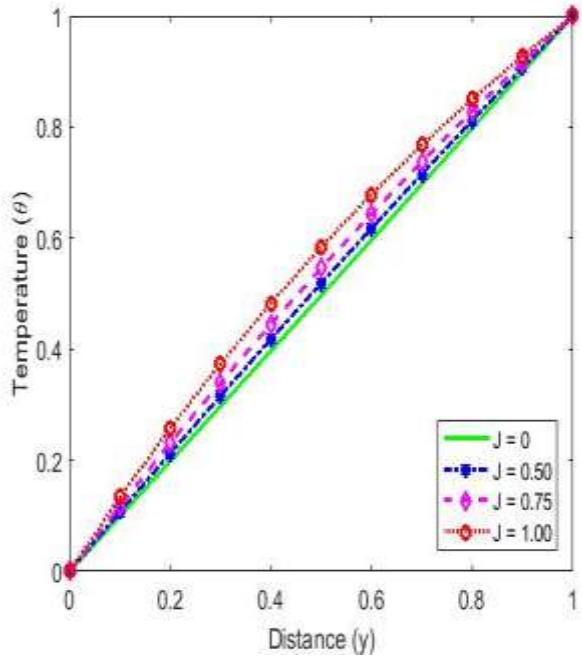


Figure 4: Temperature profile for various values of J

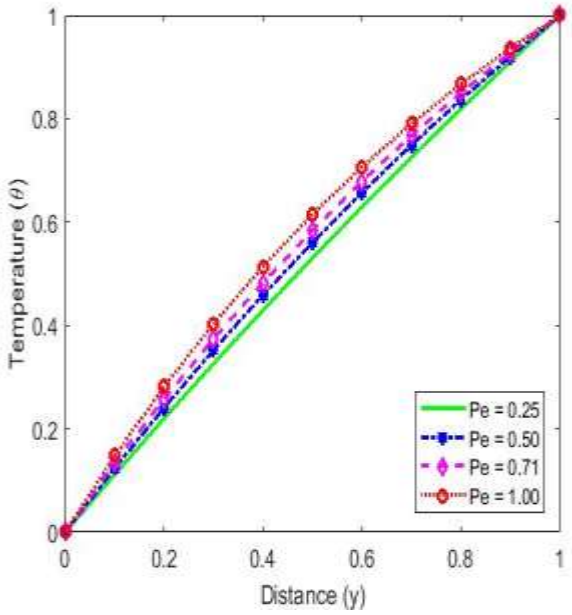


Figure 5: The temperature profile for various values of *Pe*

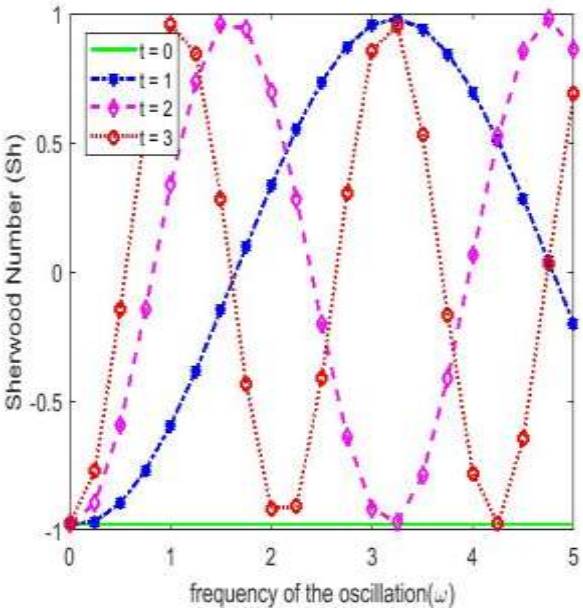


Figure 6: Variation of the Sherwood number for *Pe* = 0.71 at the upper end

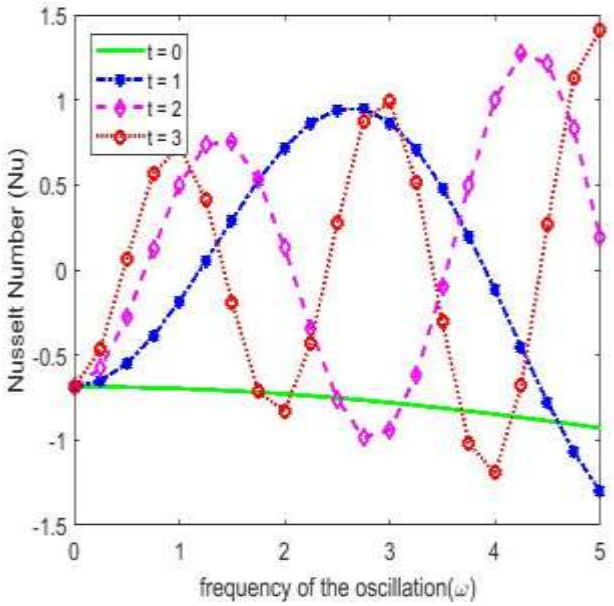


Figure 7: Variation of the Nusselt number for *Pe* = 0.71 at the upper

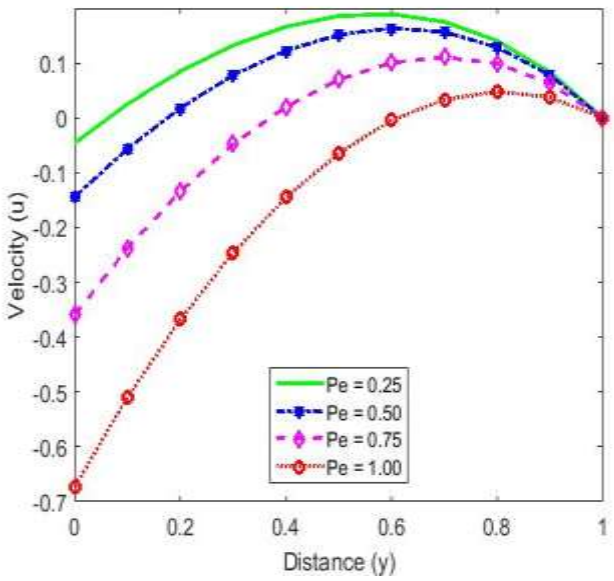


Figure 8: Velocity profile for different values of *Pe*

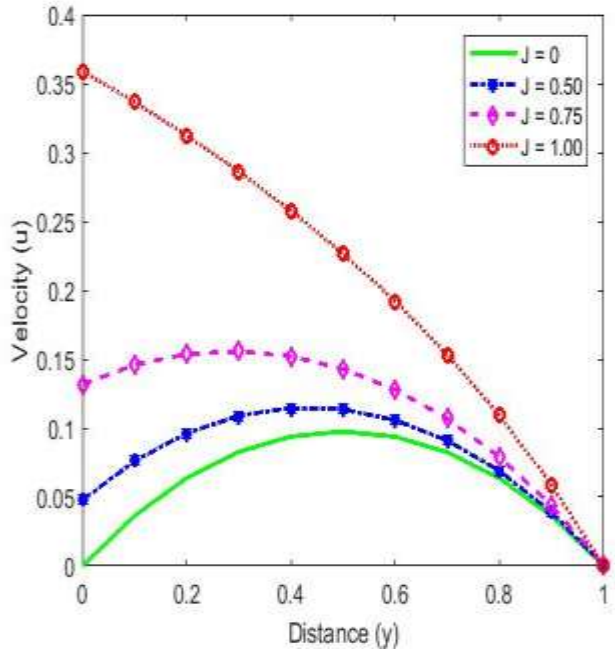


Figure 9: Velocity profile for different values of *J*

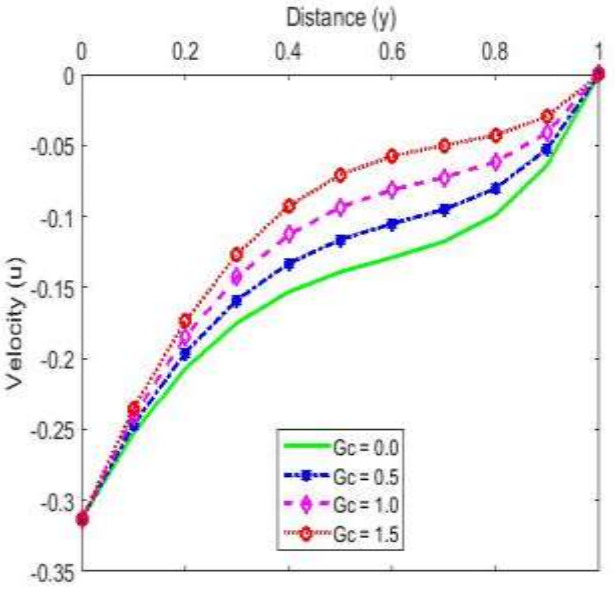


Figure 10: Velocity profile for different values of *Gc*

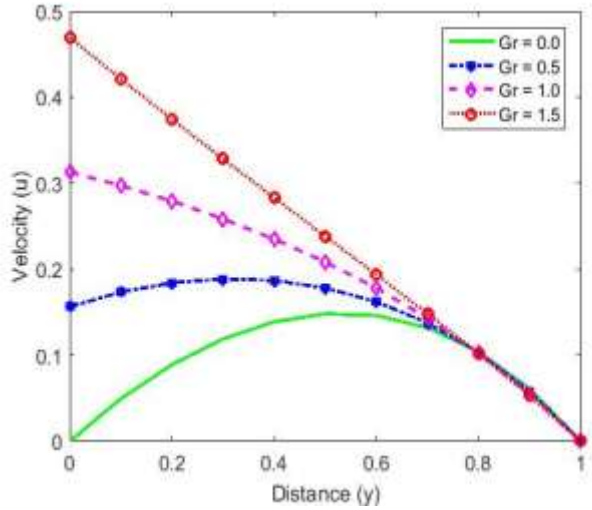


Figure 11: Velocity profile for different values of *Gr*

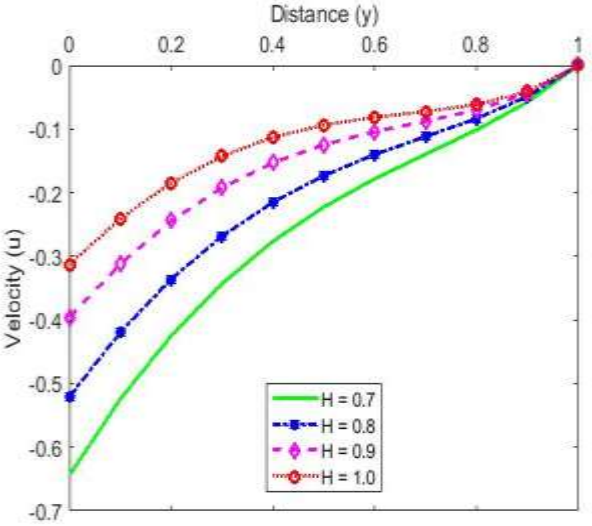


Figure 12: Velocity profile for different values of *H*

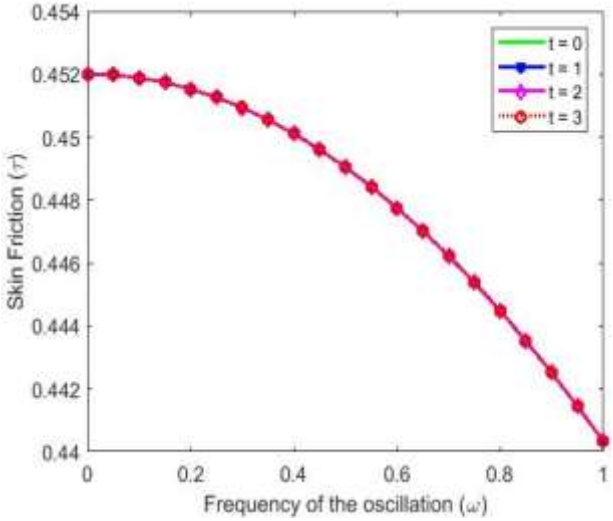


Figure 13: Velocity profile for different values of *H*

Conclusions

In this paper, the effects of heat and mass transfer on Magnetohydrodynamic oscillatory flow in a porous medium under optically thick limit radiation has been studied and numerical results were presented to illustrate the influence of various parameters on the velocity and temperature. From the numerical results, this study concludes that an increase in Peclet number increases the temperature and decrease in the velocity. Also, an increase in radiation parameter results in a rise in the temperature and velocity. More also, the concentration decreases with an increase in Reynolds number, Schmidt number and chemical reaction parameter. Furthermore, the velocity of the fluid flow decreases with an increase in the thermal Grashof number and solutal Grashof number while it increases as the Hartmann number increases. Lastly, the amplitude of the profile of Nusselt and Sherwood increases as the frequency of the oscillation increases and the response of the skin friction is negligible with increasing frequency of oscillation.

Recommendations

The study recommends that under an optically thick limit radiation, the magnitude of fluid velocity in a porous media can be influenced by the radiation on the porous media and the ratio of electromagnetic force acting on the fluid to the viscous force, which should be put into consideration for design purposes. Further study on this research can be extended to MHD double oscillatory flow under optically thick radiation.

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Investigating the Factors that Decrease the Usage of Nigerian Academic Libraries: A Case Study of Basug Library

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Abstract
The aim of this study is to examine the factors that decrease the usage of Nigeria academic libraries and the BASUG library as a case study using four relevance factors that expected as ones that contribute towards decreasing library usage. To identify these factors as factors that decreases the usage of Nigeria academic libraries. A self-administered questionnaire comprising the three (3) scales and their items were incorporated and analyze to find out the findings. The findings indicated that these factors are causing the students not to frequent attending the library. The results of running these factors indicated that the library environment factor is higher in terms of mean scores and standard deviation with a slight difference with library staff and library services. This shows that the library environment factor is the factor that causes students, not to visit the library frequently followed by library staff and library services. However, the library staff and library services are the same in terms of mean scores, indicating that poor attitude of library staff and inadequate of library services at the BASUG library were produced the same results. It is hoped that the BASUG Library and other academic libraries would adopt the recommendations revealed by this study. The study discovered instance challenges that the users face in attending the library. However, these factors will guide the management to provide measures that help students to frequent attending any academic libraries.

Keywords: Factors, Library, Environment, Service, Staff, Decrease.

Introduction

The academic library is the heart of any institutional learning whereby there are no institutions operate its services adequately and effectively without a library. It is suitable for any academic libraries to keep the eager learners/students abreast with a fact about his/her field of study and informed of other things that might attract individual attention. The role of the University library is to support students and staff information needs by providing relevant and up-to-date information resources and services effectively, (Abusin and Zainab 2017 cited in Mohammed *et al.* 2019). Any library has a story and uniquely powerful as well as challenges in operating its normal activities especially when it comes to charge and discharging their clientele. At the BASUG library, most of the students choose to visit the main library because of the atmosphere and suitability in location as well as reading facilities and resources.

It has been observed that the undergraduate students do not use library resources efficiently and effectively, some students for the first two sessions or more may not even care or bother to step into the library talk less to use the library resources. Thus, the purpose of this study is to find out the factors that cause undergraduate students not to frequent visit the library. To do that, the researcher used the following factors to know what factor is higher toward decreasing the undergraduate students to the frequent visit of the library. These factors are: (a) negative perceptions towards library environment; (b) negative perceptions towards library services; and (c) negative perceptions towards library staff. However, these factors were assumed as the factors that lead students to not frequent visit the library.

Therefore, this study is aimed at measuring which factor is higher or lower in contributing to the decreasing of the library patronizing so as the libraries would provide measures that tackle for a frequent attending and patronizing the library.

Statement of the Problem

It is disheartening to note that, majority of the library users do not utilize the library resources efficiently and effectively. The library was established almost in the same year with the university. It was found that the library had adequate information resources that support the students' needs. It was discovered that most students find it difficult to use the library to locate or access and use the library's resources as a result of that majority of them are neglecting to use the library resources. It is assumed that the patronage of the library by undergraduate students is just like a hospital only to visit when needs may arise. They were mostly visiting the library during examinations period, and mostly to read their lecture notes. This

necessitated the researcher's interest to look into the students and find out what discourages them not to frequent visit the library using some selected factors as the factors that cause the library avoidances which include: negative perceptions towards library staff, library services, library environment, and peers.

Objectives

The objectives of this study are as follows:

i. To examine whether these factors: (a) negative perceptions towards library environment; (b) negative perceptions towards library services; and (c) negative perceptions towards library staff effects in contributing towards decreasing library usage.

ii. To explore which factor among these factors is higher or lower towards decreasing the library.

Questions

i. Does these factors: (a) negative perceptions towards library environment, (b) negative perceptions towards library services and (c) negative perceptions towards library staff effect in decreasing library usage?

ii. Which of these factors is higher or lower towards decreasing the library patronizing?

Methodology

This study is first of its kind considering the factors selected to measure the library the level of decreasing library patronization among undergraduate students. The data of this study were collected among undergraduate students in the faculty of Science between 300 level and final year students, the reason for chosen these respondents is because they are eager and breast to use the library resources and services for their final year projects and courses as well as their assignment. According to BASUG registry records, the populations of 200 level as well as final year undergraduate students during the study are three thousand and twenty-eight (3028). For the benefit of this study, a random sampling technique was adopted, in which each individual in the population has an equal probability to select, (Creswell, 2014). Thus, the sample size of three thousand and twenty-eight (3028) according to Kriecie and Morgan's (1970) Population and sample table is three hundred and thirteen (341). The study was conducted using a survey method with a structured questionnaire adopted and modified to fit this study for data collection. A structured questionnaire was used for data collection.

Results

Research Question1: Do these factors: (a) negative perceptions towards library environment, (b) negative perceptions towards library services and (c) negative perceptions towards library staff effects in decreasing library usage?

Research Question 2: Which of these factors is higher or lower towards decreasing the library patronizing?

Table 1: Negative Perceptions Towards Library Environment

S/N	Items	Number of Positive Response	%	Number of Negative Response	%	Total
1.	The size and space of the library is not adequate and suitable for my reading. Just no option.	207 (Yes)	69.0	93 (No)	31.0	300
2.	The size and space constraints inside the library restrict and expose students to noise/disturbance in the library.	89 (Yes)	29.7	211 (No)	70.3	300
3.	Crowding in the library causes lack of concentration and forces me to leave library.	257 (Yes)	85.7	43 (No)	14.3	300
4.	Seating areas are not enough to accommodate more students. This discourages me from coming to the library frequently.	257 (Yes)	85.7	43 (No)	14.3	300
5.	Poor arrangement and dirtiness cause library avoidance.	127 (Yes)	42.3	173 (No)	57.7	300
6.	The library opening hours and rules and regulation are not suitable to me.	46(Yes)	15.3	252 (No)	84.7	300
7.	Absent of library lockers cause insecurity about property's safety. Cause library avoidance.	257 (Yes)	85.7	43 (No)	14.3	300
8.	Poor ventilation and poor lightning cause library avoidance.	257 (Yes)	85.7	43 (No)	14.3	300
9.	The Library lay out is unattractive and cause discomfort.	257 (Yes)	85.7	43 (No)	14.3	300
10.	Offensive smells inside the library cause discomfort and lead me to leave or refrain from visiting the library frequently.	127 (Yes)	42.3	173 (No)	57.7	300

In Table 1, the response to item 1 indicates that 207(69.0%) respondents responded that the size and space of the library is not adequate and suitable for their reading, just they don't have an option to go other libraries in campus for their study, while 93(31.0%) of the respondents disagree. In item 2, 211(70.3%) students responded negatively to the statement that the size and space constraints inside the library restrict and expose them to noise/disturbance in the library, only 89(29.7%) agreed to that. Response to item 3, indicated that 257(85.7%) of the respondents agreed that crowding in the library causes lack of concentration and forces them to leave the library, while the remaining 43(14.3%) students disagree with the statement. This corresponds to item 4, where 257(85.7%) respondents responded that seating areas are not enough to accommodate more students. This discourages many students not to come to the library, very few of them disagreed with this statement. This was consistent with the findings of item 5, majority of the respondents (257=85.7%) agreed that poor arrangement and dirtiness causes library avoidance, only 43(14.3%) disagreed with this statement.

In item 6, 252 (84.7%) disagreed with the statement that the library opening hours and rules and regulation are not suitable to them, very few of them 46 (15.3%) agreed with this statement. The respondents agreed with item 7, 252 (84.7%) that the absence of library lockers causes insecurity about property's safety which cause library avoidance or not visiting the library frequently while 46 (15.3%) disagreed with the statement. In item 8, the respondents 252 (84.7%) responded the same with this statement that poor ventilation and poor lighting can cause library avoidance while the remaining respondents 46 (15.3%) disagreed. This was also consistent with the finding of item 9, the respondents 252 (84.7%) responded that the BASUG library layout is unattractive and cause discomfort to the library avoidance, a limited number of respondents disagreed with this statement. (See table 1). Finally, in item 10, the respondents 173 (57.7%) disagreed that the offensive smells inside the library cause discomfort and lead them to leave or refrain from visiting the library frequently while 127 (42.3%) approved with the statement.

Thus, the overall findings of the above table show that the majority of the respondents were agreed with this factor that causes them to the library avoidance or not frequent visit the library. The findings of this

study indicated that negative factor towards the library environment can cause students not frequent attending to the library. This factor was also considered as a factor decreasing the usage of library considering the respondents' comments on the 10 items which shows that the entire item under this factor has supported the students in the library avoidance. Henceforth, what the library would do is to revisit these items and improve the services as well as challenges to increasing the students' patronages and usage of the university library.

Table 2: Negative Perceptions Towards Library Staff

S/N	Items	Number of Positive Response	%	Number of Negative Response	%	Total
1.	The library staff treats me indifferently.	153 (Yes)	51.1	147 (No)	48.9	300
2.	The library staff did not shelving books. This fails me to locate items on the shelves.	89 (Yes)	29.7	211 (No)	70.3	300
3.	The library staff are not helping to locate books on the shelves.	202 (Yes)	67.3	98 (No)	32.7	300
4.	The library staff are not exercising their power to maintain rules and orders in the library.	112 (Yes)	37.3	188 (No)	62.7	300
5.	The library staff are irritable and this prevents me from asking their helps.	62 (Yes)	20.7	238 (No)	79.3	300
6.	The library staff are not professionals and some are not aware of the location of books on the shelves.	46 (Yes)	15.3	252 (No)	84.0	300
7.	The library staff are discriminative behaviors and bias towards their relatives.	200 (Yes)	66.7	100 (No)	33.3	300

In Table 2, with regards to item 1, 153(51.1%) respondents indicated that the library staff treats them indifferently which can cause them not visiting the library regularly while 147(48.9%) revealed as opposed to this statement. In item 2, the respondents 211 (70.3%) disagreed that the library staff did not shelve books where this can fail them to locate items on the shelves whereas the remaining respondents 89(29.7%) agreed to this statement. However, the majority of the respondents responded positively 202(67.3%) to item 3, that the library staff are not helping them locating books on the shelves, while 98(32.7%) negatively responded to this item. This contrasts to item 4, the majority of the respondents 188(62.7%) responded negatively that the library staff are not exercising their power to maintain rules and orders in the library, whereas 112(37.3%) respondents responded positively about this statement.

The respondents disagreed with item 5, 238(79.3%) that the library staff are short-tempered and this prevents them from asking their bits of help, only 62(20.7%) respondents responded positively to this statement. In item 6, the majority of the respondents 252(84.0%) disagreed with this statement that the library staff are not professionals and some are not aware of the location of books on the shelves, very few of them 46(15.3%) agreed on this statement. This was contrasts with the finding of item 7, the respondents 200(66.7%) agreed that the library staff are discriminative behaviors and bias towards their relatives, while 100(33.3%) respondents disagreed about this statement.

Finally, the overall findings on negative perceptions towards library staff shown that four out of seven items revealed that the library staff factor have an effect decreasing the student frequent visit of the library with can cause a lack of library usage at the BASUG library.

Table 3: Negative Perceptions Towards Library Services

S/N	Items	Number of Positive Response	%	Number of Negative Response	%	Total
1.	The library does not provide adequate number of books and reference books on the shelves.	207 (Yes)	69.0	93 (No)	31.0	300
2.	The library does not allow borrowing books and photocopying in the library. This frustrated me.	257 (Yes)	85.7	43 (No)	14.3	300
3.	Absence of loan services causes me dissatisfaction	257 (Yes)	85.7	43 (No)	14.3	300
4.	Books are not up-to-date, often irrelevant to the area of my study. This makes me to use other alternatives (e.g. internet).	211 (Yes)	70.3	89 (No)	29.7	300
5.	Absent of non-print materials in the library such as audio visual and internet resources cause dissatisfaction.	154 (Yes)	51.3	146 (No)	48.7	300
6.	Library does not provide access tools to its collection and need to introduce card or electronic.	100 (Yes)	33.3	200 (No)	66.7	300
7.	Library does not provide adequate signage indication classification number and subject books on the shelves. This make the search process difficult and time consuming and frustrating.	207 (Yes)	69.0	93 (No)	31.0	300

In Table 3, regarding item 1, 207(69.0%) respondents indicated that the library does not provide an adequate number of books and reference books on the shelves, only 93(31.0%) opposed this statement. In item 2, the majority of the respondents 257 (85.7%) agreed that the library does not allow borrowing books and photocopying in the library while 43(14.3%) agreed to this statement. This corresponds to the statement of item 3, the respondents 257 (85.7%) indicated that the absence of loan services causes them dissatisfaction whereas the remaining respondents 43(14.3%) disagreed to this statement.

Moreover, in item 4, the majority of the respondents 211(70.3%) revealed that books are not up-to-date, often irrelevant to their area of study. This makes me use other alternatives (e.g. internet), only 89(29.7%) respondents opposed this statement. This shows that the library is at the meddling that needs to provide adequate resources that cater to any discipline of the study. In item 5, the respondent 154(51.3%) agreed that absent of non-print materials in the library such as audiovisual and internet resources cause them dissatisfaction while 146(48.7%) respondents do not have this perception.

With regards to item 6, the majority of the respondents 200(66.7%) disagreed that the library does not provide access tools to its collection and need to introduce card or electronic, only respondents 100(33.3%) agreed to this statement. This contrasts to the findings of item 7, the respondents 207(69.0%) agreed that the library does not provide adequate signage indication classification number and subject books on the shelves whereas, 93(31.0%) respondents were negatively responded that they have difficulties in identifying books on the shelves because of the poor signage indication.

Finally, the overall findings on negative perceptions towards library services shown that majority of the respondents were considered library services as a factor influencing library avoidance, meaning that the library services providing in the BASUSG library is not enough for the users to be proud up.

Table 4: Negative Factors Towards Decreasing Library Patronizing

S/N	Factors	Mean Scores	Standard Deviation	TOTAL
1.	Library Environment	15.3133	2.42930	300
2.	Library Staff	10.7867	1.83823	300
3.	Library Services	10.7867	1.83823	300

In Table 4, the results of running these factors indicated that the library environment factor is higher in terms of mean score and standard deviation with a slight difference with library staff and library services.

This shows that the library environment factor is the factor that causes students not to visit the library frequently followed by library staff and library services. However, the library staff and library services are the same in term of mean scores, indicating that poor attitude of library staff and inadequate library services at the BASUG library were produced the same results.

Conclusions

The study was conducted with the aim of determining whether these factors: negative perceptions towards library environment; negative perceptions towards library services; and negative perceptions towards library staff effects in contributing towards decreasing library attendance. From the results of this study, it was discovered that the majority of the respondents were agreed on these factors as ones that are influencing them not to frequent visit their academic library. The study has shown that the library environment is the number one factor that causes students not the visit the library followed by three other factors. This shows that the library building has a peculiar problem may be in term of location, size, ventilation, and etc. that were regarded as caused to this factor. It was hard that the university wanted to build a bigger library with the upstairs structure at the new side of the university; this can rectify this factor when a new building of the library is established.

Recommendations

The following are observations and recommendations for our academic libraries in Nigeria:

i. The study discovered that the size of the library is not adequate for the users due to the larger number of users in the university. This study recommends the university to build another library that accommodates many users at a time.

ii. The study observed that users of the library are not properly oriented about the services that are available in the library that is the reason why this factor (library service) is considered as a negative factor towards library patronizing. Hence, the users need to be properly oriented about the services and resources that are available in the library. Use of library skills course is not enough for these students, there is a need to be taught information literacy skills for understanding how to locate, access and use the needed information resources.

iii. The staff of the library needs to be trained and retrained for better guidance of their students. Most of the library staff are novice due to the inability of prior experience in the librarianship. It suggests that the management to recruit experience librarians that can be able to cover this gap of experience. This is in the line of scholars saying: the competence librarian is the one who has 3experiences (experience, experience, and experience).

iv. The study advised the university management of our Nigerian universities to let any library staff acquire relevant certificates of library and information science because most of the Para-professionals staff have only secondary school certificate which is not enough to serve their users about their information needs.

v. Foreign academic library services like coffee machine, snacks, relaxation centre, children unit, and many more need to be invested in our academic libraries for the library to be fully patronized by majority users.

vi. Any difficulty (peer) that the users facing in locating, or accessing information resources need to be curtailed by providing machines that can reduce the hardship of the users and feel comfort while locating information resources.

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Optimizing Frameworks for Building More Efficient Concurrent Application in Java

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Abstract
Nowadays, there has been an increasing demand for high-speed computation, parallel processing, and efficient algorithms to efficiently manage the rapid increase in the volume of data which gave rise to much research being carried out in concurrent applications and mechanisms to improve performances. In this paper, two parallel concurrency frameworks were developed and tested using the quick-sorting algorithm on a multiprocessor machine to compare their performances. System.nanoTime() method was used for benchmarking the two frameworks. The results show that the ServExecSort framework performs better than NaïveParallelSort on a larger array size while the NaïveParallelSortr exhibits better performance on smaller array elements. It is therefore concluded that a framework that uses separate thread pool and future to keep track of submitted tasks exhibits better performances than a framework that creates separate threads for each task which leads to large overheads and performance degradation.

Keywords: Algorithms, Computation, Efficiency, Framework, Performances, Mechanism.

Introduction

Java as one of the first Object-Oriented Programming (OOP) language to support concurrency and offered multithreading had introduced some low-level primitives in Java 5 (also known as Java 1.5). The low-level mechanisms offered such as synchronized(), notify(), and wait() were difficult to use correctly and some problems such as starvation, livelock, and deadlock could not be avoided (Rabiu, Garko and Abdullahi, 2018; Brad, Paul, and Luke, 2007; Aleksandar, 2014). Additionally, the low-level concurrency primitive could not be used to build a more efficient concurrency framework that can solve sophisticated concurrency related problems (Rabiu *et al.*, 2019; Brad, 2009). With the recent advancement in Operating System (OS) which included multi-threading in its kernel level structure and also the processor architecture, concurrent programming and application have become necessary in real-world applications. A programming language such as C++ and Java provided supports for concurrent application development (Doug, 2015; Hongwei, Yin & Hyoun, 2013). Java programming language which included Java Virtual Machine (JVL) provided the necessary supports for developers to implement concurrency mechanisms and multithreading to improve the performance of their concurrent software (Rabiu *et al.*, 2018). Research carried out by Yaniv, 2016; Pavel & Georgi, 2012) further stated that multithreading enables developers to achieve parallelism and synchronization between threads to protect data, deadlock, and starvation. In this paper two different concurrency frameworks were implemented namely: ServExecSort and NaïveParallelSort to handle the creation and termination of threads using multi-threading and concurrency tools. ServExecSort works by creating ThreadPool for a fixed number of threads. Each thread is then assigned several tasks to be executed in parallel and is being tracked using a 'Future services. When the entire tasks are completely executed, the ThreadPool is shutdown. On the other hand, the NaïveParallelSort framework works by creating threads for each task that needs to be executed during each recursive call. Each processing core in the machine is then assigned available threads to do the computation in parallel. This results in improved performances. Both the two frameworks were tested using the quick-sorting algorithm to measure and compare their performances.

Literature Reviews

To improve the performance of concurrent programs and to minimize programming efforts many software frameworks were developed. Some good examples are: "a library-based framework for heterogeneous multi-core systems" presented by (Michael *et al.*, 2008); "A framework for parallel execution of codes on multiple GPUs" developed by (Zhe, Feng & Arie, 2018); and another one titled "new programming language for general-purpose computation on the GPU" was also developed by (Qiming, Kun & Baining, 2018). A framework designed to conform to automatic learning style detection process which comprised of model development and could be integrated into any adaptive learning style was developed by (Farouk

et al., 2020). Another guidelines for tailoring persuasive health interventions to promote individuals' SWB based on their personality was established by (Abdullahi, Orji, Rabiu & Kawu, 2020). Java multithreading mechanism was realized and analyzed together with some concurrency mechanisms that helped in developing concurrent applications. The study further compared some concurrent structures using the different operating systems. The researchers summarized some programming rules that could be used to prevent concurrency issues. It was concluded that efficient synchronization could help developers prevent deadlock and starvation (Clay, 2009; Wuxue, Qi, Zhiming, and Jianfeng, 2013)

Different synchronization mechanisms to reduce the Heisenberg form of a matrix were explained. The results obtained from the experiment showed that dynamic task allocation could be very effective on the machine used for the benchmarking; high efficiency was obtained with careful design and implementations of parallel algorithms even for relatively small matrix (Kaya, 2015; Robert, 2017; Yaniv, 2016). Various parallelization techniques were discussed and various software and hardware tools used for building concurrent applications from the sequential one were also explained. Profiling was the method used to measure the effects of parallelism on two parallel machines. The results show that performance improvement could be achieved by careful implementation of some parallelization techniques (Aleksandar, 2014). A program can be called concurrent if it is divided in such a way that two or more threads can progress at some time. This does not mean that they have to progress simultaneously, but that they can be swapped in and out by the operating system on a single core (Clay, 2009). According to (Mansoor & Alarcon, 2017) the parallel is when two or more threads progress at the same time, requiring multiple cores and where each thread is assigned to a separate processing core. Increasingly, Multi-core processing computers have improved ICT utilization in health care systems due to their ability to carry out multi-tasking activities and to execute tasks concurrently (Rabiu, Mukhtar, Abbas & Yusuf, 2019). According to Rabiu *et al.*, (2019), high performance computers with multiple processors are also suitable for carrying out E-commerce activities efficiently due to their speed and less overheads.

The Java class 'thread' is the whole foundation for all Java concurrency frameworks. This class makes it easy for the developer to create and execute threads. Initially, a thread is identical to normal Java classes, but except for having a runnable task which can be executed concurrently with the main program. When these threads are executed, the Java Virtual Machine (JVM) and the operating system (OS) decide which processor cores will be applied (Intel Corp Desktop Products Group, 2009). Threads are an unavoidable feature of Java programming language. They can be used to simplify the development of some complex programs; this can be done by changing the asynchronous line of codes into some simpler straight line of codes and they are said to be the easiest way to tap the computing power and enjoy the benefit of multi-core processing machines (Göetz *et al.*, 2006; Jeremy *et al.*, 2018; Michael *et al.*, 2018). Therefore, as the power of multiprocessor increases, developing concurrent software will become more important as well. The same need for resource utilization convenience and fairness that motivated the development of processes to ensure the efficiency of the program is also the same concern that motivated the development of threads. They allow multiple streams of program control flow to take place within a given process. Threads often share some wide resources of a process such as file handles and memory with each thread having its stack, program counter, and local variable variables. They also provide a natural way of decomposition that enables the exploitation of hardware parallelism on multi-processor machines. To achieve these multiple threads within the same program can be scheduled to run simultaneously on multiple processing cores of CPUs (Göetz *et al.*, 2006; Pavel and Georgi, 2012; Rabiu *et al.*, 2018). Before version 5 of Java was introduced the only way to synchronize threads was through the low-level concurrency control mechanisms such as synchronized, volatile, wait(), notify() and notifyAll(). They are all difficult to use correctly and the potential for common concurrent threats like deadlock and starvation is high (Jeremy *et al.*, 2018). Java 5 which was originally known as Java 1.5 changed this by including new packages named java.util.concurrent which included two new sub-packages called atomic and locks, which allows a programmer to have a high-level synchronization on threads. These packages have been improved and updated by including some new classes and interfaces in versions 6.0, 8.0, and other subsequent versions of Java respectively. These give the developer additional tools to use in developing concurrent software.

With the rapid increase in the number of processing cores in parallel and multi-core computers, developers will need to change their mindsets and focus more on concurrent application development to enable them to achieve the desired performance gain in their programs. Today, different libraries and mechanisms are available for synchronization and parallelization in Java and perhaps other programming languages. Therefore, this paper used some of the concurrency mechanisms provided by Java in the development of two frameworks to optimize their performances. Quick-sorting algorithms were implemented to test the two frameworks by taking advantage of different processor core available in the parallel computer.

Methodology

Array Data Structure

The data structure used in this research is the array data structure. A set of integers was generated to fill the array with data. This structure contained an array size ranging from one thousand to 9 million sizes. This is to enable us to test our frameworks using sorting algorithms to make reasonable comparisons to conclude the results. Different numbers of test runs were used to reduce the effect of background program in our measurement especially at the beginning when the array size is small. As the size of the array increases, the computation time also increases. Therefore, the number of test runs is decreased with the increase in array size. Table 1 contains the array size and the corresponding test runs for each array size.

Table 1: Array Data Structure

Array Size	Number of Runs	Array Size	Number of Runs
1000	800	400,000	200
4000	800	500,000	150
6000	800	600,000	140
8000	750	700,000	120
10000	750	800,000	110
20,0000	600	900,000	100
30,0000	600	1,000,000	90
40,0000	550	2,000,000	80
50,000	500	3,000,000	65
60,000	450	3,500,000	70
70,000	400	4,000,000	60
80,0000	440	5,000,000	50
90,000	350	6,000,000	40
100,000	300	7,000,000	30
200,000	250	8,000,000	20
300,000	220	9,000,000	10

Data Generation

Having defined the size and corresponding test runs of our arrays, the next thing to do is to fill the array with the appropriate data type for sorting. The most common data use for sorting and is positive integers for example, [1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 10…n]. In Java short, int, long can be used as variables. 32-bit int is our defined data structure which is considered to be the best for this array size. This is because int in Java can contain positive values (2^{15}-1) ranging from 1 to about 2.1 billion. Having defined our data to be used in the defined array, the next step is to create a function that will take two parameters; the seed for random data generation and the required size of the array. The next step is to fill the index of each array size with random values by creating a "loop". This starts from one to the length of the array. Since the two frameworks were designed to be run on machines with different numbers of processing cores, the same seed will be used to generate random values. This will enable us to have the same starting point and the same values when the two frameworks are run on different machines.

Benchmarking

Two built-in functions are mostly used to measure the start and the end time in java. Namely: System.currentTimeMillis() and System.nanoTime() methods. System.currentTimeMillis() returns a difference in the measured time between the current time and mid-night of January 1970 UTC while System.nanoTime() will return a difference between the start and the end time in nanoseconds relative to

an arbitrary fixed point. This paper focused on testing the efficiency of concurrency frameworks, systems.nanoTime() method would be a better choice because System.currentTimemillis() has some weaknesses as it depends on the computer system clock which is not very perfect.

Concurrency Frameworks

The two frameworks namely: ServExecSort and NaïveParallelSort are implemented in this section. The two frameworks were used to measure the running times of quick-sorting algorithms to determine their performances.

ServExecSort Framework Implementation

This framework works by creating ThreadPool for a fixed number of threads. The created threads are then submitted into this pool. Each thread is then assigned many tasks to be executed in parallel and is being tracked using a 'Future services'. When the entire tasks are completely executed and the overall result is obtained, the ThreadPool is shutdown. The framework performance analysis is as follows:

Performance Analysis of ServExecSort Framework

Table 2: Running Time of ServExecSort

Array Size	Running Times (ms)	Array Size	Running Times (ms)
1000	0.727	300,000	25.648
4000	0.819	400,000	33.723
6000	0.968	500,000	43.343
8000	1.193	600,000	51.800
10000	1.408	700,000	60.832
20,0000	2.591	800,000	71.750
30,0000	25.354	900,000	85.728
40,0000	5.281	1,000,000	91.383
50,000	6.484	2,000,000	255.5
60,000	5.420	3,000,000	205.609
70,000	6.050	4,000,000	315.127
80,0000	7.705	5,000,000	433.124
90,000	8.822	6,000,000	754.483
100,000	9.809	7,000,000	827.990
200,000	17.648	8,000,000	827.990
		9,000,000	1014.497

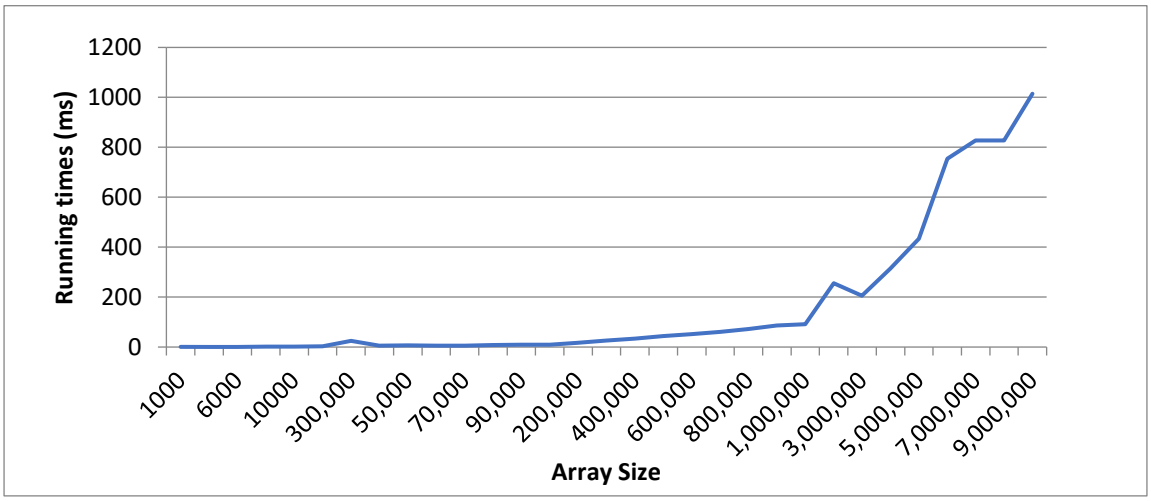


Figure 1: Showing the Running Times of ServExecSort

From Table 2 and Figure 1 above, it can be observed that the running times of quick-sort measured using ServExecSort framework increases with the increase in the size of the array. There was a sudden increase in the running time when the array size reached 90,000 with the corresponding running times of 8.822ms. The running times slowly increase until the array size reached about1000,000 elements with corresponding running times of 91.383ms. There was a significant increase in the running time when the array size increased from 1000,000 to 9,000,000 elements with the corresponding running times of 91.383ms and 1014.497ms respectively.

NaïveParallelSort Framework Implementation

On the other hand, NaïveParallelSort works by creating threads for each submitted task that needs to be executed during each recursive call. Each core on the machine is then assigned the available threads to do the computation in parallel. The results generated by each processing core are then combined to get the final result. This leads to performance improvement. The performance analysis of NaïveParallelSort is as follows:

Performance Analysis of NaïveParallelSort Framework

Table 3: Running times of NaïveParallelSort

Array Size	Running Times (ms)	Array Size	Running Times (ms)
1000	0.675	400,000	44.23
4000	0.758	500,000	54.50
6000	0.916	600,000	64.25
8000	0.916	700,000	77.57
10000	1.153	800,000	97.43
20,0000	2.561	900,000	109.2
30,0000	31.09	1,000,000	137.9
40,0000	5.261	2,000,000	255.5
50,000	6.484	3,000,000	393.9
60,000	5.500	4,000,000	533.2
70,000	6.572	5,000,000	738.7
80,0000	8.505	6,000,000	973.2
90,000	9.662	7,000,000	1194
100,000	10.64	8,000,000	1194
200,000	20.56	9,000,000	1271
300,000	31.80		

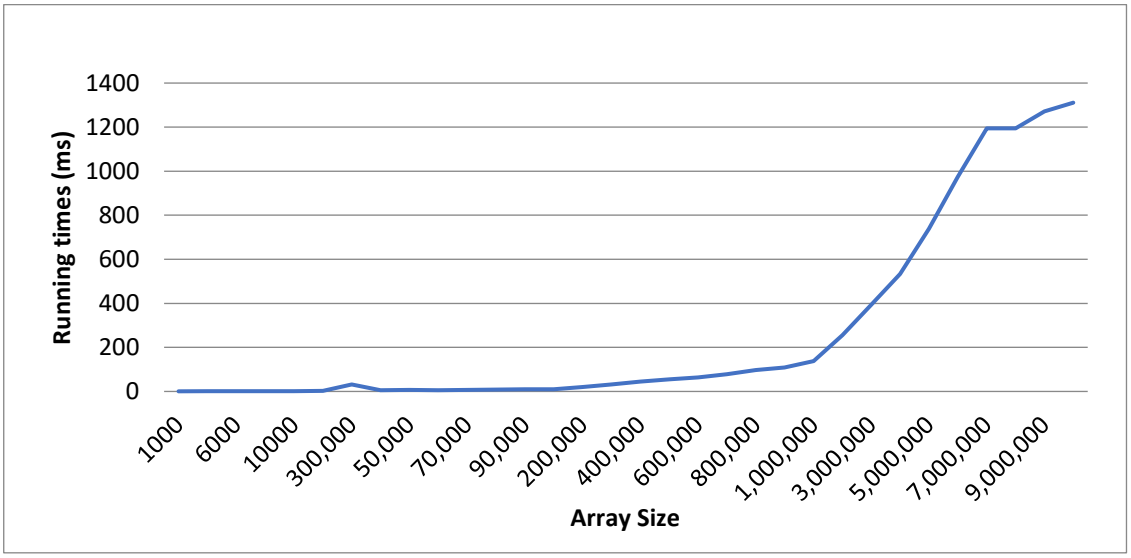


Figure 2: Showing the Running times of NaiveParrallelSort

Similarly, Form Table 3 and Figure 2, it can be seen that the running times of quick-sort measured using the NaiveParrallelSort framework also increases with the increase in the size of the array elements. From 1,000 to 300,000 elements the running time slowly rises. The running times start to increase significantly when the array size reaches 200,000 elements. The rapid growth continues to be recorded until the size of the array gets to 9,000,000 elements with corresponding running times of 1271ms.

Comparing the performance of ServExecSort and NaiveParrallelSort Frameworks

Table 4: Running Times of NaiveParallelSort and ServExecSort

Array Size	Running times of NaiveParallelSort (ms)	Running times ServExecSort (ms)	Array Size	Running times of NaiveParallelSort (ms)	Running times ServExecSort (ms)
1000	0.675	0.727	400,000	44.23	33.723
4000	0.758	0.819	500,000	54.5	43.343
6000	0.916	0.968	600,000	64.25	51.8
8000	0.916	1.193	700,000	77.57	60.832
10000	1.153	1.408	800,000	97.43	71.75
200,000	2.561	2.591	900,000	109.2	85.728
300,000	31.09	25.354	1,000,000	137.9	91.383
400,000	5.261	5.281	2,000,000	255.5	255.5
50,000	6.484	6.484	3,000,000	393.9	205.609
60,000	5.5	5.42	4,000,000	533.2	315.127
70,000	6.572	6.05	5,000,000	738.7	433.124
800,000	8.505	7.705	6,000,000	973.2	754.483
90,000	9.662	8.822	7,000,000	1194	827.99
100,000	10.64	9.809	8,000,000	1194	827.99
200,000	20.56	17.648	9,000,000	1271	1014.497
300,000	31.8	25.648			

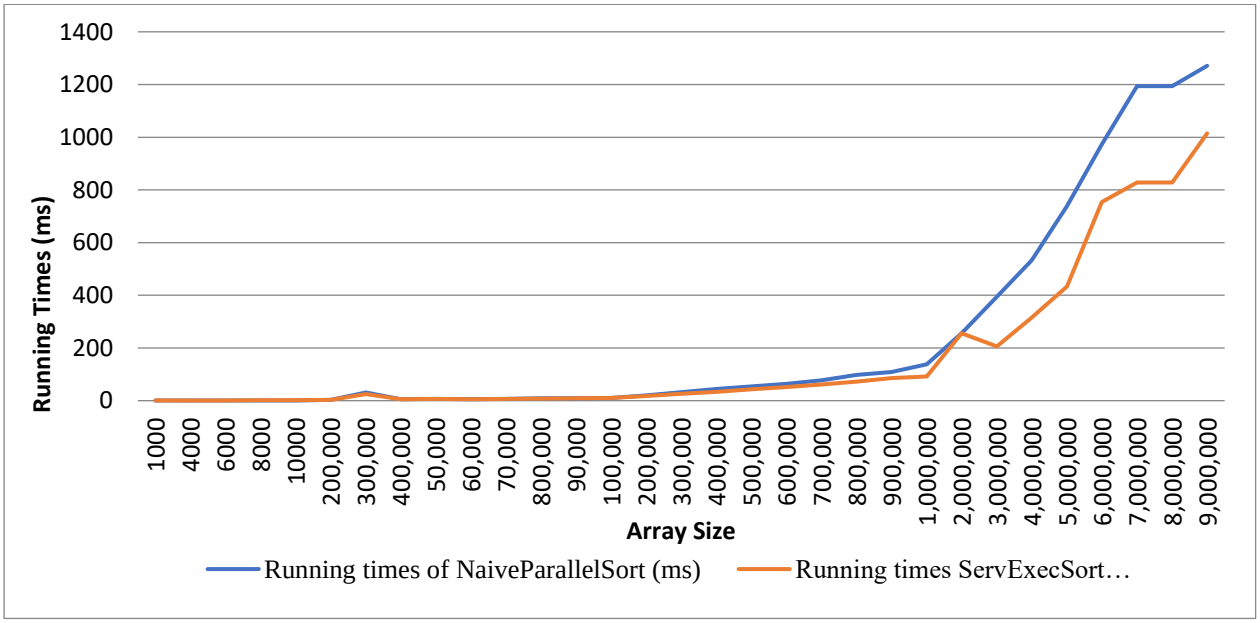


Figure 3: Depicting the Running Times of NaiveParallelSort and ServExecSort

Discussion of Results

From Table 4 and Figure 3, it can be seen that the running times of quick-sort measured using both the two frameworks increases with the increase in the size of the array. On the other hand, performance gain using the two frameworks differs. This can be seen from the running times of the two implementations obtained at a different point in time. For example, when sorting the smallest array elements, say 1000, the running times obtained using NaiveParallelSort and ServExecSort were 0.675ms and 0.727ms respectively. Therefore, the NaiveParallelSort framework exhibits better performance by recording less running times. Hence, NaiveParallelSort was found to be 0.052ms faster than ServExecSort when the smallest array was sorted. NaiveParallelSort continues to exhibit better performances until the array reaches 300,000 elements. At this point, the running time recorded by both NaiveParallelSort and ServExecSort was found to be 31.09ms and 25.354ms respectively. Thus, that makes the NaiveParallelSort framework to be 5.736ms slower than the ServExecSort framework. The good performance benefit of the ServExecSort framework continues to become more noticeable when the array size increases from 400,000 to 9,000,000 elements. At the end of the sorting process, the running times recorded by both NaiveParallelSort and ServExecSort frameworks were found to be 1271ms and 1041.497ms respectively. The difference between the two running times was 229.503ms. This shows that the NaiveParallelSort framework is almost 230ms slower than the Service executor framework when sorting the largest array elements.

Conclusions

This paper compares the performance of two concurrency frameworks. The two frameworks were used to sort array elements containing 1,000 to 9,000,000 sizes and the running times were measured and compared. From the results obtained, it can be concluded that the performance of the two frameworks was interwoven. NaiveParallelSort framework exhibits better performance with small array sizes ranging from 1,000 to 300,000 sizes while the ServExecSort framework performs better on larger array elements ranging from 300,000 to 9,000,000 sizes. It can be concluded that the performance improvements recorded by the ServExecSort framework are because the ThreadPool executor improves its performances by creating and terminating threads automatically without any effort from the developer's side. It is further concluded that the poor performance recorded by the NaiveParallelSort framework on the larger array is because creation and termination of threads are mainly done by the programmer and that excessively limit fractioning of the framework.

Recommendations

The two concurrency frameworks presented in this paper can be further designed, experimented and tested on other popular algorithms such as merge sort, selection sort, binary search and linear search on machines with different number of processors/ processing core to see if the same results can be obtained by using similar approach. The authors of this paper recommend that this deserves further research.

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Improved Methane Production from Anaerobic Digestion of Municipal Solid Waste by Trace Elements Supplementation

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Abstract
Solid wastes constitute a major environmental pollution problem globally. Bioenergy production inform of biogas through anaerobic digestion is an effective way of managing the waste as well as energy recovery method. This study has focused on the effect of trace elements on methane gas yield produced from the anaerobic digestion of organic portion of municipal solid waste. Batch anaerobic digesters were operated under mesophilic conditions, both with and without trace elements (Fe, Co and Ni) supplementation at different concentrations. An increase in methane gas yield ranging from 2 – 18 % was recorded in digester systems with trace element supplements, and the maximum methane yield of 78 % was achieved at 20 mg/dm^3 Fe addition.

Keywords: Anaerobic Digestion, Trace Elements, Methane, Digesters, Supplementation.

Introduction

Waste generation rate presents challenges as it is reaching a critical level in almost all countries of the world. Special attention needs to be paid to waste management practice in order to avoid depletion of natural resources, minimize risk to human health, reduce environmental burdens and maintain an overall balance in the ecosystem (Khalid *et al*., 2011). Anaerobic digestion is an attractive treatment option as it is a waste management method while also providing a methane-rich biogas. Anaerobic digestion is a biological method used to convert organic wastes into a stable product for land application with reduced environmental impacts (Ahn *et al*., 2010). Anaerobic digestion is the controlled degradation of biodegradable waste in the absence of oxygen and presence of different consortia of bacteria that catalyze series of complex microbial reactions (Cote *et al.,* 2006) to produce biogas. It is a waste treatment practice in which both pollution control and energy recovery can be achieved.

Biogas is a colourless and flammable gas obtained from the anaerobic digestion of energy crops, residues, and wastes. The composition of biogas is typically methane (50 – 70%), carbon-dioxide (30 – 40%) and the rest is made up of traces of hydrogen, nitrogen and hydrogen sulphide (Edelmann, 1999). The quality of biogas produced from organic waste materials varies depending on some factors, such as; the period of digestion, biodegradable organic matter content of the substrate, C/N ratio, pH etc. (Khandewal and Mahdi, 1986). The biogas energetic value is determined by the methane content (Dobre *et al*., 2014). However, the methane content of the biogas can be improved through various techniques, which include; pretreatment, variation of some operational parameters (temperature, pH, mixing and particle size) co-digestion and the use of chemical/biological addaitives.

One of the major challenges in biogas production is the percentage yield of methane which ranges between 40 - 70 % which is relatively low when compared to natural gas whose methane composition is about 90 % (Mango *et al*., 1994). One method of enhancing biogas potential is the supplementation of anaerobic digesters with trace inorganic nutrients, e.g. Se nickel, cobalt, manganese, iron, which stimulate bacterial activity (Molaey *et al*., 2018). Trace metals can be stimulatory, inhibitory, or even toxic in biochemical reactions depending on their concentrations (Sengor *et al.,* 2009). The availability of trace metals plays a significant role in the anaerobic digester performance and stability because they serve as nutrients for the growth and enzymatic activities of the anaerobic microorganisms (Thahn *et al.,* 2016). Trace metals (Fe, Co, Ni) addition to substrate often improves the production of biogas during digestion of organic matter by maintaining biogas process stability which results in increased CH_4 production (Gustavsson *et al*., 2013). The objective of this study is to determine the effect of trace elements (Fe, Co and Ni) supplementation on improving the percentage methane gas yield from the anaerobic digestion of municipal solid waste.

Materials and Methods

Sample Collection and Preparation

Municipal solid wastes (MSW) have a complex composition made up of various organic and inorganic compounds. In order to investigate the effects of the organic fraction of municipal solid wastes on the methane production, a total of five different organic matter, including grain chaff, vegetable waste, tuber peels, food remnants, fruit waste are used. The samples were collected from Danmani dump site along Kaduna-Abuja express way Kaduna state, Nigeria. The samples were air-dried, ground and stored in clean polythene bags before use. All reagents used in this study were of analytical grade. Fe, Co and Ni salt (4.840 g, 4.038 g and 4.036 g respectively) were weighed using an analytical digital balance (Sartorius, USA) and each transferred into separate 1000 cm^3 volumetric flasks containing 200 cm^3 of deionized water. The content of each flask was stirred continuously using a glass rod until the salt was completely dissolved forming a solution which was then diluted to the mark with deionized water. Standard solutions of 2, 5 and 10 mg/dm^3 for Co and Ni, 10, 20 and 50 mg/dm^3 for Fe were prepared by appropriate dilutions.

Biogas Sample Analysis

Two liters pyrex digester bottles were used as digester systems and operated at mesophilic temperature. Two hundred grams (200 g) of the substrates were loaded into the digesters and one litre of deionized water mixed with 50 cm^3 of the standard solutions (as prepared above) of Fe was added. The same procedure was repeated for Co and Ni. The digester bottles were sealed with a rubber bung having two bore holes to exclude air from getting into the digesters. One hole was used for temperature determination, while the other was connected to delivery tubing which was used to collect and measure the volume of biogas produced under water through the downward displacement method. The digesters were subjected to periodic agitation to ensure thorough mixing of the contents while maintaining intimate contact between the micro-organisms and the substrate to enhance the complete digestion of the substrate. The composition of the biogas produced was monitored using a biogas analyzer (IRCD4, China) on a daily basis. The composition of biogas generated within the digesters on addition of trace elements were also studied and the results recorded.

Before analysis, twenty (20 cm^3) of the samples from each digester were filtered into a 100 cm^3 beaker. Concentration of Volatile fatty acid (VFA) Using Kapp (1984) method and the pH's of the filtrates determined using the pH meter (Jenway 3505, UK) with a pH range of -2 to 16 ± 0.001.

Results and Discussion

Figure 1 shows Methane gas yield from municipal digester systems with Iron addition at different concentrations. The digester systems with 10 and 20 mg/dm^3 Fe, recorded an improvement in methane production of 14 and 18 % respectively, while 50 mg/dm^3 recorded methane a little lower than the control.

Figure 2 shows the percentage of methane produced when cobalt and nickel were supplemented in municipal digester systems.



Figure 1: Methane gas yields from municipal digester systems with Iron addition at different concentrations

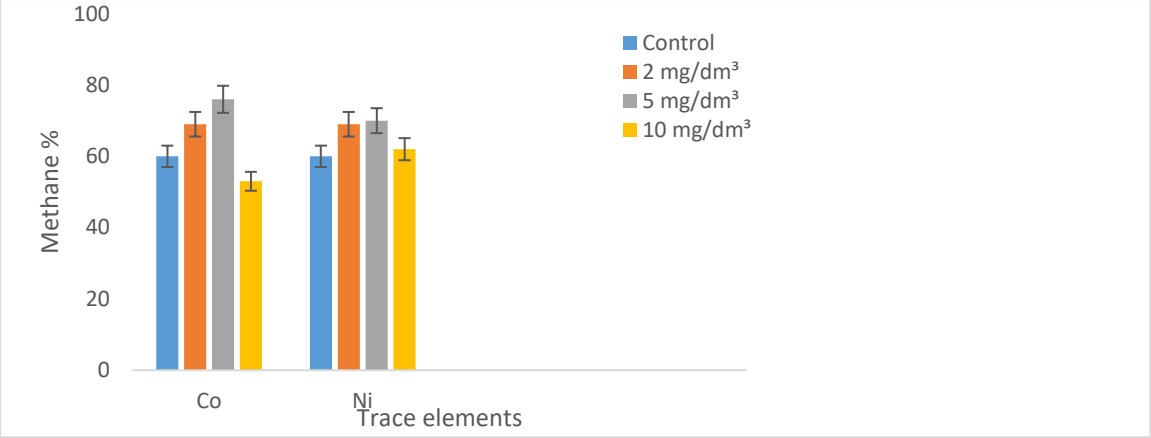


Figure 2: Methane gas yield from municipal digester with cobalt and nickel addition at different concentrations

The results show that trace element addition has a positive effect on methane gas volume. These results corroborate the hypothesis that the increase in methane production volume is a function of trace element addition. As reported by Demirel and Scherer 2011) that trace elements (e.g., iron (Fe), nickel (Ni), cobalt (Co), molybdenum (Mo)) are required for optimal growth of various methanogens.

A total increase of 2 – 18 % methane production was recorded when the trace elements were supplemented depending on the element and the concentration added. The highest methane production rate was 78 % with the addition of 20 mg/dm^3 Fe and 76 % with the addition of 5 mg/dm^3 Co compared to the control of 60 %. The rate of production of Methane gas in the digester systems with the highest trace element addition was found to be lower than that of the control system. The only exception was the system to which Ni was added for which a 2 % improvement was recorded.

From the results, it is obvious that addition of trace elements improves methane gas yield which is in line with a research finding by (Myszograj *et al*., 2018) that supplementing trace elements not only prevents process inhibition, but can also improve its performance by providing higher methane production because they are components of enzymes, some bacterial nucleic acids are essential for the synthesis of vitamins in methanogens.

Higher doses (concentration) of these trace elements have an inhibitory effect to the methanogens which hinders their activities leading to instability or disruption of the anaerobic digestion process. Therefore, resulting in lower methane gas production, which is the scenario observed in digester systems with 50 mg/dm^3 Fe and 10 mg/dm^3 Co (Figure 1). This is in accordance with literature by (Fermoso *et al*., 2015). The only exception was with 10 mg/dm^3 Ni, where an increase in methane production of 2 % was recorded. This is likely due to lower volatile fatty acid concentration (2350 mg/L) seen in figure 4 and optimum pH of 6.28 ± 0.97 recorded from that digester system. High levels of volatile fatty acids (VFAs) in a reactor may cause a decrease of process pH when the alkalinity level is not enough, resulting in a process failure which can lead to lower methane production (Paul and Beauchamp 1989). Again, this may be the reason why 50 mg/dm^3 Fe and 10 mg/dm^3 Co digesters produced lower methane gas.

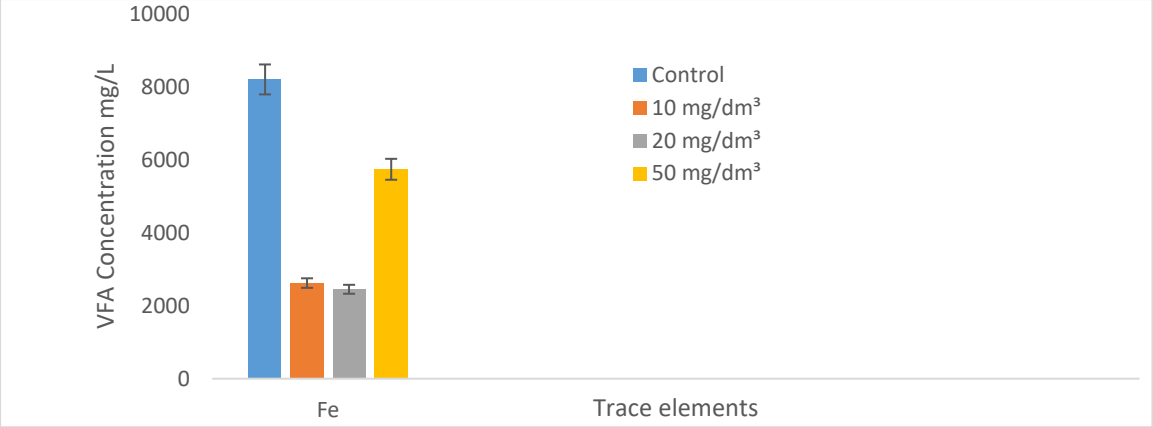


Figure 3: Volatile fatty acid Concentration from digester systems with Iron addition at different concentrations

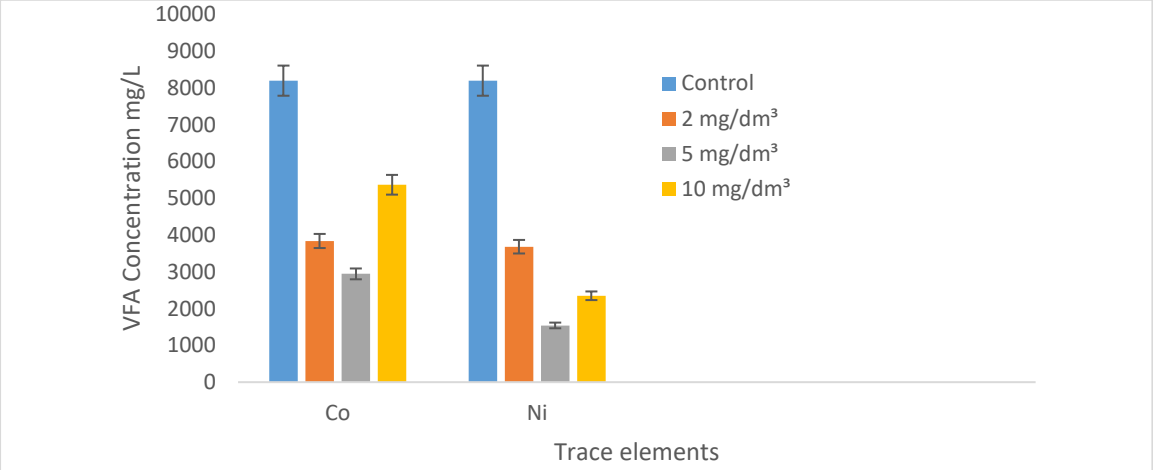


Figure 4: Volatile fatty acid Concentration from municipal digester systems with Co and Ni addition at different concentrations

Conclusions

The results indicated that supplementing municipal digester systems with Fe, Ni and Co promoted methanogenic activity at low concentrations leading to improvement in methane production, while they had inhibitory effects at high concentrations. High accumulation of volatile fatty acids (VFA) led to reduction in methane gas yield.

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