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Kampala International University, Uganda.

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Editorial

This issue of KIU *Journal of Social Sciences* focuses on Development Studies, Entrepreneurship Studies, Legal Studies and Educational Management.

Development Studies is a multi- and inter- disciplinary field of study (i.e. not a discipline) that seeks to understand social, economic, political, technological and cultural aspects of societal change. No wonder, Developmental psychologists study human growth and development over the lifespan, including physical, cognitive, social, intellectual, perceptual, personality and emotional growth. Developmental psychologists working in colleges and universities tend to focus primarily on research or teaching. That is why the first part of the Journal addresses issues in Development Studies such as civil society engagement in attainment of sustainable goals, democracy, functional education, vocational training and so on. One of the papers argues that Civil Society Organization has potential roles to play in the effective implementation of the Sustainable Development Goals as well as to enhance their engagement, impact and effectiveness in global development processes.

Section two explores the role of entrepreneurship Studies in National Development. Entrepreneurship is focused on developing knowledge, skills, and understanding of how an innovative and creative idea, product, or process can be used to form a new and successful business or to help an existing firm to grow and expand. For this purpose Government also welcomes entrepreneurs to start their business. Entrepreneurs can change the way we live and work. If successful, their revolutions may improve our standard of living. In short, in addition to creating wealth from their entrepreneurial ventures, they also create jobs and the conditions for a flourishing society. With the help of various empirical examples, papers in this section are able to prove that GDP growth rate is positively related to index of industrial production while the poverty rate and government expenditure on national security have negative signs which is an indication of the high rate of unemployment in Nigeria as many able bodied youth and graduates are not employed and as such, depended on the working population for survival which increases the rate of abject poverty. One of the papers, therefore, suggests that government should not only integrate entrepreneurship education as an integral part of the curriculum across all levels of education but should also establish skills acquisition centres across the country to reduce youth unemployment stem down the rate of poverty and insecurity in the country..

In today's world, Excellence in legal education and research is extremely important, because it will help shape the quality of the rule of **law**. The invaluable experiences that legal education can offer to future lawyers are several. Primary among them is exposure. ... These are essential for the intelligent practice of law. This is why the third section of this edition is devoted to issues in Legal Studies such as

legal duties of personnels in Secondary Schools, Protection of Teachers' Rights and Professional Footballers' Rights. One of the papers recommends the continuous improvement of awareness of legal duties through seminars; workshops; training of school principals on Education Law as well as updating Students Handbook to upgrade rules and penalties for violation.

The last section which centres on Education Management features papers meant to help in decision making and problem –solving, communication and managing information and building effective teams. It is recommended that participation in training and developmental programmes should be encouraged, to keep them abreast of current knowledge of research and teaching and to reduce redundancy.

In all, this issue of KIU Journal of Social Sciences contains certain theoretical and empirical papers that keep to provide solutions to one societal problem or the other. There is therefore something for everyone in this edition.

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Part One
Development Studies



Civil Society Engagement in the attainment of Sustainable Development Goals 2030

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Abstract. This paper examines Civil Society Organisations Engagement in the context of SDGs. The concept of Civil Society is stressed as well as their role in attainment of SDGs CSOs effectiveness can improve the collective drive towards achieving the SDGs. The concept of SDGs is likewise defined as well as all the seventeen (17) goals with a view of how government can create enabling environment for active involvement of CSOs in attaining SDGs in Nigeria because the coordinated efforts and increased synergies between CSOs and Government will accelerate the progress towards the attainment of the SDGs. Therefore, it is essential to unravel the potential roles of CSOs in the effective implementation of the SDGs as well as to enhance their engagement, impact and effectiveness in global development processes.

Keywords: Civil Society Organisations, Engagement and SDGs

1. Introduction

In January 2016, the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) replaced the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) as the main international mechanism for guiding development in all United Nations member states until 2030. These global goals concern a wide range of targets, including poverty alleviation, economic growth and environmental objectives. National governments, however,

cannot realise these ambitious goals on their own. Collective and individual efforts at the local, national and international levels are necessary. Moreover, governments will need the broad involvement of other stakeholders, such as the private sector, the general public and civil society organisations (CSOs) towards attaining all the 17 Goals of SDGs.

The SDGs build and expand on the eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by focusing on critical dimensions of sustainable development in both developing and developed countries, including human rights obligations, good governance, social justice, equity within countries, sustainability (particularly environmental sustainability), vulnerability and the exclusion of marginal populations and the poorest of the poor (Meyer-Ohlendorf et al., 2013; Simelane and Chiroro, 2013). Like the MDGs, the SDGs will not be legally binding; they represent a political commitment to development by all UN member states (Meyer-Ohlendorf et al., 2013).

Until now, the debates surrounding the SDGs have mainly concerned the setting of goals and indicators. Less attention has been paid to discussing the roles and responsibilities that different stakeholders should take in achieving these seventeen goals – in particular, how to best implement this universal framework through the engagement of CSOs.

Given the scope and ambition of the SDGs, it is clear that governments alone cannot achieve the agenda. They must also facilitate participation of all sectors of society, including civil society organisations (CSOs), the private sector and the general public to tailor the ambitious global-development agenda most especially the SDG 4- in which you and I are critical stakeholders.

2. The Concept of CSOs

The concept of civil society organisations goes back many centuries in Western thinking with its roots in Ancient Greece. The modern idea of civil society emerged in the 18th Century, influenced by political theorists from Thomas Paine to George Hegel, who developed the notion of civil society as a domain parallel to but separate from the states (Bissio, 2015).

In the 90s the trend towards democracy opened up space for civil society and the need to cover increasing gaps in social services created by structural adjustment and other reforms in developing countries hence Civil society becomes a sphere of social interaction between the household (family) and the state which is manifested in the norms of community cooperative, structures of voluntary association and networks of public communication. Norms are values of trust, reciprocity, tolerance and inclusions, which are critical to cooperation and community problem solving; structure of association refers to the full range of informal and formal organization through which citizens pursue common interests.

Civil society is an autonomous association which develop a dense, diverse and pluralistic network with range of local groups, specialized organizations and linkages between them to **amplify** the corrective voices as a partner in governance.

The key features of successful civil societies which emanate from various definitions include the following:

- separation from the state and the market;
- formed by people who have common needs, interests and values like

tolerance, inclusion, cooperation and equality; and

- development through a fundamentally endogenous and autonomous process which cannot easily be controlled from outside.

3. Difference between CSOs and NGOs

Civil society should not be equated to non-government organizations (NGOs). NGOs are part of civil society though they play an important and sometimes leading role in activating citizen participation in socio-economic development and politics and in shaping or influencing policy. Civil society is a broader concept, encompassing all organizations and associations that exist outside the state and the market.

4. The Role of Civil Society

According to the United Nations Development Group (UNDG, 2013), there are strong voices demanding the full participation of civil society in governance. Civil society must play a critical role in fostering advocacy and mediation in policy development, identifying crucial development priorities, proposing practical solutions and policy opportunities, and criticising impractical or problematic policies for SDGs (UNDP, 2014).

Civil society has been widely recognized as an essential ‘third’ sector. Its strength can have a positive influence on the state and the market. Civil society is therefore seen as an increasingly important agent for promoting good governance like **transparency, effectiveness, openness, responsiveness and accountability.**

5. How Civil Society Organisations Can Foster Good Governance

Civil society can further good governance by the following:

- by policy analysis and advocacy;
- by regulation and monitoring of state performance and the action and behaviour of public officials;

- by building social capital and enabling citizens to identify and articulate their values, beliefs, civic norms and democratic practices;
- by mobilizing particular constituencies, particularly the vulnerable and marginalized sections of masses, to participate more fully in politics and public affairs; and
- by development work to improve the wellbeing of their own and other communities.
- by giving voice to the concerns of primary and secondary stakeholders particularly poor and marginalized populations, and help ensure that their views are factored into policy and program decisions;
- by strengthening and leveraging impact of development programs by providing local knowledge, identifying potential risks, targeting assistance, and expanding reach, particularly at the community level;
- by bringing innovative ideas and solutions to development challenges at both the local and global levels;
- by providing professional expertise and increasing capacity for effective service delivery, especially in environments with weak public sector capacity or in post-conflict situations;
- by improving public transparency and accountability of development activities, and thus contributing to the enabling environment for good governance.

6. The Concept of SDGs

Sustainable development is a process for meeting human development goals while sustaining the ability of natural systems to continue to provide the natural resources and **ecosystem** services (4: provisioning; Regulating; Supporting and cultural) upon which the economy and society depends.

Sustainable development is the organizing principle for sustaining finite resources necessary to provide for the needs of future generations of life on the planet. It is a process that envisions a desirable future state for human

societies in which living conditions and resource-use continue to meet human needs without undermining the "integrity, stability and beauty" of natural **biotic systems...living components of a community / society. the SDG addresses both biotic and abiotic components to ensure sustainable development for mankind.**

The SDGs differ greatly from the MDGs: With a total of 17 different Goals and targets ranging from topics such as health to poverty, energy, infrastructure, sustainable consumption and peaceful societies.

6.1 CSOs and SDGs

The inclusion of CSOs in the SDGs processes is imperative, for they play crucial roles in the society as agents of accountability and service delivery. In the African context, the inclusion of CSOs is important because governance throughout the continent is described as being "bad" and of low quality (Owuye and Bissessar, 2012) hence the inclusion of CSOs will assist in advancing the SD goals by effectively articulating the needs and aspirations of the poor, fulfilling critical service-delivery gaps and promoting "good" governance practices (Motala et al., 2014).

The SD Goals are as follows:

SDG 1: End Poverty in all its form everywhere:

SDG 2: End hunger, achieve food security and improved Nutrition and promote sustainable Agriculture

SDG 3: Ensure healthy lives and promote wellbeing for all at all ages

SDG 4: Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all

SDG 5 Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls

SDG 6: Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all

SDG 7: Ensure access to affordable, reliable and sustainable and modern energy for all

SDG 8: promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all

SDG 9: Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialisation and foster innovation.

SDG 10: reduce inequality within and among countries

SDG 11: make cities and human settlement inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable

SDG 12: Ensure sustainable consumption and production pattern

SDG 13: take urgent action to combat climate change and its impact

SDG 14: Conserve and sustainably use the ocean, seas, and marine resources for sustainable development

SDG 15: restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystem, sustainably manage forest, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation and halt biodiversity loss

SDG 16: promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable, and inclusive institutions at all levels

SDG 17: strengthen the means of implementation and revitalise the global partnership for sustainable development

6.2 Engaging CSOs in SDGs: What should be done?

The Role of CSOs will be promotion of public consensus and local ownership for reforms and for national poverty reduction and development strategies by creating knowledge-sharing networks, building common ground for understanding, encouraging public-private cooperation, and sometimes even diffusing tensions.

The civil societies should be allowed to participate in the design of strategies, as service providers through community organizations and national NGOs, and serves as watchdogs to ensure government fulfilment of commitments.

The insistence on a transparent process by the CSOs for the development of national strategies to achieve the SDGs by working side by side with government (state) and the market to gain a stronger foothold in policy-making and

implementation by undertaking these crucial roles:

Translate the voices of the poorest and most marginalised citizens into rational or strong arguments that are acknowledged and addressed by the local government. The CSOs as the Voice of the Poorest and Most Marginalised Citizens: “Leaving no one behind” is an underlying principle of the SDGs. The SDGs represent a globally legitimate frame of reference for CSOs, which can introduce issues into policy dialogues. Where possible, CSOs should identify integrated improvements or interventions that could make a significant difference for vulnerable people.

Develop relationships or partnerships with the local government, and in particular, identify the government departments, actors or institutions that need to respond in order to remedy problems. Moreover, they can ensure that action is taken by the responsible person or department, and if this is not the case, they should also follow up with the relevant government officials or departments by engaging them to do the needful.

Use human rights as a lens of analysis. Adopting a human rights approach will enable the identification of groups of people whose rights have been violated, neglected or overlooked in development processes (UNDP, 2007). This approach also calls for the need to understand why these particular groups of people have had their rights infringed – for example, as a result of discriminatory laws or social practices that perpetuate inequality (UNDP, 2007).

Identify, engage with and learn from other CSOs that interact with these groups. CSOs should use “claimed” or “invited” spaces to highlight the actions, pilot projects or remedies that are effective or ineffective. In such spaces, CSOs can introduce issues important for their constituencies to the policy agenda through research advocacy, the lobbying of governments, litigation, mobilisation of public opinion and other actions (Coalition on Civil Society Resource Mobilisation, 2012).

Play a critical role as transformers in society by being involved in training and advocacy processes, which build the capacities and knowledge of the general populace towards achieving the SDGs. This will ensure that people become the focus of the SDGs and that the most vulnerable in society are not left behind when these global development goals are localised.

7. Civil Society Organisations as Agents of Accountability

Another critical role of civil society is to ensure that governments are held accountable (Bissio, 2015). Accountability is typically based on three elements: responsibility, answerability and enforceability (OHCHR, CESR, 2013).

Responsibility entails that those in positions of authority have clearly defined duties and performance standards, which enable a transparent and objective assessment of their behaviour (OHCHR, CESR, 2013).

Answerability demands that public officials and institutions present logical and articulate justifications for their actions and decisions to those affected, such as the general public, voters and other institutions (OHCHR, CESR, 2013).

Enforceability requires public institutions to implement mechanisms that measure the degree to which government officials and institutions abide by established standards, and that enforce sanctions on officials who do not comply and, when needed, ensure that the proper corrective and remedial action is carried out (OHCHR, CESR, 2013).

The three elements of accountability are not mutually exclusive, but interlinked. It is thus paramount that the roles and responsibilities of governments are clearly defined, particularly in terms of the answerability and enforceability dimensions of these development goals.

7.1 Responsibility

A starting point to better understanding responsibility in the context of these global goals is the principle of “common but differentiated responsibilities,” which is anchored in the

SDGs. This principle emphasizes that the responses of different UN member states to the SDGs will be context-specific and that their priorities will also be weighted differently. Consequently, countries will need to mobilise or redirect resources to certain goals that address issues that are most pressing to their local context (Osborn et al., 2015).

In South Africa, for example, high levels of unemployment, poverty and inequality are identified as the core context-specific problems. In the past, the agenda of the South African MDGs prioritised these core issues, and it is likely that the SDG agenda will continue to have a similar context-specific, weighted focus. Nigeria is doing same, the CSOs are assisting government in crafting these context specific problems.

7.2 Accountability

As an agent of accountability, CSOs need to participate and be integrated into development and planning processes at the national and local levels. One of the failures of the MDGs was the exclusion of civil society from the planning and formulation of goal-setting processes and development strategies in the beginning (UN Millennium Project, 2005; Sachs, 2012; Simelane and Chiroro, 2013; Motala et al., 2014). Given the lesson learned from this experience, SDGs should feature broader stakeholder involvement from the onset (ACSC meeting, 2015; DDP roundtable talk, 2015). The creation of institutional spaces that facilitate meaningful CSO participation is critical in this regard, with the goal of ensuring that SDG-related decisions can be proactively shaped starting from an early stage.

In this context, governments should endorse the use of various CSO-driven initiatives to promote accountability and scrutiny of operations: participatory budgeting and expenditure tracking, public expenditure tracking surveys and citizen report cards (UNCDF, 2010).

7.3 Answerability

CSOs are able to promote transparency through the dissemination of information. For example,

to highlight what has and has not been achieved by the government, CSOs can disseminate publications on legal provisions, public expenditure allocations, governance, accountability mechanisms and other matters that the government may not want to share (Motala et al., 2014).

The formation of partnerships or coalitions with other CSOs is an opportunity to strengthen the power of arguments in these institutional spaces and to approach development in an integrated manner. CSOs can act as a watch dog, critically examining government policies to ensure that government actions align with global development goals (Environmental Monitoring Group, 2005).

7.4 Enforceability

Enforceability is not only centred on punishing those who do not comply with established standards. It is also concerned with ensuring the availability of adequate and systematic mechanisms for measuring compliance according to stipulated responsibilities (OHCHR, CESR, 2013). Enforceability is also associated with the need to ensure that the appropriate corrective action is carried out (OHCHR, CESR, 2013). Although the SDGs are not legally binding, the localisation of these goals into domestic legal systems does provide some form of legal accountability and opportunities for enforcement by all countries (DDP roundtable talk, 2015).

Judicial enforcement at the court level is a possible route for CSOs. Litigations, however, are often very expensive and take a long time (OHCHR, CESR, 2013). Despite the costs of litigation, there are a number of success stories. For example, human rights-based social mobilisation resulted in the court-ordered dispensation of antiretroviral treatment in South Africa, which is argued to have saved over a million people (OHCHR, CESR, 2013). The judicial route can often identify systematic policy failures, and courts can be used to promote structural and institutional change (OHCHR, CESR, 2013) through the shout of CSOs.

8. CSOs as Service Delivery Agents

The CSOs play a key role in delivery procedures particularly in situations where governments lack capacity, capability or the will to provide essential services for their citizens (UNCDF, 2010; Save the Children, 2012). As a result, these actors must be collectively involved in shaping demand, developing state policies and delivering services (UNCDF, 2010). This is particularly relevant in areas affected by conflict and characterised by high levels of poverty and a lack of access to basic services (Save the Children, 2012).

CSOs are often better suited to meeting the needs of the poor, as they can be more flexible than the government and can identify creative and innovative alternatives to development (Coalition on Civil Society Resource Mobilisation, 2012).

9. CSOs as Data Collectors, Reporters and Monitoring Officers

It is clear that data gaps, the insufficient use of data and differences in indicator values between national and international sources hampered the MDG process (Easterly, 2007; Sanga, 2011; Sachs, 2012). Moreover, “traditional” forms of large-scale data collection take a number of years to complete and analyse, which ultimately delays action for those in need (Sustainable Development Solutions Network, 2015).

In an effort to remedy this, the High-Level Panel of Eminent Persons on the Post-2015 Agenda called for a “data revolution”: data collection systems should be low-cost and reliable, and they should ultimately ensure that data are accurate, timely and immediately available to policymakers. The data revolution needs to be an inclusive and transparent process that includes statistical experts, CSOs, national human rights institutions, service providers and marginalised populations (UN, 2013).

The CSOs should be involved in the development of adaptable tools for data collection, monitoring and evaluation of processes related to the implementation of the SDGs. Recent improvements in information

technology, such as the innovative use of mobile technology in collecting data, create an opportunity to enhance statistics for accountability and decision-making purposes and to create new forms of participatory monitoring (UN, 2013). This could be used by CSOs to enhance government and service-provider accountability (UN, 2013). Citizen information is then forwarded to the relevant policymakers and development planners. While the use of such online and mobile technology can facilitate the real-time monitoring of development results, this innovation is currently disconnected from traditional statistical communities throughout the world (UN, 2013) and will need to change.

The CSOs have an important role to play in this new form of data collection by encouraging people to use these new platforms. CSOs can also use the data from such platforms to highlight ineffective or problematic areas with the overall aim of ensuring that domestic resources are mobilised to address issues.

In addition, CSOs can thus create their own set of indicators to help identify, and bring attention to, the issues that are most pressing in the local context. These indicators need to focus on the local people who should benefit from the realisation of the SDGs. This means that civil society can perform a watchdog function by ensuring that governments are delivering on these commitments. It is envisaged that this will aid the mobilisation and redirection of resources.

10. An Enabling Environment for CSOs Engagement on SDGs

“An enabling environment is a set of interrelated conditions—such as legal, bureaucratic, fiscal, informational, political, and cultural—that impact on the capacity of ...development actors to engage in development processes in a sustained and effective manner”.

Fox et al (2002) in Brinkenhoff (2004) identified five roles for government which could contribute to an enabling environment being fostered for civil society organisations to participate effectively namely: mandating, facilitating, resourcing, partnering and

endorsing. Each of these is elaborated on briefly below:

- Mandating refers to the legal and regulatory environment within which CSOs operate.
- Facilitating role is where government incentivises CSOs as service providers or provides information easily and in an acceptable format.
- Resourcing refers to the direct funding of CSO work.
- Partnering is where both parties gain mutual benefit through collaboration etc. An example of this is the South African National Aids Council which includes strong civil society membership and which collectively developed the national five year Strategic Plan for HIV, AIDS, TB and Malaria for the period 2012 to 2016.
- Endorsing refers to actions by government which recognise the contribution of CSOs, one such example is the work of the NDA in supporting CSO through grant funding, training and capacity building.

11. Tips for Active Engagement of CSOs in attaining SDGs

CSOs can best contribute to achieving the SDGs by taking the following necessary steps”:

Firstly, CSOs stand to benefit from aligning the framework of their programming to that of the SDGs. By adopting the framing associated with the SDGs, CSOs will be able to participate in debates on global development, which have local level impacts, and can effectively create an argument for.

Secondly, CSOs need to forge new partnerships with other CSOs as well as with governments, the private sector and other international bodies. Within these partnerships, best practices and other information should be shared and translated into meaningful vehicles for the implementation of the SDGs.

Thirdly, CSOs need to work in a coordinated fashion with each other – for example, by

forming a coalition of CSOs to organise civil society engagement with the SDGs and to enhance their interactions with governments. Such a model of collaboration is essential for promoting deliberative governance, identifying gaps, facilitating inclusivity and generating collaborative solutions to challenges related to the SDGs. A coalition is likely to have greater power and presence in governance processes than CSOs attempting to engage with the SDGs on their own.

12. Conclusion

From the paper, it is obvious that CSOs function as catalysts in the achievement of SDG goals in both developed, emerging and developing countries. Their role in forming partnerships with government no doubt will facilitate effective implementation of the SDGs as well as on monitoring activities related to this process.

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Can Democracy Help the Almajiri Child in Nigeria?

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Abstract. The all-round anguish an average Almajiri child is suffering in Nigeria has attracted sharp interrogations: internationally and otherwise. The fact that the age-old almajiranci system needs a life-saving reformation is a point that have been made severally by certified child rights activists, the past and current governors of the northern states and the religious authorities. The believe, that, democracy and its “fall-outs”, which was recently ushered in as a governance system in 1999 will help to revitalize the almajiranci system towards the liberation of the victims, the children and the adolescents, is still a gospel truth to some authorities. Hence, it was the core focus of this study to interrogate this belief, the trust that, ordinarily and inherently, democracy has the wherewithal to positively help the Almajiri child in Nigeria. The interrogations that were done to answer the central question; were done through a comprehensive analysis of the salient tenets of democracy vis-à-vis it Nigerian brand. The study concluded that, until Nigeria decides to practice a kind of welfare democracy that will jettison some extreme capitalistic components of the democracy it is currently practicing, the Almajiri system will be the lot of the nation for a long time.

Keywords: Almajiri, almajiranci, democracy, governance and Nigeria.

1. Introduction

In Nigeria, the sociological phenomenon of the Almajiri children in the northern part is comparable to some forms of predicaments and similar abuses with under-aged children that do fishing in the Niger Delta region, children that are “herdsmen” among the Fulani ethnic group and children that are used as “farm hands” and for hawking petty goods on the streets in the Middle Belt, in the eastern and western parts of the country. Hence, what is true about the Almajiranci system in terms of the negative consequences to the overall development of the Almajiri child is true to most deprived children across the nation.

In fact, the Almajiri child and his abusive system have some advantages when his scrape, unfortunately, is compared to some of the abusive systems in other parts of the Nigeria. For instance, unlike the Almajiri child, the migrant fishermen children in the lower Niger Delta region of Nigeria have no organized form of education behind their own abusive system. Also unlike the Almajiri child, there is no “religious charity” component supporting the children that are used for fishing or who do fishing to help themselves in the Niger Delta. Somehow, also, the plight of the Almajiri child has attracted a lot of attention, and periodically, the children of this system do get some direct succor (in forms of skills acquisition and other vocational training programmes) from the government and from other international do-

gooders. This is not applicable to victims of other abusive systems in other parts of the nation.

However, the children from other parts of the country that are under some forms of abusive system like that of the almajiranci system have been suffering without any organized help because there is a collective denial, something like a conspiracy of silence from the authorities concerned. To all intents and purposes therefore, the summary of the conclusions of this study is also diametrically influenced by all other forms of long-standing child abuse systems in the country. The idea that democracy will somehow help to reduce organized socially approved abuses that are cultural and otherwise such as the almajiranci system, gender discrimination and poverty, is an ongoing axiom (Richard, 2017). Can the current brand of democracy being practiced in Nigeria help the Almajiri child? The answer to this question, will be the main thrust of this here.

In order to comprehensively address the central foci of this paper, it will be divided into four major sections. Section one, will adequately situate the almajiranci system in Nigerian historiography and the recent narratives. While section two, will cover the negative and the positive effects of the system under interrogation. Democracy and its overall formations and dimensions will be presented in the third section which discusses an overview democracy. How far democracy could help the Almajiri child? Enveloping almajiranci system inside western liberal democracy will be the concern of section four. And finally, the paper will make its summations in the concluding section.

2. Rationale and Methodology of the Study

It is safe to conclude that the Almajiri child has been “over-researched” in the last century. No aspect of the Almajiri child has been spared to a reasonable level. This explains why, literature on the socio-economic, political and the educational challenges the Almajiri child is facing are in abundance. Recently most scholars

have started to study the nexus between the almajiranci system and terrorism in Nigeria. Tons of literature have also be produced in this regard. However, so far, little has been done in the area of how democracy can help the Almajiri child. In essence, the conviction that democracy has the means to salvage the Almajiri child has not been properly dissected. Therefore, the key interest of this paper is to try to answer this question, can democracy help the Almajiri child? Finding out the answer to this question is very important because, at present, Nigeria is in the fast-line of the democratization process and a lot is expected from the process. Thus, this takes a socio-historical approach. This is appropriate as it looks at the plight of Almajiri child holistically before diving into what democracy portend for him.

3. The Almajiranci System in the Nigerian Narratives

That the Almajiri child is one of the most abused children in the whole world is no longer in doubt. This declaration is in tandem with the summation of the study done by Zakir, et al (2014). Like most abused children, the Almajiri child lacks all the basic, life-saving, materials. But unlike most deprived children, the Almajiri child lacks also the needed psychological guardianship to nurture his self-esteem when he becomes an adult. He is subjected to vigorous begging through a well-oiled conspiracy of uncaring political and traditional leaders and carefree: economically muzzled parents throughout his formative years. The unfortunate lot of the Almajiri child is that, his tortuous life has seen ages, and no relieve is in sight at the moment. Hence, future Almajiri children are always manufactured to replace the current ones, it is a case of the continuity of the vicious cycle of exploitation and deprivations. It will not be out of place, therefore, if one labeled the almajiranci system an organized crime and a crime against humanity. This is not to input that the Almajiri child has not attracted some haphazard forms of favours from public-spirited individuals, Non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and the government. According to Sulaiman, (2006), the first official attempt to put a halt on the practice of migrant Qur’anic

schooling system in Nigeria was started by Kano Native Authority as far back as 1959; also in July 1980, the Sokoto State government signed into law an edict regulating the movement of Almajiri. On May 24, 1988 the Kano State government inaugurated a 10-man Committee on Almajirai comprising all stakeholders too to officially find a way to regulate the system (Sulaiman (2006: 65). The former President of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, Goodluck Jonathan (2010-2015) according to some authorities did a lot for the Almajiri child (Asogwa & Asogwa, 2015). However, all these efforts, indeed, only scratch the back of the piles of depravity the Almajiri child is convoluting in at present.

The lot of the Almajiri child has been the same in the last 100 years or more, however before 1904 when the colonial invaders invaded the remaining leadership structure of the then northern Nigeria, the Almajiri education system, originally called the Tsangaya was, an organized and inclusive system of education for learning Islamic beliefs, values, jurisprudence and theology. It was a facsimile of Islamic learning centres in many Muslim countries such as the madrasah in Pakistan, Malaysia, Egypt and Indonesia etc. (Asogwa, & Asogwa, 2015). In fact, it has been an intermediate of early childhood holistic Islamic education in Northern Nigeria since the 11th century where Kanem-Bornu rulers first practiced it before it was introduced into the Hausaland in the early 19th century, after the famous jihad of Uthman Dan Fodio (Bolujoko, 2008 cited by Thomas, and Obi 2017). Today, there are well over 9 million children in the Northern Nigeria alone in this category who mostly depend on the host communities to contribute plates of food for the Mallams and his students (Alao, 2017; Iliyas, Rabi'u and Adio, 2017; Ammani, 2016).

The Qur'anic school child, now the Almajiri child, of the pre-colonial era was a child of allure and pride because, the school system was funded by the then State treasury and the State's zakkat funds, and was under the control of the emirs of the traditional government system that existed before the coming of the British (Abdullahi, 2006: 29). Currently the Almajiri child has attracted so many characterizations, however, for the sake of this study, the

following definitions will be adopted because the overall depict the Almajiri child of our focus.

The Almajiri child is any child below the age of 18 years (male) in most cases sent to an old-fashioned Qur'anic school by the parents at a very early age to study outside his parental care. He is easily identifiable with tattered clothes, no shoes, dirty, unkempt, holding a bowl to beg for food. He is in most cases having one kind of skin disease due to the crowded rooms in which he sleeps (if he is lucky to get a roof over his head). The Almajiri child is usually trafficked from state to state and from country to country all in search of knowledge (Saudatu, 2006:25).

An Almajiri is a young child leaving his home and family to learn Qur'anic education in a new environment in the traditional way. These children live in colonies far away with their mallams. The age of these children vary from 5 years to 18. The living condition of these children is an eyesore. They live in rooms with no proper ventilation (Asma'u, 2006:80).

The disaster in the life of an Almajiri child in whole northern zone of Nigeria is essentially a product of the incongruity of the socio-economic, political and cultural alterations taking place in the Nigerian society of the pre and post independent eras (Abdullahi, 2006: 29). Hence, what we have as an almajiranci system is a product of many phenomena. This explains why the Almajiri phenomenon is hydra-headed in nature and manifestations.

The violent colonial conquest of northern Nigeria, like it happened in most parts of sub-Saharan Africa, actually gave birth to the Almajiranci system that is currently in operation, because it made nonsense of the original welfare-oriented communal system that revolved around the traditional Qur'anic education system that abhors begging directly and indirectly (Abdullahi, 2006: 37). This explains why Sulaiman (2006: 65) argument is very germane. Sulaiman pointed out that:

It has already been argued that seasonal, migration of children and youth from rural to urban areas was never part of the feature of

Islamic education in the pre-colonial Hausa society. The existence and perpetuation of almajirci could therefore be explained by the logic of capital, the need for cheap labour, rural proletarianization and incasing poverty which are the direct result of the capitalist development policies (Sulaiman (2006: 65).

At the moment, the Almajiri child in Nigeria, is at a crossroad, of no fault of his, he could not go back to his farming country home because of climate change and its attendant repercussions, he could not recall and enjoy his pre-colonial existence too, he could not also break the back of capitalism that according to Sulaiman, is perpetually throwing him to, and exposing him

to, the vagaries of the open street for unprecedented dehumanization.

4. Positive and Negative Effects of the Almajiranci System

The positive effects of the almajiranci system to be enumerated below in a table are not signs of its wellbeing. The end-beneficiaries of these positive effects are, unfortunately, the leaders in the: low-upper, middle and upper classes of the Nigerian State that are perpetuating the abuse with cultural and religious sentiments and vain data that needed to be actually discarded in this current century.

Table 1: Positive and Negative Effects of Almajiranci System in Nigeria

Positive and Negative Consequences of Almajiranci System in Nigeria	
<p>Positives</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -It is avenue to learn the Quran; -It helps the children to learn the Arabic language; -it helps to equip the learners with Islamic jurisprudence; -it sometimes provide an avenue for vocational education; -it enables the children to know their country; -it helps the children to learn other languages, such as English and Yoruba. 	<p>Negatives</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -it destroys the psychological wellbeing of the children; -it exposes the children to drugs; -it exposes them to sexual abuse; -it destroy the children’s love for their parents -it exposes them to gangsters -it makes the learners to be violent; -it is an avenue for the children to be recruited to terrorists organizations; -it makes them to dislike “western” education; -it is an avenue for a poor and one-sided religious knowledge; -it breeds hatred for non-Muslims; -it makes the products to be subservient to their “real” oppressors; -it makes the children to dislike farming; -it obliterates the love for local communities from the hearts of the beneficiaries; -it exposes the children to diseases; -it makes them to be less ambitious; -it makes them to be dirty men in their adult lives; -it makes the children not to have family history; -it makes the children to love poverty in their adult lives; -it makes them to be bad fathers in the future. -it celebrates and encourages joblessness

Source: Authors (2017)

Imam Shafi, one of the major proponents of that system argues that its benefits are numerous including that it gives the student knowledge as he emigrates from home; good manners that reliefs him from sorrow, guarantees his livelihood and friendship with the famous scholars of the day (Alao, 2017).

5. Democracy: An Overview

The term, democracy, had been used in more than 100 contexts. Therefore, it is very significant for every country to consciously

create its own contextual ethos-oriented democracy designed to reflect its culture, size, complexity, and level of political complexity (Iyanda, 2017). However, countries in sub-Saharan Africa are “forced” to kowtow the line of western liberal democracy. The international and national enforcers of western capitalism-loving liberal democracy on most parts of the continent do not actually care whether it will be favourable or not, in terms of overall development of the continent.

Bernard Crick (1964: 56, cited in Christian, et al, 2009) has described democracy as the most licentious word in the world of public affairs. Therefore, this study will not belabour any definition, it will rather throw in as many definitions as possible that will aid the achievement of the focus of the study.

Usman (2009:8) define democracy as an institutional arrangement that involves open political competition, multi-party participation, legally sanctioned political rights, a mechanism for ensuring the transparent conduct of public affairs, all mediated by periodic elections where citizens elect, re-elect or depose their representatives. By extension, 'democratic expansion' refers to institutional and attitudinal transformations aimed at providing maximum democratic rights and institutions for the people. It depends largely on dialogue and negotiation as well as actions and reactions (protests, policies, programmes) of citizens aimed at influencing the choices and behaviour of state institutions and actors. Also, democracy carries the potential for alternating governments.

While to Dahl (1989: 220-222) and Gasiorowski (1996: 471) a nation is practicing democracy when there are:

- Elected political officials
- Free and fair election
- Inclusive suffrage (the right to vote for virtually all adults)
- The right to run for public office
- Freedom of expression
- Alternative sources of information
- Associational autonomy (the freedom to form organizations)

For Gasiorowski (1996: 471 cited in Christian, et al, 2009) a regime is democratic if:

- Meaningful and extensive competition exists among individuals and organized groups for all effective positions of government power at regular intervals and excluding the use of force;
- A highly inclusive level of political participation exists in the selection of leaders and policies such that no major (adult) social group is excluded; and
- A sufficient level of civil and political liberties exists to ensure the integrity of political competition and participation.

To Huntington (1991:34), a government is democratic, when, "its most powerful collective decision-makers are selected through fair, honest, and periodic elections in which candidates freely compete for votes and in which virtually all the adult population is eligible to vote."

Democracy has been practiced globally, as it developed. The history of democracy is embedded in discriminations, absolutism and lack of majority participation (or what is now known as universal adult suffrage). Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778), the Enlightenment French social and political theorist and one of the leading intellectuals to question the basis of the undemocratic and absolute power wielded by Europe's monarchs, limited his belief of democracy to property owners while John Stuart Mill (1806- 1873), the British philosopher-economist, called for the only the inclusion franchise to the property class in all his summations (Marc, 2010: 84).

This may be perhaps the reasons why, Marxist scholars such as Walter Rodney and Claude Ake casted aspersion on the adoption of western-style liberal democracy in Africa and other former colonies. Ake postulated that:

- Democracy in the Western sense may be antithetical to Africa's brand of democracy based on communal traditions of consensus building... traditional African political systems were imbued with democratic values, such as patrimony and communalism, a strong emphasis on participation and standards of accountability. "Chiefs were answerable not only for their own actions but for natural catastrophes such as famine, epidemics, floods, and drought" ... (Ake, 1991 p: 34).
- Democracy has also been classified and declassified into different forms, natures and styles. The debate about the style and nature democracy could sometimes take or manifest was in the late 1990s shaped by Fareed Zakaria's introduction of the term "illiberal democracy" to characterize regimes that now choose their rulers through practically open and

impartial elections, but are deficient in the rule of law and the protection of individual and minority rights (Fareed, 1997). This means the principle of majority rule does not by itself constitute democracy; there are so many tyrannical regimes that enjoyed the support of a majority (Marc, 2010: 84). The current USA government of Donald Trump, is a precise worthy example.

6. Enveloping Almajiranci System inside Western Liberal Democracy: Any Success?

One of the attendant friends of capitalism is western liberal democracy. Due to the liberating power attributed to western liberal democracy, it is believed that, it will help the Almajiri child in Nigeria to walk its way up. Dembisa Moyo, the economist, indorsed this line of reasoning when she said “Economic prosperity is the prerequisite for a successful democracy” (Richard Chilee, 2017:2) and what Sulaiman reiterated, it is clear that any attempt aimed at tackling the phenomenon of almajiranci must first attack it from its socio-economic root (Sulaiman, 2006: 77).

Unfortunately, about almost two decades later, the Almajiri child is still waiting for western liberal democracy to take him close to the promise land. In fact from the statistics available, the Almajiri child’s conditions in the country is nose-diving according to the Human Development Index summaries that has been published from 1999 to 2015. Olukunle Iyanda (2017) commented that:

...the most indicative summary statistics of the development and well-being of a nation is the Human Development Index published annually by the UNDP. In the latest published index for 2015, Nigeria ranks 152 out of 188 countries, one rank below that of 2014....Nigeria had remained around the same rank of 150s since 2010. It actually declined by one rank in 2015 (Iyanda, 2017).

The above assertion is true because, poverty “is the root of all evils” in Nigeria. The fact that modern western liberal democracy has not helped the Almajiri child and others may be explained in the following prisms put forward by some democratic studies’ theorists such as Christian, et al (2009). The middle section of Table 1, which displays the different dimensions of liberal western democracy, to some extent explicate the issue raised in the earlier part of this paragraph:

Table 2 Dimensions of Democracy

Definition of democracy	Democracy is not:	Democracy’s necessary preconditions are:
The government is held accountable to citizens by means of free and fair election	Socio-economic equality Capitalism Small government Property rights Economic efficiency and growth Political and administrative efficiency Freedom of religion Stability Peace	the right to vote for virtually all adults the right to run for public office for virtually all adults freedom of association freedom of expression freedom of the press

Source: Christian, et al (2009: 31)

Despite the summations in the middle section of Table 2, which by some means excuses, the inability of the current liberal democracy being practiced in Nigeria to help the Almajiri child out of the wood; the warning from Omotola reverberates the central argument of this study. To Omotola (2008), “the African condition today in terms of poverty is extremely alarming. Unless something fundamental is done to tame

the expanding monster of poverty in Africa, no amount of democracy promotion can make the people imbibe and exhibit a democratic ethos (Omotola, 2008: 48). Also as Takashi, Edward and John (1998) advance that:

The wider conception of peace and security embraces all spheres of life – economic, political, social, and environmental in addition to territorial and military security – and

democracy is increasingly seen as an integral part of this matrix (Takashi, Edward and John, 1998).

However, this falling matrix, magic actually attributed to liberal democracy is now a suspect, because before the reintroduction of democracy in Nigeria in 1999, virtually all advocates put out in all seriousness that western liberal democracy will work out a way for the Almajiri child, in particular and other deprived people in general in Nigeria. It is now actually, getting clearer that the trust western liberal democracy commanded before now in Nigeria is eroding very fast, hence, a reevaluation of the whole situation in the country needed to be done. The concluding section of this study will deal with this dilemma.

7. Conclusion

The Republic of India, like Costa Rica and Venezuela has been good examples of enduring western style liberal democracies without corresponding economic development. Bradley explained that, "India, despite the steady erosion of democratic institutions ...continues to stand as the most surprising and important case of democratic endurance in the developing world. And I might add that democracy in the developing countries of Costa Rica has been in place since 1948 and in Venezuela since 1958 (Bradley, 2011).

This means that the mere practicing of a "copy-cat democracy" will not seriously help to improve the economic lot of most people in the developing nascent democracies in most so-called developing countries. This invariably means that the lot of the Almajiri child in Nigeria has a long way to go.

As Bernard (1962) famously opined decades back:

Democracy is perhaps the most promiscuous word in the world of public affairs. She is everybody's mistress and yet somehow retains her magic even when a lover sees that her favours are being, in his light, illicitly shared by many another. Indeed, even amid our pain at being denied her exclusive fidelity, we are proud

of her adaptability to all sorts of circumstances, to all sorts of company (Bernard, 1962:52).

This means developing nations such as Nigeria can re-modify the western liberal brand of democracy to suit her socio-cultural and economic traditions and current realities. Hence, any modification of the current democratic ethos that can help the Almajiri child in Nigeria, to uplift his dehumanizing globally imposed condition, will be a welcomed relive. This position is to a large extent, is in tandem with that of Claude Ake (1996) who argued that, "any democracy that cannot bring food to the table of the common people stands the risk of collapse". Hence, the current liberal western democracy in operation needs to buckle up to be still relevant in the future.

Plea just made above in the forgoing paragraph, for the modification of the extreme capitalism-oriented so-called western style democracy currently in operation in Nigeria, which is still suffocating the poor Almajiri child, is in harmony with the provisions of Chapter 11 (Fundamental Objectives and Directive Principles of State Policy) of the 1999 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria.

Finally, a rational excursions to the democracies in most parts of the materially developed nations show that, their forms of democracies cannot naturally tolerate such inhumanities that the Almajiri child in Nigeria is still subjected to in the current dispensation. This is predicated on the fact that, most of the democracies currently in operations in the developed jurisdictions are pro-poor, welfare-oriented democracies.

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Functional Education as a Tool for Sustainable Development in Nigeria: Implication for Curriculum Planners.

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Abstract. Any nation cannot develop beyond its educational standards or level, thus, education is seen as a catalyst for socio-economic and political development of a nation. The success of many nations is tacking major developmental problems such as poverty, unemployment and inequality among others can be traced to their educational system. Nigeria is not an isolated case as one of its developmental problems is poverty. It is in the light of the above, that this write up examines the relationship between functional education and sustainable development where it illuminates what functional education is, and the concept of sustainable development. The Paper discussed how functional education can be a tool for sustainable development and also elaborated on traditional education as an example of functional education and how it can be harmonized with formal education for effective result. It further explained functional education as obtained in the objectives of national policy on education and explicate the concept of curriculum planners. The write up also looked at the implication for curriculum planners. The paper concludes that functional education is a force that can reduce poverty, create job opportunities and raise income rates. Lastly the paper give some achievable recommendations to the government and other stake holders among which are: ensuring functional education through its funding, policy making, supervision and monitoring of educational project and

programmes and ensure that the objective of our educational system is geared towards producing a total person with requisite skills knowledge and values relevant to the 21st century and beyond.

Keywords: Functional education, Sustainable development and curriculum planners

1. Introduction

Education is the bedrock of socioeconomic and political development of any nation. Developed countries like China, Japan, Russia and United States of America among others have achieved various breakthrough due to their commitment to ensuring a functional system in their countries. All of these nations have been able to overcome several developmental challenges like poverty, unemployment, ignorance which are harmful to human existence and whose presence could lead to other social vices like; insecurity, crisis, conflicts and wars among other social ills. One of the enduring legacies that any society can give to its younger generation is education (whether is formal or informal). It is a means by which the norms and values of a given society are transmitted to its younger ones. From time immemorial, every activities or programme aimed at equipping the younger generation with skills and knowledge are considered necessary for them to function effectively and contribute to the overall development of the society.

The continuing problem of poverty, unemployment, inequality among others has bedevilled every developmental effort in Nigeria. For instance despite several efforts by successive governments in Nigeria through programmes and policy measures as well as the various intervention programmes and projects like poverty alleviation and women for women where women are trained in different skills by non-governmental organisations, and other foreign government agencies. It is evident that much has not been achieved in reducing the menace of poverty in the country as the rate of poverty is still on the high side. The only way to check these challenges is through effective and functional education which is a vital enterprise that touches the lives of both present and future generations yet unborn Asaju et.al (2013) in their study, they concludes that the declining standard of education in Nigeria has affected its efforts at human resource development with great consequences for government efforts at reducing the high rate of poverty, unemployment, inequality which are attributed to other social ills experienced in the country.

2. Functional Education

According to Idowu (1999), functional education is the total process of bringing up individuals to develop their potentials (cognitive, affective and psychomotor) to the fullest and consequently be able to contribute maximally to the development of the society. Arogundade (2011) adds that functional education seeks to prepare people, especially youth, to be responsible, enterprising individuals who become entrepreneurs or entrepreneurial thinkers who will contribute to economic development and sustainable communities. The need for functional education started emerging in the mid-1980s. In the mid-80s, the Nigerian economy collapsed while youth and graduate unemployment hit the roof. There was large scale layoff of workers and retirement as a result of structural adjustment programmes and bad economic trends in the country. During this situation, functional education, which would have salvaged the situation, was not encouraged. He further observed that tertiary education has not properly include the philosophy of self-

reliance such as creating a new productive cultural environment that will promote pride in primitive works and self-discipline, encouraging people to actively and freely take in decision and decision affecting their general welfare, promoting new set of attitudes and culture for the attainment of future challenges.

In many European countries, universities and technical colleges train students of science, economics and business management in skills that help to build more sustainable societies. Programmes such as peace education, human right education, Environmental Education, and youth entrepreneur schemes are carried out in many schools. Hence, such initiatives help students and teachers to gain an understanding of inter-linkages needed for sustainable development. The emphasis has been on education that will provide life and occupational skills that will enhance the potentials of individuals reinforcing self-sufficiency and improving quality of life.

3. Sustainable Development

According to Adams (2006), sustainable development is a development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of the future generation to meet their own needs. Sustainable development has given better economic opportunities to people without collapsing ecological functions of the economy. Sustainable development is not about balancing anything. It does not mean striking some lowest common denomination equilibrium between environmental, social and economic factors; it is about maintaining the basic environmental condition without which economic development cannot take place at all. Indeed, in the case of climate, it is about maintaining the fundamental environmental conditions for civilization itself.

In the past, people learn the hard way to maintain the social conditions for economic growth. It took the middle of the twentieth century for people to accept the need to invest some of the proceeds of economic growth in maintaining social conditions health, education, and welfare. But by then, five decades were spent deciding whether communism or fascism

was preferred. It took another four decades before both options in that grimes choices were finally done Adams (2006).

4. Concept of Curriculum Planners

According to Obasi (2018), the term curriculum is hydra-headed in that it defies all efforts to pin it down to a definite meaning. The differences in the definitions stem from the varied views writers have on the nature of knowledge itself and the nature of learning. Traditionally, curriculum was perceived as information passed from one generation to another in the form of organised knowledge. He added that under such definition, curriculum will comprise of essential subject or even the mastery of collection of books. He also added that, in the middle year of the twentieth century, the definition of curriculum was broaden to include diversity of leaners and our understanding about learner differences. The focus was then on what was experienced by the student. Also, by the third of the twentieth century, and driven largely by the financial concerns, curriculum planners focussed their efforts and define curriculum according to product or outcomes. From the above, curriculum can broadly be defined under five cognate subheadings:

- As a subject matter, curriculum consists of permanent studies, the rules of grammar, reading rhetoric; logic and mathematics at the secondary level, the greatest book of the western world. Put differently, the curriculum is a planned programme of learning opportunities to achieve broad educational goals and relate objectives. The curriculum is all of the learning of the students that is planned by and directed by the school to attain its educational goals.
- As a plan for learning, curriculum of a school can be conceived of as a sense of plan events that are intended to have educational consequences for one or more students.
- Curriculum is those experiences set up by the school for the purpose of disciplining students and shaping their ways of thinking and acting. The

curriculum is greatly considered to be all of the experience that leaners have under the auspice the school.

- As an outcome, the curriculum is a planned learning outcome for which the school is responsible. The curriculum is a structure set of learning outcome (objective) resulting from instruction. Curriculum is concern not with what students will do in the learning situation but with what they will learn as a consequence of what they do.
- Curriculum Planners are both professionals and non-professionals because it is an elaborate and involving task. Taking these into account, it follows that any effective curriculum planning and development will include: curriculum experts, teachers, parents, learners, psychologists, subject specialist, philosophers, administrators/representatives of ministries of education and other interest groups like social workers, doctors, traders.

5. Traditional Education as an Instance of Functional Education

According to Fafunwa (1974), every society has its own system of educating their younger members. Every society whether simple or complex has its own system for training and educating its youth. He explained that educational goals and methods generally differ from place to place and perhaps time to time. Any education, he argues, can only be evaluated in terms of how it meets the needs of that given society.

Traditional African education to Fafunwa, is characterized by functionalism, social responsibility, job orientation, political participation, spiritual, and moral values. Learners learned by doing in a process that is distinguished by its integrated experience, a continuous method of assessment, adequate flexibility as opposed to rigid compartmentalization as well as intricate interwoven methods and content.

The aim of this education, to him, includes:

- To develop child's lateen skills.
- To develop character
- To include respect for elders and those in position of authority
- To develop intellectual skills.
- To acquire specific vocational training and to develop healthy attitude towards honest labour.
- To develop a sense of belonging and to participate actively in family and community affairs.
- To understand, appreciate and promote the cultural heritage of the community at large.

Traditional education which encourages apprenticeship training has been viewed as an alternative source of man power training and development in Nigeria. The period of learning (apprenticeship) differs in trades and establishment of a company. After an apprenticeship length of time, the apprentice is allowed to perform some work. This is to evaluate his skills so far, after that, he then progresses on the journey of becoming a man, the apprentice is initiated into the gild. At this time, he may prefer to own his business, join others, or stay with his master.

6. Functional Education Curriculum as a Tool for Sustainable Development

Cookey (2003), defines functional education as the education in which the ability to perform productive tasks is more emphasized than education that aim at producing ideological conformity. It is a kind of education that emphasizes practice more than theory. Cookey went further to say that Nigerian education has not been functional because too much emphasis has been placed on theoretical and academic knowledge. There is undue emphasis on the possession of certificates instead of on what one can do. According to Ukeje (1992), the education processes are geared primarily to prepare students for examination. Through this process of education, the students acquire knowledge and facts without understanding and without saleable skills, the result of this

dysfunctional education is that schools turn out graduates without useful knowledge and skills and who becomes alienated from their own environment. Functional education is a leveller of opportunities. The case in Nigeria where majority of graduates of the educational institutions search for white-collar jobs that are very scarce and difficult to secure will be a thing of the past if Nigeria operates a functional curriculum.

Functional education will produce graduates who are entrepreneurs and self-dependent and ready to practice what they have learned in the school. These entrepreneurs will also become employers of labour. More jobs will be created and income will be generated. The end result is that many will be lifted from their problems of unemployment and poverty. Functional education will lead to reduction or elimination of other developmental challenges and social ills presently experienced in the country. Thus vices like corruption, insecurity, poor governance, ethno religious crisis and even illiteracy among others could be attributed to high rate of unemployment and poverty in the country. According to minzer (1992), for functional education to be functional, it should be relevant to the needs of the nation of society and should not only train high level man power but contribute to all development of the nation. A functional education promotes the welfare of its citizenry, advances science and technology and economic growth, enhance democracy. Education is a pivot on which other factors are resolved.

7. Functionality and the Objectives of Nigerian Post Basic Education

The Federal Republic of Nigeria (2004) believes that:

There is need for functional education for the promotion of a progressive, united Nigeria. To this end, school programmes need to be relevant, practical and comprehensive while interest and ability should determine the individuals direction in education ... for the acquisition of appropriate skills and development of mental, physical and social abilities and competences as equipment for the

individual to live in and contribute to the development of the society.

Based on National Policy on Education, Post Basic Education is that which children receive after successful completion of nine years of basic education and passing the basic education certificate examination (BECE). It includes:

- Senior secondary education.
- Higher school and
- Continuing education given in specialized career and enterprise schools to either basic education graduates who are not proceeding to senior secondary school, or senior secondary graduate that are not preceding to tertiary level.

Objectives of post basic education (PBEC) for functional education as obtained in the National Policy on Education 5th edition include:

- (i) **To provide man power in the applied sciences, technology and commerce at sub-professional grades:-** the society needs competent auto mechanic and truck drivers, carpenters, plumbers, electricians, electronics and computers data base web, network technicians, book keepers and clerks, medical technicians, nursing assistants and graduates who are skilled in different areas to function well. Umo (1978), through functional education, qualitative manpower is produced. The education system of any nation determines its type, nature and calibre of manpower to be supplied.

The educational system and the commitment to human resource development have been attributed to the level of achievement and breakthrough experienced in the country. Nigeria is adjudged to be one of the richly blessed countries in terms of human and material resources. But using this wealth to better the life of her populace has continued to be a mirage. Even meeting the basic necessities of life like; food, cloth and shelter has been very difficult for many of her citizens. Nigeria needs functional educational system to bring about high quality man power that turn around the available resources into wealth for the nation. The country

will also experience a turn-around in science and technology which will in turn, affect all the other sectors of the economy. The wealth of the nation will be redistributed to favour the populace. There will be enough employment opportunities which will lead to income and invariably the decline in the high rate of poverty, unemployment and inequality. This will bring about an improvement in the wellbeing of the populace in the country.

It is in the light of this that some states in the country have establish some training schools to be able to produce more man power in different areas to improve the economy of the country for example there is a motor machine school established in Enugu where many apprentices are enrolled to be trained in that area. Elsewhere in Plateau state a secondary school called BUTECHS is established to train students who are at the post basic level indifferent skills like carpentry, sciences and technology so as to improve manpower and increase potentials in the younger generation so that by the time they complete their studies they can use those skills to be self-reliant. The students on completion, will not only be self-reliant but will also contribute to the sustainable economic growth of the nation.

Since the inception National Directorate of Employment in 1987, many people were trained in different skills and are now operating micro enterprises in the thirty six states of the federation and federal capital territory (Abuja). It will be pertinent to mention that currently, many unemployed youths are on training under the national open apprenticeship schemes in various training companies nationwide who are running apprenticeship scheme in partnership with the directorate.

In addition to functionality and Nigeria post basic education, Umo (1978), says through the introduction of functional education, qualitative manpower is produced. The functional education in Nigeria is to train qualify man power in Nigeria that will be productive. The introduction of technical education in the post basic education will equipped the graduate with the basic skills that will make them to be self-

employed because of the skills learned in school through entrepreneurship education.

(ii) Inspire students with the desire for self-employment and achievement of excellence:- the impressionable needs inspiration to help them achieved sustainable future for example the introduction of entrepreneurship education which encourages creative thinking and promoting a strong sense of self-work in the post-basic education curriculum, will help inspire them to acquire entrepreneurial ideas and put them to use for sustainable future.

Anho (2011), says entrepreneurship education is a form of education which makes people to be responsive to their personal families, national needs and aspiration. Entrepreneurship competence carries with it, the concept of skills and mental awareness which are needed to understand the functioning of an already existing business. Entrepreneurship education is about developing attitude, behaviours and capacities at the individual's level. It is also about application of those skills and attitudes that can make many forms during an individual's career, creating a range of long term benefits to society and the economy. Entrepreneurship helps to reduce the rate of unemployment and poverty in both urban and rural areas of Nigeria, Africa and the world at large. Through equipping the recipients with the knowledge and skills for setting up and running small scale businesses, the biggest employer is the private sector. Entrepreneurship education has the capability of providing jobs for many people in factories, agriculture, enterprises, other service industries and small-scale businesses.

According to Anho (2013), entrepreneurial education is capable of building good human and personal relationships thereby addressing personal and social challenges. The idea of personal and social challenges can be addressed with basic functional and entrepreneurship education. Managers and administrators with such education will allow their personality to radiate joy and goodness in their endeavours. According to World Bank (2004) entrepreneurship education reduces rural and urban migration by engaging the rural

population gainfully. This will check the overcrowding unemployment and underemployment experienced in the urban centres. Such overcrowding has been associated with agitation, joblessness, robbery, stealing, gangsterism, oil pipe vandalism among other vices which breach a personal and societal peace hence national security concern.

(ii) Provide entrepreneurial, technical and vocational job specific skills for self-reliance and for agricultural, industrial, commercial and economic development: - the Federal Republic of Nigeria government has been making various efforts to enhance skill acquisition for youths and employment. However, education for all (EFA) reported by Babalola (2011) shows that sufficient attention is not given to skill training for youth and adults. The entrepreneurship education is said to be integrated into the curriculum and only concentrated on few students who are interested in developing their entrepreneurial skills. At the University of Nigeria Nsuka, in 2010, the centre for entrepreneurship and development research (CEDR) was set up to promote entrepreneurial culture and mind set, skill acquisition, self-employment, economic independence and self-actualization.

8. Implications for Curriculum Planners

As computers take over more and more routine tasks, the nature of work across the entire economy is undergoing rapid transformation. The overall or net trend across the economy as a whole is towards creation of more cognitively demanding jobs (Jerald, 2009). Therefore, any school curriculum that emphasises following rules, directions or instructions to find solution to a problem as is the case in Nigeria, is in effect, preparing students for a job that may not be available by the time the students graduate. That does not mean that following instructions

to accomplish a task is unimportant but rather that it is no longer an adequate skill for success in the global job market.

Given the overall trend towards higher skill demands, and the transitory nature of many low-skilled service jobs, it makes more sense to prepare all students for post-secondary education or training so that they have the chance for higher-skilled and highly-paying work.

9. Conclusion

Functional education is a catalyst for reducing the high rate of poverty in Nigeria. Despite the central place that functional education occupies in sustainable development, Nigerian educational system has remained non-functional. When the educational system is functional, it will bring about accelerated growth in the economy. When graduate of the post basic education can practice what they learnt in school without waiting for government jobs, more jobs will be created and income enhanced.

Functional education is very important that there is urgent need for all post basic education schools in Nigeria to comply with the presidential directives to the effect that entrepreneurship be made compulsory for all students of post basic education in Nigeria, irrespective of their area of specialization. This policy decision was based on government awareness of the crucial role of entrepreneurship education and training in fostering employment generation among the teaming youth, economic growth, and wealth creation.

10. Recommendations

- The government at all levels should show its commitment and political-will to ensuring functional education through its funding, policy making, supervision and monitoring of educational projects and programmes.
- Government should ensure that the objectives of our educational system is geared towards producing a total person with requisite skills knowledge and

values relevant to the 21st century and beyond.

- There is also the need for government's resurgence and technology as well as technical education in Nigeria. This should start from the primary level.
- The overwhelming role of entrepreneurial education, as part of poverty eradication, self-reliance and national security, and development has been succinctly stated above. Since its benefits are enormous, adequate steps should be taken to requite entrepreneurial education by providing at all levels of governance-federal state and local government areas, suitable environment through proper curriculum planning and implementation, and by proper funding and equipping of entrepreneurship education.
- The various supervisory agencies of the educational institutions and the ministry of education should be more committed to playing their role as a watch dog in ensuring that all educational institutions from primary to tertiary operate within and abide by laid down standard.

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Deregulation of Nigeria's Natural Resources Sector as a Catalyst for National Development

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Abstract. For over 40 years Nigeria's economy was driven by petroleum. During this period, her influence in Africa soared. It peaked in the 1970s and 80s, so much so that she spent oil money on the decolonization of certain countries in Africa. Natural Resource in Nigeria is owned by the people, but administered for the overall benefit of Nigerians by government. This precious natural gift lost its pride of place when the worth of petroleum dipped in the international market. Prior to this economic decline, Nigeria adopted a near socialist system by operating a subsidy regime. Because what belongs to government belongs to no specific person, Nigerian past leaders became profligate. A public property is nobody's property and can be misused and mismanaged. So, Natural Resources is a gift from God to be used to develop a given area or country for the betterment of the people. Natural Resources can be better harnessed by private enterprise. Thus, deregulation in the least, or outright privatization is the best option in maximizing natural resources.

Keywords: Deregulation, Natural Resources, Exploitation of Natural Resources, National Development.

1. Introduction

Nigeria is endowed with a variety of natural resource, chief of which is oil and gas. Although the attitude of some Nigerians towards deregulation has been indifference as many hold the notion that such policies will lead to retrenchment and right sizing or job loss as well as high cost of living in the country. For the same reason some Nigerians are against deregulation, particularly the labour unions. Those that advocates and support deregulation usually cite the success achieved in the deregulation of the telecommunication sector. It is submitted that while it is true that some level of success has been achieved in the telecommunication sector, it is equally true that it has not been smooth saving in other sectors such as the power and steel sectors. Moreover the success in telecommunication is a global success resulting from technological development not solely as a consequence of deregulation.

However, while oil and gas are the major earners of foreign exchange, other natural resources do exist in Niger; gold, tantalite, coal, iron ore, etc. A nation endowed with natural resources is bound to experience upheavals, unrest and agitations. The agitations, which are not alien to Nigeria has given birth to the idea of deregulation in the least. The question of

deregulation has featured in public fora as a panacea for the multitude (myriad) of anti-social behaviours by groups that feel not properly taken care of.

1.1 National Development

National development has been submitted to be the outcome of economic growth, the models of which may include structural changes, savings and investments as the source of economic development and growth under the assumption that economic growth would generate funds for investment and infrastructural development that would guarantee better living condition of people.

National Development has also been defined from human centred perspective, it is thus defined as a transformation of the society in which the individual and the society interact with their physical, biological and inter human environment transforming them for own betterment and that of humanity at large and being transformed in the process; development therefore could be seen as the process of empowering people to maximize their potentials and the ability to exploit nature to meet daily human needs. It could also be seen as a process by which quality of human lives and capacity to surmount daily needs are considerably improved.

1.2 Deregulation

Deregulation may simply be defined as the removal of barriers, controls, restrictions, legislation and laws in an industry or sector by Government. Investopedia defined deregulation as the reduction or elimination of Government power in a particular industry, usually enacted to create more competition within the industry. While business dictionary defined deregulation as revision, reduction or elimination of laws and regulations that hinders free competition in supply of goods and services, thus allowing market forces to drive the economy. Hence Economic deregulation is said to occur when the government removes or reduces the restrictions in a particular industry to improve business operations and increase competition.

To deregulate therefore means to do away with the regulations concerning financial markets and trades. Basically, it has been posited that deregulation and privatization are elements of economic reform program charged with the ultimate goal of improving the overall economy through properly spelt out ways. For example, freeing government from the bondage of continuous financing of extensive projects which are best suited for private investment by the sale of such enterprises; encouraging efficiency and effectiveness in resource utilization; reducing government borrowing while raising revenue; promoting healthy market competition in a free market environment; improving returns from investment and broadening enterprises share ownership, thus engendering capital market development.

Deregulation has also been understood to refer to a gradual withdrawal or removal of regulations in the economy. It has been described as a way of liberating the economy or a way of removing impediments to trade, the movement of goods and services thereby allowing for the free interplay of the forces of demand and supply in the determination of the prices of commodity.

According to Bankole deregulation entails the following elements: privatization, removal of price control, to a large extent elimination of barrier to participation in all aspects of production, supply and distribution of goods and service by private businessmen. He believes that a regulated market can lead to shortage in supply which will give rise to hoarding and the existence of black market in the economy. Deregulation as accepted is sometimes used interchangeably with liberalization which has been defined as sector that promotes policy and institutional change designed to free internal and external markets for goods and services, improving efficient operations of markets, correcting markets, distortion, restructuring enterprise and institutions in public sector, and strengthening public revenue and expenditure planning and management.

1.3 Natural Resources.

There is generally no universally accepted definition of the term Natural Resources. However, what seems to be broadly acceptable is the definition of natural resources as all non-artificial products situated on or beneath the soil, which can be extracted, harvested, or used, and which extraction, harvest, or usage generates income or serves other functional purposes in benefiting mankind. Included in this are land, solid minerals, petroleum, water, water resources, and animal stock.

Natural resources are resources that exist without actions of humankind. This includes all valued characteristics such as magnetic, gravitational, and electrical properties and forces. On earth it includes: sunlight, atmosphere, water, land (includes all minerals) along with all vegetation and animal life that naturally subsists upon or within the heretofore identified characteristics and substances.

1.4 Exploitation of Natural Resources

Exploitation of natural resources has been defined as the use of natural resources for economic growth, sometimes with a negative connotation of accompanying environmental degradation. It started to emerge on an industrial scale in the 19th century as the extraction and processing of raw materials (such as in mining, steam power, and machinery) developed much further than it had in preindustrial eras. During the 20th century, energy consumption rapidly increased. Today, about 80% of the world's energy consumption is sustained by the extraction of fossil fuels, which consists of oil, coal and gas. Another non-renewable resource that is exploited by humans is subsoil minerals such as precious metals that are mainly used in the production of industrial commodities. Intensive agriculture is an example of a mode of production that hinders many aspects of the natural environment, for example the degradation of forests in a terrestrial ecosystem and water pollution in an aquatic ecosystem. As the world population rises and economic growth occurs, the depletion of natural resources influenced by the unsustainable extraction of raw materials becomes an increasing concern.

1.5 The Legal Regime for Deregulation of Exploitation of Natural Resources in Nigeria

Deregulation and privatisation are now global phenomena. They are the offshoot of economic globalisation. Many developed and developing countries have experienced one form of economic reforms or the other as a result of the global economic system. Deregulation of a country's economy could be conceptualized as privatization, divestiture, and marketization of the economy. In essence no government but private participation in the Country's economic activities. The corner stone of the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) of 1986 is the deregulation of the economy in other words called privatization of the economy.

The Privatization and Commercialization Act of 1999 established the National Council on Privatization, the policy body overseeing the privatization of state-owned enterprises, and the Bureau of Public Enterprises (BPE), the implementing agency for designated privatizations. The BPE has focused on privatization of key sectors of the economy, and calls for core investors to acquire controlling shares in formerly state-owned enterprises. Pursuant to which there is an ongoing privatization of government interests in commercial ventures and erstwhile government owned companies are being sold to the private sector. This is with a view to narrowing role of government as both regulator and participant in the industry. But it has been counter argued that privatization of the sector and withdrawal of state participation will simply translate to the exclusion of Nigerians from the industry in more ways than one. Notwithstanding this the Nigerian government has decided to go ahead with the policy even against widespread disapproval on the part of ordinary citizens.

Section 9 of the Act established the National Council on Privatization and it shoulders it with the responsibility of determining the political, economic and social objectives of Privatisation and Commercialisation of public enterprises and of approving the legal and regulatory framework for the enterprises to be privatised.

Since 1999, the Bureau for Public Enterprises (BPE) has privatized and concessioned more

than 140 enterprises, including an aluminum complex, steel complex, cement manufacturing plants, hotels, petrochemical plant, aviation cargo handling companies, vehicle assembly plants, electricity generation and electricity distribution companies. Additionally, more public enterprises were privatised pursuant to the Public Enterprises (Privatisation and Commercialisation) Order. The public undertakings privatized is in the power sector by the unbundling of the Power Holding Company of Nigeria. The Order also contains additional public enterprises to be partially or fully privatized and commercialized through concession.

1.6 Legislations Governing Exploitation of Natural Resources in Nigeria

a. Constitution

The starting point for discussion on the relevant legislations in the area is the Constitution, which is the grundnorm. Section 16 of the Constitution obliges the state to harness the resources of the nation and promote national prosperity and an efficient, a dynamic and self-reliant economy. The state must also control the national economy in such manner as to secure the maximum welfare, freedom and happiness of every citizen on the basis of social justice, equality of status and opportunity. It should also manage and operates the major sectors of the economy.

By virtue of section 44 (3) of the Constitution the ownership of all natural resources in the country are vested interest in the Federal Government. The Constitution provides *inter alia*, “the entire property in and control over all minerals, mineral oils and natural gas in, under or upon any land in Nigeria or in, under or upon the territorial waters and the Exclusive Economic Zone of Nigeria shall vest in the government of the Federation In *AG. Adamawa State v. AG. Federation*, the Supreme Court held that section 44(3) of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1 999 is concerned with the ownership, control and management of natural resources by the government of the Federation.

b. The Land Use Act

A lot of malpractice characterised the land tenure system existing before the promulgation of the Land Use Act. A lot of land speculators swooped on hamlets and villages buying up land at pittance. Such speculators often held such land and collected heavy compensations from Government if such land was needed for some public institution. Additionally, because of high commercial value placed on private land, in many acquisition government was made to pay huge sums as compensation to land owners. The Act was promulgated to reform and bring serenity into the chaotic land tenure system in part of Nigeria where the position was unacceptable. Also the Act was enacted to curb the problem of uncertainty of title and the difficulty encountered by government in getting land for development as a result of this it became very imperative that the government must intervene through legislation to court and reform these and other areas of the customary land tenure that needs to be reform.

The preamble to the Land Use Act provides for an “*Act to vest all land comprised in the territory of each state (except land vested in the Federal Government or its agencies) solely in the Governor of the State*”. The bracket portion of the preamble contains an importance proviso which makes an exception with respect to federal ownership of land. Additionally, the Act nationalised land through a combination of two approaches. It vested all land in the state, and abolished private ownership of it which was accomplished by making a right of occupancy the largest interest capable of existing in favour of a private person or body.

c. The Petroleum Act

The Petroleum Act, for all intent and purposes, remains the principal legislation that governs all activities pertaining to petroleum exploration and marketing within Nigeria. The Act vests in the Federation “the entire ownership and control of all petroleum in, under or upon any lands” in the country. The Act governs petroleum matters in Nigeria, its territorial waters and Exclusive Economic Zone. Its provisions cover issues such as oil exploration, prospecting and mining licenses, establishment of petroleum refineries, control of petroleum products, etc. Thus it is discernable from the

above that the main thrust of the Act is on the downstream sector of the petroleum industry. Hence it dwells on such issues as oil exploration and production refineries and their establishment, and powers of the Honourable Minister of Petroleum in that respect. Likewise, the consequences of the provisions in the Petroleum Act, is that no person may undertake any activity for the exploration or production of oil and gas without written authorisation of the Federal Government. Such authorisation would usually be by grant of oil prospecting licence and/or mining lease. This approach to ownership is adopted in Nigeria so as to assert national sovereignty over territorial natural resources, which allows the nation needs to be satisfied.

d. The Oil Pipelines Act.

The construction of oil pipelines in Nigeria as a medium of transporting petroleum and its products is regulated by the Oil Pipelines Act. The Act makes provision for licences to be granted for the establishment and maintenance of oil pipelines incidental and supplementary to oil fields and for the purpose ancillary to such pipelines. The Oil Pipelines Act requires permission to survey as a pre-requisite to engaging in construction of pipelines. A permit to survey legitimizes (which otherwise would be illegal) all actions pursuant to the laying of the pipelines. It should be noted that the Act regulate laying of pipelines generally and is not restricted to pipes carrying petroleum and allied products

e. The Nigerian Minerals and Mining Act.

The principal legislation on mining and mineral resources in Nigeria is the Mineral and Mining Act of 2007. The Act, is enacted for the purpose of regulating all aspects of the exploration and exploitation of solid minerals in Nigeria and for related purposes. The Act defines “mineral resources” to mean any substance whether in solid, liquid, or gaseous form occurring in or on the earth, formed by or subjected to geological processes including occurrences or deposits of rocks, coals, coal bed gases, bituminous shales, tar sands, any substance that may be extracted from coal, shale or tar sands,

mineral water, and mineral components in railing and waste piles, but with the exclusion of petroleum and waters without mineral content.

The Act opens with a noteworthy provision which vested the entire property in and control of all mineral resources in, under or upon any land in Nigeria, its contiguous, continental shelf, and all rivers, streams and water course throughout Nigeria, any area covered by its territorial waters or constituency and the Exclusive Economic Zone in the Federal Government.

The legislations highlighted above are the most significant in the area, even though, except those in the petroleum sub-sector there seems to be not much legislations devoted to other sectors of exploitation of natural resources in Nigeria. Similarly, the Privatization and Commercialization Act of 1999 contains only scanty guidelines on the nature of the sector of the economy to be privatize, leaving much discretionary powers on the policy and implementing bodies.

2. Ownership and Control of Natural Resources in Nigeria

The ownership and control of natural resources in Nigeria, has become topical, sensitive; sensational, preponderant and vexatious. This is so because, natural resources earn national wealth. In the world, two main types of natural resource ownership exist; viz private and public ownership. There is, however, a third type of natural resource ownership which is a hybrid of both public and private. Nigeria and the United States of America are countries where public and private ownerships of natural resources are obtained/practiced respectively.

In most definitions of ownership, land is distinguished from other types of property ownership. This is so because under Common Law, land is inclusive of *quic quid plantatur solo solo cedit*. By implication, therefore, in a capitalist economy, where individuals own land, the mineral resources located therein belong to the landowners.

2.1 Ownership Theories of Natural Resources in Nigeria

In Nigeria, the permanent sovereignty over natural resources theory is practiced. This theory is one that totally confers on the host country sovereign rights to the permanent ownership of natural resources found within its geographical location. The theory is traceable to the various United Nations Resolutions which have helped some countries which hitherto had no ownership theories to lay legal claims to deposits within their geographical continental shelves, territorial zones and exclusive economic zone areas. Under this category are former colonies of developed countries which at independence mounted pressure for economic emancipation such as Nigeria. In Nigeria, for instance, ownership of natural resources is vested in the federal government.

Surely, the international law position is that every nation has the sovereign control of its natural resources. This practice is based on the Latin maxim: *quic quid plantatur solo solo cedit*. This means he who owns land, owns what is in it deep down the earth and he also owns what is on top of the earth space up to the sky and beyond for example, mountains, forests, rivers, grasses, stones and minerals. It is because of this principle that the Niger-Delta people are agitating for the ownership of mineral oil in their land and is the basis upon which the Niger Delta region of Nigeria gave birth to the issue of resource control which culminated in the case of **A-G Federation v. A-G Abia & 35 ors.** However, the maxim has been qualified by the Constitution of the federal Republic of Nigeria, in Section 44(3) which provides that:

Notwithstanding the foregoing provisions of this section, the entire property in and control of all minerals, mineral oils and natural gas in. under or upon any land in Nigeria or in. under or upon the territorial waters and the Exclusive Economic Zone of Nigeria shall vest in the Government of the Federation and shall be managed in such manner as may be prescribed by the National Assembly.

This exclusion of the application of the Common Law rule by the constitution is re-emphasized by some other Acts of the National Assembly for example, the Minerals and Mining Act, Water Resources Act, National Inland and Waterways

Authority Act, the Exclusive Economic Zone Act and the Petroleum Act. In all these Acts, the ownership of mineral deposits exclusively belongs to the Nigerian State:

2.2 Ownership Theory under the United States Law

Ownership of natural resources in the United States of America is a bit more complex. This is because of the fact that the United States practices proper or ‘true’ federalism in which states control all activities except foreign policies, military and monetary. Since the inception of the petroleum industry in the United States, there has been private ownership.

In many parts of the United States where natural resources are found, there has been freedom of exploitation. This is so because of the rule that applies in some of the states that the owner of the land in which natural resources are found may lay claim to it to some extent.

Ownership of natural resources is vested in individuals upon whose land the products are discovered. This means individuals own oil wells and other mineral deposits. However, where these individuals explore and exploit these deposits, taxes and royalties are paid to the government of the state where the reservoirs exist. Moreover, some level of authority is exercised by individual coastal states where mineral oil is found. Under this situation the federal government of the U.S. and the coastal states jointly own and/or exploit natural resources.

It is to be noted however, that in certain jurisdictions, ownership of natural resources is not recognized unless and until the oil has been produced and reduced to possession. This is referred to as the **Qualified Ownership Theory**. Under this theory, the land owner or lessee, whilst not having full property rights in situ to the resources, does have a recognized right to acquire such absolute title by reducing the hydrocarbons into possession. This theory which obtains in California and Indiana is also known as the Capture Rule which rule is founded upon the belief that as migratory properties,

ownership of natural resources can only crystallize if and when it is captured and brought into possession. Therefore, possession of the land does not necessarily involve possession of the gas. If someone drilling on his own land reaches the common deposit and obtains through those wells the hydrocarbon (gas) of neighbouring areas, the ownership of that natural resource passes to whoever produced it.

Likewise, there is what another type of ownership that is popularly referred to in the oil industry as the “**Texas theory**” on account of its origin, exists in the states of Texas, Pennsylvania and Arkansas. Under this variant of ownership, the land owner is regarded as having legal title in the natural resources beneath his land, he is not a co-owner when the reservoir cuts across lands owned by different persons. However, the limitation to the absoluteness is when the owner loses title if the oil migrates to an adjacent land. Thus, in **Barnard v. Monogahel Natural Gas Co.** the court refused to restrain drilling by an adjacent land owner alienated to be drilling from a reservoir under the plaintiff’s kind, holding that the plaintiff’s remedy was self-help by drilling his own well.

The rule of capture, and or ownership-in-place, though qualified by capture rule, if allowed its full run, will lead to a dangerous preponderance of natural resources wells as a result of the fact that even landowner and/or oil seeker will drill as many wells as possible. This undesirable state of affairs will have negative effect on the environment as well as the quantity and quality of captured natural resources. The rate of dissipation and waste may increase while reserves may dwindle. It was in a bid to stem and checkmate this that the Conservation Act was passed by the US Government which has been domesticated by individual states. The State of Pennsylvania has passed this law which is now known as Pennsylvania Oil and Gas Conservation Law.

Principally, this law prohibits the waste of natural resources which waste includes physical waste as well as drilling more wells than are necessary. It authorizes the Department of Environmental Protection to issue spacing orders

which determine where wells can be drilled. This means that when multiple landowners own interests in a drilling unit, the landowners will share in the royalties from the oil or gas well in proportion to their ownership of the land contained within the drilling unit regardless of whose land the well is drilled upon. The law also prohibits over productivity through unitization. Sometimes, several oil wells are owned by different people, each well producing oil and gas from a common reservoir. To minimize the production of the reservoir, the different wells may be operated jointly, as one unit.

3. A Comparative Analysis of Ownership Theories in Nigeria and USA

When presented with natural resources cases, early common law jurists were somewhat reluctant to recognize corporeal possessory interest in substances they considered to be fugacious or “wild and migratory” and therefore subject to loss by drainage or capture. In the US, two different theories of natural resources arose. First, some states, such as Texas, have adopted the “ownership-in-place” theory for natural resources that a land owner owns a corporeal possessory interest (similar to a fee simple) in the substances beneath his land but his ownership is a determinable fee subject to the rule of capture. Second, other states, like Oklahoma, have adopted the “exclusive-right-to-take” theory that a land owner does not own substances that underlie his land but merely retains the exclusive right to capture the substances, a non-corporeal interest. The difference between the two theories is primarily of import in determining remedies.

Subsurface ownership boundaries are the same as those upon the surface, projected downward to the centre of the earth. This concept is based upon the Roman (Latin) legal principle of property law, *quic quid plantantur solo solo credit* (that whatever is affixed to the soil belongs to the soil).

Under the Nigerian system, the government owns all mineral deposits. This, therefore, excludes completely the application of the capture rule, but admits of conservation as

encouraged in the United States. The right of action in Nigeria lies with the Federal Government: in the United States, the right of action lies with the individual upon whose land there is trespass by another for the purpose of capturing natural resources.

Several legislations besides the Nigerian constitution invest ownership of natural resources in the Federal Government on behalf of all Nigerians. Particularly, Section I of the Nigerian Minerals and Mining Act provides that the entire property in and control of all mineral resources in, under or upon any land in Nigeria, its contiguous zone, continental shelf and all rivers, streams and water courses throughout Nigeria, any area covered by its territorial waters or constituency and the Exclusive Economic Zone is and shall be vested in the Government of the Federation for and on behalf of the people of Nigeria.

4. Effect of Deregulation of Exploitation of Natural Resources on Nigerian Polity

Under the Nigerian Oil and Gas Law, the word “deregulation” has two interpretations the ordinary meaning and the Nigerian technical meaning. Under the ordinary context, it means the removal of regulation into, within and exiting from the economic sector. On the Nigerian technical side, the word “deregulation” means the legal right of the government to remove subsidy it expends in getting the products available at uniform price throughout the country.

Additionally, deregulation to the federal government means reducing government borrowing, raising revenue through taxes, promoting healthy competition in a free market environment and improving returns from investment. The main objective of deregulation is to introduce a market economy thereby increasing economic efficiency, deepening democracy and guaranteeing political freedom as well as increasing government revenue.

According to Funsho Kupolokun, the Nigerian government embraces of privatization and

liberalization is influenced by the successes of other countries (Asian countries) in doing same. According to the former Group Managing Director, the intended goals of privatization deregulation are to dismantle the natural monopoly of state-owned enterprise by privatizing and deregulating price controls: creating competition in the downstream sector by encouraging more companies to get involved and eventually supplying the market at competitive pricing levels; reducing the cost government spends on subsidizing the sector which runs as high as \$1.5bn annually, and can subsequently use the resources freed to cater for the socio-economic and welfare needs of the Nigerian people; boost Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) to the Nigerian economy and to reduce transportation costs of products.

Deregulation demands that government restrict itself to the areas of governance and provide guidelines for the operation of economic activities by private individuals. The deregulation of the Nigerian downstream petroleum sector in particular and the Nigerian economy in general is an idea packaged and sold by metropolitan agencies such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF). The aim is to remove encumbrances placed by Neo-Socialist governments on the free operation of a market economy with its claim to efficiency.

Government argues that deregulation of the downstream oil sector is premised on the expectation that it will improve the efficient use of scarce financial resources by subjecting decisions in the sector to the operations of the forces of demand and supply.

Economic pricing of petroleum products is one of the major factors that will attract private investors into the downstream petroleum sector thereby increasing competition and promoting overall productivity which will lower prices overtime. Independent Oil Marketers will be free to set their prices based on their investment. Deregulation, through subsidy removal, will lead to adjustments that will push prices towards its market determined value. Appropriate pricing achieved through this policy will make activities

in the sector more profitable and attractive to private, domestic and foreign investors. The ultimate effect of this chain of activities is increased gains for the citizens who would be getting the most out of their natural resources.

The success in the telecommunications deregulation prompted the government to venture into the natural resources sub sector. Government expects deregulation to reduce economic waste and lighten social burdens caused by government involvement in economic activities. For several years, Nigeria experienced scarcity of petroleum products that almost crippled national economic activities and increased the cost of doing business. The scarcity inevitable led to a flooding of the market with adulterated products which caused damage to vehicles and machines. In many parts of the rural areas, some were forced to buy fuel (in the black market) at 30% higher than their original price. The government, therefore, believes that the deregulation of the downstream sector of the petroleum industry remains the only viable option in expanding opportunities for economic growth and competitive downstream sector. In rationalizing deregulation, the government believes that if regulation is limited to oversight and regulatory functions aimed at guaranteeing quality of products and preventing consumer exploitation, then the process of deregulation could help achieve greater cost effectiveness. Even if all the countries' refineries were to operate at full capacity, there would still be a petrol supply deficiency due to population increase and increased industrialization. Therefore, it is submitted that importation will remain inevitable until additional refining capacities are built through the ongoing green field refinery project. Thus, presently Dangote is constructing a refinery in Lagos State that may be the largest in Africa.

However, discussions are currently under way with prospective investors who are willing to provide Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) to build additional refineries in the country to ensure domestic self-sufficiency and the export of refined petroleum products within the next few years. The Petroleum Industry Bill contains

special fiscal incentive to encourage the establishment of new refineries around the country. A viable local refining sector will, in the long term, bring down the pump price of petroleum products below the current import parity.

Many governments in developing countries including Nigeria control petroleum products prices. This is so because it has become an instrument of political reward and patronage. This political inroad into economic sphere has derailed an otherwise good government.

Nigeria, with its heavy reliance on the global market is inexorably caught in the web of global market price intrigues. To reduce the direct impact of the global price conundrum, Nigeria has adopted a subsidy regime to keep prices at a determined level while bridging the gap between the petroleum price at the international market and the landing cost. Borno state for instance is over 1,500km from the Lagos port where imported petroleum products are discharged. With the distance between the two states, it is only logical that transportation costs of conveying petroleum products to Maiduguri in Borno State must come to bear on the cost per liter of petroleum products in Borno State. In other words, where a marketer discharges petroleum at Apapa Port in Lagos at a landing cost of N120.00 per litre, he might decide to sell at N125.00 or N130.00 within Lagos and its environs, while after transporting the products to Maiduguri, he may be forced to sell at N140.00 per litre. He might also decide to sell at N135.00 per litre at Ibadan, where he had incurred minimal transport cost from Lagos, compared to Maiduguri. Given this scenario, there is bound to be a haphazard situation that could create chaos and an unprecedented economic crisis. This is why the uniform pricing policy/model was adopted to principally ensure uniformity of petroleum products prices across the country.

Uniformity in the pricing of petroleum products throughout the country has been ensured and sustained because of the control and regulation of the industry by the government. Thus, the current proposals on the deregulation of the natural resources sector will not only bring

heterogeneity in the prices of these products but will also bring about wholesome competitive activities in the marketing of these products.

5. Conclusion

Nigeria adopted the theory and practice of public ownership of natural resources, which is constitutionally provided for other legislations. This public ownership of natural resources is vested in the federal government without any tangible or real exception and administered for the benefit of the citizenry.

The globalization trend carries with it a component of deregulation of public enterprises in all sectors of the economy, which requires divesting government of ownership and control of the economy in favour of private sector. This idea of globalization together with other national challenges resulted in the Structural Adjustment Programme in Nigeria since 1986, which has as its major component the deregulation of the economy. This policy is now being gradually extended to the area of exploitation of natural resources that the nation is endowed with.

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Exchange Rate and Trade Balance: The Case for J-curve Effect in Nigeria

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Abstract. The Nigerian currency has since the introduction of the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) of 1986 has been continually depreciated except for a few years. This study investigated the “J-curve” effect which is the nexus between trade balance (*TB*) and the real effective exchange rate (*REER*) in Nigeria. It adopted Johansen Cointegration following the outcome of the preliminary Augmented Dickey-Fuller (*ADF*) test for stationarity of the data series in the model from 1981 to 2016. The Granger causality and the Impulse Response Function tests were also deployed. The post-estimation diagnostic validation conducted included the normality, heteroskedasticity and autocorrelation tests. Empirical evidence from this study showed that in the short run, the trade balance benefited from the devaluation of the Naira rather than suffer deleterious consequences. There was no long run relationship between the dependent variable, (*TB*) and the explanatory variables, *REER* and *GDP*. In Nigeria, it was the inverted J-curve effect. The evidence from impulse response function corroborated the inconsistent long run relationship beyond the fourth year. There was the absence of Granger-causality directions amongst the variables. In view of the contrarian findings of this study, the Nigerian policy makers are enjoined to allow the financial markets determine exchange rates. Exception can be made for priority areas of the economy with the capacity to benefit the strategic intent of

governance. In this investigation of the exchange rate and trade balance nexus, the case for J-curve effect has not been made in Nigeria.

Keywords: Trade Balance, Effective real exchange rate, J-Curve Effect, Johansen Cointegration

JEL: B41, C21, F31

1. Introduction

Arising from economic depression occasioned in part by the fluctuation in world crude oil prices, the Nigerian government undertook a structural adjustment programme (SAP) between 1986 and 1988. The programme was conceived among other things to get rid of inefficient state intervention, liberalize exports, privatise State-owned enterprises, restructure other parastatals to improve efficiency and revalue the exchange rate of the local currency -Naira. One of the key objectives of the programme was to, consistent with economic theory (J-curve effect), improve the trade balance especially in the long run.

Several methods have been deployed by the monetary authority to revalue the Naira. In September 1986, the government initiated a second-tier foreign exchange market (SFEM) for non-controlled foreign trade transactions. The Naira immediately depreciated by 66 percent to N1=US\$0.64 (N1.56=US\$1), and has declined

further in value except for a few years when the government artificially held the value constant between 1996 and 1999. As at December 2012, the exchange rate stood at 156.81 Naira to 1 US Dollars (Central Bank of Nigeria, 2013). Indeed as of December 2016, the rate dropped to ₦=253.5 and further crashed to ₦=305.8 and ₦= 365.2 on the official and trading windows respectively (Central Bank of Nigeria, 2018).

Sufficient time has elapsed since the advent of the Structural Adjustment Programme in 1986 for a robust evaluation of the programme. Indeed, the stiff devaluation of the Nigerian Naira since the onset of economic depression in first quarter of 2016, calls for an in depth investigation of the efficacy of this macroeconomic policy in Nigeria. The salient question is the applicability of the J-Curve as a depiction of effect of depreciation of a country's exchange rate on the current account or balance of trade. Previous studies have reported disparate findings in empirical literature (Baek, Mulik & Koo, 2006; Danmola, Abba & Oladipo, 2013; Halicioglu, 2008; Umoru & Eboreime, 2013; [Ziramba and Chifamba, 2014](#))

The rest of the paper is designed as follows: The next section covers the review of related literature. In section three, the methodology of the research is presented covering the specification of the model, data sources and the estimation procedure. The findings, analysis and discussions are presented in section four while the fifth section concludes the study.

2. Review of Related Literature

This section covers the appraisal of related literature in previous studies and the theoretical review

2.1 Literature Review

Following from the theoretical discussions in the last section, the review of literature on the applicability of the Marshall-Lerner condition following a J-curve has a long history with mixed and changing views over time. The study by Kulkarni, (2007) provides empirical evidence supportive of the J-Curve proposition in seven

countries with significant adjustments in the values of their currencies. Six of the countries with devalued currencies recorded remarkable changes in the rate of exchange manifesting J-Curve shape on the balance of payments. An inverted J-curve was recorded for Japan, a country that revalued its currency in 1985. The summary of findings is that in the absence of market-determined exchange rate values, artificial fixation will result in another exchange modification at a later time.

Using a cointegration statistical model with six different lags, Halicioglu, (2008) tested the statistical causality of currency value fluctuation and trade balance of Turkey and its biggest trading partners. The research finds that in all the 13 countries, the rate of exchange had no effect on bilateral trade balance in the short term. Limited impact in the long run was reported for only USA and the UK. The autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) model applied by Baek, Mulik and Koo (2006) in estimating bilateral trade data between the U.S. and her three major trading partners (Japan, Canada and Mexico) find little evidence of the J-curve phenomenon with respect to agricultural trade with industrialised countries of Japan and Canada. However, relationship with Mexico, a developing economy did not.

The study of Thailand's forest products trade with the rest of the world conducted by Sulaiman and Abdul-Rahim(2014) using the ARDL and cointegration approach in testing for J-curve existence reports the absence of J-curve effect. This is not in congruence with the study of Ireland which was of interest to Hsing (2011) who deployed an open-economy macroeconomic model by incorporating the monetary policy reaction function. The findings show an inverted J-shape relationship in compliance with expected raises output during 2001 and 2009 due to real exchange rate appreciation as a result of real appreciation of the Euro against the U.S. dollar with consequential positive effect on real output. The research by Pavle, and Gligorić (2010) shows that using both Johansen's and autoregressive distributed lag approach, the depreciation of exchange rate led to improved trade balance in

the long run. In the short run however, a J-curve effect is manifest in Serbia.

Also employing the Autoregressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) approach, Ardalani and Bahmani-Oskoe (2006), show that in 50% estimated export functions for US industries, the coefficient on exchange rate in line with a priori expectation, is significantly negative. They contend that when aggregated data are applied, some insignificant sectors which may offset the exchange rate of significant ones could lead to the wrong conclusion that no impact on trade flows could be established. The application of ARDL cointegration approach and corresponding ECM by Bahmani-Oskoe and Kutan (2007) find empirical support for the J-curve pattern in Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, Romania, Russia, Slovakia, Turkey and Ukraine Bulgaria, Croatia and Russia for the short run and exchange decline in long-run improvement.

The J-curve hypothesis tested on four Central American countries and five African countries by Spencer and Kulkarni (2010) using the generalized least squares method confirms the Kulkarni hypothesis that multiple or consistent depreciation of a country's currency would shift the J-curve rightward and continuously weaken the trade balance. Empirical evidence could however not be established by Umore and Eboime (2013) in their study of the trade effect of real exchange rate depreciation on the Nigerian oil sector when the Bounds testing approach was applied on time series data spanning 40-year period. The inverted J-Curve shape despite devaluations during the period was ascribed to the fact that Nigerian exports and imports are in its oil sector was denominated in US dollars.

Bahmani-Oskoe and Gelan (2012) were unable to find any support for the J-Curve in nine African countries of Burundi, Egypt, Kenya, Mauritius, Morocco, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, South Africa, and Tanzania using quarterly trade data were available. The finding is also upheld by Arabi and Abdalla (2014) who sought evidence of a J-curve for the Sudanese trade data between 1979 and 2006. The Vector

Error Correction method shows that the Marshal-Lerner condition was met for the elasticity of real exchange rate although the condition for elasticity of demand for imports and exports was unachievable. The real exchange rate was found to be influential only in the short-run. Using the same estimation technique, Akpansung and Babalola (2013) in Nigeria reports weak evidence of causality between real exchange rate and trade balance.

The response of trade balance to exchange rate changes in Nigeria was examined by Oyinlola, Omisakin, & Adeniyi (2013) using Engel-Granger Two-Stage, Johansen and the Autoregressive Distributed Lag cointegration approaches on a quarterly data between 1980:Q1 and 2007:Q4. They find that the elasticities of demand for export and import did not sufficiently adjust to lead to improvement of trade balance thereby failing to depict a J-curve. The nexus between exchange rate and trade balance in Nigeria was re-examined by Oyinlola, Omisakin, and Adeniyi (2013). The study, working of quarterly from 1980:Q1 to 2010:Q4 deployed the Gregory-Hansen cointegration technique. The result shows that the depreciation of exchange rate caused the deterioration of trade balance both in the short and long run. This corroborates the findings by Ogbonna (2010) which highlights limited role of exchange rates in determining the long-run equilibrium behaviour of the republic of Benin's trade balance. The research which employ unit root, cointegration and error correction model (ECM) procedures estimates further show that real exchange rate devaluation improves trade balance which suggests that M-L condition has limited application to Nigeria.

In partial contradiction to the afore mentioned studies on Nigeria, the research by Danmola, Abba and Oladipo (2013) which employs Cointegration, Vector Auto regression Estimate, Granger Causality and Variance Decomposition to analyze the J-Curve hypothesis shows absence of long-run relationships among variables under consideration but find bi-directional short run causality between exchange rate devaluation and trade balance.

A delayed J-Curve effect was ascribed to political economy than economics in the Nigerian case study by Kulkarni and Clarke (2009) who tested the J-Curve hypothesis. The expected decline in trade balance 1999 as a result of exchange devaluation did not happen. Instead it soared 1800 percent and continued its ascent in 2000 by 143 percent growth. In addition, no evidence of the Kulkarni Hypothesis based on the second wave of devaluation between 2002 and 2003 was recorded. In the whole period, the country's balance of trade increase without let or hindrance. The investigation by Loto (2011) on the effect of devaluation of the Nigerian Naira on the country's trade balance for the period 1986 to 2008 adopts the elasticity approach to the Balance of payments adjustment in testing the Marshal- Lerner condition. The study applied Ordinary Least Square (OLS) method and report that devaluation does not improve the

trade balance since the sum of demand elasticities for imports and exports was found to be less than Unity. Ziramba and Chifamba (2014) who studied the behavior of South Africa's trade as a result of the crash of real effective exchange rate between 1975 and 2011 confirmed the long run relationship between the two variables.

The summary of literature findings suggests that factors including the level of economic development (Halicioglu, 2008; Baek, Mulik & Koo, 2006), time span (short versus long) (Danmola, Abba & Oladipo, 2013; Ziramba and Chifamba, 2014), currency denomination (US Dollar versus local currency) (Umoru & Eboime, 2013). It also highlighted the Kulkarni Hypothesis effect based on the second wave of devaluation. In the next section, the methods employed in this research are presented.

2.2 The Nigerian Experience

A cursory look at the trend analysis of the domestic balance of trade and Naira exchange devaluation depicted in Figure 1 do not show a discernible relationship between the two variables in the long run. A closer look however reveals noticeable associations between the two variables.

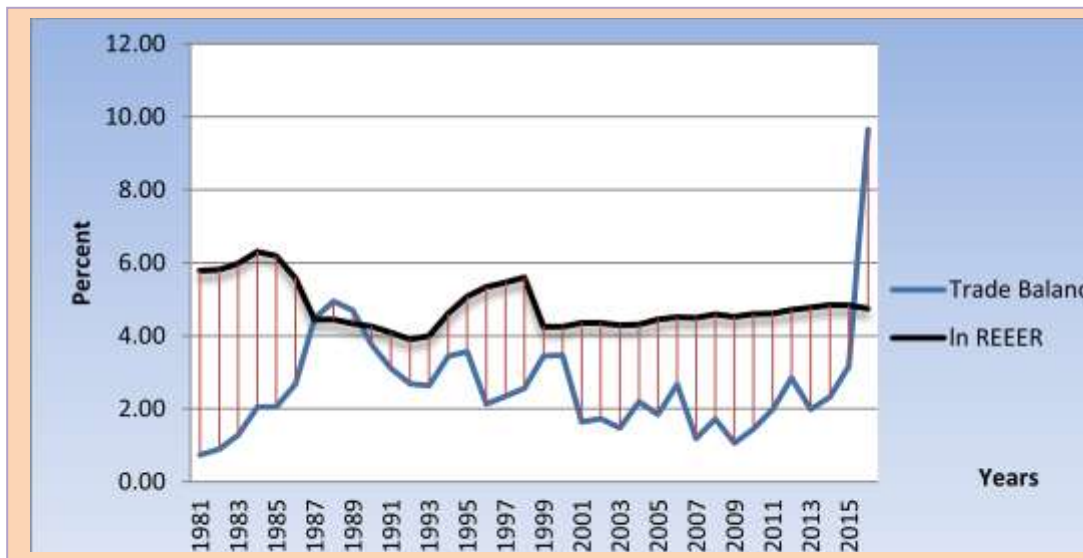


Fig 1: Trend of Trade Balances and Reel Exchange Rates (1981 -2016)

Source: Author's compilation from the Central Bank of Nigeria Statistical Bulletin (2017)

The devaluation of the Naira by about 126% and 99%, 13% and 63% in 1986, 1987, 1988 and 1989 respectively consequent upon the Structural Adjustment Programme of the country led to a sharp plummet of the exchange rates. This boosted the competitiveness of Nigerian exporters in the following two years up to 1989 because although imports were more expensive as a result of the decline in the rate

of exchange, the volumes remained steady. The low elasticity of exports in during the period also caused its response to the more competitive value of Naira to be slow.

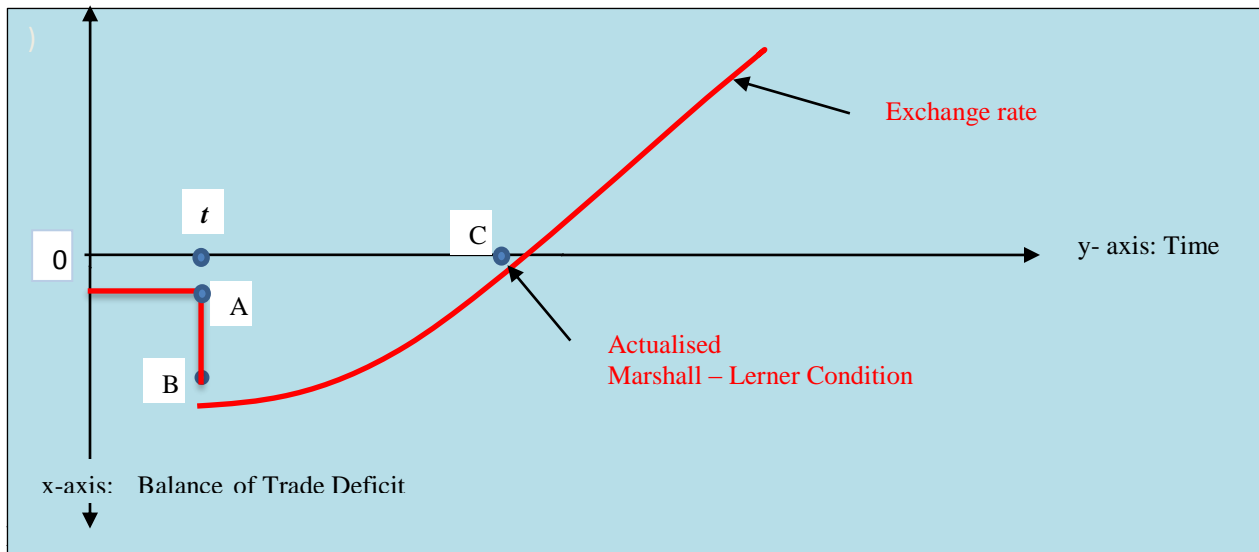
The balance of trade actually deteriorated subsequently for the next decade notwithstanding further devaluation during the period. The sharp rise in the balance of trade in year 2000 could not be ascribed to the artificial pegging of the Naira value by the then General Abacha military Junta between 1996 and 1999. The devaluation exercise in year 2000 actually led to an inverted J-curve in the same year when the trade balance also crashed. Between 2001 and 2006, the impact of the depreciation in the Nigeria started to manifest in increased export volumes and slower growth of imported goods and services with net improvement in the balance of trade in goods.

The Nigerian trade balance posted a surplus of 2.2 trillion Naira, compared with a 253.3 billion Naira deficit in 2016. Between 1981 and 2017 the Balance of Trade averaged 198.4 billion Naira. It attained a peak record of 2.2 trillion Naira in October 2011. A low of -592 billion Naira was recorded in March, 2011. Nigeria's trade surplus widened to NGN 837.1 billion in March of 2018 from NGN 114.1 billion in the same month a year earlier. The investigation methodology of possible J-curve evidence is presented in the next section.

2.3 Theoretical Framework

The volume of imports and exports may remain largely unaffected immediately following the devaluation of the currency, due partly to pre-existing trade contracts that have to be honoured. Also in the short run, the demand for imports and exports stay price inelastic due to time lags in the consumer's search for cheaper alternatives. Given an unchanged import level, the value of the currency falls. When the devaluation takes place at t , the net export falls from A to B (Figure 2).

Over time, the net export will gradually increase since consumers consumes less imported goods and other countries purchases more goods from the country, induced by the lower real price. The net export breakeven is achieved at point C where the Marshall – Lerner condition is met. In the long term, the exchange rate depreciation can have the most wanted impact of improving the current account balance. Based on the assumption that equivalent domestic alternatives exist, domestic consumers may switch from expensive imported goods and services.



Source: Adapted from Kulkarni and Clarke (2009)

The consumers the foreign trading countries may also switch from expensive imports to their own domestically produced goods and services which are now cheaper. With time the net export will find equilibrium. Ultimately, due to a lessened exchange rate and reduction in the demand for more expensive imports, the value of the domestic country's currency appreciates resulting in improvement in the trade balance.

The linkage involving a country's price elasticities of demand for exports and imports is examined by Marshall-Lerner Condition (M-L). Foreigners' demand for exports from a country is relatively elastic, and then a slightly weaker local currency should lead to greater rise in foreign demand for its output, resulting in considerable rise in export income. On the other hand, if the country's demand for imports is highly price elastic, then a slightly weaker local currency to relatively greater rise in local demand for imports, and reduction in expenditures on imports. The M-L condition provides that if the combined price elasticities of demand for imports and exports are greater than unity (i.e. the coefficient is greater than 1) in the long term, then the depreciation of a country's currency will cause the shift its current account towards surplus (Kulkarni, 2007; Kulkarni & Clarke, 2009). This is stated in equation 1.

$$PED_x + PED_m > 1 \tag{1}$$

Where:

PED_x = price elasticities of demand for exports

PED_m = price elasticities of demand for imports

In a situation, where the elasticities of demand for exports and imports are highly inelastic, any attempt at devaluing the currency would reduce a trade surplus or worsen a trade deficit since the import expenditures will rise while export income from abroad will decline.

It can be inferred from the Marshall-Lerner (M-L) condition proposition that the condition for achieving improvement in the Balance of Payment is also time dependent. The changes in elasticity in the short run are small thereby

making the attainment of the M-L Condition less likely. With time, the elasticities become larger, ultimately crossing the M-L threshold. The other major determinant of the degree of elasticity is the number of substitutes for the commodity or service. The availability of a large number of substitutes engenders high elasticity and vice versa. Where the M-L condition is not met before devaluations is done, there will be a shift in the J-Curve to the right as the elasticities import and export are realigned. Yet another cause, is the floating exchange rates mechanism of the free market which evaluates currency value using relationships like purchasing power parity (PPP). This has allows increased money supply by governments through *seigniorage*. The consequential currency crises and hyperinflation however leads to shifts in the trade balance as predicted by the J-Curve theory which this study investigates in the subsequent sections.

3. Methodology

This study attempts to explore empirically, the relationship between foreign exchange revaluation and the trade balance impact on the economy the trade balance is expected to depend on the real exchange rate and a measure of domestic and foreign income respectively, i.e. on the main determinants of import and export.

3.1 Model Specification and Estimation Procedure

The objective is to understand the effect of the real exchange rate (*REER*) on trade balance (*TB*) and confirm whether the relationship between the real exchange rate and trade balance of Nigeria follows the prescribed "J-curve" pattern. The long run relationship between the real effective exchange rate and trade balance of Nigeria is therefore modeled as equation (2):

$$TB = \alpha + \beta GDP_d + \delta REER + e \tag{2}$$

Where:

TB = Trade balance

REER = Real effective exchange rate

The domestic balance of trade of country i trading with country j (TB_{ij}) can be expressed as a ratio of exports to imports (X_i/M_i) (Onafowora, 2003). As posited by Hacker and Hatemi (2004), the trade ratio (exports divided by imports) is a better measure than the trade balance (exports minus imports). This derives from the fact that the trade ratio is capable of being logged regardless of whether a trade surplus or trade deficit exists. Ho (2012) defines the effective exchange rate as a ratio of the normalized exchange value of Currency i against the US dollar to the normalized exchange value of the benchmark currency basket against the US dollar. The US dollar is used as numeraire for convenience. To calculate the real effective exchange rate (REER), the nominal effective exchange rate (NEER) is adjusted by appropriate foreign price level and the home country price level.

REER as defined by the World Bank (2014) is the nominal effective exchange rate which is a measure of the value of a currency against a weighted average of several foreign currencies) divided by a price deflator or index of costs. Some of the identified methodologies for calculating the REER in the literature include the elasticity approach (Robinson, 1937); absorption approach (Greene, 2003); monetary approach (Kreinin, 1978), and portfolio management (Dornbusch, 1980). The trade weighting method for example favoured by Fung, Lau, and Xiong (2006) can be quite misleading in a world of production fragmentation where trade volumes are assumed to correlate with value added. The trade value addition in general, is not proportional to gross volumes as discovered by Fung et al (2006). Their research into trade which focused only on the value added of the trading countries understated the bilateral trade balance between the China and USA by about 25%. In addition, the trade weighting approach is also limited by the need to tailor-make (country-specific) for it to be useful since different countries have different trading partners. The GDP-weighted benchmark currency basket recommended by Ho (2009) for the effective exchange rate index is predicated on the fact that a country big in GDP is also ultimately a large importer. However, the

argument falls flat if a big country is in autarky and does not directly trade with other countries.

The procedure recommended by Erlat, and Arslaner (1997) for measuring REER has been adopted by this study. This involves the utilization of either the end-of-year or the average of the nominal exchange rate during the period; choice of price indexes; decision on the number of trading partners in calculating the weights and the taking decision on the formula to use in aggregation. This approach has stood the test of time in spite of new approaches being canvassed in the literature. The adopted approach which concentrates on the effect of relative price on the trade balances as postulated by Husted and Michael, (1995), submits that the impact of deliberate currency depreciation on the trade deficit depends on both the demand elasticity of imports and the supply elasticity of foreign goods.

The other key question is whether the depreciation of currency will improve trade balance in the long run real. In the case of foreign exchange appreciation, the a priori expectation is that the trade balance will be deleteriously impacted upon. In order for relationship to hold, the coefficient on real exchange rate should be positive in which case $\delta > 0$. In order to estimate the effect of exchange rate on trade balance, the domestic income is controlled for by including the gross domestic product (GDP_d) in equation (2). The inclusion of lagged values of the explanatory variable variables (GDP and exchange rate) is required to eliminate estimation bias which is likely associated with simultaneity and serial correlation. Also, the lag length is chosen using various criteria including the Akaike Information Criteria (AIC) as well as Sims (1980) and Blanchard (1990) procedures.

The other pertinent question to be answered is the true nature of the impact of the effect of the exchange rate (REER) on trade balance (TB). A rise in domestic output which may although, increase imports could also enhance exports. The net effect could be to either to improve or worsen the trade balance. Also, a supply-driven output growth could lead to an enhancement of

the trade balance. The import of this is that the expected sign of coefficient (β) is imprecise.

In view of the afore mentioned issues and based on an observed non-stationary nature of the Nigerian time-series data, the linear form of equation (2) suggests itself to log-linear function modification in which all the variables except the Trade balance are expressed as logarithms as in equation (3). The TB is not logged is due to the fact that is a generated rate. From the above discussions, equation (3) therefore lends itself for estimation by this study.

$$TB = \alpha + \ln\beta GDP_d + \ln EXP + \ln IMP + \ln\delta REER + e \quad (3)$$

In order to estimate the long run relationship among variables in the model, three competing techniques were considered. These are the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS), Johansen cointegration technique and the Autoregressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) Bounds Test. The choice of the appropriate techniques depended on the outcome of the preliminary test for the stationarity property of the variables in the model using the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) and Phillip-Perron (PP) unit root tests.

If all the variables are integrated at level, the OLS method will be utilized. On the other hand, the ARDL Bound test approach will be appropriate if the variables in the model are a mixture of stationarity $I(0)$ and non-stationary $I(1)$ variables. The Johansen cointegration test will be selected if all the variables in the model are both non-stationary and integrated of the same order (Johansen 1996). Prior to the use of this method, the optimal lag length is determined using lag selection criteria such as Schwarz Information Criteria (SIC) and Akaike Information Criteria (AIC). The lag combination that minimizes the criteria lag is selected for the model.

Since the short-run effects of exchange rate changes could be different from its long-run impact, the study also considered the Vector Error Correction Model Test. Although the results obtained from the cointegration test reveal the causality between the variables, the direction of causality may not be directly manifest. The Granger causality fills this gap.

The use of Granger causality may not reveal the full interactions between the variables of a system. It is important to know the response of one variable to an impulse in another variable in a system that involves a number of other variables. The Impulse Response Function is applied for this test. This functions, also known as the forecast error impulse response is modeled in the context of a Vector Autoregression to illustrate the reaction economy over time to exogenous impulses, endogenous macroeconomic variables and time (Hamilton, 1994 & Lütkepohl, 2008). In order to test the validity and robustness of the model the research conducted the Breusch- Godfrey serial correlation LM test, Durbin Watson statistics test and Breusch-Pagan-Heteroscedasticity tests.

3.2 Data Description and Sources

The data from 1981 to 2016 across various business cycles and foreign exchange variations, import, export and GDP are obtained from the Central Bank of Nigeria Statistical Bulletin (CBN 2012). The National Bureau of Statistics (NBS, 2014) provided the rationale for the GDP rebasing exercise of Central Bank of Nigeria (2014). In the submission of Goldsbrough, Adovor and Elberger (2007), the challenge of data have is manifestly bedeviled developing countries including Nigeria due to fundamental limitations in national data tracking systems. The need has therefore arisen for data sourcing from other areas. The World Bank (2014) database has proven to be a veritable source of data for the real effective exchange rate ($REER$).

The choice of the period of study is informed by the rapid devaluation of the Nigerian Naira consequent upon the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) embarked upon by the then administration in 1986. Except for some period between 1996 and 1999, the local currency had consistently fallen in value. Some data transformation was considered necessary. As the GDP values are in billions the logarithm are taken. Also, since $REER$ and TB are in units, rate or ratio, appropriate scaling tools are utilized in

order to arrive at data sets with relatively close range.

4. Empirical Findings and Discussions

4.1 Preliminary Analyses

The preliminary analyses of the nature of the variables are in two parts. These are descriptive statistics and stationarity test.

4.1.1 Descriptive Statistics

This statistic states the attributes of each variable are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics

STATISTICS	LNEXP	LNGDP	LNIMP	LNREER	TB
Mean	29.53	30.98	28.74	4.80	2.42
Median	29.35	30.74	28.67	4.60	2.26
Maximum	30.50	31.88	29.90	6.30	4.95
Minimum	28.90	30.36	27.46	3.91	0.74
Std. Dev.	0.51	0.51	0.73	0.64	1.07
Skewness	0.69	0.59	0.079	0.93	0.57
Kurtosis	2.10	1.76	1.76	2.75	2.75
Jarque-Bera	4.05	4.41	2.35	5.23	2.02
Probability	0.13	0.11	0.31	0.07	0.36
Sum	1,062.97	1,115.40	1,034.76	172.80	87.25
Sum Sq. Dev.	9.02	9.02	18.59	14.39	40.08
Observations	36	36	36	36	36

Source: Author's computation using E-views 8.0 (2018)

A large difference exists between the minimum and maximum values over the 36 year period of consideration. In addition, all the variables are platykurtic in nature amongst with skewness value less than 3. The Kurtosis values of the series are also less than 2. The combined implications of these two characteristics indicate non normality of the variables. This is corroborated by the estimation of the Jacque-Bera statistics. In spite of these non-normalities, the stability of the variables has to be confirmed using the stationarity test. This is discussed in the next section.

4.1.2 Stationarity Test Results

The results of the Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) test and the Phillip Perron test are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Unit Root Test Results: Augmented Dickey Fuller and Phillip Perron Test

Series	5% Critical Value	ADF Test at First Difference (Prob.)	Phillip Perron Test At First Difference (Prob)	Equation Specification	Order of integration
LNEXP	-2.95	-6.96 (0.00)	-7.08 (0.00)	Intercept	I(1)
LNGDP	-2.95	-4.34 (0.00)	-4.32 (0.00)	Intercept	I(1)
LNIMP	-2.95	-5.31(0.00)	-5.28 (0.00)	Intercept	I(1)
LNREER	-2.95	-4.40 (0.00)	-4.30 (0.00)	Intercept	I(1)
TB	-2.95	-5.67 (0.00)	-5.62 (0.00)	Intercept	I(1)

Source: Authors computation using E-Views 8.0 (2018)

The Augmented Dickey Fuller and Phillip Perron test result in Table 2 showed that all the variables were stationary at first difference since their respective absolute test statistic values were greater than the critical values at 5% significance level. This suggested that the Ordinary Least Square (OLS) method was not the appropriate estimation technique. The Johansen cointegration test lent itself for determination of

the long run relationship amongst the variables (Johansen, 1996; and Johansen & Juselius, 1990). This was deployed in the next section after determining the optimal lag length.

4.2 Estimation Results

4.2.1 Optimal Lag Length Selection

This determination of the lag length to be selected assesses the impact on the current year as a result of changes in the previous year.

Table 3: Optimal Lag Length Selection Criteria

Lag	Log L	LR	FPE	AIC	SC	HQ
0	35.75	NA*	1.07e-07*	-1.86*	-1.64*	-1.79*
1	50.83	24.68	1.99e-07	-1.26	0.10	-0.81
2	63.77	17.25	4.62e-07	-0.53	1.96	0.31

Source: Authors computation using E-views 8.0 (2018)

- * indicates lag order selected by the criterion
- LR: sequential modified LR test statistic (each test at 5% level)
- FPE: Final prediction error
- AIC: Akaike information criterion
- SC: Schwarz information criterion
- HQ: -Hannan- Quinn information criterion

The lag order length of (0) was selected by all the criteria was adopted. After establishing the lag order length, the Co-integration test was estimated and explained in the next section.

4.2.2 Cointegration Test Result

Two types of tests were considered under the Johansen method. These are the Eigenvalue and Trace statistic tests.

$$\lambda_{\text{trace}} = -T \sum_{i=r+1}^n \ln(1 - \lambda_i^2) \tag{4}$$

$$\lambda_{\text{max}} = -T \ln(1 - \lambda_{r+1}) \tag{5}$$

Where, λ_i is the estimated values of the ordered Eigenvalues obtained from the estimated matrix and T is the number of the observations after the lag adjustment. The trace statistics test the null hypothesis that the number of distinct cointegrating vectors (r) is less than or equal to r against a general alternative. The maximal eigenvalue tests the null that the number of cointegrating vectors is r against the alternative of $r+1$ cointegrating vectors.

The result of the Johansen Co-integration for both the Trace Statistic and Maximum Eigen Value is reported in Table 4. With the hypothesized level of acceptance is 5 percent,

Table 4: Result of Johansen Co-integration test based on Trace Statistic and Max Eigenvalue

No. of CE	Eigenvalue	Trace Statistic			Max. Eigen Value		
		Trace Statistic	Critical Value 0.05	Prob .	Max-Eigen Value	Critical Value	Prob.**
None *	0.68	100.38	69.82	0.00	36.06	33.88	0.03
At most 1 *	0.59	64.32	47.86	0.00	28.69	27.58	0.04
At most 2*	0.42	35.63	29.80	0.01	17.13	21.13	0.16
At most 3*	0.30	18.50	15.50	0.02	11.20	14.27	0.15
At most 4*	0.20	7.29	3.84	0.01	7.29	3.84	0.01

Source: Authors computation using E-views 8.0 (2018)

Notes:

Trace test indicates 5 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level

Max-eigenvalue test indicates 2 cointegration at the 0.05 level

* denotes rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level

**MacKinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values

The Trace Statistics and the Max-Eigen Value are optimized at most 1. The co-integration computation postulates at most 4 variables possess a long run relationship with the dependent variable. Thus, there exists a long-run relationship between trade balance on the one hand and each of import, export, GDP and real effective exchange rate, on the other.

The assessed vector error correction model results are presented below in Table 5.

Table 5: Result of Vector Error Correction Model Test

Variable	Co-Efficient (After Normalization)	Standard Error	T-Statistic	(df31 = 2.042)
TB	1.00			
LNEXP	1.42	0.79	1.79	
LNGDP	2.01	1.03	1.96	
LNIMP	-3.13	0.25	12.43	
LNREER	0.61	0.14	4.39	

Source: Authors Computation using E-Views 8.0(2018)

The estimated long run model is recast equation 6 as:

$$TB = 1.42 \ln EXP + 2.0 \ln GDP - 3.13 \ln IMP + 0.61 \ln REER \quad (6)$$

R-squared: 0.17 Adjusted R-squared: -0.27 F: 119.56

The equation (6) reveals the existence of positive relationship between trade balances on the one hand and export, GDP and each of real effective exchange rate on the other in the long run. However, export and GDP are not statistically significant at 5% because the calculated t-statistic of both independent variables (1.79 and 1.96 respectively) is less than the tabulated t-statistic (2.042 at df_{28}).

One hundred percent increase in real effective exchange rate raises the trade balance by 61 percent. However, the negative but significant nexus between import and trade balance in the long run means that one hundred increase imports will cause about three-fold reduction in trade balance. Having established the long run relationships and estimates, the next phase is to determine the short-run dynamics.

4.2.3 Vector Error Correction Model Short –Run Result

This test is carried out after the application of the Vector Auto-Regressive (VAR) model which is done to integrate the multi-variate time series. It is employed in order to determine the existence or otherwise of a short-run relationship amongst the variables and the dynamics which helps to maintain the long-run equilibrium. The short run estimation result is reported in Table 6.

Table 6: Vector Error Correction Model (VECM) Result.

Error Correction	D(lnEXP)	D(lnGDP)	D(lnIMP)	D(lnREER)
CointEq1	0.08	0.09	0.00	0.56
	(0.12)	(0.03)	(0.17)	(0.16)
T-stat (Cal)	[0.67]	[2.91]	[0.01]	[3.49]

Source: Authors computation using E-views 8.0 (2018)

Given that the tabulated T-stats value (2.042) is greater than the calculated $\ln EXP$ (0.67) and $LNIMP$ (0.01), the null hypotheses is accepted which states the absence of a short run relationship. This does not apply to $\ln GDP$ (2.91) and $\ln REER$ (3.49) which means that in the short run, trade balances react to the

real effective exchange rate and GDP. The effective real rate of exchange of the immediate prior year is positive and significantly, at 5 percent, related to the trade balance. A percentage increase in the real effective exchange rate will lead to 0.09 percent increase in trade balance. In the same vein, a percentage increase in previous period's GDP will cause 0.56 percent rise trade balance. The implication of this is that supply side factors are important in driving the growth of output Nigeria with consequential enhancement of the trade balance.

4.2.3 Granger Causality Test

Although the results obtained from the cointegration test reveal the causality between the variables, the direction of causality may not be directly manifest. The Granger causality fills this gap. The result is presented in Table 7.

Table 7: Result of Granger Causality Test

Dependent variable: D(AGD)			
Excluded	Chi-sq	df	Prob.
D(EXP)	0.38	2	0.83
D(GDP)	0.37	2	0.83
D(IMP)	0.65	2	0.72
D(REER)	0.83	2	0.66
All	3.88	8	0.87

Source: Authors Computation using E-views 8.0 (2018)

The result stipulates the absence of causal directions amongst the variables.

4.2.4 Impulse Response Function Test

The result is presented in figure 3.

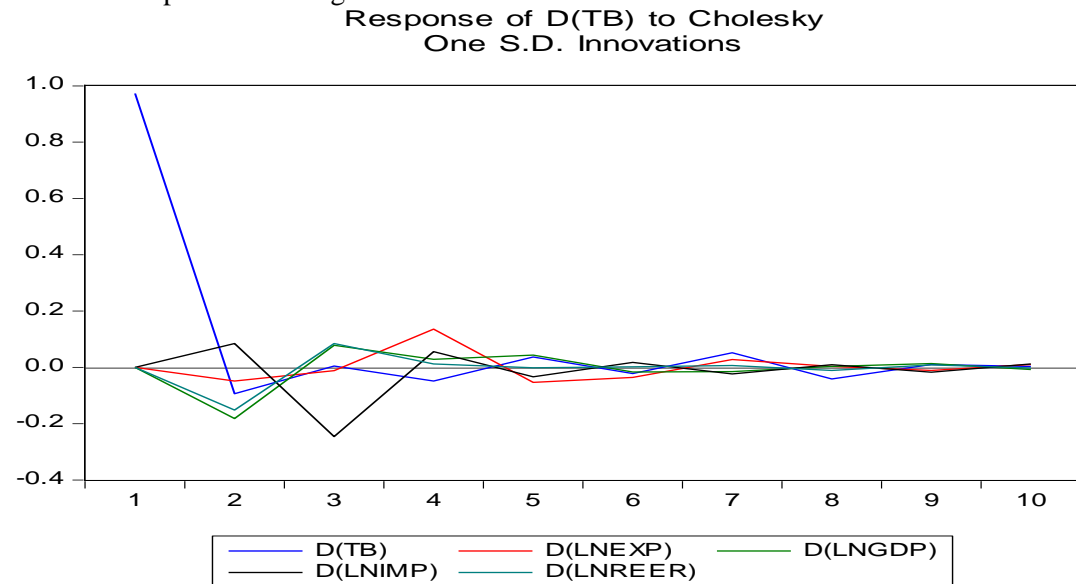


Figure 3 Response of Trade Balance to Cholesky One Standard Deviation
Source: Authors Computation using E-views 8.0 (2018)

One standard deviation of export led trade balance to rise steadily across the years till it rose above the trend line in the third year, peaks in year four and fell drastically the next year soar above the line in the seventh year. Also, GDP fell immediately until the second year, reached its peak at the third year and fell till the fifth year while moving along the line in subsequent years. The import rose steadily from the first to the second year and experienced a nose dive below the trend line in the third year and soared above the

line in the fourth year. With respect to the real effective exchange rate, one standard deviation led trade balance to rise up to the second year and thereafter fluctuates along the line till the tenth year. This corroborates the absence of J-curve findings of the cointegration technique that real effective exchange rate depreciation indeed improved trade balance in the short run, ranging from the initial period of depreciation up to the second year.

4.3 Post-Estimation Tests

This section deals with the validity and robustness of the model. To achieve this, the study conducted the Breusch-Godfrey serial correlation LM test, Durbin Watson statistics Tests test and Breusch-Pagan-Heteroscedasticity Tests. The results are presented in the next sub-sections

4.3.1 Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation Lm Test

The Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation Lm Test is a proof for the existence of a serial relationship between the variables and the test results are presented in Table 8.

Table 8: Result of Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test

F-statistic	11.28	Prob. F(2,29)	0.00
Obs*R-squared	15.75	Prob. Chi-Square(2)	0.00

: Authors computation using E-views 8.0 (2018)

The result shows the presence of serial correlation probability value of 0.00as it is less than the 5% level of significance.

4.3.2 Durbin Watson statistics Tests

This test establishes the level of auto-correlation between the variables and the test result is presented in Table 9.

Table 9: Durbin Watson Autocorrelation Test Results

DW value (d)	D-UPPER ($d_{U,\alpha}$)	D-LOWER ($d_{L,\alpha}$)	DECISION CRITERIA
0.71	1.51	0.96	No positive auto-correlation

Source: Authors computation using E-views 8.0 (2018)

The test results depict a no positive auto-correlation in the variables as $0 < d < d_L$ exists.

4.3.3 Breusch-Pagan-Heteroscedasticity Tests

This was used to test for the fitness of the model based on the level of heteroscedasticity. This result is presented in Table 10.

Table 10: Result of Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey Heteroscedasticity Test

F-statistic	1.38	Prob. F (4,31)	0.26
Obs*R-squared	5.44	Prob. Chi-Square (4)	0.25
Scaled explained SS	4.36	Prob. Chi Square (4)	0.36

Source: Authors computation using E-views 8.0 (2018)

This result shows the absence of heteroskedasticity based on Prob. Value (0.26) greater than the 5% level of significance.

5. Discussion of Findings

The primary objective of this paper is to examine the “J-curve” effect for Nigeria. The short run estimation result was presented in Table 6. This result is against the proposition of the “J-curve” effect which suggests that exchange rate depreciation will worsen the trade balance of the depreciating country in the short run. This is against the a priori expectation which is that of deterioration of the trade balance in the short-run consequent upon the devaluation of the local currency.

The absence of causal directions between trade balance and real effective exchange rate can be ascribed to the nature of exported and imported goods and services. The most prominent trading partners of Nigeria are oil consumers which will demand for oil for smooth running of their economies irrespective of what happens to exchange rate between the two countries. By implication, this may not have impact on export even at the instant of *REER* depreciation.

This is upheld by the impulse response function with respect to the real effective exchange rate, where one standard deviation led trade balance to rise up to the second year and thereafter fluctuates along the line till the tenth year. This corroborates the absence of J-curve findings of the cointegration technique that real effective exchange rate depreciation indeed improved trade balance in the short run, ranging from the initial period of depreciation up to the second year.

The rationale is that if Nigeria's exports were invoiced in Naira - the local currency units and the invoicing of imports are in foreign currency units (say US Dollars, the immediate impact of Naira devaluation will be the rise in the prices of imported goods while prices of export goods would not change. The explanation for this contrarian finding is found in the violation condition precedent to a J-curve situation which is predicated on the combined effect of inelastic domestic demand for imports and foreign-currency-denominated imports. In the Nigerian case, the oil sector which provides about 95

percent of foreign exchange earnings is denominated in US Dollars.

On the other hand, Nigeria imports capital goods as well as luxurious consumer goods from her trading partners and may demand for more or less imports, depending on past level of imports demand and expectation about future capital formation but irrespective of variation in *REER*. Thus, imports may have not been affected by exchange rate depreciation. Consequently, the trade balances may not be influenced by real exchange rate.

Similar contrarian findings have been reported in studies by Bahmani-Oskooee and Goswami (2003), and Akbostanci (2004). They did not find the existence of J-curve. The implication of this is that supply side factors are important in driving the growth of output Nigeria with consequential enhancement of the trade balance.

In comparison with some similar works on the three largest economies in Africa: Nigeria, South Africa and Egypt in the order of size Ziramba and Chifamba (2014) for the period 1975 to 2011 found a cointegration relationship between the trade balance and REER and domestic and foreign income. It could not support the J-curve occurrence in South Africa, just like in Nigeria.

The study by Abd-El-Kader (2013) investigated the J-curve hypothesis between Egypt and her twenty major trading companions between 1989 and 2010. The research ascribed a significant portion of the trade balance change in Egypt to the variations in real exchange rate. Indeed, depreciation deteriorates the trade balance in the short-run, but it improves in the long-run. The author's results provide support for the J-curve effect.

Beyond the size of the economy, similar study by Adeniyi, Omisakin, and Oyinlola (2011) sought to find the existence of J-curve in the West African Monetary Zone consisting of Nigeria, Ghana, Sierra Leone and The Gambia. The research which covered the first quarter in 1980 through the fourth quarter of 2007 deployed the Bounds test and ARDL method similar to the primary estimation method of this

paper. It reports the existence lack of J-curve in Nigeria, inverted J-curve in Sierra Leone and lack of J-curve in Ghana and The Gambia. In the latter cases, the initial improvement in the trade balances was followed by deteriorating balances in the subsequent period.

The contradictory findings amongst the nations and even with respect to Nigeria is indicative of the fact that other exogenous factors including inter-temporal variables are at play in the determination of the efficacy of currency devaluation as a veritable tool of trade balance determination.

6. Conclusion

This study assesses “J-curve” effect for Nigeria, to know whether devaluation of a currency improves the trade balance in the short-run or / and the long-run. If real currency depreciation would worsens the trade balance in the short-run or long-run, the policy makers may apply fiscal or monetary policy in order to stabilize the value of the currency as recommended by Hsing (2009). If on the other hand, real depreciation would improve the trade balance in the short-run or long-run, the devaluation of the currency may be required to stimulate net exports in support movement of the economy on sustainable growth path especially in the long-run.

This study specifically examined the short and the long run relationship between trade balance (TB) and the real effective exchange rate (REER). In addition, the study adopts Johansen cointegration method following the outcome of the preliminary test for stationarity of the series in the model. Empirical evidence from this study shows that in the short run the trade balance appeared to have benefited from the devaluation of the Naira rather than suffer deleterious consequences. However in the long run there seems to be impetus for the trade balance consequent upon the consistent reduction of the exchange rate.

The evidence from impulse response function from the impulse response function the results obtained for Nigeria also negates the experience found in other countries that currency

devaluation enhances trade balance in long run, and does so with the J-curve effect. Rather, in Nigeria, the experience is the inverted J-curve effect. This contrarian finding can due to the relative non-responsiveness of Nigeria exports and imports to real effective exchange rate depreciation especially arising from the oil and gas sector which forms the bulk of the country's export. A shift from crude oil dependency to a more diversified economy is therefore recommended so that vacillations in export earnings from one source can be toned down by stability in others.

In view of the contrarian findings of this study, the Nigerian policy makers are enjoined to allow the financial markets determine exchange rates, instead of guided manipulation of the exchange rates. This study further recommends selective application of managed flexible exchange regime to priority areas of the economy with the capacity to benefit the strategic intent of governance. In this investigation of the real effective exchange rate and trade balance nexus, the case for J-curve effect has not been made in Nigeria

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Stakeholders' Perception of Skill Adequacy of Vocational Training Component of a University of Education in Southwestern Nigeria

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Abstract. The trend of high rate of youth unemployment and underemployment, most especially the graduates in Nigeria appears to have defied solution, several social reforms and economic initiatives of the government notwithstanding. Thus, this study sought to investigate stakeholders' perception of skill adequacy of vocational training component of a University of Education in Southwestern Nigeria. One research question with three hypotheses were generated for the study. The study adopted a descriptive survey design. The sample comprises 504 students of 300 level, 58 lecturers and 61 senior members of non-academic staff. Questionnaire on Stakeholders' Perception of Students' Acquisition of Vocational Skills (QSPSAVS) ($r=.84$) was used in data collection. Data collected were analysed using mean, standard deviation, t-test and ANOVA. The results indicate that stakeholders' perception (Grand Mean = 2.96) of the adequacy of vocational skills acquired by the student trainees was high. Meanwhile, differences in perception of adequacy of skills acquired by the student trainees based on type of stakeholders ($F_{2,497} = .391$; $p (.676) > .05$) and gender ($t = -1.753$; $p (.080) > .05$) were not significant. Further, there is no significant interaction influence of category of stakeholders and gender ($F_{2,493} = 1.490$; $p (.226) > .05$) on perception of adequacy of the skills acquired by the student trainees. In conclusion, all the stakeholders were of similar views that the vocational training component of teacher education programme in the University was worthwhile. Thus, the University management should foster the

sustainability of the intervention amongst other recommendations.

Keywords: Stakeholders' perception, skill adequacy, vocational training, gender, University of Education

1. Introduction

University education is a tool by which high level manpower is raised for the economic activities of a nation. The high level manpower constitutes a group that drives the economy of any nation. Apart from the primary aim of university education which is human capital production and development, it also helps to foster social and political security of human society. The labour market is the place where human capital being produced in the university and other tertiary institutions of learning are required and needed. Thus, mutual relationship exists between the two. The university and other tertiary institutions of learning are believed respond to the need, aspirations and yearnings of the labour market. The labour market is also expected to provide a space for every human capital by mean of expansion and enhancement in response to ever growing human population.

The population of Nigeria according to 2006 census was 140,431,790. As at 2017, the population estimate of the country stood at 191,836,000 (Wikipedia, Feb. 10, 2018). The growth in population as indicated by the estimate is staggering and so one would expect a corresponding increase in other macro and micro

economic indices. The situation analysis as at third, quarter of 2017 indicates that 40.0% translating to 34.02 million of the labour force (85,088,000) in Nigeria were unemployed and underemployed. (Federal Republic on Nigeria, 2017). Breakdown of the statistics reveal that 52.65% (22.64 million) of the youth aged 15 to 35 years were unemployed. Disaggregating the data further, 33.1% and 34.2% of youth aged 15 to 24 were unemployed and underemployed respectively. The percentages for unemployment and underemployment among the other category of youth aged 25-34 were 20.2% and 22.3%. The statistics generally describe the youth population across gender, location and educational status. From the figures it is obvious Nigeria is having serious socio-economic challenges on hand ranging from poverty, social insecurity to political insecurity.

Statistical information (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2017) further show that out of 13.06 million graduates of universities and other tertiary institutions of learning 50.0% (6.53 million persons) were either unemployed or underemployed. Their counterparts with secondary school qualifications recorded 39.1% aggregate for unemployment and underemployment translating to 11.58 million persons out of 29.61 million individuals that make up the group. Out of 25.19 million individuals that never attended school, 43.1% (10.86 million persons) were either unemployed or underemployed. According to Federal Republic of Nigeria (2017) employment, underemployment and unemployment are considered as a function of a person's involvement or otherwise in economic activity even if that activity is performed solely to make ends meet and not for satisfaction or enjoyment. The document further reveals that an individual is considered underemployed if he/she works less than 40 hours but at least 20 hours per week or is engaged in an activity that underutilizes his skills, time and educational qualifications. On the other hand, it states that an unemployed person is one who is actively looking for work but could not find work for at least 20 hours during the reference week. Labour force population comprises persons within the age

range of 15 to 64 years who are willing and able to work.

Available statistics (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2017) reveal that unemployment rate in the country as at the last quarter in 2017 was 18.8%. Attendant consequences of this social menace are being felt across the length and breadth of the country in the form of youth restiveness, incessant advance fee fraud (419), kidnapping, armed robbery incidences, ritual killings, and Boko Haram insurgency. All these social crimes were on the increase compared to the experiences of the 1970s. The government have always responded to this social menace called unemployment through social reforms and economic initiatives. Successive governments according to Ekong and Ekong (2016), Odeh and Okoye (2014), Owenybiugie and Ediagbonya (2014) have introduced intervention programmes and strategies to stem the tide of unemployment in the country. Notable among them are Operation Feed the Nation (OFN), Green Revolution, National Directorate of Employment (NDE), Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP), Small and Medium Enterprises Development Agencies (SMEDAN), Better Life Programme, Directorate of Food, Road and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI), National Open Apprenticeship Scheme (NOAS). The graduate job creation loan Guarantee Scheme, Agricultural Sector Employment Programme, National Agency for Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP), Subsidy Reinvestment and Empowerment Programme (SURE-P), the Youth Enterprise with innovation in Nigeria (YOU-WIN), the Osun State Youth Employment Scheme (O'YES), Family Support and Family Economic Advancement Programme (FEAP) and N-SIP (A National Social Investment Programme) with a dimension of N-Power Teacher Corps for graduates as N-Power Agro, N-Power Health, N-Power Teach, and N-Power Community Health (Federal Government of Nigeria, 2017).

N-SIP is the most recent of the social reforms and economic initiative of the government. It was introduced by the Federal Government in 2016, with over 170,000 graduates out of which about 200,000 applicants were recruited under

N-Power Teacher Corps for graduates (Federal Government of Nigeria, 2017). In 2017, about 2.5 million applications for the same scheme were received. All the social reforms and economic initiatives described above except for N-SIP have failed to achieve much as desired in terms of expectation of the teeming graduates from our tertiary educational institutions. The belief system of an average Nigerian graduate is to secure a white-collar job to which salary and incentives are attached. And so, they are not prepared for any intervention that will require them undergoing fresh vocational training, which in some cases will involve submission of their certificates as part of the collateral in order to benefit from the loan and/or grants attached. Attempt at addressing the existing gap is what informed the vocational training being incorporated unto the mainstream of degree programme at TASUED. It was on this premise, this study seeks to investigate stakeholders' perception of skill adequacy of vocational training component of a University of Education in Southwestern Nigeria.

2. Statement of the Problem

The trend of high rate of unemployment and underemployment of graduates in Nigeria calls for the attention of all relevant and well-meaning stakeholders in social and economic sectors of the polity. Several intervention strategies in the form of short and long term offer of credit facilities to the unemployed graduates were being deployed by the government. Amongst these is a much recent short term measure involving graduates empowerment scheme of the Federal Government known as N-Power Teacher Corps. However, the generality of these graduates at the point of graduation were without any vocational skills they can readily market. Direct response from the University to this menace was the introduction of compulsory vocational programmes designed to empower the students with acquisition of vocational skills in addition to proficiency training in cognate professional area of interest. On this note, Centre for Vocational Studies (CENVOS) of Tai Solarin University of Education was established to offer students vocational and entrepreneurial

skills. In favour of the intervention, assessment of the perception of the major stakeholders becomes imperative. Thus, this study seeks to investigate stakeholders' perception of skill adequacy of vocational training component of a University of Education in Southwestern Nigeria.

3. Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to investigate the stakeholders' perception of skill adequacy of vocational training component of Tai Solarin University of Education, Ijagun. The specific purposes of the study are to:

- ascertain stakeholders' perception profile of adequacy of skills acquired by student trainees in vocational areas of choice
- determine the influence of category of stakeholders on perception of adequacy of skills acquired by the student trainees in vocational areas of choice
- determine the influence of gender of stakeholders on perception of adequacy of skills acquired by the student trainees in vocational areas of choice
- determine the interaction influence of category of stakeholders and gender on perception of adequacy of skills acquired by the student trainees in vocational areas of choice

4. Research Question

What is the profile of stakeholders' perception of adequacy of skills acquired by student trainees in vocational areas of choice?

5. Hypotheses

HO₁: There is no significant difference in the mean perception scores of types of stakeholders on adequacy of skills acquired by the student trainees of TASUED in vocational areas of choice

HO₂: There is no significant difference in the mean perception scores of male and female stakeholders on adequacy of skills acquired by the student trainees of TASUED in vocational areas of choice.

HO₃: There is no significant interaction influence of type of stakeholders and gender on

perception of adequacy of skills acquired by the student trainees of TASUED in vocational areas of choice

6. Methodology

The study adopted a descriptive survey design. The design is considered appropriate because it allows for collection and description of characteristics about the population of interest which in this case consists of 300 level students, lecturers and senior members of non-academic staff of Tai Solarin University of Education (TASUED), Ijagun, Southwestern Nigeria. The population of the study consists of 5,035 students of 300 level, 294 lecturers and 404 senior members of non-academic staff of TASUED. The lecturers and senior members of non-academic staff alongside the students were considered appropriate because the staff enjoy the privilege of periodic invitation to exhibition of products from these vocational units mounted by the students. Beyond this, the students are exposed to public observation of these members of the University community during the practical sessions of examinations. The sample for the study comprises 10% (n=504) of 300 level students distributed across textiles, fruit juice making, Microsoft and computer training and fashion design areas of vocation., 20% (n=58) of lecturers and 15% (n=61) of senior members of non-academic staff. The clusters of the sample were drawn using simple random sampling technique. On a specific note, clusters of the students were met during their practical session and from each cluster, respondents were drawn using balloting approach involving Yes or No to draw the sample without replacement. The same approach was applied to draw the samples of the lecturers and non-academic senior members of staff before which, the staff lists had been collected from the registry unit of the University.

Questionnaire on Stakeholders' Perception of Students' Acquisition of Vocational Skills (QSPSAVS) was developed by the researchers for data collection purpose. The instrument consists of sections A and B. Section A captures demographic information about gender and category of stakeholders. Section B measures the perception of stakeholders on the skills acquired by student trainees. The total number of items in the instrument was 13. The response format of the instrument was a four point Likert scale: 1 = strongly Disagree (SD), 2 = Disagree (D), 3 = Agree (A) and 4 = Strongly Agree (SA).

The instrument was reviewed in content, grammar and structure by two experts in Educational Evaluation. Their corrections and suggestions were incorporated into the version of the instrument. Reliability test of the instrument was performed using Cronbach alpha with .84 coefficient of internal consistency for the instrument. The instrument was administered to the students during periods for vocational studies while lecturers and senior members of non-academic staff were met in their offices where the instrument was administered.

Data collected were analyzed using mean and standard deviation in answering the research question. The applied decision rule states that a mean score of below 2.5 indicates disagreement of stakeholders' perception while a mean score of 2.5 and above indicates agreement. T-test, one-way Analysis of variance and three-way Analysis of variance were used in testing the null hypothesis.

7. Results

Answer to Research Question One

What is the profile of stakeholders' perception of adequacy of skills acquired by student trainees in vocational areas of choice?

Table 1: Mean and Standard deviation of stakeholders’ perception of adequacy of skills acquired by student trainees

S/N	Student trainees have	Mean	S.D	Decision
1.	ability to procure relevant resources in making their products	2.86	.74	Agree
2.	ability to keep to required specification when making their products	2.97	.71	Agree
3	ability to provide appropriate setting in making their products	2.99	.80	Agree
4	ability to observe safety precautions in the process making their products	3.02	.87	Agree
5	ability to dispose waste products appropriately into the environment	2.72	.98	Agree
6	ability to clean up the environment thereafter the process of making their products	2.97	.87	Agree
7	ability to procure genuine materials from the market at reasonable prices	3.00	.84	Agree
8	ability for appropriate packaging of their products	3.03	.82	Agree
9	ability for appropriate storage of their products	3.03	.85	Agree
10	ability to market their products	2.97	.83	Agree
11	ability to preserve their products within a reasonable period of time	2.98	.84	Agree
12	ability for reactive thinking	3.05	.80	Agree
13	ability for effective time management	2.93	.84	Agree

Given the results on Table 1, high mean scores indicating strong agreement of the stakeholders were recorded for students’ ability for creative thinking (\bar{x} = 3.05), ability for appropriate packaging of products (\bar{x} = 3.03), ability to observe safety precautions in the process of making a new product (\bar{x} = 3.02) and ability to procure genuine materials from the market at reasonable process (\bar{x} = 3.00). Other skills observed among student trainees perceived by the stakeholders as being adequate include ability to preserve new products within a reasonable length of time (\bar{x} = 2.98), ability to observe required specification when making a new product (\bar{x} = 2.97), ability to provide appropriate setting at workshop in making new products (\bar{x} = 2.99), ability to clean up the workshop environment thereafter the process of making a new product (\bar{x} = 2.97) and ability to market their products (\bar{x} = 2.97).

Few other areas of vocational skills among student trainees of Tai Solarin University of Education perceived to be adequate are possession of ability for effective time management (\bar{x} = 2.93), ability to procure relevant resources in making a new product (\bar{x} = 2.86) and ability for appropriate disposal of wastes into the environment (\bar{x} = 2.72)

Testing Hypothesis One

HO₁: There is no significant difference in the mean perception scores of type of stakeholders on adequacy of skills acquired by the student trainees of TASUED in vocational areas of choice

Table 2: Test of ANOVA indicating perception of skills

	SS	Df	MS	F	Sig
Between Groups	31.254	2	15.627	.391	.676
Within Groups	19851.648	497	39.943.		
Total	19882.902	499			

Given the results ($F_{2,497} = .391$; $P>.05$) on Table 2, it is obvious there is no significant difference in the mean perception scores of type of stakeholders on adequacy of skills acquired by the student trainees of TASUED in vocational areas of choice. In other words, the perception of the stakeholders was uniform and so the null hypothesis is not rejected.

Testing Hypothesis Two

HO₂: There is no significant difference in the mean perception scores of male and female stakeholder on adequacy of the skills acquired by the student trainees of TASUED in vocational areas of choice.

Table 3: Group mean differences between male and female stakeholders on adequacy of vocational competencies acquired by student trainees of TASUED

	N	Mean	S.D	Df	t	Sig.	Remarks
Male	225	37.97	6.51	495	-1.753	.080	Not significant
Female	272	38.15	6.15				

Looking at the t-test results ($t = -1.753$; $P > .05$) indicated on Table 3, it is evident that there is no significant difference between the mean scores of male and female stakeholders on adequacy of the vocational skills acquired by the student trainees of TASUED. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

Testing Hypothesis Three

HO₃: There is no significant interaction influence of type of stakeholders and gender on perception of adequacy of the skills acquired by the student trainees of TASUED in vocational areas of choice.

Table 4: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

	Type III sum of squares	Df	MS	F	Sig.
Corrected model	298.752	6	49.792	1.253	.278
Intercept	70412.433	1	70412.433	1772.522	.000
Stakeholder	110.196	2	55.098	1.387	.251
Gender	140.642	2	70.321	1.770	.171
Stakeholder x Gender	118.356	2	59.178	1.490	.226
Error	19584.150	493	39.724		
Total	761547.000	500			
Corrected Total	19882.902	499			

Given the results of Two-way Analysis of Variance ($F_{2,493} = 1.490$; $P > .05$) test on Table 4, there is no significant interaction influence of type of stakeholders and gender on perception of adequacy of the skills acquired by the student trainees of TASUED in vocational areas of choice. Thus, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

8. Discussion of Findings

On account of the results of this study, the perception of the stakeholders comprising of lecturers, senior non-academic staff and students was positive on agreement scale for adequacy of skills acquired by student trainees in vocational areas of choice. The vocational areas of choice available to the students include textiles, fruit juice making, Microsoft and computer training, fisheries, fashion design, skills to practice and prosper in the labour market were attested to as being adequate among the trainees. The stakeholders are of course in the best position to know better because they are directly or indirectly involved in the intervention. The finding supports Mustapha and Greenan (2016) who reported a favourable attitude toward

employability of vocational graduates for educators in Malaysia. This finding is in contrast to the negative report of ineffectiveness (Odeh & Okoye, 2014) of Federal Government economic initiative involving National Directorate of Employment (NDE). The view demonstrates their appreciation and belief in the intervention. This implies, the skills are in tandem with demands of labour market in the area of semi-skilled requirements. The finding supports a similar study (Owenbiugie & Ediagbonya, 2014) on relevance of entrepreneurship education at the colleges of education level in which the perception of business education students was found to be positive.

Expectedly, difference in mean scores of type of stakeholders and mean gender difference for perception of adequacy of skills acquired by the student trainees were not significant. The issue of skills acquisition is beyond the status or gender of an individual. Adequacy of skills constitutes a general issue that does not require an individual to be male or female or lecturer or otherwise to appreciate. By observation, it is either the skills are there or not.

In the same vein, the interaction influence between the two variables: type and gender of stakeholders on perception of adequacy of skills acquired by the student trainees was not significant. This further confirms the findings severally about the two variables above.

9. Conclusion and Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, the perception of the students, lecturers and senior members of non-academic staff who incidentally constitute the major stakeholders of the academic community of Tai Solarin University of Education were of the opinions that the vocational trainees were adequate in skills of production, packaging, procurement of raw materials and disposal of wastes amongst others. Since these stakeholders constitute a critical unit of the public, it is a pointer that the products from the vocational enterprise of these trainees would readily sell to the generality of the public. Interestingly, the perceptions of the stakeholders were uniform for adequacy of skills among the trainees through the intervention training programme.

On this note, the following recommendations are made:

- The University management should demonstrate strong will power at maintaining and sustaining the intervention programme.
- The University management should invest more on input resources aimed at expanding the intervention programmes.
- The Federal Government should be directly involved in granting take off loan at a very low interest rate to fresh graduates through the Bank of Industry for whoever with requisite skills that shows interest.
- The Federal Government through the National Universities Commission should adopt the intervention programme as a viable economic empowerment and unemployment scheme for replication in all Universities in the country open to all undergraduate students.

- The Federal Government should demonstrate strong political will in establishing Vocational and Entrepreneurial Commission to partner the National Universities Commission on the responsibility of regulating vocational and entrepreneurial studies in the Universities.
- The mandate of Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETFund) of the Federal Government should be expanded to incorporate the funding of Centre for Vocational and Entrepreneurial Studies established in all Universities

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Impact of Millennium Development Goals on Universal Basic Education in Bokkos Local Government: Motivation for Teachers Confidence Behavior

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Abstract. The objective of this research work was to examine the impact of millennium development goals on the achievement of universal primary education in Bokkos local government area of plateau state. A cross sectional survey otherwise known as sample survey was used as the design for the study. A sample of 400 hundred students was drawn from the population of the study through simple random sampling technique. An instrument called Contribution of Millennium Development Goals to Universal Basic Education Questionnaire (CMDGQ) was used to collect data from the 400 sampled students out of the population. Descriptive statistics was used to analyzed the research questions while the hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance using t-test statistical technique. The statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) was used to run the descriptive statistics and test the research hypotheses. The findings of from the study reveal that the participation of millennium development goals to universal basic education is not adequate and there was no significance difference between the impact of millennium development goals and universal basic education boards to universal basic education schools in infrastructural facilities. The study recommended that millennium development goals as well as universal basic education boards should increase their involvement in universal basic education for better attainment of economic development.

Keywords: Millennium Development Goals, Universal Basic Education, Confidence Behavior.

1. Introduction

Undoubtedly, universal basic education (UBE) has been an issue of concern in millennium development goals (MDGs). The universal basic education program aims at providing its beneficiaries with knowledge, attitude and skills that will help them to leave a meaningful life and contribute in the development of all sectors in the country that is educational sector, economic sector, agricultural sector, etc. thereby guaranteeing economic development.

The MDGs has played a vital role in improving the basic education programs in various ways providing the school libraries, computers, text books, information and communication technology, the school furniture, building of classroom and offices. Huma (2008) posits that the MDGs have contributed to training and retraining of teachers to acquire effective knowledge towards the development of UBE sector and to the educational sector in general. To address the problem of UBE and to promote development of same, the MDGs declaration was adopted in 2000 at the largest ever gathering of heads of states committing countries both rich and poor to do what they can do to eradicate poverty, to promote human dignity and equity and achieve peace, democracy and environmental stability.

Literatures explained that the goals include those dedicated to eradicating poverty achieving universal basic education, promoting gender equity and empowering women, reducing child mortality, improving maternal health, combating HIV/AIDS, malaria and other communicable or transmitted disease, ensuring environmental stability and developing global partnership for development (Oleriba & Tailor-Robinson 2016; Ajiye 2014; Aluede 2006). These happen through the assistance of MDGs rendered to schools through learning facilities provided to enable teachers perform their teaching effectively thereby making students have the knowledge and ability necessary to eradicate poverty through what they learn in science, vocational and technical courses.

Education, endless to say, is a priority in every well-meaning society. Thus, Brown and Park (2006) referred to it as a major force to economic intellectual, social and cultural empowerment. Its value in bringing about character and attitudinal change ranks as important as its ability to reshape human potential for desired development. Due to the importance attached to education, millennium development goals deem it necessary to assist universal basic education to achieve its educational goals.

Federal government of Nigeria faces the challenges of meeting the MDGs and believes that the attainment of the goals would not be put in place as long as the human and material resources of the country remained untapped (Olabode, Adeigbe, Kayode & Owonibi 2014). One of the strategies adopted by the country in her multi-pronged approach towards attaining these goals and meeting the needs of empowering people is through education. Investment in any form of education however can only have the intended impact if there are more trained and competent teachers in the aspects of both soft and hard skills.

Universal Basic Education UBE program was launched in the country in 1998 and passed into law in 2004 as one of the strategies aimed at implementing the millennium development goals Igbuzor (2006). Before the commencement of the scheme, the Nigeria

education structure composed six years of primary education, three of junior secondary, three of senior secondary and four of tertiary institution or education. Primary education was free, but not compulsory. Although, Universal Primary Education (UPE) was launched nationwide in 1976 even before the world leaders established it as one of the MDGs. Limited success achieved as attendance was not made compulsory for pupils of school-going age with the passage of the UBE. Act all tiers of government in the country are mandated to provide free compulsory nine-years universal basic education of primary and junior secondary school age. Parents are required to ensure that they register for complete basic education, aside these are sanctions for parents who do not comply (Wokocha & Onuchunwa, 2001). In addition to the tuition, Obong (2006) is of the view that the act for free services in all public primary and junior secondary schools as it is also encompassing programme for early childhood care, adult literacy programmes, special programmes for nomadic population and various non-formal programmes for children and youth who are out of the school. Effective implementation of these programmes in the country will surely go a long way, towards achieving the first Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) goals and strategies.

The cardinal objectives of universal basic education according to Obonya (2001) are to eradicate illiteracy or reduce the rate of illiteracy as well as enhance development. Olorunyomi (2014) explained that UBE is confronted with some problems such as inadequate classrooms, laboratories, library buildings and materials, information and communication facilities, shortage of manpower and a host of others. The situation may be prevalent in the current study area. The increase magnitude of these menace is affecting not only the educational development of the child but also the entire educational development. The consequence of these unwholesome practice is that adolescence that are the target group of universal basic education are involve in crises and drug intake, these practices inhibits economic development. The findings of this study is hoped to provide framework for organizing seminars, workshops

for retraining teachers on the use of infrastructure and instructional materials provided by Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in the basic education sector. The finding of the study will also encourage UBE school teachers and administrators to see the relevance of infrastructure and instructional materials. In addition, it is hoped that, findings of this study will remind the government, Universal Basic Education Board and Ministry of Education of their responsibilities in providing all forms of infrastructure and instructional materials to support the UBE schools in the Local Government Areas and the State in general.

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the impact of Millennium Development Goals in providing motivation for teachers' confidence behavior in achievement of the Universal Basic Education in Bokkos Local Government Area of Plateau State. Specifically, the objectives of the study include the following: --

- To find out if infrastructures have been put in place for the successful implementation of the programme by Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and,
- to investigate the extent to which teachers exhibits confidence behavior in the usage of instructional materials in the school by MDGs.

The following research questions were put forward for guiding this study:

- To what extent has the Millennium Development Goals contributed in the capacity building of the teachers through workshop/seminars in UBE schools in Bokkos Local Government Area of Plateau State?
- To what extent has the Millennium Development Goals contributed in infrastructural development in UBE schools in the study area?

The following hypotheses were postulated to guide the study:

- There is no significant difference between the Millennium Development Goals and Universal Basic Education Board in teachers capacity building through workshop/seminar in the study are.
- There is no significant difference between the Millennium Development Goals and the State Universal Basic Education board in the provision of infrastructure and instructional materials in UBE schools in Bokkos Local Government Area of Plateau State.

2. Methodology

The research design used for the study is a non-experimental survey design, specifically the cross-sectional research design. This requires that data are collected at a time, from sample for describing the population presented by the sample (Awotunde and Ugodulunwa 2004).

The target population for the study comprises all Universal Basic Education Upper Basic (Junior Secondary Schools Three students in Bokkos Local Government Area of Plateau State. Hence, a sample of the study consisted of 400 students as respondents from the population selected from 1680 students across the ten UBE schools in Bokkos Local Government Area.

In some schools the sample size selected was higher than other, because some schools have high population; so sample selected was high and where the population is low the sample was low as explained by Creige and Morgan (1956). Sample was selected from only UBE JSS 3 schools because of similarities, such as the calendar use, sport and other outdoor activities. The researcher used probability proportionate random sampling technique. The sample is as shown in table 1.

Table 1: Sample Schools with Population and Sample Size

S/N	Sample of School	No. of Students	Sample of Respondents
1.	GSS Kopyal	300	70
2.	GSS Bokkos	300	70
3.	GSS Horop	200	50
4.	GSS Garah	120	30
5.	GSS Richa	100	25
6.	GSS Manguna	200	50
7.	GSS Daffo	220	60
8.	GSS GAwarza	80	15
9.	GSS Masharkut	80	15
10.	GSS Taranyol	80	15
	Total	1,680	400

The instrument used for data collection was developed by the researcher. The questionnaire tagged Contribution of MDGs to UBE Questionnaire (C.M.U.Q). The questionnaires were administered to students in the selected schools. The instrument was used to obtain information on the role of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) to Universal Basic Education (UBE) in education sector. Four points rating scale Likert type of Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D), Strongly Disagree (SD) was used to rate the students’ responses to the questionnaire items. The reliability of the instrument was determined using Cronbach Alpha method of establishing reliability (measure of internal consistency) and the instrument reliability was found to be 0.89. The independent sample deviation method was used to answer the research questions while t-test of independent was used to test the hypotheses.

3. Results

The study is an evaluation of the impact of millennium development goals on the achievement of universal basic education in Bokkos local government area, plateau state. The results obtained from this study are presented according to research questions and hypotheses that guide the study.

Research Question One

To what extent has Millennium Development Goals contributed in the capacity building of teachers through workshop/seminar in UBE schools in Bokkos LGA?

Table 2: Percentage Table showing respondent on the training of Teachers in UBE Schools.

Responses	SA	A	D	SD	Total
Frequency	115	101	92	83	391
Percentage (%)	29	26	24	21	100

Table 2 above shows that 29% strongly agreed, 26% Agreed, 24% Disagreed, and 21% strongly disagreed. The percentage of Agreed is 55 and Disagreed is 45.

Research question one shows that the responses of students on teachers trained Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) 29% Strongly Agreed that the Millennium Development Goals has contributed in the training of teachers through workshop seminars, 26% Agreed on training teachers, 24% Disagreed that MDGs has not contributed in training of teachers through workshop/seminars. 21% Strongly Disagreed that MDGs has not contributed in the training of teachers in Bokkos Local Government Area (LGA) of Plateau State. In summary, 55% agreed while 45% disagreed. This shows that Millennium Development Goals has contributed in training of teachers through workshops/seminars in UBE schools in Bokkos Local Government Area of Plateau State.

Research Question Two

To what extent has the Millennium Development Goals contributed in infrastructural development in UBE schools in Bokkos Local Government Area of Plateau State?

Table 3: Percentage Table showing the responses of students in the infrastructure contribution of MDGs.

Responses	SA	A	D	SD	Total
Frequency	101	98	84	110	391
Percentage (%)	26	25	21	28	100

Table 3 shows that 26% Strongly Agreed, 25% Agreed, 21% Disagreed and 28% strongly disagreed. The total percentage of Agreed is 51% and Disagreed is 49%.

In research question two; the result shows that responses of students on contribution of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by provision of infrastructural facilities and instructional materials to UBE schools. 26% strongly Agreed that the MDGs has contributed to the development of UBE schools by provision of instructional facilities and instructional materials. 25% agreed with the contribution of the MDGs to UBE schools, 21% disagreed on the contribution of the MDGs to UBE schools, 28% has strongly disagreed on the contribution of MDGs to the UBE schools in Bokkos Local Government Area of Plateau State. In summary, 51% agreed while 49% disagreed. This shows that the MDGs has contributed to UBE schools by providing UBE schools with infrastructural facilities and instructional materials such as building of classrooms, toilets, computers, ICT, and boreholes. The analysis shows that there is need for MDGs to put more effort in assisting UBE schools in Bokkos Local Government Area of Plateau State as there was no clear margin among the respondents on the contribution of MDGs to schools in Bokkos LGA of Plateau State.

Research Hypothesis One

There is no significant difference between the Millennium Development Goals and Universal Basic Education Board in the training of teachers through workshop/seminar in UBE schools in Bokkos Local Government Area of Plateau State.

Table 4: Summary of t-test on the relationship between MDGs and State Universal Basic Education Board in Training of Teachers.

Category	Responses	Df	Calculated t	Critical t $\alpha = 0.05$
MDG	215	18	0.63	2.101
UBEB	176			

t = calculated value 0.63

t = table value 2.101

The result of hypothesis one in table 4 shows that the calculated t-test is 0.63 and the table value is ($\alpha = 0.05$) is 2.101. The table value is greater than the calculated t-value, for this reason the null hypothesis was not retained. This implies that there is no significant difference between the contribution of Millennium Development Goals MDGs and the Universal Basic Education Board in training of teachers through workshop/seminars in UBE schools in Bokkos LGA of Plateau State. This finding is consistent with findings of Olorunyomi (2014) Having found out that there is significant relationship between MDGs and Universal Primary Education.

Research Hypothesis Two

There is no significant difference between the Millennium Development Goals and the Universal Basic Education Board in the provision of infrastructure and instructional materials in UBE schools in Bokkos Local Government Area of Plateau State.

Table 5: Summary of table t-test on the relationship between Millennium Development Goals and the Universal Basic Education Board in provision of Infrastructure development in Schools

Category	Responses	Df	Calculated t	Critical t $\alpha = 0.05$
MDG	207			
		18	0.5	2.101
UBEB	184			

Critical value = 0.5

Critical $\alpha = 0.05 = 2.101$

The result of hypothesis two in tables 5 shows that the calculated t-value is 0.50 and the table value (at $\alpha = 0.05$) is 2.101, the table value was greater than the calculated value, for this reasons the null hypothesis was accepted, which implies that there is no significant difference between Millennium Development Goals and Community base or PTA in infrastructural development or poverty eradication in Universal Basic Education Schools in Bokkos Local Government of Plateau State, supporting the findings from Aluede (2002)and that of Omeje and Ogbu (2014).

4. Summary of Findings

The purpose of the study was to determine the impact of Millennium Development Goals in the achievement of Universal Basic Education Schools in Bokkos Local Government Area of Plateau State. The following findings were revealed:

- The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) has contributed in training of Universal Basic Education teachers through workshop and seminars in Universal Basic Education schools in Bokkos Local Government Area of Plateau State.
- The Millennium Development Goals contribution to the development of Universal Basic Education was positive.
- The communities have contributed immensely in the development of Universal Basic Education schools in

Bokkos Local Government Area of Plateau State.

- The State Universal Basic Education Board has contributed immensely by providing infrastructure and instructional materials for effective teaching and learning to UBE schools in Bokkos Local Government Area of Plateau State.

5. Conclusion

Based on the finding, the following conclusions were drawn; The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) has impact in training of Universal Basic Education teachers through workshop/seminars to make teachers productive and update methods of teaching. And, Community is also contributing in provision of Universal Basic Education schools with infrastructural facilities to facilitate learning in Bokkos Local Government Area of Plateau State.

6. Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study the following recommendations were made:

- There is the need for public awareness about the importance of western education because of the current trend of hatred of western education by some communities. There is the need of radio and television station to gear up campaign about the importance of

western education. Politicians, traditional rulers, groups or individuals should assist in the developmental project in Universal Basic Education schools in their communities for effective teaching and learning activities.

- In view of the findings of this study; the researcher hereby recommends that workshop/seminars should not just be organized often to retrain teachers of Universal Basic Education schools to be productive, but there should be a periodic follow up activity to ensure that the teachers are putting their training to practice.
- Team work should be organized by member of the communities where there is Universal Basic Education schools to enhance effective teaching and learning activities.

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Causes and Effects of Building Collapse in Nigeria

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**This paper is in memory of the lead author who unfortunately died before the final publication of the paper. May his soul rest in perfect peace*

Abstract. The incidence of building collapse in Nigeria has taken an alarming dimension owing to the frequency of its occurrence and the impacts it has on the nation. It became incessant that a month could hardly pass without a case of building collapse, with its attendant gruesome effects that could not be easily forgotten by its victims. The study examines the causes and effects of building collapse in Nigeria with a view to proffering pragmatic solutions. The bulk of the data used in this paper was derived from archival sources and content analysis of different research findings in relation to building collapse in major urban centres in Nigeria. A sample size of 200 landed professionals (20 each from 10 categories of landed professionals) selected randomly were surveyed through administration of questionnaire. A response rate of 94% was obtained. Data gathered were analysed by frequency distribution, percentage and relative importance indices. Findings of the study revealed that most of the causes of building collapse have been attributed to poor workmanship, bad design, substandard materials, non-involvement of registered professionals and use of incompetent contractors. The study also revealed that its multidimensional effects include economic, social, psychological and environmental impacts. The specific effects revealed are loss of life, properties, income; pollution, and phobia.

The study recommended that relevant professionals should be involved in project execution, supervision and monitoring from inception to completion; government must ensure availability of good construction materials at affordable costs and prosecution of dealers in poor quality construction materials and erring contractors.

Keywords: Abeokuta, building collapse, building construction, construction industry, Nigeria

1. Introduction

The place and priority of building to man's existence and survival as he lives and carries out his activities within them is important. The frequency of building collapse in Nigeria in the recent past is worrisome and alarming as their occurrence and the magnitude of the loss in terms of human lives and properties associated with them is becoming too high (Ibrahim, 2014). Even though, the proportion of buildings that collapsed is very small compared with the vast majority that are available for use, the human and material wastes associated with such collapse calls for urgent attention and solutions (Jambol, 2012; Oke, 2011). Apart from psychological wounds often inflicted on both the affected residents and owners of such buildings, the nation at large also garnered huge loss.

Building collapse is a global phenomenon as it occurs everywhere in the world. However, its occurrence is more rampant in developing nations, Nigeria inclusive. Several causes of building collapse were attributed to their natural or man-made phenomena. (Fakere, Fadairo and Fakere, 2012; Oloyede et al, 2010). What is therefore certain is that every cause of failure can be adequately handled if and when all stakeholders know, accept and obey the rules of the game – by complying with the law (Jambol, 2012; Adedeji, 2013). All over the World, the failure of a building structure is not unusual in the construction industry, and the developing countries are not exempted. The collapse of buildings in Nigeria is no longer news to an average citizen, as it has been happening to different kinds of building. The collapse of a multi storey building is usually more disastrous in comparison with low rise buildings (Taiwo and Afolami, 2011) due to higher investment and occupancy rates.

The aim of this study is to examine the causes of building collapse and the associated problems with a view to suggesting pragmatic recommendations that will be capable of reducing cases of building collapse. This study will also add to the scanty literature available in the area as there is the need to seek pragmatic solution the rising incidence of building collapse in the country. The research questions set to be answered by the study are what are the causes and effects of building collapse in Nigeria? To achieve the aim of this study, the paper has been structured into eight sections. After this introduction, the next section is on the background history of building collapse in Nigeria, and successively followed by literature review, the study area, methodology, results and discussion which comprises the causes of building collapse and effects of building collapse, conclusion and recommendations.

1.1 Background History of Building Collapse in Nigeria

Cases of building collapse are not restricted by status of ownership or occupancy, location or level of urbanization as they also cut across all types of construction and use. While some cases of building collapse are not reported, many cases

have been noted in Nigeria. For instance, Folagbade (2001) and Chinwokwu (2000) enumerated forty-two (42) cases of building collapse as occurring between 1980 and 1999 in Nigeria while Makinde (2007) listed fifty-four (54) cases occurring between January 2000 and June 2007 alone. Building collapse has also been observed to cut across the different categories of building – private, corporate or public. Folagbade (2001) showed that of the twenty-five (25) reported cases of building collapse between 1980 and 1999 in Lagos State, 76% were private, 12% were corporate and the remaining 12% were government or public buildings.

Also, building collapse can occur regardless of the size of the structure or number of storeys. Amusan (1991) reported that Barnawa flat disaster in 1977 was a three-storey building, a public building (Secondary School) which collapsed in March 1988 at Ibadan was two-storey building, the collapsed show-room for cars in Lagos in 1987 was just a storey building while that of the Primary School in Iioabuchi, River State in July 1991 was a bungalow building. Folagbade (2001) also reported that the Abuja building which collapsed in March, 1993 and the one at Ojuelegba in 1999 were both multi-storey buildings. Various buildings belonging to private, public or corporate organizations; or various sizes or shapes have appeared on the list of collapse. Some notable issues of building collapse in Nigeria are identified as follows:

In October 1974 when a multi-storey building under construction in Mokola in Ibadan collapsed, 27 people lost their lives. In August 1977, 28 people were killed when a residential building in Barnawa Housing Estate, Kaduna collapsed. Amusan (1991) stressed that the 1988 building collapse in Mushin, Lagos state occurred when an attempt was made to raise the existing building by another floor.

In June 1990, between 50 and 55 people lost their lives when a three-storey building collapsed in Port Harcourt. Also in 1990, operational conversion caused the collapsed of the school building of Saque Comprehensive

College, Port Harcourt when the owner attempted to construct additional floors on structurally unsafe walling. Over 50 students were reported to have died in the incident. Similar trends of conversion were reported in a collapsed Mosque building in Mushin area, Lagos state in 2001 and multi-storey commercial/residential building in Ebute-Meta also in Lagos state in which several people were killed. Some of the cases of building collapse were also as a result of ignorance on the part of developers and unauthorized conversion of buildings (Oluwunmi and Fagbenle, 2010).

On July 18, 2006, 28 people lost their lives when a four-storey building, popularly known as 'Titanic', collapsed in the Ebute Meta Area of Lagos. The building was a block of 36 flats, which housed about 180 people. Hours after the collapse, over 50 people were rescued with many more to follow, but more than 20 of the occupants were killed. In March 2006, the top nine floors of a 21-storey building belonging to the Bank of Industry, which was located on the popular Broad Street, Lagos Island, caved in. The collapse, which occurred days after fire had gutted two floors in the building, killed two people and injured 23 others. The incident was attributed to heavy winds and rain, especially after the fire weakened the structure. The remnant was brought down in a controlled demolition by a team of foreign demolition experts in 2008 (Ejembi, 2016). Also reported was the fence of a Nursery and Primary School that collapsed at Olomi Area, Ibadan, in March, 2008, thereby killing thirteen (13) pupils of the School.

A four-storey uncompleted building at No.2 Ikoli Street, Off, Gimbiya Street in Garki, Abuja collapsed in August 2010, over 30 people were inside. Twenty-one of them died and nine were injured. Some reports put the death toll at 23. In December 2011, an abandoned church building collapsed in Angwan Dosa, Kaduna, leaving five people dead. The abandoned building collapsed when about 25 workers hired to demolish it were working, killing four of them instantly. A fifth worker gave up at the hospital. The church had reportedly been abandoned as a result of the 2011 post-election violence. Poor workmanship and substandard materials used were responsible

for the collapse of a three storey building at Adigbe, Abeokuta in 2012 injuring many persons (Ibrahim, 2014).

In May 2013, a building under construction in the Agbama area of Umuahia, Abia State collapsed leaving up to seven people dead. The incident, which occurred in the night left several other people trapped and it took the efforts of the Red Cross, a construction firm and security agencies to limit the death toll. On July 11, 2013 an old three-storey building on Hadeja Road in the heart of Kaduna metropolis collapsed. A middle-aged woman was hit the most by the collapse of the building, said to be up to a 100 years old at the time it went down (Ejembi, 2016). On a Sunday evening on September 24th 2013, a two-storey building of the Abu Naima Primary and Secondary School in Bukuru, Jos South Local Government Area collapsed. Ten of about 30 pupils, who were said to be mostly below 10 years old, were killed. In July 2013, Ebute Meta suffered another building collapse. A three-story building, which had been marked for demolition a year earlier, collapsed killing seven people.

Two-storey residential building under construction which collapsed at Asero area in 2014, Abeokuta was due to use of sub-standard materials and incompetence of contractors. Two persons were reported dead in the incident. Rain storm also responsible for the collapse of several buildings including a main church, in Yenagoa Bayelsa State, on the 19th May, 2014 causing the collapse many deaths and injuries to people. (Ibrahim, 2014). On Sept 12th 2014, a six-storey guest house belonging to the Synagogue Church of All Nations collapsed in Lagos, trapping about 300 people. After rescue operations, the death toll stood at 116 with over 100 others injured. Most of those killed in the collapse (85) were South Africans. The building was originally a two-storey building said to be less than four years old, which the church decided to expand. It was also reported that the building had no approval from relevant agencies of the government. (Jumia House, 2015).

The five-storey building under construction at Lekki Gardens Horizon 1, in the Lekki Phase

1 area of Lagos which collapsed on Tuesday, March 8, 2016, shortly after a windstorm, killing no fewer than 34 persons and injuring several others. A church building (Reigners Bible Church) which collapsed on the 10th December, 2016 in Uyo killed 67 people and injured several people. The state governor narrowly escaped unhurt while some of his aides were not spared in the mishap. These are few of the hundreds of building collapse cases in Nigeria with each of them having its own reason for collapsing. The frequency of collapse building structures in Nigeria in the past few years have become very alarming and worrisome as many lives and properties have been lost (Jumia House, 2015).

From all the foregoing, it is evident that building collapse has claimed a lot of lives and caused havoc to Nigerians in the past. This therefore necessitates an urgent measures to mitigate it, hence a need for this work.

2. Literature Review

Building collapse is defined as a state of complete failure when the structure has literally given way and most structural members have caved in, crumbled or bucked (Akindoyeni, 2012). Buildings are structures that serve as shelters for man, his properties and activities. They must be properly planned, designed and constructed to obtain desired satisfaction from the environment (Ayedun et al., 2012; Olagunju et al., 2013). Buildings all over the world constitute one of the most valuable assets of mankind. More so, while these buildings provide humanity with a great variety of accommodation in form of residence, churches, mosques, offices, schools, hospitals etc, they also provide employment for the skilled and unskilled persons (Oke, 2011). The functional requirements of a good building construction include durability, adequate stability to prevent its failure or discomfort to the users, resistance to weather, fire outbreak and other forms of accidents.

Failure in a building is an unacceptable difference between expected and observed performance (Atume, 2012). A building is said to have collapsed when its structural components have failed and are not only

unserviceable but unable to adequately support intended loads or lacks stability due to excessive deformation. It has gone beyond the failure of either material or structure, or both (Iyagba, 2005; Ogunsemi, 2002; Taiwo et al, 2011). Such a building is no longer safe for habitation and therefore becomes a nuisance (Jambol, 2010). What therefore is of concern, is the situation that creates collapse, which ought to be an uncommon phenomenon or something extraordinary, an issue of incidence becoming one –too – many that requires control. A collapse can be equated to an accident or an untimely occurrence, an exception rather than the norm. It therefore does not just happen, as in failure, but it is caused and therefore needs control (Jambol, 2012).

Building collapse in most instances involves total failure of the building components, structures and fabrics to the extent that it cannot be remedied by repairs or renovation. The resultant debris is then removed as waste from the site (Akindoyeni, 2012). Building collapse is therefore the failure of all or substantial part of a building, where total or partial replacement may be needed. Failure in buildings could be of two types: cosmetic failure that occurs when something has been added to or subtracted from the building, thus affecting the structure's character; and structural failure which affects both the image and structural stability of the building (Atume, 2012).

Individual opinions differ on the causes and effects of building collapse. Several factors identified by various authors and researchers are generally accepted as the causes of building collapse in Nigeria (Adebayo, 2000; Abdurrahman, 2011; Atume, 2012; Aliyu, 2012; Windapo and Rotimi, 2012; Opara, 2007; Ayodele, 2007; Oyewande, 1992; Obiefuna, 2012; Jambol, 2012; Consumer News Nigeria, 2012; Gold, 2012; Agu, 2014; and Leadership Newspapers, 2014).

It is axiomatic to state that all pursuit of human endeavour has its attendant cost, but the cost being paid in the Nigerian building industry can hardly be justified. Each collapse carries along with it serious effects that cannot be easily

forgotten by any of its victims and neither can it be fully quantified (Ede, 2011). At times, the fear of sudden collapse may not allow a person to sleep with two eyes closed in a building which has experienced a collapse in the past (Ike, 2012).

The resultant consequences are usually in the form of economic, psychological, environmental, and social implications. These include loss of human lives, injuries, economic waste in terms of loss of property, investments, jobs, incomes, loss of trust, dignity, environmental disaster and exasperation of crises among the stake holders (Aliyu, 2012; Atume, 2012; Ibrahim, 2014). The foregoing review indicates that the causes are within limits as they in fact results from the negligent and nonchalant attitude of stakeholders like the contractors, government officials in charge of monitoring and supervision and owners. This study examines empirically the causes and effects of building collapse from the perspectives of the landed professionals with a view to suggesting pragmatic solutions.

2.1 The Study Area

Abeokuta is located in the South – West part of Nigeria, it lies between the longitude 3^o21”E and latitude 7^o9”N. It is 80 kilometres South of Ibadan the Oyo State capital, 73 kilometres North of Lagos. Abeokuta, a historical Yoruba town was founded by a group of people known as Lisabi Circa in 1830 which has a beautiful blend of anxiety and contemporary architecture. The town derives its name from the fairly massive “Olumo” rock and granite hills which are enthralling fitness of the topography of this Egba location. Abeokuta, the capital of Ogun State serves as a seat of administration and a centre for commercial activities. All developments associated with urban centres in Nigeria are found in Abeokuta. Property development activities is very active in the city as various types of properties are constructed and many other properties under construction – public and private, residential, commercial, industrial, recreational, institutional, transportation, religious and agricultural. Its location with proximity to Lagos state is a huge

advantage to its socio-economic development. This justifies the need for a type of study like this on Abeokuta. The population of the town which is ever increasing and cosmopolitan on a gradual basis is presently put at 593,140 (NPC, 2014).

3. Methodology

To achieve the aim of this study, data were collected from secondary and primary sources. The secondary data were obtained from textbooks, conference and seminar papers, Internet exploration, newspaper dailies, and other research materials that reported cases of building collapse in Nigeria. While the primary data were mainly the opinion of the professionals in the building industry on the causes and effects of building collapse. The ten categories of professionals surveyed were the Architects, Builders, Building contractors, Civil Engineers, Electrical Engineers, Estate Surveyors and Valuers, Land Surveyors, Quantity Surveyors, Structural Engineers and Town Planners in Abeokuta. Twenty professionals were selected randomly from each category of the professionals, and surveyed by questionnaire administration. Thus a total of 200 questionnaire were administered out of which 188 were returned and found useful for this study, giving a response rate of 94%. The data collected were analysed by frequency distribution and percentages while the causes were ranked using Relative Importance Index (RII).

$$RII = \frac{\sum W}{A \times N}$$

RII = relative importance Indices; EW = sum of weight for each factor; A = highest weight, N = total number of respondents

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Causes of Building Collapse

The factors identified in literature review were subjected to empirical tests by sampling the opinion of the professionals in the building industry in Abeokuta. Their responses were analysed and ranked as presented in table 1 below. The responses of the professionals

revealed that the first ten causes of building collapse in order of importance are poor workmanship (.9521), bad design (.9362), substandard materials (.8883), non-involvement of registered professionals (.8777), use of incompetent contractors (.8777), faulty construction process (.8723), foundation failure (.8617), corner-cutting (.7979), poor monitoring (.7872) and lack of sanctions against erring landlords (.7447). The next ten factors are unethical dealings (.7287), inadequate form works (.7128), extra-ordinary loads (.7021), carelessness (.6862), lack of professional supervision (.6862), greedy promoters (.6809),

negligence (.6489), corruption and bribery (.5851), non-adherence to regulations (.5426) and insufficient quality control (.5319). The last twelve factors in order of relative importance are operational conversion of structures (.4575), lack of soil investigation (.4468), ageing (.4415), excessively rushed construction (.4255), lawlessness (.3777), ignorance (.3458), bad governance (.3404), fire outbreak and storm (.2287), terrorist attack (.2660), misuse/abuse of authority (.2021), product failure (.1809), riot / wars and environmental disaster(.0798). These are shown in table 1.

Table 1: Perspectives of the Professionals on Causes of Building Collapse in Nigeria

S/N	Factors leading to building collapse	Responses (N = 188)			EW	RII	RANK
		Yes	Undecided	No			
1	Poor workmanship	179	9	0	179	.9521	1
2	Bad design	176	12	0	176	.9362	2
3	Substandard materials	167	21	0	167	.8883	3
4	Non-involvement of registered professionals	170	13	5	165	.8777	4
5	Use of incompetent contractors	171	11	6	165	.8777	4
6	Faulty construction process	176	0	12	164	.8723	6
7	Foundation failure	162	26	0	162	.8617	7
8	Poor monitoring	158	22	8	150	.7979	8
9	Corner cutting by owner or contractor	168	0	20	148	.7872	9
10	Lack of sanctions against erring professionals and landlords	164	0	24	140	.7447	10
11	Unethical dealings between project promoters and the relevant planning authorities	160	5	23	137	.7287	11
12	Inadequate form and false work	155	12	21	134	.7128	12
13	Extra-ordinary loads	160	0	28	132	.7021	13
14	Carelessness	154	9	25	129	.6862	14
15	Lack of professional site supervision	153	11	24	129	.6862	14
16	Greedy promoters	158	0	30	128	.6809	16
17	Negligence	155	0	33	122	.6489	17
18	Corruption / Bribery	132	34	22	110	.5851	18
19	Non adherence to the approved regulation	128	34	26	102	.5426	19
20	Insufficient quality control and standards	132	24	32	100	.5319	20
21	Operational conversion of structures	126	22	40	86	.4575	21
22	Lack of soil investigation	133	6	49	84	.4468	22
23	Ageing	128	15	45	83	.4415	23
24	Excessively rushed construction	122	24	42	80	.4255	24
25	Lawlessness by owners	123	13	52	71	.3777	25
26	Ignorance on the part of the Owners	112	29	47	65	.3458	26
27	Bad governance	112	28	48	64	.3404	27
28	Fire outbreak/ storm	111	17	60	43	.2287	28
29	Terrorist attacks / Insurgency	62	114	12	50	.2660	29
30	Misuse and abuse of authority	98	30	60	38	.2021	30
31	Product failure	98	26	64	34	.1809	31
32	Riots/War	74	55	59	15	.0798	32

Source: Field Survey; 2016

4.2 Effects of Building Collapse

Analysis of the responses of the professionals presented in table 2 below indicates that the effects of building collapse can be social, economic, environmental and /or psychological. Their responses indicated loss of life (100%), injuries to persons (98.74%), injuries to properties (95.74%), exasperation of crises (58.51%), loss of dignity (67.02%), loss of trust (64.89%) and damage of reputation (92.55%). This indicates that most cases of building collapse were accompanied by loss of lives, injuries of varying degrees to persons living or working in that building and their personal properties that were kept or being used in the collapsed building. The dignity, trust and reputation of the owner, contractors and workers that are connected with the building is also at stake as it points to their weakness or negligence with regards to the collapse or failure of the construction works done on the building. The economic problems are loss of properties (100%), loss of income (100%), loss of jobs (70.21%), disincentive to investment (82.98%), and redevelopment problems (93.62%). This points to the fact that the incomes which used to accrue to the owner of the building in form of rent will be affected when the building is destroyed by collapse, money will also be spent in reconstruction and settlement of the properties after construction. Where the collapse is total, fresh investment will be required to reinstate the property to the usual condition. Most property owners affected may be discouraged by the heavy cost of reconstruction and the site remains fallow for a long period after collapse. The Environmental problems include pollution (76.06%), eye-sore (68.09%) and spread of disease (45.75%); sites of building collapse is a source of dust and bad odour to the environment, and it becomes derelict and refuse collecting place usually when it is left open for a long period. The psychological problems are phobia (59.04%), insecurity problems (53.19%) and unrest of mind (67.02%). The site becomes a ghost haven and until it is rejuvenated, people are frightened when they come nearby. These are shown in table 2.

Table 2 : Perspectives of the Professionals on Effects of Building Collapse in Nigeria

Effect category	Effects	Respondents yes	Percentage (%)
Social problems	1 Loss of life	188	100.00
	2 Injuries to persons	186	98.94
	3 Injuries to properties	180	95.74
	4 Personality/Reputation	174	92.55
	5 Loss of dignity	126	67.02
	6 Loss of trust	122	64.89
	7 Exasperation of crises	110	58.51
Economic problems	1 Loss of properties	188	100.00
	2 Loss of income	188	100.00
	3 Redevelopment problems	176	93.62
	4 Disincentive to investment	156	82.98
	5 Loss of jobs	132	70.21
Environmental problems	1 Pollution	143	76.06
	2 Eye-sore	128	68.09
	3 Spread of diseases	86	45.75
Psychological problems	1 Unrest of mind	126	67.02
	2 Phobia	111	59.04
	3 Insecurity problems	100	53.19

Source: Field Survey, 2016.

5. Conclusion

Despite the efforts of the government over the years in trying to provide sustainable infrastructures for construction industry, through provision of enabling environment, enabling legislation and codes of practice and standards for professionals, the problem of construction failure appears insurmountable in Nigeria.

Looking at the frequency of building collapse and the magnitude of human casualty and loss of other resources associated with building collapse in Nigeria, there is need to take drastic actions to make the environment safe for human dwelling. From the foregoing, poor workmanship, poor building design, use of substandard materials, lack of professional input and supervision, use of incompetent contractors, and faulty

construction process, are all responsible for building collapse. From the findings of this study, one can infer that building collapse was caused mostly by human errors.

6. Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, it is recommended that the government must, through the appropriate standard organizations, ensure availability of good quality materials for the construction industry. Cost reducing measures should be employed to reduce the cost of essential building materials for the construction industry. Government must demonstrate adequate interest in project safety by prosecuting, with all seriousness, offenders whose activities result in collapse of structures while the owners of collapsed buildings should always be identified and sanctioned. The relevant planning authorities must not compromise on the standards established for the approval of designs and drawings. Relevant professionals must also be involved in project supervision, monitoring and control from inception to completion. The various professional bodies should sanction any of their members found to have been negligent or criminally implicated in the violation of ethics and professional codes with regards to building construction, supervision or approval. Using the media to create more awareness and sensitise the general populace about the economic, social and environmental hazards of collapsed buildings.

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Part Two
Entrepreneurship Studies

Effect of Entrepreneurial Education in Universities of Education for Sustainable Development and Poverty Eradication in Africa: A Panacea of University Administrators

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Abstract. This study investigated the effect of entrepreneurial education in universities of education for sustainable development and poverty eradication. Two statements of hypotheses were formulated and tested at 0.05 level of significance. A descriptive survey research design was adopted while two hundred and fifty (250) respondents were selected through a purposive random sampling technique among the 300 level students in each of the five (5) Colleges in Tai Solarin University of Education, Ijagun. The data collected were analyzed using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation. The results revealed that there were positive correlations among the variables of the study. The moderate correlation coefficient ($r = .258$; $df = 68$; $p = .031$) indicates that entrepreneurship education has positive relationship with sustainable development.

Based on the findings, it was recommended among others that; government should ensure that schools are equipped with necessary infrastructural and instructional facilities that will make the teaching and learning of entrepreneurship education very effective.

Keywords: Entrepreneurial Education, Universities of Education, Sustainable Development, Poverty Eradication, University Administrators

1. Introduction

University education world over is regarded as a viable mechanism for the production of qualified individuals who are required for the economic and social development of any nation. In like manner, like any other developing countries, education has been adopted as an instrument par excellence for effecting national development in Nigeria and it is stated in her National Policy on Education that education is to be qualitative, comprehensive, functional and relevant to the needs of the society (FRN, 2013). Based on this premise of the nation's national objective the entrepreneurship education was introduced into the Nigerian education system at all strata. Evidences have shown that entrepreneurship education is gaining global recognition as an established field of study. The broad objective of entrepreneurship education is to provide individuals with the entrepreneurial mind-set and skills to be self reliance in order to reduce the high rate of unemployment among graduates in the nation.

Kayode and Sunday (2014) asserted that education is the bedrock of the socio- economic and political development of any nation. Developed countries of the world like China, Japan, Russia, and United States of America among others have achieved various breakthroughs due to their commitment to ensuring a functional educational system in their countries. Even countries like Singapore,

Indonesia, India, among other upcoming countries that have achieved developmental breakthroughs have been attributed to their commitment to ensuring functional educational system in their states. Furthermore, countries like Japan, Israel, Korea, and China have achieved developmental breakthrough despite the fact that they have no any natural resource endowment. Observations have shown that the secret of their breakthrough is their commitment to functional educational system.

Education as a very important part of human welfare and existence is the most powerful weapon that can be used to change the world. Education is the best legacy a country can give to her citizens. The strength of a country is determined by the number of the vast majority that is educated. According to Agi and Yellowe (2013) education is important to the development of human resources, impartation of appropriate skills, knowledge and attitude. It is the basis for transformation, industrialization and a high way to global knowledge economy. The development of educational sector is significant in developing other sectors of the economy. Adamu (2001) maintained that development in any society is anchored primarily to education process. Sule (2004) asserts that education is a sure pathway to liberation of the mind and the improvement of socio economic status of people. Educating individuals to be empowered with requisite skills and knowledge, to raise their output, income and wealth is sine-qua-non to creating gainful employment and reduction in poverty level. This is because only educated persons are enlightened and enlightenment leads to national and global development. For any nation to outgrow her economic status quo, such a nation should be able to develop the intellectual capability of her citizenry through functional entrepreneurial education at all levels education.

An entrepreneur may be seen as someone who undertakes innovations, finance and business acumen in an effort to transform innovations in economic goods. According to Banabo and Kemebaradikumo (2011), in recent years, the term entrepreneurship has been extended to cover such areas as socio-cultural, political, and

educational forms of entrepreneurial activity. As a result when large companies venture into entrepreneurial activities within the organization, it is described as “intra-preneurship” or “corporate spin-off”. According to Okala (2008), anybody, industry or business leader with innovative and creative business abilities is described as an entrepreneur or someone who engages in entrepreneurship. While the entrepreneur is the person venturing into the business of organizing and managing, entrepreneurship is the service rendered by the entrepreneur (Akanwa and Agu, 2005). These definitions view the entrepreneur as the person who perceives a business opportunity and takes advantage of the scarce resources to meet with unlimited opportunities profitably.

Entrepreneurship Education seeks to provide students (especially those in tertiary institutions) with the knowledge, skills and motivation to encourage entrepreneurial studies in a variety of settings (European Union Commission, 2010). The commission emphasizes that different aspects of entrepreneurship education are offered at all levels of schooling from primary or secondary schools through graduate university programmes. The growth of entrepreneurship as a recognized profession in the United States was visible in the 1990s. In that professional approach lies the secret benefit of entrepreneurship education, which is, to help decrease the chances of failure by stressing a consistent and proven set of practices. In modern entrepreneurship, the idea of professionalizing the process of entrepreneurship is another great commonality.

Emeraton (2008) described entrepreneurship education as that which deals with those attitudes and skills that are necessary for the individual to respond to his environment in the process of conserving, starting and managing a business enterprise. They opined that their opinion is based on the fact that some basic attitudes and skills are essential for an individual to respond positively to his environment and explore its potentials. This implies that entrepreneurship education prepares the individual to be properly equipped to acquire saleable skills which could be used to manage

his own business or that of other persons (Oduwaiye, 2005). Entrepreneurship education is therefore that education which assists students to develop positive attitudes, innovation and skills for self reliance, rather than depending on the government for employment. This will in-turn produce graduates with self confidence and capacities for independent thought to discover new information leading to economic development (Emeraton, 2008).

Entrepreneurship education is the type of education designed to change the orientation and attitude of the recipients and the process will equip them with the skills and knowledge to enable them start and manage a business (Agu, 2006). Agreeing with Emeraton (2008), Agu opined that entrepreneurship education aims at developing the requisite entrepreneurial skills, attitudes, competencies, and disposition that will predispose the individual to be a driving force in managing a business. Akpomi (2009) also holds the view that entrepreneurship education focuses on developing understanding and capacity for pursuit of entrepreneurial behaviours, skills and attitudes in widely different contexts. He continued that this type of education is open to all and not exclusively domain of the some self acclaimed business gurus. He concluded that these behaviours can be practiced, developed and learned therefore it is important to expose all students to entrepreneurship education.

Aig-Imoukhuede (1988) cited in Banabo and Kemebaradikumo (2011) has identified ten of the attitudes and skills that would-be entrepreneurs have developed, as well as the objectives of entrepreneurship education. These skills and attitudes include positive attitudes, high aptitude for rational critical thinking and timely decision making; clear vision, generation of progressive ideals, drive and passion for success; ability to convert vision in concrete reality; creativity, innovativeness, courageousness and self confidence; ability to assume reasonable risk; mercurial ingenuity, resourcefulness, patience and/or opportunities insight; confidence and good judgment which involve taking decisions and making choices; prudence which means due care in the management of resources especially financial;

willingness to learn and should develop a disposition pick-up, store knowledge and use it and hard work which is an indispensable ingredient of success in business and other sectors.

According to Anam, Iba & Aregbe (2014), entrepreneurship education when effectively and efficiently taught has the likelihood to engender self-employment among learners and accelerating sustainable growth and development. It is designed in the Nigerian universities to equip graduates with productive skills to engage in income-yielding ventures. As a result, employability and entrepreneurship have continued to remain the focal point and now impacting on the design of many universities' curricular. Okebukola (2011) also advanced some reasons to justify the inclusion of entrepreneurship education in Nigerian universities as the capacity to boost national economic development, lowering poverty level and raising life expectancy and living standards, job creation and improve the relevance and public respectability of the universities. Zhining, Zheng & Wang (2010) have observed that when a country strives for an enhancement in technological innovation and human capital stock, a high priority should be given to the growth of entrepreneurial efforts.

2. Sustainable development

In the view of Arogundade (2011), sustainable development requires balancing environmental, societal and economic considerations in the pursuit of development and an improved quality of life. Sustainability includes intergenerational equity, gender equity, just and peaceful societies, social tolerance, environmental preservation and restoration, poverty alleviation and natural resource conservation. He stated that the major essential tool for achieving sustainable development include the following areas:

- Improve the quality of basic education;
- Re-orient existing education programmes to address sustainable development;
- Develop public awareness and understanding; and

- Provide training for all sectors of private and civil society.

Arogundade further asserted that education for sustainable development is the focus or projection of education that seeks to equip people towards creating a sustainable future. Stakeholders such as government, businesses, educational institutions, media, and organizations play important roles in achieving sustainable development. Each of these sectors has a different vision of sustainable development. Some are interested in environmental preservation and protection; some have economic development interests while others may be more interested in social development. According to UNESCO (2000) the way each nation, cultural group and individual views sustainable development will depend on its own values.

Observations have revealed that in developed nations, tertiary institutions trained students in skills that will assist in building more sustainable societies. Programmes such as Peace Education, Human Right Education, Environmental Education and Youth Entrepreneurs schemes are carried out in many schools. Thus, such programmes would assist students and teachers to gain an understanding of the prerequisites needed for sustainable development. Much emphasis has been raised on education which will give life and productive skills that will develop the intellectual capacity of the individual undergraduates, enhancing self-empowerment and improving the standard of living.

The government and educational administrators have given a positive reaction to the growing needs of the nation to leave the status quo of corruption, unemployment, poverty and other social vices. Omolayo (2006), asserted that many individuals have difficulties in translating their business ideas to realities and creating new business ventures because of lack of necessary information and skills needed to achieve their targets. In his view, the university curriculum was structured towards preparing graduates for

white-collar jobs. This is an indication of why millions of university graduates are unemployed and unable to create viable businesses. The administrators of Nigerian universities of education are to restructure their syllabus in a way that it will inculcate innovative and entrepreneurial spirits in young graduates or teachers in training that will reposition Nigerian education system to stimulate economic growth through a deliberate agenda of production of entrepreneurial graduates.

Against this background, this study empirically investigated the effect of entrepreneurial education in universities of education for sustainable development and poverty eradication.

3. Hypotheses

The following research hypotheses were formulated to be tested in this study

H₀₁: There is no significant relationship between sustainable development and entrepreneurial education among the undergraduate students of Tai Solarin University of Education.

H₀₂: There is no significant relationship between poverty eradication and entrepreneurial education among undergraduate students of Tai Solarin University of Education

4. Methodology

A descriptive survey research design was adopted for this study. The sample size of this study comprised two hundred and fifty (250) respondents. A purposive random sampling technique was used to select fifty (50) respondents among 300 level students in each of the five (5) Colleges in Tai Solarin University of Education, Ijagun. A self-structured questionnaire tagged “Entrepreneurial Education in Universities of Education, Sustainable Development and Poverty Eradication Questionnaire (EEUESDPEQ)” was used for data collection. The data collected were analyzed using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation.

5. Results

Hypothesis One: There is no significant relationship between sustainable development and entrepreneurial education among the undergraduate students of Tai Solarin University of Education.

Table 1: Relationship between sustainable development and entrepreneurial education

Variables	N	Mean	Std dev.	Df	R	Sig.
Sustainable Development	250	2.69	.301	68	.258*	.031
Entrepreneurship Education	250	2.62	.636			

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 1 shows the Pearson’s correlation coefficient for the relationship between sustainable development and entrepreneurship education in Tai Solarin University of Education. It was discovered that there is a positive correlation between these two variables. The moderate correlation coefficient ($r = .258$; $df = 68$; $p = .031$) indicates that sustainable development has positive relationship with entrepreneurship education in Tai Solarin University of Education.

Hypothesis Two: There is no significant relationship between poverty eradication and entrepreneurial education among undergraduate students of Tai Solarin University of Education

Table 2: Relationship between poverty eradication and entrepreneurship education in Tai Solarin University of Education

Variable	N	Mean	Std dev.	R	Sig	Remark
Poverty Eradication	250	76.0	8.89	.451	.000	significant
Entrepreneurship Education	250	62.8	8.18			

* $p < 0.05$

Results of analysis show that the correlation coefficient (r) is significant at $P < .05$ ($r = .451$, $P < .05$). This implies that the null hypothesis of no significant relationship is rejected, indicating a significant relationship between poverty eradication and entrepreneurship education.

6. Discussion of Findings

The result of Pearson’s correlation coefficient for the relationship between sustainable development and Entrepreneurship education in Tai Solarin University of Education revealed that there is a positive correlation between these two variables. The moderate correlation coefficient ($r = .258$; $df = 68$; $p = .031$) indicates that entrepreneurship education has positive relationship with sustainable development.

However, the relation between these two variables is positive. This may be partially because of the incongruent research society, too many research variables or the effects of

unwanted variables. This finding is in the line with Rahnama & Abdolmaleki (2009) and Heydari (2010). Moreover, the existence of a significant positive relation between achievement motivation and entrepreneurship is confirmed. This finding is in the line with Santos, Curren, & Coetano (2010) and Heydari (2010).

The results of the analysis of hypothesis two show that the correlation coefficient (r) is significant at $P < .05$ ($r = .451$, $P < .05$). This implies that the null hypothesis of no significant relationship is rejected, indicating a significant relationship between entrepreneurship education and poverty eradication. This is corroborated by Arasteh (2003), who asserted that entrepreneurship is a dynamic process towards increasing the capitals. It is also a process which creates a new element using creativity and is accompanied by using time, resources, risks, and other factors. This is supported by Akbari (2007) who views entrepreneurship as an endless and

fundamental resource in all societies; one which is related to the individual's creativity. It is both cheap and valuable. Zare, (2008), is of the opinion that when entrepreneurship is accepted as a profession by many of the society members, society develops so fast. That is, entrepreneurship affects individuals' social and economical development directly. Training and education can seriously provide the students with necessary skills during primary school, high school, and higher levels considering their age and personality (Behrangi, & Tabatabaie, 2009). Although entrepreneurship is a relatively new phenomenon in our society and it has not been so much dealt with nationwide. It is the most important achievement for the development of the society. Nezhad, (2004) even believe that entrepreneurship can serve as a mechanism to increase productivity in organizations; so that the developed countries nowadays have kept their companies in a completely dynamic condition and its main reason is training the specialists who create jobs and cause success.

7. Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, it was recommended that:

- Government should ensure that schools are equipped with necessary infrastructural and instructional facilities that will help the teaching and learning of entrepreneurship education very effective. Workshops and laboratories stocked with diverse kinds of equipment should be established at various universities to help internalize needed skills and values.
- The Students should be part and parcel of decision making body of the education policies affecting their interest. This will help to identify their areas of interest that will be incorporated in the curriculum by the curriculum planners.
- Efforts should be made by all the three tiers of Government, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and all other stakeholders in education industry should endeavor to ensure that

entrepreneurship education is properly funded as no effective planning and implementation of any program will take place in the absence of funds.

- It is also recommended that the government should give adequate attention to entrepreneurial development in the country through the provision of good economic environment to encourage individual participation in business while this is guaranteed entrepreneurship will thrive and consequently improve economic growth.
- Entrepreneurial values and practical skills should be inculcated into Nigerian undergraduates in order not to turn out to be unemployed graduates later in life

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Entrepreneurship Education as a Catalyst for Poverty Reduction and National Security in Nigeria

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Abstract. The study examined entrepreneurship education as catalyst for poverty reduction and national security in Nigeria using time series data over the period 1995 to 2015. While entrepreneurship education (proxy by index of industrial production) served as independent variable, GDP growth rate, poverty rate and government expenditure served as explanatory variables. Using ordinary least square multiple regression analysis, the paper revealed that GDP growth rate is positively related to index of industrial production while the poverty rate and government expenditure on national security have negative signs which is an indication of the high rate of unemployment in Nigeria as many able bodied youth and graduates are not employed and as such, depended on the working population for survival which increases the rate of abject poverty. The paper suggest that government should not only integrate entrepreneurship education as an integral part of the curriculum across all levels of education but should also establish skills acquisition centres across the country to reduce youth unemployment stem down the rate of poverty and insecurity in the country.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship Education, Poverty Reduction, GDP Growth, Industrial Production, Government Expenditure, Poverty Rate, Skills Acquisition, National Security.

1. Introduction

Nigeria, as a nation, despite its abundant wealth in terms of human and material resources, has been observed in recent times, to be under severe internal socio-economic challenges which are partly orchestrated by the cumulative effect of poverty and graduate unemployment. These often times, caused breach of peace in the country as reflected in the spate of insecurity in Nigeria as many able-bodied and highly qualified persons who could not secure gainful employment have remained economically dependent on their parents because they lack the necessary occupational skills to be self-employed and to effectively function in today's world of work (Osalar, 2013).

According to Otokiti (2012), the reason for these problems is that since independence, the country has failed to link education with enterprise development with repeated emphasis on self-employment in all her planning effort, but with nothing to show for it. No wonder, Oladele, Akeke and Oladunjoye (2011) lamented that many graduates in Nigeria lack entrepreneurial skills to facilitate self-employment and that it is only the effective implementation of vocational and technical education programmes that will inculcate the necessary skills and competencies that will help the youth to be self-reliant. No wonder, Daodu (2002) posited that the missing link in the Nigerian educational system, is entrepreneurship education and to surmount these challenges, entrepreneurship education has been postulated as the antidote, According to

him, through this type of education, new skills are acquired, ideas and management abilities necessary for promoting the growth of small and medium scale enterprises and job creation are also imbibed. To Raposo and Paco (2011), entrepreneurship education prepares the youths to be responsible and enterprising. Enu (2012) argues that the ultimate goal of educational entrepreneurship is all about increasing the student's ability to anticipate and respond to societal changes. In other words, through educational entrepreneurship, students are equipped to deploy their creativity ability for their good and benefits of the larger society.

In the investigation of Daodu (2007) in Akpomi (2009) on the modalities for using entrepreneurship education as a strategy or instrument for channeling necessary energy of the Nigerian universities, faculties and students away from paid employment to self-employment concluded that entrepreneurship education is the solution to the nation's problems. While entrepreneurship education was introduced into the curriculum of most tertiary institutions in Nigeria, Olibie (2013) noted that the curriculum for higher education is not entrepreneurship oriented and is not adequately suited for emergent global curriculum trends. Universities have paid very little attention to the changing labour market conditions in spite of promptings by public officials and international agencies urging them to do so. Rather than being at the forefront proactively converting these changes into opportunities for innovative programmes, the University system in Nigeria seem to have assumed a production orientation oblivious of the needs of the economy.

However, in view of the quality of graduates produced in Nigerian higher institutions, many people have criticized formal education for lack of its relevance while some others also strongly looked down on informal education as being unable to promote the much needed development, scientific and technological breakthrough. This is quite an irony for a country that allocates huge resources to education annually via the budget.

The preponderances of these challenges in the Nigerian education systems has no doubt make the economy to be susceptible to high rate of unemployment and under-employment with its attendant socio vices of insecurity, theft, poverty, armed robbery, kidnaping, ritual killings, drug addiction and other form of misdemeanours. This may be attributed to the fact that most of the lecturers handling the course lack the necessary skills/expertise to handle same while the few one that have shallow knowledge of the subject matter lay emphasis on theoretical aspect rather than making it practical based to enable the students acquire basic business instincts and talents with which they can establish small and medium scale businesses where the white collar jobs are not available. It is against this backdrop that this study examines entrepreneur education as a catalyst for poverty reduction and national security in Nigeria.

2. Concept of Entrepreneurship Education

According to Ebele (2008), entrepreneurship education is the teaching of knowledge and a skill that enables the students to plan, start and run their own business. In the view of Swarland (2008), entrepreneurship education aims to stimulate creativity in students, enables them to identify opportunities for innovation and motivate them to transform the ideas into practical and targeted activities whether in a social, cultural or economic context. Amusan (2004) agrees that entrepreneurship education will provide opportunities for students to access their attitude, aptitude and skills relating to those necessary for developing and running business.

Entrepreneurship education entails teaching students, learners and would-be businessmen, the essential skills required to build viable enterprises, equipping the trainees with skills needed for taking responsibility and developing initiatives of prospective trainees (Ezeani, 2012). According to Abefe-Balogun (2012), Entrepreneurship education involve a dynamic process of creating wealth through the process of creating something new and in the process assumes both attendant risks and rewards. To Izedonmi (2006), entrepreneurship education is

a process of preparing trainees for self-employment.

Okereke and Okorofor (2011) assert that entrepreneurship education has been acknowledged world wide as a potent and viable tool for self-empowerment, job and wealth creation. To Atakpa (2011), entrepreneurship education is an aspect of education which equips an individual and creates in the person the mindset to undertake the risk of venturing into something new by applying the knowledge and skills acquired in school.

In his own view, Fashua (2006) says entrepreneurship education creates the willingness and ability in a person to seek out investment opportunities in the society and be able to establish and run an enterprise successfully based on the identified opportunities. Hence, the overall purpose of entrepreneurship education is to develop expertise as an entrepreneur. According to Enu (2012), entrepreneurship education is a form of education that seeks to provide knowledge, skills, attitude and motivation to students for entrepreneurial success in any facet of human endeavours. He further argues that entrepreneurship education equips individuals with the ability to seek investment opportunities and maximize returns from those investments.

Entrepreneurship according to Omolayo (2006), Baba (2013) is the act of starting a company, arranging business deals and taking risks in order to make profit through the education skills acquired. The entrepreneurship spirit is a pre-requisite to an entrepreneurial society and culture. To Aruwa (2004), it is the ability of some people to accept risk and combine factors of production in order to produce goods and services. It can also be seen as the willingness and ability of an individual to seek out investment opportunities in an environment and be able to establish and run an enterprise successfully based on the identified opportunities.

2.1 Objectives of Entrepreneurship Education

The objectives of entrepreneurship education clearly show that it is concerned with the development and survival of both the individual and society. In fact, it is a tool through which social, economic and political development could be achieved.

According to Osuala (2010), the objectives of entrepreneurship education are:

- to provide meaningful education for youth which could make them self-reliance and subsequently encourage them to drive profit and be self-independent;
- to provide graduate with the training and support necessary to help them establish a career in small and medium size business;
- to provide graduates with employable skills that will make them meet the manpower needs of the society;
- to provide graduates with enough training in risk management to make uncertainty bearing possible and easy;
- to stimulate industrial and economic growth of rural and less developed area;
- to provide graduate with enough training that will make them creative and innovative in identifying new business opportunities; and
- to provide small and medium sized companies with the opportunity to recruit qualified graduates who will receive training and tutoring in the skills relevant to management of the business centre.

3. Research Hypothesis

The paper will be guided by the following hypotheses:

H₀₁: There is no significant relationship between entrepreneurship Education and Poverty reduction in Nigeria.

H₀₂: There is no significant relationship between entrepreneurship Education and national security in Nigeria.

4. Methodology

$$Y_t = -29.91625 + 0.123020b_1 + 4.508248b_2$$

From table 1, GDP growth rate and poverty rate served as explanatory variables while the index of industrial production is the dependent variable. The result of the model as indicated in table 1 showed that all the explanatory variables are positively related to the dependent variable. The coefficient of multiple determination shows that the model is of high good fit with approximately 84% of index of industrial production being explained by the variables included in the model, while the remaining 16% are factors influencing entrepreneurship education but were not captured in the model. Similarly, the low Durbin-Watson value of 1.322747 suggests that there is presence of serial correlation. The F-statistics indicate the joint significance of the explanatory variables and the high degree to which variations in the index of industrial production are explained by variations in the explanatory variables.

Table 2: EFFECT OF GDP Growth Rate, Government Expenditure on National Security on Entrepreneurship Development in Nigeria

Dependent Variable: Index of Industrial Production
 Method: Least Squares
 Sample (Adjusted): 1995-2015
 Included Observations: 19

EXPLANATORY VARIABLES	COEFFICIENTS	STANDARD ERROR	T-STATISTIC
Constant	-27.43110	42.05804	-0.652220
LOG(b ₁)	3.816399	10.98550	0.347403
LOG(b ₃)	0.241321	2.143253	0.439562

R-squared = 0.813916 Adjusted R-squared = 0.704256
 F-statistics = 1.053432 S.E. of Regression = 1.132505
 Durbin-Watson stat = 1.335190 Prob. (F-Statistic) = 0.034970
 Akaike info Criterion = 3.194909 Mean Dependent Var. = -12.53195

$$Y_t = -27.43110 + 3.816399b_1 + 0.132854b_3$$

In this model, GDP growth rate and government expenditure on national security served as explanatory variables while index of industrial production is the dependent variable. The result of the model as indicated in table 2 showed that GDP Growth Rate and government expenditure on national security are positively related to the dependent variable. The coefficient of multiple determination shows that the model is of high good fit with approximately 81% of the index of industrial production being explained by the variables included in the model, while the remaining 19% are factors influencing entrepreneurship education but were not captured in the model. Similarly, the low Durbin-Watson value of 1.335190 suggests that there is presence of serial correlation. The F-statistics indicate the joint significance of the explanatory variables and the high degree to which variations in the entrepreneurship education are explained by variations in the explanatory variables.

Table 3: Combined Effect OF GDP Growth Rate, Poverty Rate, Government Expenditure on National Security on Entrepreneurship Development in Nigeria

Dependent Variable: Index of Industrial Production
 Method: Least Squares
 Sample (Adjusted): 1995-2015
 Included Observations: 19

EXPLANATORY VARIABLES	COEFFICIENTS	STANDARD ERROR	T-STATISTIC
Constant	-20.33120	22.15814	-0.552124
LOG(b ₁)	2.716395	8.67552	0.447213
LOG(b ₂)	-0.432861	0.245954	1.223552
LOG(b ₃)	-1.321431	4.132459	0.321415

R-squared = 0.913612

Adjusted R-squared = 0.844236

F-statistics = 1.053432

S.E. of Regression = 1.122515

Durbin-Watson stat = 1.235191

Prob. (F-Statistic) = 0.024570

Akaike info Criterion = 2.174604

Mean Dependent Var. = -11.52163

$$Y_t = -20.33120 + 2.716395b_1 - 0.432861b_2 - 1.321431b_3$$

In this model, all the variables are combined together and the result indicated in table 3 showed that GDP growth rate is positively related to index of industrial production while the poverty rate and government expenditure on national security have negative signs. The negative signs of poverty rate is an indication of the high rate of unemployment in Nigeria as many able bodied youth and graduates are not employed and as such, depended on the working population for survival which increases the rate of abject poverty. In the same vein, the increase in government expenditure on national security relative to the industrial sector of the economy in the past few years may be partly responsible for the native sign of the variable. The coefficient of multiple determination shows that the model is of high good fit with approximately 91% of index of industrial production being explained by the variables included in the model, while the remaining 9% are factors influencing entrepreneurship education but were not captured in the model. Similarly, the low Durbin-Watson value of 1.235191 suggests that there is presence of serial correlation. The F-statistics indicate the joint significance of the explanatory variables and the high degree to which variations in the index of industrial production are explained by variations in the explanatory variables.

6. Conclusion

There is no doubt that entrepreneurship skill development goes beyond training and education but it involves a process of human capacity building through formal and informal training inculcating in the entrepreneur basic

technological and managerial. Therefore, government should not only integrate entrepreneurship education as an integral part of the curriculum across all levels of education but also establish skills acquisition centres across the country to train unemployed youths in trades that they can engage in with financial support so as to create wealth, generate employment, reduce poverty, thereby translating to reduction in insecurity in the country.

7. Recommendations

Based on the finding of this study, the following recommendations are made to reduce poverty and insecurity in Nigeria using entrepreneurship education:

- (i) Since devil find work for an idle hand, the government should make en entrepreneurship education mandatory across all levels of education to enable youths acquire skills with which they can set up small businesses where white collar job is not available. This will promote employment generation, reduce poverty and reduce instances of insecurity arising from unemployment.
- (ii) More funds should also be made available to genuine small scale enterprises as is currently being done by the Bank of Industry to create more employment opportunities and reduce poverty.
- (iii) More universities should be made to run entrepreneurship education as a

discipline like any other academic programme to solve the problem of inadequate qualified staff to teach the course in our tertiary institution of learning in Nigeria.

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Part Three
Legal Studies

Is What is Good for the Goose also Good for the Gander?: A Diagnostics Appraisal of the FIFA’s Proscription of Third Party Ownership of Professional Footballers’ Rights

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Abstract. This paper takes a critical analysis of football transfer market rules of third party Ownership of Professional Footballers’ Rights by appraising the Case of Carlos Tevez and Javier Mascherano and FIFA’s restrictive measures. The work examines the essential underpinning principles and philosophical justification of the proscription of the practice by FIFA. In doing this, the work considers the sophistication and extant development of the various football continental bodies. The work concludes that what is good for the goose is not always good for the gander and as such total proscription is unacceptable

1. Introduction

Sports have been envisioned as “a world language with many dialects”. Sports are becoming more professional and the stakes are becoming higher than ever, disputes resolution takes on an increasingly important role in the industry. Football has expanded tremendously in line with modern realities. The football industry is as today complex, commercial, industrial and far from the mere pleasure, fun and enjoyment it used to be.

Football, or soccer as some regions of the world refer to it, is the world’s most popular sport. The game is not just a pastime, but also a massive, revenue generating industry. Football as it is today has grown from activities for mere pleasure, enjoyment and fun to complex and

commercialized activities. The game of football has been transformed from a semi-commercialized activity in which financial benefactors supported teams and any aim of making financial profit was secondary to the glory of the game to a ruthless business operation. It is interesting to note that football accounts for more than five percent of world trade and some over five million jobs directly and indirectly related to football have been created.

2. Football Contract and Transfer Market

Football contract is a term used to describe the legal contractual issues at work in the world of football game. It is a combination of entertainment law, contract, tort, criminal law, commercial law, intellectual property, labour law, law and practice of dispute resolution. With the professionalism, media coverage, commercialization, impact of law and modern realities in football came also the idea of football transfer contracts. Football Transfer Contracts go beyond an arrangement between players and club. Football contract reflects many spheres of football such as players’ transfer, licensing, sponsorship, endorsement, merchandising, image rights, broadcasting arrangements, advertisement, insurance, kits and apparels manufacturing, collective bargaining agreement, discipline, loan, players and clubs’ obligations, restraint of trade, privacy rights, defamation,

football regulations and specially dispute resolution.

Transfer market on the other hand in professional football, is the arrangement through which players change clubs through the international transfer system, whereby clubs buy and sell players. According to a learned author, transfer system in sport is economic exchange in every sense, social and material. However, what is being given economic value and exchanged in the transfer market is not the player and his labour (for that he receives a salary) but some other concepts of value integral to his labour. The process is a typical sales transaction that involves a buyer and seller negotiating and agreeing on a fee, after which the player moves to the new club. The player signs an employment contract with the new team and receives a bonus called a "signing-on" fee, while the player's old club receives the transfer fee from the purchasing club. Football transfer contract comes with salient features such as the contract must be in writing, duly signed by both parties with date and place mentioned in the contract and each signatory party receiving a copy of the contract and another copy forwarded to the Professional League and or member Association for registration according to the provisions of the competent football body. The agreement must further state the full name, birth date, nationality, full address of the residency of the player in case of individual and in case of club, the name of the club and the person representing the club. The agreement defines a clear starting date (day, month and year) and the ending date.

3. Third Party Ownership of Professional Footballer's Right

Third party ownership of professional footballer's rights is a practice that involves a professional footballer signing a contract with a third party that is unaffiliated with a professional team and or football industry, whereby the third party finances the player's development in exchange for the rights to the player's transfer fee. The Carlos Tevez and Javier Mascherano transfers saga were the events that brought third party ownership of professional footballers to

the limelight, media scrutiny and legal discourse.

In this case, Kia Joorabchian was said to have entered into a ten-year agreement with football club Corinthians of Sao Paulo, Brazil in the year 2004. Based on the agreement, Joorabchian's London-based company, it was reported Media Sports Investments invested 35 million dollars in the club in exchange for 51 percent of the club's future profits. Corinthians Football Club in the Brazilian football was said to have broken domestic transfer fee record by purchasing Tevez from Club Atldtico Boca Juniors, a Buenos Aires, Argentina club, for 22 million dollars, and Mascherano from Club Atldtico River Plate, another Buenos Aires club, for 15 million dollars which as of then was exceptional. After a huge successful season, many of the top European clubs, including English Premier League (EPL) giants Chelsea, Manchester United, Liverpool and Arsenal, were rumored to be in the transfer market for the two players.

By August 2006 at the opening of the transfer window, West Ham United signed the two players away from Corinthians football club on an undisclosed transfer fee though rumored to be exorbitant as well. Tevez and Mascherano arrived at the West Ham united Football Club amidst this controversy and applaud but they received limited playing time at the beginning and their future with the Upton Park club was in doubt under Magnusson's ownership. West Ham therefore decided to send Mascherano on loan to Liverpool Football Club during the January 2007 transfer window.

Tevez, on the other hand continued with West Ham football team that was fighting and battling with threat of relegation from the English Premiership League to the championship side. Meanwhile, West Ham's relegation fight was to be determined by the last match of the season; incidentally Tevez's winning goal against Manchester United was a decider and thus ensured West Ham's continuation in the English Premiership League. This also means consequently that another team will suffer relegation. In this instant case, it was Sheffield United that was relegated accordingly to the League Championship.

Therefore, Sheffield United claimed that their relegation resulted in a revenue loss of 50 million pounds, and requested arbitration before the Football Association. West Ham as some commentators said as if to appreciate its survival in the English Premiership League and the role played by Tevez agreed to transfer him to Manchester United on August 2007 a more robust and career enhancing club. The deal, however, appeared frustrated because the English Premier League demanded that West Ham be the sole recipient of the transfer fee since the club earlier argued during its disciplinary proceedings of April 2007 that it had terminated the third party ownership of Tevez's rights. This arrangement is unpleasant to Joorabchian and swiftly disagreed, maintaining that he never agreed to terminate the contract and that in any case, he still owned Tevez's economic rights. He further argued that on the other hand, since Tevez was only on loan at West Ham, the club has no right to participate in the transfer fee. Joorabchian immediately maintained an action against West Ham for breach of contract. The parties requested FIFA's intervention, but FIFA refused to intervene and suggested rather that the dispute go before the Court of Arbitration for Sport.

Finally, on August 3, 2007, the parties reached an agreement under which West Ham received two million pounds for Tevez's registration, thus releasing the Argentine from any obligation with West Ham and allowing him to sign with Manchester United. Tevez moved to Manchester United football club. However, the player did not break ties with MSI because Manchester United entered into a loan agreement with Joorabchian for five million pounds and an additional five million pounds per year in wages for Tevez. On February 7, 2008, Joorabchian filed a writ with the Chancery Division of the High Court in England against the club for seven million pounds he claims West Ham owes him as payments it botched to make on the Tevez loan and transfer. The EPL reviewed and approved the agreement on the grounds that it was not in any way subject to third party authority. However on April 7, 2007, the English Premiership League issued West Ham a 5.5 million pound fine.

FIFA immediately and swiftly reacted to the scandal of third party ownership of economic rights of players as widely exposed by the transfer of Tevez by enacting the controversial Article 18b. This amendment was set and was actually made to come into effect in the 2008-2009 seasons, and it states,

Before registering a player for a club the board will need to be satisfied there exists no agreements with third parties under which such third parties continue to own any registration or economic rights or the like in the player following registration.

FIFA further threatens severe disciplinary measures for any club and federation that fail to abide by Article 18. This means, therefore, that clubs entering into contracts where a third party holds the economic rights of a player could be subjected to penalties that range from playing a match without spectators, deduction of points, to expulsion from the league.

Having noted the issue of third party ownership interest of a player and the outright ban of same by FIFA, this research work is of the view that this case raises certain fundamental issues apposite to our present discussion. Key amongst which are is outright ban the solution to third party rights of professional footballers, second does the ban imposed by FIFA takes a critical consideration of the underpinning motives and philosophical justification of the practices in some football continental bodies, especially where the game is still a bit backward? Also must FIFA legislate on this issue or could it be better to allow individual federations to deal with some matters upon individual peculiarities?

The proponent of the outright ban hinges their argument on the facts that the third party agreement could destroy the integrity of the game (maybe in their view as "he who pay the piper calls the tune") just as what happen where some clubs enjoys same ownership and playing in the same league. This argument is not absolute otherwise one can also say that the footballer agents, a father-figure coach, one's federation etc could as well influence players to compromise the integrity of the game. They

advanced another argument that the system may amount to human trafficking and that the system may hamper the effectiveness of the transfer system in the game of football.

4. Conclusion and Recommendations

This work considers the arguments raised by the proponent and those who argued against it. This article suggest first that the Federation of International Football Association, the various Confederations, federations and clubs should pay consistent and futuristic attention to young players' development. In Nigeria, for instance, this study notes the need for provisions on development of feeder teams and feeder teams are to be made mandatory in all classes and there must be measures put in place to ensure adherence. This recommendation will ensure internal development o players. The idea we submit is to create a pipeline through which talents can graduate from such club feeder teams to the main team without the club visiting the general transfer market incessantly.

This work suggests regulation of the system rather than proscription of it. The system works especially in the developing countries as young players are developed, exposed and their careers financed by the third party in anticipation of financial reward. It is basically something for something. It is purely business and so be it.

FIFA decision to ban the system may be seen as an attempt and battle to maintain its hegemony, autonomy and total "annihilation" of external threats. It is suggested that FIFA may insist on total disclosure of third party ownership interest in any transfer deal, short term deals and allowing confederation members to take a stand considering the efficacy, mutuality and economic reality of their distinct continent. The game is too advanced; take for instance in Europe if compare with Africa. What is good for the goose may not always be good for the gander.

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Article 2.7 Rules and Regulations of the Nigeria National League 2010/2011 Season which provides for Foreign Players/International Transfer of Players

Margaret MacDonald Transfers, contracts and personhood - an anthropological perspective (Feb,2003) International Sports Law Review pg 3- 10

FIFA Statutes, Art. 60(1), p. 40, available at <http://www.fifa.com/mrI/document/affederation/federation/> accessed on the 13th March, 2011 stating that "parties" include members, confederations, leagues, clubs, players, officials, and licensed match agents and players' agents.

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Protection of Teachers Right to Fair Hearing, Freedom of Expression and Association for National Cohesion in the Management of Primary Education in Kebbi State, Nigeria

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Abstract. This paper investigated the extent to which teachers right to fair hearing, freedom of expression and association are protected as a strategy for ensuring national cohesion in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi state. The study was a descriptive survey in which 50 primary schools drawn from urban and rural areas in five education zones in Kebbi State were deliberately sampled. The views of 250 teachers and 150 school managers were sampled through stratified and simple random sampling techniques. A self-designed and validated instrument with a reliability index of 0.88 on a four point Likert scale was used. Mean computation and Rank order were used to analyze data to answer research questions using mean of 2.5 and above as the cut-off mean for acceptance and below it for rejection while z-test statistics was used to test the hypotheses at 0.05 level of significance. It was found that to a large extent, teacher's right to fair hearing, freedom of expression and association were protected in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State. It was therefore recommended that the protection of teachers' right should continue to be upheld in order to ensure national cohesion, not only in Kebbi State but in Nigeria as a whole.

Keywords: Protection, Teachers Right, Fair hearing, Freedom of expression, Association, National Cohesion, Management.

1. Introduction

The idea of national cohesion is today a very important ideal that Nigeria is desperately aspiring to attain. More than ever before, there are agitations by various groups in the north, south, west and eastern parts of Nigeria for the restructuring and possible disintegration of Nigeria back to regions that should be autonomous and more powerful than the center. National cohesion is the force that binds the various regions and states to stick together in one united indivisible country (Hornby, 2010). The quest for national cohesion was tested fifty years ago when the civil war was fought between 1967-1970 to keep Nigeria one. In this regard, the teachers at the primary school occupy a central position in providing the kind of education that will develop the spirit of national cohesion right from the tender age (Fafunwa, 2004).

1.2 Statement of Problem

Although a lot of sacrifices and the precious blood of fellow Nigerian compatriots was shed on the altar of national cohesion, the nagging problem has persisted to the point that it has become an issue of endless academic and intellectual discuss across the land. Various

political, social, economic and philosophical antidotes have been proposed to actualize the dream, yet very little success has been attained. One of the most powerful antidote that has probably been over looked and grossly neglected is the possibility of looking at the provision of quality education at the primary school level as the foundation upon which the unshakable pillar of national cohesion could be built.

Despite the significant and indispensable role of teachers in inculcating and propagating the ideals of national cohesion in children, primary school teachers in Nigeria and Kebbi State in particular are the most neglected compared to those in secondary and tertiary institutions. According to Achimugu (2005), Nigeria teachers are among the worst paid teachers in the world. They live in perpetual poverty fraught with mixed bag of frustration, pain, grief and despair in a land flowing with milk and honey. The worst thing is that primary school teachers are harassed, intimidated and denied their legal rights (Ogunu, 2015). Given this scenario of helplessness and hopelessness, it is extremely difficult to expect teachers to be able to function effectively in inculcating the ideas of national cohesion in children. Thus the main thrust of this paper is to assess the extent to which the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State protects the legal rights of teachers particularly on issues of fair hearing, freedom of expression and association and how this impinges on their capacity to promote national cohesion.

1.3 Research Questions

The following research questions are formulated to guide the study.

- What is the perception of teachers and educational managers on the extent to which teachers' right to fair hearing is protected to ensure national cohesion in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State?
- What is the perception of teachers and educational managers on the extent to which teachers' right to freedom of expression and press is protected to

ensure national cohesion in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State?

- What is the perception of teachers and educational managers on the extent to which teachers' right to freedom of assembly and association is protected to ensure national cohesion in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State?

1.4 Research Hypotheses

Ho₁: There is no significant difference between the mean scores of teachers and educational managers on the extent to which teachers' right to fair hearing is protected for national cohesion in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State.

Ho₂: There is no significant difference between the mean scores of teachers and educational managers on the extent to which teachers' right to freedom of expression and press is protected for national cohesion in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State.

Ho₃: There is no significant difference between the mean scores of teachers and educational managers on the extent to which teachers' right to freedom of assembly and association is protected for national cohesion in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State.

1.5 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study are as follows:

- To find out the perception of teachers and educational managers on the extent to which teachers right to fair hearing is protected to ensure national cohesion in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State.
- To find out the perception of teachers and educational managers on the extent to which teachers right to freedom of expression and press is protected to ensure national cohesion in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State.
- To find out the perception of teachers and educational managers on the extent

to which teachers right to freedom of assembly and association protected to ensure national cohesion in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State.

1.6 Significance of the Study

This study is significant in a number of ways. The findings will show the various issues involved in the protection of legal rights of teachers, thereby serving as a guide for Headmasters in primary schools, managers of Primary Education at Local Government Education Authority as well as Primary School Management Board at the State level. It will improve teachers' awareness of their legal rights and to encourage them to raise an alarm whenever any of their legal rights is violated with impunity. As a whole, it will help to create and sustain an environment where Primary schools are managed by giving respect to the rule of law as a necessary condition for peaceful co-existence and national cohesion among teachers irrespective of geopolitical and socio-cultural origin.

2. Review of Relates Literature

The right to fair hearing is a cardinal right enshrined in the constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (1999) section 36 (1). In order to ensure the protection of teachers right to fair hearing, educational mangers are expected to give every teacher the opportunity for fair hearing without discrimination on grounds of religion, sex, tribe, place of origin, and other distinguishing characteristics (Achimugu, 2005). Educational managers should ensure that no teacher is assumed to be guilty unless proven otherwise; be properly informed of his offence; be given adequate time to prepare for his defence; be informed of his accusers and allowed to cross-examine them; present his witnesses and be given fair sentence (Alexander, 2008). It also entails ensuring than disciplinary committee is properly constituted; is neutral; members are morally upright and technically qualified (Hamilton, 2010 & Hornby, 2015). Teachers should be served with copy of the trial; be allowed to be represented by counsel if need

be; and be given the right to appeal if they are not satisfied with the judgement (Barrel, 2005). Fuller (2009) believes that protection of teachers' right to fair hearing could impact positively on national cohesion in any country of the world.

One of the ways by which people particularly primary school teachers are suppressed is to curtail their freedom of expression. Section 39 (1) of the constitution (FRN, 1999) however, provides stated that every person shall be entitled to freedom of expression, including freedom to hold opinions and to receive ideas and information without interference, be given the freedom to impart knowledge and publish their ideas or information without interference and right to use any medium to disseminate information as well as express their grievances through lawful channels, without victimization. Alexander (2008) is of the opinion that suppression of teachers' freedom of expression and press could lead to rebellion if they are pushed to the wall. This will in turn affect national cohesion especially if the affected teachers are not indigene of the state where they are serving.

The Federal republic of Nigeria (1999) in Section 40 (1) stated that every person is entitled to assemble freely and associate with other persons and in particular, he may form or belong to any political party, trade union or any other association for the protection of his interests. Ogonu (2005) and Sagay (2007) stated that teachers have the right to decide whether they wish to belong to an association or not, be free to withdraw their membership from any association at any given time without victimization and that they should not be compelled to join an association against their will. Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN, 2004), Barrel (2005) and Obilade (2009) are of the view that lack of membership of professional associations deprives them of the opportunity of getting the right exposure to other parts of Nigeria and various cultures when they attend national conferences. According to Obilade (2009) this exposure is expected to improve teachers' appreciation of Nigerian culture which is vital to national cohesion.

Nwagwu (2007) opined that teachers’ right to assemble during statutory meetings to discuss curricular issues and other official matters should be protected. They should be free to assemble during meetings of their professional union, staff meetings, for religious observances, for informal interaction and for community development. Hamilton (2010) and Okonkwo (2010) notes that if teachers are deprived of the right to associate lawfully they may assemble secretly and unlawfully which might lead to development of cultism which is inimical to the spirit of national cohesion.

3. Research Methodology

This study used the descriptive Survey design in order to sample the views of teachers and school managers on protection of teachers’ right in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State. Population of the study was drawn from the five existing education zones. Ten schools were sampled purposefully from each to get a total of 50 schools drawn from urban and rural areas, as well as public and private schools. All the head masters in the 50 schools and 150 staff of Local Education Authority as well as Zonal Education Officers who are in charge of management of the schools were deliberately sampled. Simple random sampling technique was used to select 250 teachers. A self-designed questionnaire titled: Protection of Teachers Legal Right Questionnaire (PTLRQ) with 25

items spread across three sections was used to collect data. The questionnaire was rated using modified Likert Scale type. Strongly Agree (SA) = 4; Agree (A) = 3; Disagree (D) = 2; and Strongly Disagree (SD) = 1. The criterion mean of 2.5 and above was used for acceptance and below 2.5 was used for rejection. Three experts in educational management validated the instrument. Test re-test method was used to obtain a reliability index of 0.88 co-efficient. The sampled schools were visited by the researcher in company of trained research assistants. Completed copies of the instrument distributed to 150 school managers and 250 for teachers were retrieved on the spot. Mean computation and Rank Order were used to analyze the data to answer the research questions, while z-test statistics was used to test the hypotheses at 0.05 level of significance

4. Findings

The research questions raised fir this study were answered sequentially and presented in table 1-3.

Research Question One

RQ1: What is the perception of teachers and educational managers on the extent to which teachers’ right to fair hearing is protected to ensure national cohesion in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State?

Table 1: The mean and rank order of teachers and school managers on protection of teachers’ right to fair hearing for national cohesion in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State

S/N	Protection of teachers right to fair hearing	Teachers Mean (\bar{x})	Managers Mean (\bar{x})	Mean set	Rank	Decision
1	Hearing is given without discrimination	2.82	2.22	2.52	7 th	Agreed
2	Hearing is within reasonable time	2.48	2.72	2.61	4 th	Agreed
3	Members of committee are qualified	2.49	2.63	2.56	5 th	Agreed
4	Adequate time is given for defence	2.45	2.37	2.41	11 th	Disagreed
5	Records of trial proceedings are kept	2.59	2.53	2.55	6 th	Agreed
6	Right to cross-examine accusers is given	2.71	2.66	2.70	2 nd	Agreed
7	Teacher assumed innocent until proven guilty	2.48	2.45	2.46	9 th	Disagreed
8	Punishment given is moderate and fair	2.81	2.75	2.73	1 st	Agreed
9	Copies of the judgement are issued	2.45	2.42	2.48	8 th	Disagreed
10	Right to appeal is given if not satisfied	2.46	2.48	2.45	10 th	Disagreed
11	Punishment based on current rules	2.63	2.61	2.64	3 rd	Agreed

Table 1 shows that item ranked 1st to 7th with the mean scores ranging between 2.73 and 2.52 were accepted, which means that both teachers and school managers were in agreement that positive effort was being done by the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State for national cohesion by protecting teachers’ right to fair hearing especially in terms of giving moderate punishment (2.73, 1st), opportunities

to cross examine witnesses (2.70, 2nd), punishment based on current rules (2.64, 3rd), hearing within reasonable time (2.61, 4th) among others. On the other hand, being given copies of the trial (2.48, 8th), accused being presumed innocent till proven guilty (2.46, 9th), being given right to appeal (2.45, 10th) and being properly informed of one’s offence (2.41, 11th), which means were below the criteria mean of 2.5 were rejected.

Research Question Two

RQ2: What is the perception of teachers and educational managers on the extent to which teachers’ right to freedom of expression and press is protected to ensure national cohesion in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State?

Table 2: The mean and rank order of teachers and school managers on protection of teachers’ right to freedom of expression and press for national cohesion in management of Primary Education in Kebbi State.

S/N	Protection of freedom of expression and press	Teachers Mean (\bar{x})	Managers Mean (\bar{x})	Mean set	Rank	Decision
1	Freedom to independent opinion	2.68	2.44	2.47	5 th	Disagreed
2	Freedom to receive information	2.43	2.37	2.40	7 th	Disagreed
3	Freedom to express independent ideas	2.49	2.48	2.48	4 th	Disagreed
4	Freedom to use any medium	2.47	2.47	2.42	6 th	Disagreed
5	Freedom to publish the truth	2.60	2.58	2.59	3 rd	Agreed
6	Freedom to keep official secrets	2.63	2.65	2.64	2 nd	Agreed
7	Freedom to change opinion/ideology	2.66	2.64	2.65	1 st	Agreed

Table 2 showed the mean and rank of items as follows: Freedom to change opinion (2.65, 1st), freedom to keep confidential information (2.64, 2nd), and freedom to publish the truth (2.59, 3rd). apart from freedom to express independent ideas (2.48, 4th), hold independent opinion (2.47, 5th), freedom to use any media (2.42, 6th) and freedom to receive information (2.40, 7th), which mean was below the criteria mean of 2.5 and so was rejected, other items had means above the criteria mean of 2.5. The items were therefore accepted as the extent to which teachers’ rights to freedom of expression and press were positively protected to ensure national cohesion in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State.

Research Question Three

RQ3: What is the perception of teachers and educational managers on the extent to which teachers’ right to freedom of assembly and association is protected to ensure national cohesion in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State?

Table 3: The mean and rank order of teachers and school managers on protection of right to freedom of assembly and association for national cohesion in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State.

S/N	Protection of teachers right to assembly/association	Teachers Mean (\bar{x})	Managers Mean (\bar{x})	Mean set	Rank	Decision
1	Freedom to assemble formally	2.84	2.24	2.54	5 th	Agreed
2	Freedom to assemble informally	2.50	2.74	2.62	2 nd	Agreed
3	Freedom to assemble for unionism	2.51	2.65	2.58	3 rd	Agreed
4	Freedom to belong to professional bodies	2.47	2.39	2.43	7 th	Disagreed
5	Freedom to withdraw membership	2.59	2.55	2.57	4 th	Agreed
6	Freedom for religious assembly	2.74	2.68	2.71	1 st	Agreed
7	Freedom for social gatherings	2.49	2.47	2.48	6 th	Disagreed

Table 3 showed the mean and rank of the items as follows: freedom for religious assembly (2.71, 1st), freedom to assemble informally (2.62, 2nd), freedom to assemble for unionism (2.58, 3rd), freedom to withdraw association membership (2.55, 4th), and freedom to assemble formally, (2.54, 5th). Apart from freedom for social gathering (2.48, 6th) and freedom to belong too professional bodies (2.43, 7th) which

means were below the criteria mean of 2.5 and so were rejected, other items had means above the criteria mean. Three items therefore show that positive efforts are made to protect teachers' right to freedom of assembly and association to ensure national cohesion in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State.

Hypotheses

Three null hypotheses were tested for this study.

Hypotheses One

Ho₁: There is no significant difference between the mean scores of teachers and educational managers on the extent to which teachers' right to fair hearing is protected for national cohesion in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State.

Table 4: Summary of z-test analysis and mean scores of teachers and managers on protection of teachers' right to fair hearing for national cohesion in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State

Participants	N	\bar{X}	SD	df	z-cal	z-crit	Decision
Teachers	250	20.29	9.90	398	0.092	1.960	Not significant
Managers	150	20.18	10.02				

Table 4 shows that at 0.05 alpha levels at 398 degree of freedom, the calculated and critical value of Z, are 0.092 and 1.960 respectively. Since the calculated value is less than the tabulated z-value, hypothesis one is therefore accepted. Thus, there is no significant difference between the views of teachers and school managers on protection of teachers' right to fair hearing for national cohesion in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State.

Hypotheses Two

Ho₂: There is no significant difference between the mean scores of teachers and educational managers on the extent to which teachers' right to freedom of expression and press is protected for national cohesion in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State.

Table 5: Summary of z-test analysis and mean scores of teachers and managers on protection of freedom of expression for national cohesion in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State

Participants	N	\bar{X}	SD	df	z-cal	z-crit	Decision
Teachers	250	21.34	10.25	398	0.766	1.960	Not significant
Managers	150	20.42	10.20				

Table 5 showed that 0.05 level of significance and 398 degree of freedom, the computed and tabulated value of Z are 0.766 and 1.960 respectively. Since the calculated value is less than the critical value of Z, the second hypothesis is accepted. Thus there is no significant difference between the views of teachers and managers on the protection of teachers' right to freedom of expression and press for national cohesion in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State.

Hypotheses Three

Ho₃: There is no significant difference between the mean scores of teachers and educational managers on the extent to which teachers' right to freedom of assembly and association is protected for national cohesion in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State.

Table 6: Summary of z-test analysis and mean scores of teachers and school managers on the protection of teachers’ right to assembly and association for national cohesion in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State.

Participants	N	\bar{X}	SD	df	z-cal	z-crit	Decision
Teachers	250	2.30	9.91	398	0.093	1.960	Not significant
Managers	150	2.19	10.04				

Table 6 shows that at 0.05 alpha level and 398 degree of freedom, the calculated Z-value was 0.093 while the critical z-value is 1.960. Since the calculated z-value is less than the critical value, the third hypothesis is accepted. Thus there is no significant difference between the mean scores of teachers and educational managers on measures taken to protect teachers’ right to freedom of assembly and association for national cohesion in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State.

5. Discussion

The first finding of this study shows that both teachers and educational managers were in agreement that the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State takes positive measures to protect teachers’ right to fair hearing in order to ensure national cohesion. Among the measures taken is to ensure that teachers are given fair hearing without discrimination, within reasonable time, and that members of disciplinary committee to handle cases are drawn from men and women who are morally upright, neutral and qualified to give fair judgement. This is in line with the constitutional requirement of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (1999) constitution. However the participants pointed out that there are still cases where an accused teacher is not properly informed of his offence; is presumed guilty even before trial; is not given copies of the trial and is victimized further if he appeals against an unjust ruling. This is contrary to the views of Alexander (2008), Barrel (2005) and Hamilton (2012).

The second finding of this study show that both teachers and school managers hold similar views on measures done to protect teachers’ right to freedom of expression and press in order to ensure national cohesion in the management of

Primary Education in Kebbi State were not adequate. This is a bad omen as it was shown that to a large extent primary school teachers are so intimidated that they are not given freedom to hold independent opinions that may not be favourable to the authorities. In most cases they are kept in the dark as they are blocked from receiving true information that may them favour through false propaganda. Even where they hold correct information on vital issues affecting them, they are not given freedom to express their opinion as they have no access to the press and other official channels. This is contrary to constitutional provisions of the (FRN, 1999) constitution. It was however also found that teachers were given some freedom to publish the truth especially in social media, keep confidential information and freedom to change the opinion as in the views of Jennings (2015).

The third finding of this study shows that both teachers and school managers had similar opinions to the effect that teachers right to freedom of assembly and association are adequately protected in order to ensure national cohesion in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State. Teachers freedom to assemble formally, informally and for the purpose of unionism and religious observances is protected. This is in line with the Federal Republic of Nigeria (1999) constitution of Nigeria. However it was also found that teachers are not encouraged to register with their professional associations and their right to attend social gatherings whether in schools or in the community are curtails. This is contrary to the views of Sagay (2007), Obilade (2007) and the provisions of Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN, 2004).

6. Conclusion

Based on the findings and implications of this study, the following conclusions were drawn:

Teachers' right to fair hearing, freedom of expression and the press, as well as freedom of association and assembly are protected in order to ensure national cohesion in the management of Primary Education in Kebbi State. But gray areas need to be addressed for improvement.

Protection of teachers' legal rights can enhance the spirit of national cohesion while the denial will have negative consequences on national cohesion.

7. Recommendations

The managers of Primary Education in Kebbi State should ensure that teachers' right to fair hearing should continue to be upheld by strict adherence to the laid down principles of due process as laid down by law and institutional regulations. This will give all teachers a sense of belonging irrespective of their place of origin. This in essence could help to enhance national cohesion

Teachers' right to freedom of expression should be safeguard to higher level by the management running an open administration and protecting teachers from victimization whenever they have reason to voice out their grievances.

The right to freedom of association could be enhanced by ensuring that all teachers who are professionally registered and registered with Teachers registration council of Nigeria (TRCN) and also sponsored to attend annual conferences of associations relevant to their subject areas. This will expose them to conferences in different parts of Nigeria and this to some extent will help forge national cohesion

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Foreign Aid: Nigerian Legal and Economic Albatross

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Abstract. The Nigerian economy is stunted in growth with its attendant poor living standard of the people. Despite the enormous resources and human capital at her disposal, it depends on foreign aid to execute its capital projects like other developing nations. Regrettably, this foreign aid is mismanaged and in some cases siphoned into private foreign accounts.

This article chronicles the concept of foreign aid, its distribution and international law implications on the sovereignty of the Nigerian State as well as the economic distress that comes in its wake among others.

1. Introduction

The dream of Africa free from hunger, sickness, ignorance, unemployment, social and cultural inequities, external pressures and aggression can only come true if the continent is self-sufficient, in other words through self-perpetuating development with the free and effective participation of the entire population. The historic possibility which lies before African Nation particularly Nigeria is a march towards neo-colonialism. This could come about in a situation where there is protracted economic stagnation due to recycling of debt-crises through unsolicited economic aid from the Western Countries.

Economic development in these countries has been poor to promote meaningful economic growth that can sustain its citizenry without recourse to some foreign aid or foreign investments. Even when some level of

development is attained with the contemporary sophistication of global economy, sufficient foreign exchange requirement to match the scenario is noticeably absent.³ More disgusting is that the necessary equipment, machinery and skills needed for independent economy will have to be imported from the colonial masters who are our new donors. According to Claude Ake: *what needs to be noted is the nature of the colonial monetary system as a cause, as well as an effect, of the integration of the African economies into western capitalism. The process of monetization went hand in hand with the spread of capitalist –relations of production, particularly because it led to the proletarianisation of the African peasant as well as some African entrepreneurs. The monetary system not only helped to create a capitalist economy but also a capitalist economy structurally dependent on foreign economies.*

1.1 Concept of Foreign Aid

The word “Aid” was defined by the Oxford Advanced Learners dictionary as “help: aid one another; and somebody to do something; aid somebody with money”. Interestingly the dictionary further linked the meaning with the developing country. It stated:

Help: aids programmes, those designed to give help as to developing countries. He came to my aid, came to help me. What is the collection in aid of, what is the money to be used for? Something that helped, visual aids, pictures, filling, fill in strips etc used in teaching, deaf

aid, appliance that helps a deaf person to hear.

However, in real economic setting, foreign aid extends beyond the dictionary connotation. Michael P. T and Stephen Smith in their book, "Economic Development," said that foreign aid consists of public bilateral and multilateral development assistance and private assistance provided by non-governmental organisations. They further stated that "all governmental resource transfers from one country to another should be included in the definition of foreign aid"⁷ Professor Green Nwankwo defined aid as "an assistance from foreign country." Aid then consists of loans, grants, industrial equipments, technical help among others .

The above definition of foreign aid by Smith and Michael raises a number of questions. This is because many resource transfers can take disguised forms such as granting of preferential tariffs by developed countries to less developed countries and exports of manufactured goods. Also not all transfers of capital to developing countries particularly the capital flows from private foreign investors constitute aids because they are underlined by profit motive although same is beneficial to the recipient country.

The economists have stated that foreign aid should manifest two distinctive features, namely the essence should not be profit driven and that the tenure of such loan should be concessional in the sense that the interest rate and repayment period should not be onerous

The economists perspective on foreign aid no doubt is more encompassing than those of Smith Stephen and Michael but it does not address the military aid which is both non-commercial and concessional.

The concept of foreign aid that is now widely accepted and applied is one that embraces all official grants and concessional loans, which is capable of transferring resources from developed countries to the developing nations which could either be in kind or in currency.

1.3 Distribution of Foreign Aid

Some foreign aid goes directly from governments such as those of U.S.A, U.K, France, USSR, Britain etc to the developing countries. When aid goes directly from one government to another it is usually called bilateral aid.

This is to distinguish if from the aid that comes from international financial institutions like the World Bank, International Monetary Fund, IMF and its affiliates which is called multilateral aid.

Most of the bilateral aids come from the former Colonial Master to their former colonies for political reasons. Foreign aid to the African countries come mainly from Britain and France. The United States spend billions of dollars abroad under its aid programme to finance its foreign policy agenda on policing the world which become prominent after the collapse of the Former Soviet Union.

Multilateral aid embraces aid from World Bank as stated earlier as well as other international financial institution like International Finance Corporation; IFC, International Development Association; IDA, and International Monetary Fund, IMF and Paris Club, among others.

Foreign aid assisted most of the advanced nations in their dark days particularly the economies of Europe. According to professor Green Nwankwo:

The economies of Europe were quickly reconstructed partly with aid from the World Bank, but mainly as a result of direct assistance from the United States under Marshall Aid Programme. Later attention was turned to helping the countries of Asia and Africa to develop their economies. The world powers were encouraged in this move by the success with which foreign capital was used to "redevelop" Europe after the devastation of the war.

The money volume of Official Development Assistance (ODA) which includes bilateral grants, loan and technical assistance as well as multilateral flows has grown from an annual

rate of \$4.6billion in 1960 to \$56 billion in 1999. However in terms of the percentage of developed country Gross National Product, GNP allocated to official development assistance, there has been a steady decline

from 0.51% in 1960 to 0.29% in 1999.¹³ The diagram below illustrates the official development assistance disbursements from major donors countries to Less Developed Countries in 1985 and 1999.

S/N	Donor Country	Billion of U.S dollars	Percentage of GNP	Billions of U.S Dollars	Percentage GNP
1	Canada	1.6	0.49	1.7	0.28
2	Denmark	NA	NA	1.7	1.01
3	France	4.0	0.78	5.6	0.39
4	Germany	2.9	0.47	1.8	0.26
5	Italy	1.1	0.26	15.3	0.15
6	Japan	3.8	0.29	3.1	0.35
7	Netherlands	1.1	0.91	1.6	0.79
8	Sweden	Na	NA	3.4	0.70
9	United Kingdom	1.5	0.33	9.1	0.23
10	United states	9.4	0.24	56.4	0.10
	Total	29.4	0.35		0.20

2. International Law Question in Aid Relationship Between the Developed and Developing Nations

The aid contacts have an important place in dealings between sovereign states. Economic aid is thus squarely in the arena of international law and diplomacy. Aid creates ground for diplomatic operation and international power policies. However this does not mean that the primary consideration in aid are or should be diplomatic or political . But since the aid operation is international, and especially inter-governmental, its success or otherwise in achieving whatever end is envisaged for it, depends on the attitudes that givers and receivers adopt towards each other in the agreement for such aid. According to Okolie Charles:

The basic quantitative difference between the various categories of approach to the aid operation concerns the donor government's attitude to the desirability of intervening in the affairs of the recipient. The aid-giver is faced with a number of choices, but the basic choice is between, on the one hand, a policy of deliberate intervention in the developing countries , which can take many forms and on the other hand, a policy of non-intervention or neutrality.

The concept of neutrality was further expounded by Andrez karassowski in his book, Aid Relationships, as having two broad forms knitted together. He said that “neutrality is internal and inter country” and that both of them start from the same premise. He further said that the object of aid is to make resources available without any attempt to influence their use either lay attaching conditions or by indirect persuasion; complete freedom of choice for the recipients is essential”. This is the type of aid required by the developing countries. Aid that will be free from entanglement and loaded with empirical interests.

Now comes the question of internal neutrality and how to achieve it, ie neutrality in the case of a single country and ignoring the possibility of aid being withheld- aid has to be in the form of freely convertible foreign exchange , all in grant form, and without any form of control.

Strict inter country neutrality is not possible by the donor-country. In this case, the developing nation will have to accept conditions drawn up by the rich or donor-nation. This creates room for discrimination in determining to whom aid should be allocated. Whatever the basis for making this determination will favour some countries and some policies and work against the economic and political position of others.

There are some arguments approving the intervention of the donor-countries based on the understanding that they have superior technical capacity, longer development initiative in the use of aid and the formulation of policies. This is called “influences and control approach”.

The second form of intervention called “involvement” which more or less provokes the recipient country to the thinking of the donor-countries in terms of policy formulation, ideologies and originality.

The involvement approach seems to maximize these points of contact in an all-embracing aid relationship and the donor seeks to make use of the opportunity offered by aid to perform the role of devil’s advocate. Former president of South Africa, Nelson Mandela captured the fate of poor countries in regards to aid issues thus:

It is to perpetuate difficulties of the South for the North to relate to us as helpless victims to dictate to regarding loans and the employment of aid.

The involvement approach sees the donor as bringing a certain view and a set of values, and confronting the recipient with them. The resulting clash of view and attitudes helps stimulate the recipients thinking and action. This involvement approach in the affairs of the recipient country is reactionary method of diplomacy which violates the principle of sovereignty in the international law. Political intervention should be separated from economic aid.

In contemporary international law, intervention in the domestic affairs of a state is a violation of the territorial integrity of a sovereign state. Most of the reactionary interventions in the world today are largely as a result of economic aid which has always been the means of protecting the foreign investments of the rich nations.

Another important aspect of the aid programme is donor countries aspiration to go beyond the aid scheme to begin to pry into the political and economic issues unrelated to the aid question.

The crisis in Cote d’Ivoire is more economic than political, it is believed that the French

government is after the life of president Gbagbo because he opposed the French economic intransigence in the country.

According to Koffi Charles, an Ivorian government official:

The French tried to help Quattara to steal the elections because they know they can use him to serve their interests in the country. Well, the French can choose to disrespect us as an African country but we are proud of who we are and will never, ever again allow them to bully and cheat us .

Most political crises in the middle East, Egypt, Afghanistan, Bahran, Sudan are sponsored from outside on purely selfish economic interests.

3. Foreign Aid and Nigerian Economic Distress

Foreign aid as earlier stated is comprised of loans, and grants, among others. Nigeria economic problem stemmed from its loan acquisition by her past leaders which opened the economy to the donors grips and manipulations. Of note was the \$38 billion debt crises which was accumulated capital and interests of loans acquired by the Nigeria military leaders.

In the words of Rose Umorem;

The various loans procured between 1975 and October 1979 although mostly untied, were targeted largely at some investments . These included paper mills, steel plant, refineries and power installation. One of the loans, the \$750 million from a consortium of German and Australian banks, was meant mainly for the Delta Steel project near Warri.

The 1978-79 borrowing could be described as the first phase of Nigerians external debt distress origins. Most of the loans was misapplied while in some cases siphoned away into private pockets and where the loans were invested same was done in unproductive and wasteful ventures. Colman and Nixen (1986) pointed out that Most Less Developed Countries (LDC) loans application including

Nigeria were ruled by shortsightedness and exaggerated optimism.

The 1978-79 loan crisis notwithstanding, the Shehu Shagari civilian government turned to be Nigeria's economic Achilles hill. The government opened negotiations with the International Monetary Fund, IMF, for another set of loans but was cut short by Mohammed Buhari in 1984. The negotiation with the International Monetary Fund, IMF, were taken over by Mohammed Buhari. The IMF loan opened a strange economic package for the citizens in the name of Structural Adjustment Programme whose standard of living plummeted in consequence of the hardships attending the loan procurement. This was preceded by the Economic Stabilization Act of 1982 which imposed "more stringent exchange control measures and import restrictions supported by appropriate monetary and fiscal measures"²⁴ which was one of the conditions given by the IMF.

There was 60% devaluation of the national currency, rationalization in the size of the public services, trade liberalization and removal of petroleum subsidy among others. J.C Anyanwu quoting Yesufu said that three factors underlined the rationale for the adoption of the Structural Adjustment Programme by the Federal Government. They are as follows:-

- An excessive dependent by the nation on imports especially consumer goods including food.
- Almost total neglect of domestic production in all the five sectors of the economy; agriculture, construction, commerce and transportation.
- Almost total dependence on earnings from oil exports alone for boosting government revenues as well as the accumulated foreign exchange reserve.

It is very important to note that the Structural Adjustment programme (SAP), substantially sowed the seed for the subsequent political and economic crises of the country in five major ways.

- It was totally externally directed, reducing to factory –line policy executors.
- It was totally externally formulated and the outcome was important only as it fulfilled the design and fitted the evaluation mould of the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund, IMF, both representing creditors, notably the group of seven, (G7) leading industrial countries –United States, Japan, Germany, France, Britain, Italy – the Organisation of Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) at large, and International Banks under the grouping London club. The evaluation mould was ideological in that SAP was being implemented at all levels regardless of how the statistics were collected.
- It was totally closed to healthy discourse the formula had to be adhered to. It thrived on the personality cult-dictatorship or such collective.
- It thrived in secrecy, near falsehood and falsehood. SAP was being presented to Nigerians as "homegrown" by both the bank and the Nigerian military leaderships. There was also the claim that external debts would contract when they actually ballooned. There were equally claims that fuel price would be untouched only for it to be repeatedly increased. Another claim was that IMF was not party to it yet it was the brain child of the organization.

The damage done on the Nigerian economy on account of these aids and consequent hardship on the citizen are incalculable.

4. Nigeria Privatization Programme; Product of Medieval and Capitalist Foreign Aid .

The Nigerian economy and development is very much dependent on the foreign participation even the indigenous petroleum that is the life wire of the nation is sold to them at their terms and same is sent back to

us by way of expensive manufactured products. The high level of European involvement in the economies of the developing countries of which Nigeria is one is what political economists refer to as state capitalism, a point when the capitalist state is met not only a guarantor of the capitalist order but also an inventor in capitalist monopoly concern.

The 1980s had witnessed the return of the conservatives to power in such countries as the United States, Britain, Western Germany, Greece, Australia, Italy and Spain all leading industrialized countries of the world. The triumph of these conservative forces was to bring to the fore, once again privatization as a policy for their political revival. This was subsequently adopted by the IMF and the World Bank as these agencies elevated it into a critical element of their Structural Adjustment Programme, SAP often recommended to the third world countries including Nigeria.³⁰

It was in the context of the prevailing global political economy of the 1980s that Nigeria conceived of and embarked upon the deliberate execution of the policy of privatization and commercialization as governed by market forces but that was to wait for Babangida Administration.

But if one may ask, what is the problem with the Nigerian economy?

Why do we have stunted growth in the economy over and over again?. Professor Akin Abogunje, The National Merit Award winner has the answer. He said:

Managers of the Nigerian Economy have in the policy area done the "Last thing first".

For S.O. Adeyemi:

The philosophy of Structural Adjustment Programme was predicated on demand management as a measure of cutting fiscal and external imbalance with restrictive monetary policy, the ultimate objective was to achieve non-inflationary growth and to stimulate domestic production of tradable goods. The programme was to achieve a sustainable external debt service profile and enhance domestic saving and investment and in the inflow of external resources.

The way and manner the privatization programme of the Federal Government was and is being executed has given cause for worry. During the 6th Senate, no fewer than twenty petitions were received from workers and share holders who were at the receiving end of the exercise³³. Thousands of Nigerians lost their jobs across the country. In Nigerian Tele communication, Nitel, alone over 8,000 workers were layed off in an economy that is plagued with youth unemployment³⁴ and armed robbery. The burden inflicted on the productive Industry by failure of electricity supply and its enormous effect on the standard of living brings to question the colossal amount purportedly wasted on the project during Obasanjo government.

The House of representative set up a Committee to investigate the whopping amount purportedly spent on power and recommended in its report that \$13.27s billion was spent by Obasanjo government during the period without any result. Foreign aid is useful in a country that has good and responsible leadership, not in a corrupt country like Nigeria with inept government.

5. Do African Countries Need Aid?

There is no country in the world that is self-sufficient. Every successful nation need other states in at least where her comparative disadvantage in high. According to Richards William

Nations such as Nigeria are indeed in need of aid, but not in the form of money ,clothes or even food. Nigerians need jobs, the faith of its people in their government, and a sound economy that will grow and prosper in the years to come.

Laura Miller said that "the main objective of bilateral aid is not always humanitarian reliefs but also used to strengthen fragile or strategic States and improve trade relations with the West. Money from the World Bank is often geared towards large infrastructural projects such as water systems and road networks. Usually the recipient government is

responsible for managing funds given by the World Bank. Some countries governments are more transparent and provide more oversight over aid than others³⁷. Instead of putting the aid into profitable ventures as canvassed by Miller, African leaders take loans to keep afloat. The number of our political leaders facing money laundering and corruption charges attest to this that foreign loans is not the best option for Nigeria.

6. Recommendations

- The Federal Government should strengthen her security agencies to live up to the global standard in ensuring the security of lives and property of its citizens and foreigners alike. Their intelligence gathering machinery should be strengthened. There can be no meaningful investment and development without security. The recent upsurge in bomb blasts in the country is capable of keeping the foreign investors outside our borders.³⁹
- Foreign Assistance in whatever form should be properly managed and invested in productive ventures meant for them.
- Loans acquired from abroad should be free from strings and government given free hand to determine the windows.
- Privatization programme embarked upon by the federal government should be overhauled. Members of the National Council on Privatization should be subject to senate screening to ensure their suitability and geographical spread⁴⁰.
- Employment generation and power sector should be aggressively pursued to open up the economy.
- All labour issues should be promptly addressed and not allowed to attract usual months of strikes which shortchange the economy particularly the Gross National Product, GNP..

7. Conclusions

Foreign aid to the developing nations is a fundamental foreign policy of the West to

regain the control of the lost colonies and thereby dictate their domestic affairs. The recipient countries including Nigeria should be on her guard when entering into negotiations with any foreign partner in this regard.

Moreover, corruption and inept leadership is more of the economic problem than the aid procurement. According to Richard William, "corruption is a staple of the Nigerian government and stains most of the state agencies that could use the help of U.S foreign aid."

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Assessment of Awareness of Legal Duties of School Personnel in Secondary Schools in Kebbi State, Nigeria

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Abstract. This paper assessed the awareness of legal duties of school personnel in secondary schools in Kebbi State, Nigeria. The paper raised three research questions focusing on legal duties of teachers, school administrators and students. In conducting this study a descriptive survey design was used. A validated instrument titled: Assessment of Legal Duties of School Personnel Questionnaire (ALSPQ) with a reliability index of 0.83 was used to collect. A population of 400 participants from four Education Zones of Kebbi State made up of 20 Principals and 60 Vice Principals was deliberately selected, while 120 Teachers and 200 Students were selected by Stratified and Simple Random Sampling Techniques. The instrument was based on a 4 point Likert Scale with Criterion Mean of 2.50 for acceptance and rejection. Mean Set was used to determine Rank Order of items while Aggregate Mean Set was used to decide on the level of awareness. The findings indicated that teachers, principals and students had a good awareness of their legal duties. The paper therefore recommended the continuous improvement of awareness of legal duties through seminars; workshops; training of school principals on Education Law as well as updating Students Handbook to upgrade rules and penalties for violation.

Keywords: Legal Duties, School Personnel, Awareness, Education Law.

1. Introduction

The survival and progress of schools depends largely on the extent to which schools personnel perform their duties efficiently and effectively. But the satisfactory fulfilment of duty to a large extent depends on the level of awareness school administrators, teachers and students have on the duties imposed on them by law (McLeod, 2003). Education Law as expressed in policies, rules and school regulations describes what should be done and what should not be done by school personnel for the smooth managing of school affairs (Ogunu, 2015). Awareness of legal duties that fall within the purview of every school personnel is necessary to avoid cases of negligence, breach of contract and other actions that might lead to legal entanglements (Barrel, 2005). School personnel in this paper refer to teachers, school administrators, and students. Staff comprises of teachers and school administrators. Awareness is the level of consciousness of one's legal responsibilities

1.1 Statement of Problem

It is generally assumed that all teachers, students and school administrators are aware of their legal duties as spelt out in student handbooks, staff regulations and other laws that guide academic and co-curricular activities in the school system. Anuna (2004) however, noted that there is a high level of ignorance among teachers and students on the scope of their legal duties. That is probably the reason why there are increasing cases of negligence of duty by

teachers, misconduct by students, as well as violation of due process by some school administrators. Thus, the main thrust of this study is to assess the level of awareness of legal duties of school principals, teachers and students in secondary schools in Kebbi State. This is with a view to increasing the level of awareness of school personnel on the scope of their legal duties so as to enhance satisfactory fulfillment of their obligations.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this paper include:

- To find out the level of awareness of staff and students on the legal duties of teachers in secondary schools in Kebbi State.
- To investigate the level of awareness of staff and students in the legal duties of school administrators in secondary schools in Kebbi State.
- To ascertain the level of awareness of staff and students on the legal duties of students in secondary schools in Kebbi State.

1.3 Research Questions

The following research questions were raised to guide the conduct of this study.

- What is the level of awareness of staff and students on the legal duties of teachers in secondary schools in Kebbi State?
- What is the level of awareness of staff and students on the legal duties of school administrators in secondary schools in Kebbi State?
- What is the level of awareness of staff and students on the legal duties of students in Kebbi State?

2. Review of Related Literature

Teachers play a significant role in the success of school policies and programme. In this regard, they must be fully aware of their duties and responsibilities. According to Alexander (2008),

the first legal duty of teachers is to attend classes regularly and punctually every working day of the week. Fuller (2009) pointed out that the primary duty of teachers is to teach efficiently and effectively. In addition, teachers have the legal duties to engage in continuous assessment of students by way of assignments, tests and examinations (Fisher 2007). According to Hamilton (2010) teachers are expected by law to process student's examination results promptly and release the result in record time. Jennings (2015) stated that teachers are expected to keep and update relevant school records within their line of duty. Manga (2018) outlined teacher's legal duties to include exercising reasonable care to ensure the safety and security of students under their care; discipline erring students; render community service in their area of specialization; as well as maintenance of school property and facilities in their care. Malemi (2017) opines that teachers have a legal duty to participate actively in all school co-curricular activities as well as diligently discharge all additional responsibilities and ad hoc duties that might be assigned to them by the school head.

School administrators' job is guided by law. According to Nwagwu (2007), the legal duties of school administrators include the formulation of plans and policies; enforcement of rules and regulations that will guide the activities and conduct of staff and students; assigning duties, tasks and responsibilities to teachers and non-teaching staff; directing all academics and co-curricular activities and supervision of all school personnel. Obilade (2009) notes that school heads, have the duty to discipline staff and students; Cather for their welfare and ensure the security of lives and property in the school environment. Okonkwo (2010) stated that school administrators have legal duty to keep custody of vital records, manage school finances, ensure proper utilization and maintenance of school facilities as well as protect the image of the school. Sagay (2007) highlighted school administrator's duties to include: maintaining cordial school-communal relations as well as ensuring the attainment of the vision and mission of the school within the context of national philosophy and societal expectations.

Students are the number one beneficiaries of the education system and such; they have legal duties and responsibility for attainment of educational goals. Ujo (2007) notes that the fundamental legal duties of students include attending school and lessons regularly and punctually; do all their assignments, tests and examinations in accordance with the rules and regulations. The Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN, 2004) states that students must at all conduct themselves in orderly manner. They are expected to observe safety regulations, report security threats and obey school rules and regulations (Ogunu, 2015; Tsav, 2017 & Madumere, 2007).

3. Methodology

This study adopted a descriptive survey design. The population of the study comprised of 400 students and 200 staff from 20 secondary schools drawn from four Educational Zones in Kebbi State. The school comprises of those in urban and rural areas, Day and Boarding schools, as well as single sex and mixed sexed schools. They also include Science Schools, Technical Colleges and Grammar Schools. The staff comprises of Principals, Vice Principals and teachers of various specializations and qualifications. Stratified random sampling technique was used to select 20 schools. Purposive sampling was used to select all the 20 principals and 60 vice principals. Deliberate and simple random sampling techniques were used to select 120 teachers and 400 students. This gives a total population sample of 600 participants.

A researcher designed questionnaire titled: Awareness of Legal Duties of School Personnel Questionnaire

(ALDSPQ) with three sections was used to collect data. The instrument was validated by experts in Education Law. Test re-test method was used to obtain a reliability index of 0.83 using Pearson Correlation Coefficient at 0.05 alpha level. A four point Likert Scale was used and Criterion Mean of 2.50 and above was used for acceptance, while below 2.50 was used for rejection. The Mean Set of the two groups was used to determine the Rank Order of the items while the Aggregate Mean of all the items was used to determine the level of awareness. And aggregate mean of 2.50 and above indicated high awareness while below 2.50 indicated poor awareness. Trained research assistants were used to administer the instruments on the selected schools. All the copies of the instrument administered where retrieved and used for the analysis.

4. Results

Results of research questions one to three were presented and analyzed in tables one to three.

Research Question 1: What is the level of awareness of staff and students on the legal duties of teachers in secondary schools in Kebbi state?

This research question was answered and presented in table 1.

Table 1: Awareness of Legal Duties of Teachers in Secondary Schools in Kebbi State.

S/N	Legal Duties of Teachers	Staff		Students		Mean Set	Rank Order	Decision
		\bar{x}_1	SD	\bar{x}_2	SD			
1	Attend school and class regularly	3.80	0.80	2.75	0.67	3.28	2 nd	Accept
2	Attend school and class punctually	3.04	0.65	3.12	0.72	3.08	6 th	Accept
3	Teach efficiently and effectively	3.19	0.89	3.14	0.78	3.16	4 th	Accept
4	Assess and examine students	2.68	0.83	2.80	0.81	2.74	11 th	Accept
5	Process and release results promptly	3.31	0.74	3.38	0.61	3.35	1 st	Accept
6	Keep and update school records	3.00	0.71	2.93	0.74	2.97	7 th	Accept
7	Ensure student safety and security	2.85	0.81	3.01	0.72	2.93	9 th	Accept
8	Discipline erring students	3.05	0.66	2.74	0.75	2.90	10 th	Accept
9	Participate in co-curricular activities	3.20	0.90	3.13	0.82	3.17	3 rd	Accept
10	Discharge additional responsibilities	2.75	0.84	3.15	0.77	2.95	8 th	Accept
11	Render community service	3.33	0.64	2.87	0.63	3.10	5 th	Accept
Aggregate Mean Set		3.10	0.77	3.00	0.72	2.81		Accept

Table 1 indicates that all items had mean set above the criterion mean of 2.50. They were all accepted as legal duties of teachers in secondary schools in Kebbi State. The Aggregate Mean Set of 2.81 suggests that teachers in secondary school in Kebbi State have a high level of awareness of their legal duties.

Research Question 2: What is the level of awareness of staff and students on the legal duties of school administration in secondary schools in Kebbi state?

This research question was answered and presented on table 2.

Table 2: Awareness of Legal Duties of School Administrators in Secondary Schools in Kebbi State.

S/N	Legal Duties of School Administrators	Staff		Students		Mean Set	Rank Order	Decision
		\bar{x}_1	SD	\bar{x}_2	SD			
1	Attend office regularly and punctually	2.90	0.89	2.89	0.66	2.90	1 st	Accept
2	Formulates rules and regulations	2.55	0.70	2.84	0.72	2.70	7 th	Accept
3	Enforce rules and regulations	2.80	0.60	2.79	0.78	2.80	4 th	Accept
4	Assign duties, tasks and responsibilities	2.65	0.81	2.64	0.81	2.65	9 th	Accept
5	Direct and supervise school activities	2.70	0.88	2.69	0.61	2.69	8 th	Accept
6	Resolves conflicts	2.75	0.75	2.74	0.74	2.75	6 th	Accept
7	Discipline erring staff and students	2.60	0.80	2.59	0.72	2.60	11 th	Accept
8	Cater for welfare of staff and students	2.85	0.90	2.85	0.82	2.85	2 nd	Accept
9	Keep custody of vital school records	2.57	0.77	2.56	0.85	2.57	12 th	Accept
10	Manage school finances	2.76	0.61	2.76	0.86	2.76	5 th	Accept
11	Ensure safety and security all	2.63	0.83	2.62	0.76	2.63	10 th	Accept
12	Maintain school facilities	2.84	0.78	2.83	0.77	2.84	3 rd	Accept
13	Maintain school-community relationship	2.55	0.75	2.54	0.73	2.55	13 th	Accept
14	Attainment of school vision and mission	2.50	0.65	2.51	0.70	2.51	14 th	Accept
Aggregate Mean Set		2.69	0.77	2.70	0.75	2.60		Accept

Table 2 shows that all items had the mean set score above the criterion mean 2.50. They were accepted as legal duties of school administrators in secondary schools in Kebbi state. The Aggregate Mean Set of 2.60 suggests that school administrators in Kebbi State secondary schools have a high awareness of their legal duties.

Research Question 3: What is the level of awareness of staff and students on legal duties of students in secondary schools in Kebbi state?

This research question was answered and presented in table 3.

Table 3: Awareness of Legal Duties of Students in Secondary Schools in Kebbi State

S/N	Legal Duties of Students	Staff		Students		Mean Set	Rank Order	Decision
		\bar{x}_1	SD	\bar{x}_2	SD			
1	Attend school and lessons regularly	3.33	0.64	2.87	0.63	3.10	6 th	Accept
2	Attend school classes punctually	2.75	0.84	3.15	0.77	2.95	9 th	Accept
3	Do assignment, tests and examinations	3.20	0.90	3.13	0.82	3.18	3 rd	Accept
4	Maintain orderly conduct at all times	3.05	0.66	2.74	0.75	2.90	11 th	Accept
5	Observe safety regulations	2.85	0.81	3.01	0.72	2.93	10 th	Accept
6	Obey school rules and regulations	3.00	0.71	2.93	0.74	2.97	8 th	Accept
7	Pay required school fees	3.31	0.74	3.38	0.61	3.35	1 st	Accept
8	Maintain a clean school environment	2.68	0.83	2.80	0.81	2.74	12 th	Accept
9	Attend to co-curricular activities	3.19	0.89	3.14	0.78	3.17	4 th	Accept
10	Be security conscious	3.17	0.87	3.16	0.79	3.16	5 th	Accept
11	Protect the good image of the school	3.80	0.80	2.75	0.67	3.28	2 nd	Accept
12	Obey established school routine	3.13	0.81	2.78	0.70	3.06	7 th	Accept
Aggregate Mean Set		3.12	0.79	3.07	0.67	3.30		Accept

Table 3 shows that all the items had mean set above the criterion mean of 2.50. They were all accepted as legal duties of students in secondary schools in Kebbi state. The Aggregate Mean Set of 3.30 suggests that students in secondary school in Kebbi State are highly aware of their legal duties.

5. Discussions of Findings

The first finding of this study shows that both staff and students have good awareness of the legal duties of teachers in secondary schools in Kebbi state. This finding is in line with Alexandra (2008), Fuller (2009), Bernard (2005), Hamilton (2010) and Jennings (2015) all of who agreed that the legal duties of teachers include attendance of school and classes; teaching; examinations; record keeping; discipline of students; ensuring student's safety and security; performance of community service; and other ad hoc responsibilities. But the fact that several cases of negligence of duty by teachers abound in schools is a pointer that poor performance of duty is caused by other factors rather than ignorance of their legal duties. The causes of negligence of duty could stem from deliberate acts of omission or commission; corruption; indiscipline; lack of interest on the job; and professional incompetence among others.

The second finding of this study shows that school administrators in secondary schools in Kebbi have a good awareness of their legal duties. This agrees with Nwagwu (2007), Obilade (2009) Okonkwo (2010) and Sagay (2007) who posited that the duties of school administrators include formulation of plans and policies; directing all school activities; supervision of staff and students; as well as management of human, material and financial resources. This suggests that if there are cases of dereliction of duty by school administrators, it may not be due to lack of awareness but due to intervening factors not captured in this study. Some of the cause of negligence of duty by school administrators could be due to deliberate actions; non-challant attitude; external pressures; and poor managerial abilities among others.

The third finding of this study shows that students in secondary schools in Kebbi State are aware of their legal duties. This finding agrees with Iyo (2007), Ogunu (2015), Tsav (2017). This finding is supervising considering rampant cases of gross misconduct, truancy and disobedience exhibited across the school. It suggests that neglect of their legal duties probably stems from deliberate volition; peer

influence; lack of severe penalties and other factors not investigated by this study.

6. Conclusion

This study found that teachers, students and school administrators in secondary schools in Kebbi state are aware of their respective legal duties. In spite of their awareness there are still rampant cases of negligence of duty by teachers, school administrators and students in some schools. The violating of legal duties is not due to ignorance of legal duties but probably due to other factors not investigated by this study.

7. Recommendations

- Teacher awareness of legal duties should be improved by giving them opportunity to attend seminars, workshop and teaching programmes on Education Law.
- School administrators should be encouraged to pursue postgraduate programmes in the area of Educational Management so as to expose them to sound theoretical knowledge of education law for proper application in School Administration.
- Student Handbook should be regularly updated to provide more comprehensive rules and penalties for violation of school laws.

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Part Four

Education Management

Some Non-Cognitive Factors as Correlates of Senior Secondary School Students' Achievement in Mathematics

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Abstract. This study investigated some non-cognitive factors as correlates of senior secondary (SS) students' achievement in mathematics in Ogun state. It adopted the non-experimental research design with two research questions raised. A sampling proportion to size was employed in selecting 26 SS from 254 schools in the state. An arm of intact class SS 2 students was selected from each school. Purposive sampling technique was used to select all the SSS 2 mathematics teachers. TQ; MAT; SQ; and PCEOS were developed, validated and their reliability coefficient values were 0.89; 0.75; 0.91; and 0.85 respectively. Data analyzed used was Multiple Regression statistical analysis. The findings revealed that the combinations of the independent variables accounted for 3.2% of the total variance observed in the students' achievement in mathematics and significant. Hence, it is recommended that there should be frequent school inspection coupled with the teachers' welfare, students' achievement in mathematics would be improved.

Key words: Students' mobility, Frequency of Inspection, Teachers' job satisfaction, Classroom Environment Observation and achievement

1. Background to the study

A strong foundation on early education makes it clear in its report that the academic success of the students or schools will be assessed through annual students' achievement tests (UNESCO, 2003). Although many educators and advocacy groups raised serious concerns regarding the use of achievement scores as the single measure of success and failure of students, most people believe that schools used to be held to a higher standard of accountability (Rosenshine, 2001). In other words, people believe that cognitive ability alone should not be used in measuring or assessing the students' performance because there are factors that contribute to positive behavioural changes in students. Nevertheless, there are evidences that revealed that some variables are significant to school effectiveness through teachers' perceptions. Such variables include students' mobility, teachers' job satisfaction, physical classroom environment and school inspection (Corcoran, 1985 and Abiodun, 2008).

According to one of the reports of the West African Examinations Council (WAEC) Chief examiners (2012), academic success in the public schools in Nigeria is significantly low and decreases yearly. Despite all the efforts made by the teachers, principals and even the school inspectors to keep up with monitoring of every aspect of the school programmes (WAEC, 2012). People kept on thinking on academic works for assessing students' achievement and that is why the stakeholders measure

performance using cognitive ability alone and this has consistently brought about poor performance of the students in mathematics but if non cognitive factors are taken into consideration during the students' assessment, this might likely enhance better performance. Therefore, cognitive and non-cognitive factors should be put into consideration in assessing students' achievement. The school factors are the existing structures, which indicate the existence of a school in an environment and where learning is taking place. These factors can be cognitive and non-cognitive in nature. The most neglected are the non-cognitive school factors like physical classroom environment, teacher's job satisfaction, school inspections, students' mobility to mention but a few.

Studies have revealed that teachers do not make any deliberate attempt to teach affective outcomes in mathematics and as such, most instructions and consequent evaluation are directed towards the cognitive skills (Obemeata, 1983; Mansaray & Ayanleke, 1995). The study of Kissocks and Iyortsum (1982) gave credence to this submission. They claimed that too many teachers pay more attention to recall learning, which requires students simply to repeat information. They further contended that teachers also avoid the affective aspect of learning, which directs students to make judgments and consider the values, attitudes, feeling, interests, beliefs and emotions they have that influence their actions.

The tendency to neglect affective and psychomotor outcomes in the evaluation of students in mathematics may be attributed to the narrow meaning, which is often given to evaluation and failure on the part of teachers to make a distinction between formative and summative evaluation. Furthermore, Ale (1999) asserted that the general failure of teachers to systematically evaluate affective outcomes of learning in mathematics could be due to difficulties in defining affective objective with a level similar to academic or cognitive objective.

It is desirable that affective and psychomotor outcomes be evaluated in mathematics. Affective outcomes for example have been

found to be as important as intelligence in the process of education and in the practical affairs of everyday life; as such they must be emphasized in the teaching of mathematics since one of the major goals of the mathematics curriculum is to effectively form the affective behaviours of the learners. Further, concerns for the school role in emotional and personal development of the children have been rooted in the teaching of mathematics, as such there must be adequate evaluation which will focus on the three domains (affective, cognitive and psychomotor).

Students' mobility as one of the factors mentioned above is the movement of students from one school to another. Another study found that between 30% and 40% of school changes are not associated with residential relocation (Abiodun, 2008). Furthermore, Corcoran (1985) found out that the negative impact on educational achievement for students and school creating an achievement gap between mobile and non-mobile students. Frequent relocation interrupts regular attendance and continuity of it. Further studies have examined the impact of mobility on several aspects of academic achievement test scores, retention and even tone of a school (Abiodun, 2008; Rumberger, 2011).

Another factor being considered in this study is School inspection. School inspection involves the interaction of human beings with each other (inspectors and the inspected) through a variety of formal procedures and conceptions, with the aim of making sense of some social situations in the classroom. Rutter (1983) and Reynolds (1989) have shown that the kind of social practice which inspection represents can be differently understood according to the theoretical perspective. Inspection is to be contrasted with those forms of internal evaluation where the members of an institution carry out the evaluation.

Apart from school inspection, there are other non-cognitive factors like teacher's job satisfaction. The negative attitude of students towards learning always affects teacher's job satisfaction adversely and lowers teachers' self-esteem. Reynolds (1985) in a study of job

satisfaction that focused on high school business teachers in Ohio identified 27 factors that were significant for a high level of students' learning outcomes. Michael (2006) found out that achievement in the job, the work itself and recognition contribute to satisfaction in teaching. The result of inspections also includes the report on Physical classroom environment and school activities to mention but a few. The physical classroom environment is the suitability of the classroom environment and the physical present of students, which depict the existence of a learning environment. It includes the lighting, colour, relevant teaching materials, classroom spacing and sitting arrangement.

Based on this background, this study was therefore to investigate the correlates of some non-cognitive factors (students' mobility, teachers' job satisfaction, frequency of school inspection and physical classroom environment) on the students' achievement in senior secondary school mathematics.

2. Research questions

With the context of the stated problem, this study is interested in finding answers to the following research questions:

- What are the composite contributions of students' mobility, teachers' job satisfaction, school inspection and physical classroom environment to the students' achievement in senior secondary school mathematics?
- What is the relative contribution of each of students' mobility, teachers' job satisfaction, school inspection and physical classroom environment to the students' achievement in senior secondary school mathematics?

3. Methods

Research type: The non-experimental type of research of survey was used in this study. This was chosen because the manifestations of the variables were assumed to have already occurred.

Population: The target population for this study comprised all senior secondary two students and their teachers in government-owned senior secondary schools in Ogun state.

Sampling technique and sample: Multi-stage sampling technique was used in this study:

1. The local government areas were stratified into four existing administrative divisions in the state (Ijebu, Remo, Egba, and Yewa).
2. a sampling proportion to size was employed in selecting 26 senior secondary schools from available 254 schools in the selected local government areas using ratio 1:10.
3. an arm of intact class SSS 2 students were selected from each school through a simple random sampling procedure. These students were available and not prepared for external examinations
4. Purposive sampling technique was used to select all the mathematics teachers teaching senior secondary school students II in the selected class.

Instrumentation: The following four instruments were used in this study:

Teacher's Questionnaire (TQ);
 Mathematics Achievement Test (MAT);
 Students' Questionnaire (SQ);
 Physical Classroom Environment Observational Scale (PCEOS)

Teacher's Questionnaire (TQ) was constructed and validated by the researcher. It had three sections. Section A elicited information on the teacher's biography while section B comprised of information on the basic needs that can bring job satisfaction if they are adequately supplied. It had a modified four- point likert scale of Strongly Agree (SA); Agree (A); Disagree (D); Strongly Disagree (SD). Section C contained information on school inspection. It also had a modified four- point likert scale of Strongly Agree (SA); Agree (A); Disagree (D); Strongly Disagree (SD). The scoring was done using codes. The coding sheet comprised of the following: the sex was coded with male equals 1 and female equals 2. The age was 21-30 (1); 31-40 (2); 41-above (3) while the educational level was followed suite Med (1); First degree (2); NCE (3). Marital status also was coded Single

(1); Married (2); Widow (3); Widower (4); Separated (5). Sections B and C were scored on a modified four point likert scale of Strongly Agree (4); Agree (3); Disagree (2); Strongly Disagree (1) for positive statement items. Negative statement items were reversed. Reliability coefficient value of TQ was computed to be 0.89 using Cronbach Alpha's formula.

Mathematics Achievement Test (MAT): This instrument was used to measure the students' achievement in mathematics. Forty multiple-choice questions were developed and validated by the researcher from the Senior secondary school 2 mathematics curriculum used in schools in Ogun state. Before the selection of forty items, 100 items were trial tested on 50 students in two selected schools (not the selected schools in the study). The item difficulty of the test varied from 0.4-0.6 and items with high indices of discriminations were selected. Kuder-Richardson (K-R 20) was used to establish the reliability of MAT, which is 0.75.

Students' Questionnaire (SQ): The SQ was developed and validated by the researcher. The SQ elicited information on the students' biography, and students' mobility. It consisted of two sections. Section A contained both introduction and some demographic information of the respondents. Section B consisted of statements to elicit information on students' mobility where the respondents ticked YES or NO as applicable. The reliability of SQ was determined to be 0.91 using Split Halve.

Physical Classroom Environment Observational Checklist (PCEOC) The PCEOC used to find out the availability of instructional materials in government-owned Senior secondary schools was developed by the researcher. It comprised of two sections. Section A consisted of information on the standard classroom environment while section B consisted of items for obtaining information

about instructional materials available in the classroom. The checklist was used to rate the classroom environment in terms of Present, Inadequately present and Not present. The scoring procedure was done using Present (3), Inadequately present (2) and Not present (1). The Coefficient reliability value of PCEOC was calculated to be 0.85 using Cronbach Alpha's formula.

Data Collection: The researcher and ten research assistants carried out the data collection. The research assistants were the student teachers from Faculty of Education, Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye posted to different schools within Ogun state for six weeks of Teaching Practice Exercise between 6th may and 19th June, 2009. The research assistants were adequately guided in the procedures for administration of the instruments through instructions and trial testing sessions. In the first day, the researcher and research assistants had an ample rapport with the students, teachers and the school principals. The other days were used for the administration of the Mathematics Achievement Test (MAT) and the PCEOC. The TQ and SQ were the first instruments administered.

Data Analysis Procedure: The Multiple Regression statistical analysis (ANOVA) was used in analyzing the data collected.

4. Results and Interpretation

Research question 1: What are composite contributions of the students' mobility, school inspection, teachers' job satisfaction and physical classroom environment to the students' achievement in senior secondary school mathematics?

This question was answered with multiple regression analysis. To answer this research question, students' achievement in mathematics was regressed on the four predictors (independent variables as the result is presented in tables 1a and b.

Table 1a: Model summary of regression analysis

Model	Value
Multiple R	0.144
R square	0.032
Adj R ²	0.018
Std error	6.307

Table 1b: Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

Model	Sum of Square	df	Mean square	F-ratio	Sign value
Regression	879.139	4	219.785	5.255	0.000
Residual	40141.031	1009	39.783		
Total	41020.171	1013			

The results as shown in Table 1a shows that the combination of students’ mobility, teachers satisfaction, frequency of inspection and physical classroom environment have a positive relationship (**R = 0.144**) with the (**R² = 0.032**) of the variation in students’ achievement as explained by the linear regression. The combination of these variables however explained 3,2% of the variance in the students’ achievement in senior secondary schools mathematics as shown by the coefficient of determination.

The Table 1b indicates that combination independent variables to students’ achievement in mathematics is statistically significant (**F_(4,1009) = 5.255; P < 0.05**). This implies that the multiple correlation of 0.144 observed between students’ mobility, teachers satisfaction, frequency of inspection and physical classroom environment is not by chance as the F-ratio of 5.255 (P<0.05) obtained is significant.

Research question 2: What is the relative contribution of each of the four predictors to the students’ achievement in Senior secondary school mathematics?

Table 2: Relative contribution of the independent variables to the prediction of students’ achievement in mathematics

Model	Unstandardized coeff		Standardized coeff β	t value	Sign
	β	std error			
Constant	32.102	2.296		13.981	.000
Studs M	.346	.319	0.034	1.083	.000
Inspection	-.954	.234	0.134	-4.074	.000
Trs Job S	-.271	.049	-0.020	-1.662	.000
Class envir	8.872	.102	0.029	0.866	.387

The Table 2 shows the linear regression equation

$$Y = 32.102 + .346x_1 - .954 x_2 - .271 x_3 + 8.872 x_4$$

Where

x_1 = Students’ mobility; x_2 = Frequency of Inspection; x_3 = Teachers’ job satisfaction; x_4 = Classroom Environment Observation

As indicated in the Table 2, results shown under parameter estimate indicate that the unstandardised coefficient of frequency of inspection and teachers’ job satisfaction have a negative relationship with students’ achievement in senior secondary mathematics. The other variables are however positively related to contributions of each of the variables to students’ achievement in senior secondary mathematics, it was discovered that students’ mobility, frequency of inspection and teachers’ job satisfaction had significant (P<0.05) combination to the explanation of students’

achievement in mathematics. It had been observed that the students’ mobility, teachers’ satisfaction, and frequency of inspection are related to their students’ achievement in senior secondary mathematics except physical classroom environment. Hence, teachers and educational administrators should understand these variables on students’ achievement in mathematics through participation in the seminars/workshops and conferences adequate information would be provided to the teachers and educational administrators regarding their

success at reaching the students with the possible results of improvement.

5. Discussion of the findings

The findings revealed that the combinations of the independent variables (Students' mobility, Frequency of Inspection, Teachers' job satisfaction and Classroom Environment Observation accounted for 3.2% of the total variance observed in the students' achievement in mathematics, though not highly correlated but it is significant. This is line with the findings of Obemeata (1998) and Adeagbo (2001) concluded that if all the factors, which are school indicators, cognitive and non-cognitive are well provided; it will enhance students' achievement.

Furthermore, the findings of this study reveals that the more the school inspection, the better the students' achievement in mathematics, and also the more the students' mobility, the more the students' achievement decreases; this is an indication that students' mobility and school inspection have an overwhelming influence on students' achievement in secondary school mathematics than the other variables. This is an indication that if there is a regular school inspection with good reports on the activities going on in the school, it will enhance students' learning outcomes (Ale, 1999 and Alio & Paters, 2000). It is also in line the studies of Erinosh (2004) and Jegede (2004) concluded that it is not in the best interest of the educational system to neglect the inspection of schools they further stated that inspection, if properly executed can lead to positive improvement in the students' learning outcomes. While Okpala (2004) opined that frequency of school inspection would increase the school standard and students' learning outcomes will be enhanced. Finally, Abiodun (2008) found out that students' mobility leads to a host of problems for teachers and schools, such as the difficulty in matching needed services to students and classroom's disruptions caused by students coming and going through the year.

6. Recommendations and Conclusion

The following recommendations and conclusion are:

- The government and educational planners should be aware that there is teachers' job dissatisfaction, which can easily reduce their performances. However, the teachers are the major instruments at the implementation stage and since there will not be any better output if the implementation stage is faulty. Therefore, the governments or the stakeholders must appreciate that the teachers' job dissatisfaction can cause poor achievement and look into the teachers' welfare.
- The ministry of education should not limit frequent students' mobility and give order or a rule that would stop the principals from taking students from another schools thorough investigation. However, frequent school inspection coupled with the teachers' welfare and students' achievement in mathematics should be improved.

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Lecturers' Participation in Training and Development by Status as Capacity Building Mechanism for Quality Education: A Study of Nigerian Universities In The South-South Geo-Political Zone

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Abstract. This research report is a derivation from an earlier study by Anho, (2012), on the relationship between human resource development and lecturers productivity for quality assurance in Nigerian Universities. This report particularly looked at the level of lecturer's participation in training and development by status as capacity building mechanism for quality education. The research used the ex-post-facto design. The target population was all the lecturers in federal and state universities in the South-South geo-political zone of Nigeria as at 2009/2010 academic session. This made up of 4562 lecturers in the six states in the zone. The random sampling technique was used to obtain twenty percent (20%) of the population i.e. the sample figure is six hundred and eighty-seven (687), The main instrument used was the Anho (2012) adopted questionnaire on human resource development and lecturer's productivity. The indices used are; number of conferences, seminars, workshops, and other short term or long-term courses attended, publications made before and after training, technical reports published, researches conducted and published among others. Particularly, lecturers pedagogical skills such as; quality of lectures delivered, quality of lecture, methods used, quality knowledge of human and learning psychology, quality questioning mechanism, etc. The Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and the Scheffe's test were used to test the hypothesis. The findings that emerged were that: there was a

significant difference in the level of lecturer's participation by status in training and development programme in Nigeria among the professorial cadre i.e. Professors/Associate Professors and Lecturers II/Assistant Lecturers. Suggestions were offered, aimed at encouraging participation in training and developmental programmes, to keep them abreast of current knowledge of research and teaching and to reduce redundancy.

Keywords: Participation, Capacity building, Human resources, Quality pedagogy, Publications, Training

1. Introduction

Training is used for the development of human resources in an organization/institution. Training is a learning or teaching activity geared towards the primary purpose of helping members of an organization to acquire, develop and apply the knowledge, skills, abilities and attitude required by that organization to achieve its mission, (Anho, 2012) while capacity building refers to the putting in place the needed human and infrastructural facilities that will enable an individual realize its full potentials of existence geared towards the realization of the collective goals of the nation as a society and attaining specific institutional goals. Capacity building provides for an individual the requisite knowledge and skills necessary for use to make life worthwhile. Capacity building can be

attained through giving and receiving the right training and development.

However, Peretomode (2001) sees training as planned organizational efforts or activities concerned with helping an employee acquire specific and immediate useable skills, knowledge, concepts, attitude and behaviour to enable him (employee) perform in his present job more efficiently and effectively. Therefore, training for lecturers can be said to be related to improving on their current job experience, leading to the acquisition of technical and manual skills, hence it is a capacity building mechanism lecturers need so as to perform their assigned task properly as desired by management. In order to justify their existence in the society, organizations i.e. Universities have to produce their outputs to meet certain specifications' standards. It is from this background that one would say that the issue of training/manpower development is of utmost importance if organizations are to realize their goals and objectives.

The function of training is to bring about behaviour changes required to meet management goals. Newly hired/employed employees (lectures) no matter their qualification require training, to keep them alert to the demands of their new jobs and fit them to the new assignments given. To Anho, (2012), training enable employees to work harder and have higher morale than those who are not trained. The term training is majorly used for junior or lower personnel in an organization, in the Universities-. Assistant Lecturers/Graduate Assistants to Lecturer I with or without Ph.D. degree. Development is a process of training and growth by which individuals gain and apply special knowledge, skills, insight and attitudes to manage work effectively, it focuses on management staff, the middle and upper level employees. It aimed at encouraging and educating and reinforcing knowledge. In the University, these are Senior Lecturers, Associate Professors and Professors who have their Ph.D. degree. It has the advantage of avoiding obsolesce aimed at improving current level of performance of such Lecturers; (Knootz and Weihnich, 1988). Therefore, human resources

management used training to address continuous professional deficiency in teachers and other staff so as to upgrade their skills, knowledge, aptitude, attitude specified and general pedagogical requirements, Anho (2017).

A country with a large pool of trained labour force has a distinct advantage over others in economic development and in increasing productivity than that may have neglected this vital factor. That is to say, that for any organization (Universities) to achieve its purposes of establishing it, it needs adequately trained and competent manpower (lecturers) to participate in the policies formulation and implementation.

Heiss quoted in Anho (2012) noted that academic programmes rarely adequately prepare employees/lecturers for their future position and their accompanying responsibilities. Consequently, many lecturers inspite of their qualification enter their career (teaching/professional lecturing) with no practice and with no experience in using tools of their profession.

Georgiades in Anho (2012) also pointed out that with age, human beings suffer from diminished vitality, creativity and flexibility which are essential needs of a lecturer. Anho (2012), commented further, that ageing Lecturers can therefore be assisted through training and other staff development programmes to remain vibrant, vital, flexible and productive.

From Peretomode (2001) and Anho, (2012) the objectives of training are stated to:

- increase knowledge, skills, development and positive behaviour and attitude to work; it increases organizational/university productivity, making the products to be of high quality; it improves workers/lecturers morale;
- reduces lecturer's turnover rate; brings about better co-ordination of both human and non-human resources and enhances lecturers chance for promotion; helps newly recruited lecturers without the requisite skills,

attitude, and knowledge; helps to identify and remove job performance deficiencies; leads to an enhance higher level of performance; assists the employee/lecturer in contributing to the organizational university viability, effectiveness, efficiency and the continuity of the organizational university process and development; and help lecturers to cope with changing technological advancement, information and communication technology and automation computation.

1.1 How do we determine training needs

Three major techniques can be used in determining training needs as enumerated by Oyediran (2001), these are:

- Organizational Analysis: This involves evaluation of the need of the organization in terms of its
- goals and objectives. The actual performance of the organization in relation to the expected performance.
- Job Needs Analysis: Involve analyzing and collecting information relating to the operations and responsibilities of a specific job and what it takes in terms of skill, knowledge and other human requirements to satisfactorily perform the job. Job needs evaluation and analysis enable the Head of Department to identify the areas of weakness, and be able to determine what should be the content of training in terms of what an employee must do to perform a task, job or assignment effectively.
- Manpower Analysis: Involves an analysis of available human resources in terms of their strength and weaknesses; for the attainment of desired objectives, within a given period. It does this through an analysis of individual worker's performance and expressed shortfall in skills, knowledge and other personal data, which are identified by the workers supervisor.

Other techniques of determining training needs are; performance appraisal reports, observation, analysis of organization records or reports,

employee suggestion, union suggestion and individuals needs analysis.

1.2 Types of Training

Anho (2012), cited Campbell who identified three (3) types of technique; on-the-job-training, information presentation and simulation methods/techniques.

1) On-the-Job Training: It is a programme of instruction aimed at assisting the employee to master the operation involved in specific task. Yoder (1980) describes this as that which an older person or supervisor charged with the responsibility for instructing the new employee in mastering the job. Therefore, on-the-job-training is desired to widen the horizons of the skill operations of an employee in relation to his job.

Sullivan (2000) highlighted, that on-the-job training is one of the best training methods because it is planned, organized and conducted at the employee's worksite.

Other types of on-the-job training are briefly highlighted below:

a) Orientation/Induction Training: This is aimed at assimilating and assisting the new employee in adjusting to his job and the organization. This orientation or induction is rarely planned and executed for newly employed lecturers today in Nigerian Universities.

b) Job Rotation: It involves cross training given to employee by placing him on different jobs for a period of time ranging from a few hours to several weeks. This gives the employee (lecturer) a deeper and more general view of the organization and its schedule.

c) Apprenticeship: This take place on-the-job by placing the new employee under the guidance of a skilled experienced and certified worker. According to Mathias and Jackson cited in Anho (2012) apprenticeship training is best used in training manual skills as welding, carpentry, auto-mechanic, plumbing, type-setting, black-smiting etc. In Universities; newly employed lecturers are placed under the guidance of a Senior Lecturer in teaching certain courses or supervising some researches. This is called mentorship.

d) Job Instruction Training (JIT): Learners are allowed to work independently and are checked upon frequently to make sure they do

their jobs correctly. The supervisors follow many steps when training an employee, using JIT these are preparation, presentation, performance try out, and follow up steps.

e) Internships (IT): This is also called industrial training programme. It is a kind of cooperative job experience training. It usually combines job-training with classroom instruction in technical schools, polytechnics or universities.

f) Site-Based or Clinic-Based Training: A form of self-paced training/learning that allows the individual requiring training to acquire the necessary knowledge and develop the required skills while on-the-job (Sullivan, 2000).

g) Enlarged Job Responsibility (EJR) This technique involves assigning more duties, responsibilities and assignments to an employee. It is used mostly for managers, professional staff and skilled clerical employees.

2) Information Presentation Techniques: Mathias and Jackson (1982) identified the following:

a) Lectures: This is a teaching method, organized talk, giving information about a specific subject matter. This can be implemented in our Universities when lecturer are organized to be delivered by certified professional Senior colleagues to others who are not professional or certified to teach.

b) Programme Instruction (P1): It is a guided self-learning method. Trainees respond to segment of information by answering question or responding on a machine.

c) T-Group Training: It is also called sensitive training, encounter group and

laboratory training. It is for learning about one's self and others through group observation and participation. It enhances self-awareness and social processes.

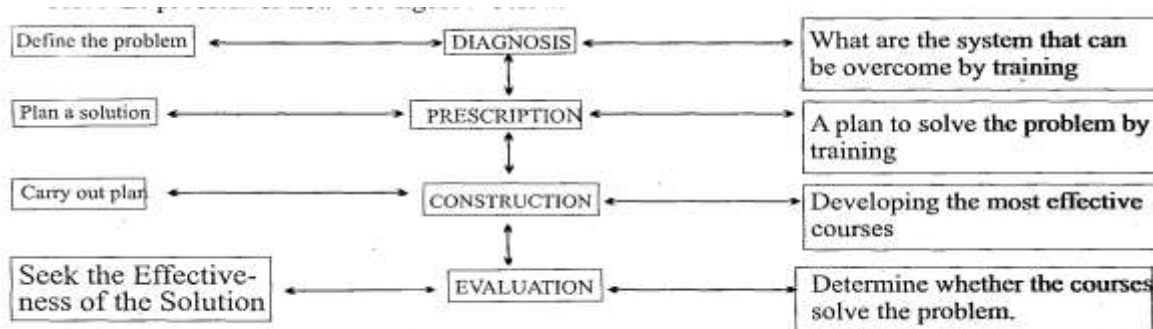
d) Organizational Development: It is a systematic long-range programme of organizational improvement through action research and current literature books in the area of interest. This can be enhancing through discussion with others.

h) Seminar and Workshops: Seminars are organized for the improvement of the workers, as it contributes to the upliftment of ideas of the employee, retrain him in readiness for enhanced productivity as well as the acquisition of good personal qualities. Seminars and workshops reduce cost and decay.

1.3 Training Steps

Davies (1973) categorized training stages into four phases, which are:

- Diagnosis: This involves defining the problems and determining the system that can be overcome by training.
- Prescription: Involves planning to provide a solution to the problems diagnosed through training.
- Construction: Executing or implementing the plan by developing the most effective courses in the training.
- Evaluation: Check the effectiveness of the solution offered by determining whether the course solve the problem or not. See figure 2 below.



Source: Adopted from Davies J.K (1973) *The Organization Training*, USA John Wesely Publisher, p.36, cited in Oyediran (2001)

The quality of education that is provided for tertiary institution's students, has been a source of concern in various quotas recently; Governmental and Non-governmental organizations, Government officials, Religious bodies, Parents and other stakeholders have been crying out openly to admit and lament the rot in the education sector as reflected by the quality of the products. This has generated a lot of debate and argument among Nigerians on Television programmes, Newspapers, and Radio among others. Onwuegbu (2012) asserted that the rapid establishment of private and public higher institutions in Nigeria is as a result of lack of confidence in the Nigeria educate on system which has adverse effects in the development of the nation. Therefore, there are compelling needs to be concerned about the standard of quality in education.

Quality is related to, but not limited to the level of success or failure attained in course of assessing the outcome of an endeavour or undertaking. Anho (2012), stated that Quality in Education is the level of success or failure observed in an achievement standardized test administered by a body within and outside the institutions for staff and students. Explaining further, Anho (2012); says that administratively, it is the attainment of the right standard of objective approved or required by authority for staff and student members. The word "quality" is an amorphous concept used sometimes interchangeably with "standard" i.e. the minimum yardstick by which performance is determined. Quality therefore demand standards, relevance, excellence, validity, competence, efficiency, effectiveness, functionalism among others. Enem (2008) see quality as the degree of excellence of peculiar and essential characteristics.

Mishra (2006) enumerated the reasons or needs for quality or standard in education, some are highlighted below:

- That there is competition among educational institutions for funds and student's patronage.
- That since customer satisfaction is a must, the courses of study must be

relevant to the needs of the labour market.

- That there is need to improve quality of the education transactions as well as the educational provision and facilities.

The issue of quality assurance in education is no longer alien as stakeholders in education, government, and non-governmental bodies, teachers, students, organizations, and communities, are now serious with plans, programmes and activities set out to ensure quality in education. Quality assurance is currently and gradually being given priority by the Federal government of Nigeria and it is now realised that human capacity building of any nation rest absolutely on the education system, and lecturers/teachers being at the centre of the teaching and learning process need to be adequately prepared and be involved in continuous professional development and trainings to enable them be current, productive and adaptive to the fast changing world.

Whatever principles, strategies and measures introduced into our school system to ensure standard, will not yield positive results unless teachers (lecturers) who are the bedrock of education are sufficiently trained, re-trained and constantly exposed to developmental programmes.

2. Statement of Problem

Human resources in any organization constitute the most important input, being the actual agents who accumulate wealth, use material resources, build social, economic and political ties for development. Capital and material resources are positive factors in production unless used by humans. Employee (lecturers) training and development is aimed at raising the standard of skills possessed by an employee (a lecturer) with a view to expanding a whole man's ability to fully use his capabilities and apply his knowledge and experience to novel and potential problems.

The concept of employee training and development in organization dates back to the beginning of industries, and the civil service.

This stems from the realization of the role employees play in the realization of set objectives. It was in recognition of this human resource role that the Federal Government of Nigeria, as its contribution to promoting and encouraging quality skill acquisition and standard capacity, established various training and development centres in the country. In line with some Nigeria Universities and Colleges offer some courses as part of their contribution to the development of the nation. These are: Personnel Management, Financial Management, Public Administration, Industrial Relations, Business Management, Organization and Administration of Schools, Curriculum Planning Development and Implementation, Teaching and the Teaching Profession, Guidance and Counselling, Research and Statistics, among others.

Uchedu, Akuegwu and Nwiwe (2003) submitted that there must be total support for the professional growth of lecturers and ample opportunities made available for them to participate in quality assurance efforts, while in the same vein recognize and appreciate their contributions which could be in terms of research outputs, sound academic and community service.

Academic programmes received or certificates obtained in Universities rarely adequately prepare employees (lecturers) for their future schedule and responsibilities. This has made many employees including lecturers to start their career with little or no experience. Some of the lecturers including professors, associate professors and senior lectures received training in the principles and methods of teaching, since lecturing involves teaching, some negative disposition are noticeable; lack of interest in the job, negative attitude to work, tiredness, excessive absenteeism from school and lecturers excessive complaints, high incidents of teaching ethical disciplinary cases, high rejects, insubordination, low student-lecturer rapport, low management-lecturer rapport, low student turn-Over. Low chances for promotion, low lecturers morale, among others (Nwachukwu, 1989, Akpombo 2000, Uchedu et al (2003) and Anho (2012).

It is important to determine whether participation in training and development programmes of lecturers by status influence the quality of their output in the Universities in the South-South Zone of Nigeria. This research is therefore out to answer question such as; what are the influences of lecturers participation in training and development by status as capacity building mechanism on quality education.

3. Research Questions

To guide the research, the following research question is raised:

What is the level of lecturer's participation in training and development programmes by status in Nigerian Universities?

4. Research Hypothesis

In view of the main problem of this study, the following hypothesis is formulated to be tested and to help provide answer to the research question.

There is no significant difference in the level of lecturer's participation by status in training and development programmes in Nigerian Universities.

5. Methodology

The design of the study is ex-post-facto. The populations of study were all the 4562 University lecturers in the South-South Zone of Nigeria as at 2009/2010 academic session. This was made up of Federal and State Universities only. The simple random sampling technique was used to get 20% of the total population to be 687 lecturers from the 7 Universities during that academic session. These are; the Universities of Benin, Calabar, Port-Harcourt, Uyo (Federal). Others are; Ambrose Alli University, Ekpoma, Delta State University, Abraka, Rivers State University of Science & Technology, Port Harcourt, and Niger-Delta University, Wiberforce Island Bayelsa (State).

The research instrument used is the adapted Human Resource Development and Lecturer's

Productivity Questionnaire (HRDLPQ) as constructed and used by Anho (2010) in an earlier study; “the Relationship between Human Resource Development and Lecturers Productivity for Quality Assurance in Nigerian Universities”. The questionnaire is made up of three (3) parts: Part A is made up of demographic variables, Part B consists of items based on the publications made before and after staff training and development using the following indices:

1. Authorship of textbooks
2. Articles published in journals
3. Textbooks edited
4. Conferences/workshops attended
5. Seminars and other academic programme
6. Technical reports published
7. Researches conducted (local)
8. Researches conducted (international)
9. Exhibitions organized
10. Monographs published
11. Staff development: a) Post graduate diploma programme b) Masters degree programme c) Doctoral degree programme d) Professional courses

Part C is made up of items/statements on the advantages/influences obtained after manpower development/training on human resources such as lecturer’s pedagogical skills, improve student-lecturer rapport, improve management-lecturers rapport, quality lecture delivering method, quality knowledge of human psychology, quality knowledge of psychology of learning, quality questioning and feedback mechanism, quality test, measurement and evaluation techniques, easy and quick adjustment mechanism among others.

The instrument was validated by colleagues in the areas of educational administration, and that guidance and counselling who specialized in test and measurement at the Delta State University, Abraka, they evaluated the applicability and appropriateness of the content and adequacy of the instrument before re-construction and administration. The reliability was established by using the test- re-test method within two weeks interval on randomly drawn twenty lecturers from three (3) Universities not included in the main study. The Pearson Product Moment correlation ‘r’ co-efficient formular was applied to obtain a reliability co-efficient ‘r’ of 0.86. The researcher personally administered the questionnaire with assistance from some resource persons. The instrument were filled and collected immediately, thus ensuring one hundred percent (100%) return rate. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) and the Scheffe’s test were the statistical tools employed to test the only hypothesis raised.

6. Presentation, Analysis and Discussion of Data

Research Question: Will there be difference in the level of lecturers participation by status in training and development programmes in Nigerian Universities.

Hypothesis: There is no significant difference in the level of lecturer’s participation by status in training and development programmes in Nigerian Universities.

Table 1: Analysis of variance of the level of difference of lecturer’s participation by status in training and development programmes in Nigerian Universities.

Source of Variati on	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F-Cal.	F-Cri.	Decision
Between Groups	41436.37	5	8287.27	97.44*	2.21	Significant Reject Ho
Within Groups	5791.63	681	85.05			
Total	99356	686				

* Significant at 0.05

The table reveals the between groups sum of squares as 41436.37 and within groups is 57919.63. The degree of freedom is 5, while the mean square between groups is 8287.27 and the mean square within groups is 85.05. The test for significant difference reveals the calculated f-value of 97.44, while the

critical value is 2.21. Thus the calculated f-value is greater than the critical f-value. This implies that a significant difference existed among the lecturers by status from Professors to Assistant Lecturer. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected. We therefore conclude that there is a significant difference in the level of lecturers participation in training and development programmes by status in Nigeria Universities. Since there is significant difference, to know where the difference is, the Scheffe's test was employed between

Professor, categorized as X₁ Associate professor X₂ Senior lecturer X₃ Lecturer I X₄ Lecturer II X₅ and Assistant Lecturer X₆

Table2: Scheffe's test for X₁ (professors) and X₂ Associate Professors

Group	N	X	MSW	F-Cal.	F-Cri.
X ₁ Professors	72	70			
X ₂ Associate Professor	140	68	85.05	0.26 [*]	2.21

The table shows that the f-calculated value of 0.26 is less than the critical f-critical value of 2.21, therefore the null hypothesis is rejected. Decision There is no significant difference in the levels of participation means of X (Professors, and X. Associate Professor).

Table 3: Scheffe's test for X₁ (Professors) and X₃ (Senior Lecturers)

Group	N	X	MSW	F-Cal.	F-Cri.	Remark
X ₁ Professors	72	70				
X ₃ Senior Lecturers	134	67	85.05	0.39 [*]	2.21	Not Significant

Table 3 reveal that the calculated f-value is 0.39 is less than the critical f-value of 2.21, therefore the null hypothesis is rejected. The decision is that there is no significant difference in the levels of participation of means of X₁ (Professors) and mean of X₃ (Senior Lecturers)

Table 4: Scheffe's test for X₁ (Professors) and X₄ (Lecturer I)

Group	N	X	MSW	F-Cal.	F-Cri.
X ₁ Professors	72	70			
X ₄ Lecturer I	158	65	85.05	0.64 [*]	2.21

* NotSignificantat0.05

Table 4 shows that the calculated f-value of 0.64, is less than the critical f- value of 2.21, the hypothesis is therefore accepted. Decision There is no significant difference in the levels participation means of X₁ (Professors) and X₄ (Lecturer I).

Table 5: Scheffe's test for X₁ (Professors) and X₅ (Lecturer II)

Group	N	X	MSW	F-Cal.	F-Cri.
X ₁ Professors	72	70			
X ₅ Lecturer II	137	52	85.05	2.22 [*]	2.21

Significant at 0.05

Table 5 revealed that the calculated f-value is 2.22 while the critical f-value is 2.21. Since the calculated f-value is greater than the critical f-value, the null hypothesis is rejected. Decision There is a significant difference in the levels of participation means of X₁ (Professors) and X₅ (Lecturer II).

Table 6: Scheffe's test for X₁ (Professors) and X₆ (Assistant Lecturers)

Group	N	X	MSW	F-Cal.	F-Cri.
X ₁ Professors	72	70	85.05	2.86*	2.21
X ₆ Assistant Lecturers	46	46			

* Significant at 0.05

Table 6 showed that the calculated f-value of 2.86 is greater than the critical f-value of 2.21, therefore the null hypothesis is rejected. Decision There is a significant difference in the levels of participation means of X₁ (Professors) and X₆ (Assistant Lecturers).

Table 7: Scheffe's test for X₁ (Associate Professors) and X₃ (Senior Lecturers)

Group	N	X	MSW	F-Cal.	F-Cri.
X ₂ Associate Professors	140	68	85.05	0.25*	2.21
X ₃ Senior Lecturers	134	67			

* Not Significant at 0.05

Table 7 showed that the calculated f-value of 0.25 is less than the critical f-value of 2.21; therefore the null hypothesis is accepted. Decision There is no significant difference in the levels of participation means of X₁ (Associate Professors) and X₃ (Senior Lecturers).

Table 8: Scheffes test for X₃, and X₄

Group	N	X	MSW	F-Cal.	F-Cri.
X ₂ Associate Professors	140	68	85.05	0.75*	2.21
X ₄ Lecturers I	158	65			

* Not Significant at 0.05

The table 8 indicated that the calculated f-value of 0.75 is less than the critical f-value of 2.21, therefore the null hypothesis is accepted. The implication is that there is no significant difference in the levels of participation means of X₂ (Associate Professors) and X₄ (Lecturer I).

Table 9: Scheffe's test for X₁ and X₅

Group	N	X	MSW	F-Cal.	F-Cri.
X ₂ Associate Professors	140	68	85.05	3.90*	2.21
X ₅ Lecturer II	137	51			

* Significant at 0.05

The table above shows that the calculated f-value of 3.90 while the critical f-value was 2.21. Since the calculated f-value is greater than the critical f-value, the null hypothesis is rejected. Decision There is a significant difference in the levels of participation of Associate professor and Lecturer II.

Table 10: Scheffe's test for X₂ and X₆

Group	N	X	MSW	F-Cal.	F-Cri.
X ₂ Associate Professors	140	68	85.05	2.60*	2.21
X ₄ Assistant Lecturer	46	40.36			

* Significant at 0.05

The table indicates that the calculated f-value is 2.60 while the critical f-value is 2.21. This shows that the calculated f-value is greater than the critical f-value, therefore the null hypothesis is rejected. That is, there is a significant difference in the levels of participation means of Associate Professor and Assistant Lecturers.

Table 11: Scheffe's test for X₃ (Senior Lecturer) and X₄ (Lecturer I)

Group	N	X	MSW	F-Cal.	F-Cri.
X ₃ Senior Lecturer	134	67	85.05	0.50*	2.21
X ₄ Lecturer I	158	65			

The table shows that the calculated f-value of 0.50 is less than the critical f-value of 2.21. Therefore the null hypothesis is accepted, which means that there is no significant difference in the levels of participation means of Senior Lecturers and Lecturer I.

Table 12: Scheffe's test for X₃ and X₅

Group	N	X	MSW	F-Cal.	F-Cri.
X ₃ Senior Lecturer	134	67	85.05	3.64*	2.21
X ₅ Lecturer II	137	51			

* Significantat0.05

The table reveals that the calculated f-value of 3.64 is greater than the critical f-value of 2.21. Therefore the null hypothesis is rejected. The conclusion is that there is a significant difference in the levels of participation means of Senior Lecturers and Assistant Lecturers.

Table 13: Scheff&stestforX₄ andX₆

Group	N	X	MSW	F-Cal.	F-Cri.
X ₄ Lecturer I	158	65	85.05	2.23*	2.21
X ₆ Assistant Lecturer	46	46.36			

* SignificantatO.05

The table indicates that the calculated f-value of 2.23 is greater than the critical f-value of 2.21, therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. The conclusion is that there is a significant difference in the levels of participation means of Lecturer I and Assistant Lecturers.

Table 14: Scheffe's test for X₅ and X₆

Group	N	X	MSW	F-Cal.	F-Cri.
X ₅ Lecturer II	137	51			
X ₆ Assistant Lecturer	46	46.36	85.05	0.44*	2.21

* Significant at 0.05

The table above shows that the calculated f-value 0.44 is less than the critical f-value 2.21, therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted. It therefore means that there is a significant difference in the levels of participation means of Lecturer II and Assistant Lecturers.

7. Discussion of Results

The analysis of the data from the test of hypothesis shows that there is a significant difference in the levels of lecturers' participation by status in training and development programmes in Nigerian Universities in the South-South Zones. This finding is in support of Kwiwani (2000), and Kularanta (1995) in their various study noted the difference in lecturers desire and actual attendance to training and development programmes and advised that regular trainings and development should be introduced for proper academic growth and higher productivity so that they can serve society in the best possible way. Therefore, all lecturers regardless of status or grade, must be provided with compulsory, balanced, academic and professional, or industrial training. Every 18 months or less, university lecturers no matter the grade or status must participate in industrial conferences, seminars, workshops and trade shows on regular basis.

This finding is also supported by an earlier work of Anho (2008) who studied employees pre and post human resource development/training productivity on the job and discovered that there was a positive significant relationship between pre and post human resource development training productivity and concluded that the significant difference was the result of various human development programmes full time and part-time courses mounted by the Delta State University, Abraka, ranging from Bachelors' degree programmes, through professional and academic master and programmes to doctorate degrees. Georgiades (1980) also noted that lecturers are becoming aware of the need of

lecturers training and re-training to improve their knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviour. Ukamaka (2006) in line with this study states that when staffs are properly motivated through training, productivity increases and suggested training and re-training of staff through short form and long term courses.

Since there is a strong positive significant difference in participation in training among the lecturers by status i.e. from professors to Assistant lecturers, the study went further to find out where the difference lies by applying the scheffe's test. The findings revealed that there was no significant difference in the levels of participation means of: Professors and Associate Professors, Senior Lecturers and Lecturer I. While there is a significant difference in the level of participation means of Professors and Lecturer II and Assistant Lecturers.

The findings also indicate that there was no significant difference between Professor and Associate Professor, Senior Lecturers and Lecturers I while there was a significant difference between Associate Professors, Lecturers II and Assistant Lecturer. When some of the Professors and Associate Professors were asked the reason they no longer attend training, some indicated that raining is meant for junior/young colleagues while others indicated that training is meant for promotion which they no longer needed. It is against such misguided, inappropriate, erroneous concept Chukuma (2006) noted that to keep lecturers (not limited to status) abreast, and not be redundant, to meet changing job requirement, to achieve a healthy balance between their job demands and their

capabilities, lecturers need appropriate, timely and continuous self-development and training.

Anho (2012) tried to distinguish between training and development, that 'training' is mainly used for junior or lower personnel in an organization institutions such as Assistant Lecturers to Lecturer II with or without Ph.D. degrees, while 'development' is a process of training and growth by individuals to acquire gain and apply special knowledge, skills and attitudes to manage work effectively, used in reference to management staff, middle or upper level employees, with reference to this work, it is aimed at encouraging, educating and re-enforcing knowledge for professors, associate professors and senior lecturers. Anho (2012), therefore advised that all categories of lecturers need staff training and development, including the professors and associate professors who for age suffer from diminishing vitality, creativity and flexibility. Training is therefore, to help such lecturers cope with emerging and changing technological advancement.

Nigerians expect that all teacher/lecturer in tertiary institutions should undergo training in the methods and technique of teaching as Ukoli, in Anho (2009), recommended that University (higher education) teachers should be doubly hated; firstly as a researcher and secondly as a teacher. All Universities and Higher Institutions teachers/lecturers need the pedagogical knowledge content through training and re-training, conferences, seminars, workshops to be able to produce equally good students.

The findings also revealed that there was no significant difference in the levels of participation means of Senior Lecturers and Lecturers I as shown in table 7 while there was a significant difference in the participation mean of Senior Lecturers and Assistant Lecturers. There was also a significant difference in the participation mean of Lectures I and Assistant Lecturers. To account for these findings, the respondents indicated that they attend trainings/conferences, seminars, workshops so as to upgrade their job competency, knowledge, skills and technical knowledge in their various field of endeavour and be promoted when due. This finding is in support of Nwadiani (2003),

who noted that such lecturers after rising to the position of a professor, stop attending training and development programmes.

This is in line with Peretomode (2004), when he stated some advantages of training and development to include; increase knowledge, skills and development of positive behaviour and attitude to work; (i) Increase organizational productivity and quality products; (ii) Improve workers' morale; (iii) Reduce turnover rate among workers; and (iv) Enhance employee's chance of promotion.

Therefore, the situation where great number of professors no longer participate in training and development programmes such as conferences, seminars and workshops, unless they were invited to present the keynote address or as lead paper presenter does not augur well for our educational system.

8. Conclusion

This research hereby concludes that there is great positive significant difference in the levels of lecturers participation by status in training and development programmes in Universities in the South- South Zone of Nigeria. The differences are among professors and other status i.e. Associate Professors, Senior Lecturers, Lecturer I, Lecturer II and Assistant Lecturers. To account for the difference is the erroneous believe that professors no longer needed training or development since they have reached their career peak and do not need to be promoted.

Training is necessary to every worker/lecturer irrespective of status, because workers/lecturers differ considerably in their academic background and professional training which have profound effects on their post-employment training as well as on their job performance as staff.

9. Recommendation

All categories of lecturers need the pedagogical knowledge through staff training and development including the associate professors

and professors if they have to provide the academic leadership and mentorship expected of them as researcher and teachers to make them not to be redundant, and to meet the ever changing world of knowledge/academics.

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Instructional Media Provisions and Utilization for Teaching-Effectiveness in Classrooms

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Abstract. The paper examined instructional media provision and utilization for the effective teaching-learning process the concept, types and methods of provision were also examined. The instructional media were categorized into the audio, visual and audio – visual aids. From the study, the available audio-visual aids were illustrated and categorized into projected and non-projected media. Both projected and non-projected media were also illustrated with relevant examples. The study identified the methods of making improvisation of the unavailable education media and their modes of utilization are also explored. It was therefore concluded that there is the need to make improvisation of the unavailable instructional media for the effective teaching-learning processes. It was however recommended that the teachers should be motivated to make adequate improvisation of instructional media in the interest of teaching. Learning process in Nigerian classrooms

Keywords: Educational, media, teaching effectiveness and classroom.

1. Introduction

For centuries, the teacher's chief job has been that of presenting information and testing students to see whether they can remember it-on cue. But now it is clear that the assignment of lists of nonfunctional facts to be studied and remembered is out of place in schools today. Instead, teachers have come more and more to understand that learning is an active process and that their chief classroom tasks are to serve as diagnosticians and organizers, or managers, of functionally varied learning experiences.

The emphasis should be place in the ways in which teachers may develop essential skills and knowledge to meet these many changing requirements. The particular attention should be given to the creation, selection and use of audio visual and other instructional materials and techniques and to their management as individual media as related collections, and as integrated, correlated systems of materials geared to the achievement of clearly specified teaching-learning objective

1.1 Concept of instructional Media

Instructional media as a concept has been defined in various ways. Educational media are a broad-range of resources which can be used to facilitate effective and efficient communication in the teaching and learning process.

Media are also all educational resources whether graphic, photographic, electronic or mechanized means of arresting processing or restructuring visual or verbal information or a combination of both.

Nsofor (2010) see instructional media as projected and non-projected information carrying technologies that constitute an integral part of the instructional process used for the dissemination of educational information very quickly, widely and effectively.

Educational media are information carrying technologies used for the dissemination of information very quickly, widely and effectively. When educational media are used for instructional purposes, they are called instructional materials (Nsofor & Bello, 2015). Agun and Imogie(1988) refer to instructional materials if use properly, it will help the learners to learn faster and better. Akudolu (2002) called instructional materials as didactic materials which are supposed to make learning and teaching possible. As for Efebo (2002) defined materials and equipment as the things that to communicate his or her ideas effectively to the learners so that learners can achieve the goal at the educational end of instruction.

1.2 Instructional Resources in schools

Resources could be collective means possessed by an individual, group or country with which human needs and aspirations are satisfied. It is also what a country or a person have and can use especially to increase their wealth. Resources can be money, financially, human and non-human resources. Resources can be money use to update things like computer, software, information and Technology Communication section or room. Financial resources can provide money for equipment needed in the schools.

Human resources can be used to help to achieve an aim especially books, equipment etc that provides information for teachers and students in the class. Human resources can also be individuals who as a result of their experiences or expertise professions are considered knowledgeable enough to be useful to the school.

Instructional resources are the materials that can be used in equipping the teachers and the learners for effective classroom teaching and learning to take place. It can resort to the polling of different type of resources at their disposal. Everything and anything in and around a learner can be used to enhance knowledge.

According to Hanson (1975), anything used to meet an educational need might be called a resource for example buildings, staff, equipment iideas and materials and anything used to enhance intellectual development are resources. Since those resources are found in the community, they are called community resources.

According to Bassey and Ibanga (2009), exploring community resources to enhance knowledge that educational institutions are set up by the community exist within the community for the good of the community. The benefits of the school and the community juxtapose and the two have impact over the other. The school is created by the society for the transmission of skills, knowledge and values to its young ones.

Community resources are learning resources, the learner requires for the enhancement of his knowledge of any learning task of his interest. Community resources are those facilities found outside the school which can be harnessed and use effectively to facilitate the study of some specified subject areas. They are to be used to expand and enrich the learning experiences of learners.

Anikpo, Mohammed, Ezegebe and Salau(1999). categorized resources into three, natural, human and capital resources:

Natural Resources are natural endowments to communities and good sources of knowledge. These includes, vegetation, rock formations, high lands, waterfalls, cliffs, raw materials deposits such as clay latent, petroleum etc. kinds of animals, insects, birds, reptiles etc.

Human Resources are individuals who as a result of their experiences or expertise in the various fields of endeavour or professions are considered knowledgeable enough to be useful to the school.

Capital Resources are those things made by man for example, factories, railways, motor vehicles, electric power generators, houses etc. these resources are not only useful for satisfying human wants but of equally benefit to the teaching and learning process. These are good resources that the teacher can implore in the teaching and learning process to make concepts and ideas clearer and explicit.

Material resources: They are the physical technological products of the professional such as buildings, bridges, roads, cars, ships, artifacts, aeroplane etc. are found in numbers, around the communities in which we live e.g. agricultural products factories and industries (Bassey & Ibang, 2009).

Non-Human resources: are print, such as textbooks, magazines, journals, bulletin, workbooks, manuscripts etc.

Non Print: The software; they carry instructional contents such as audio –tapes, radio, video tapes, transparencies, films etc they can be locally or commercially produced.

Hardware: They are tools, machines, equipments or gadgets through which the software facilities can be made functional or transmitted. They include audio tapes recorders, video tape recorders, projectors, computer, Central Process Unit (CPU) and monitor, duplicating machines, printing press etc.

a) Physical Facilities: includes such structures as auditoria, gymnasias, laboratories, library, ICT centre etc.

b) furniture such as tables, slides sorters etc.

1.3 Classification of Instructional Media

Instructional media can be viewed as acts of giving help normally by the teachers to provide encouragement to students or pupils in learning

activities. Instructional materials refer to all tools, which can easily be used by a teacher to correct wrong impressions and to illustrate things that learners cannot forget easily. It is the principle and method, which bring together men and materials in a systematic cooperation to effectively solve educational problems because instructional problems we have in our educational system in Nigeria (Ema & Ajayi, 2011).

For using instructional materials in teaching is to achieve excellence in educations (Ema & Ajayi, 2011 pg .18)

Instructional materials are commonly known as audio, visual and audio-visual aids.

Audio Aids – are materials that students can listen to but cannot see e.g. radio, tape recorder programme where the learners can only listen and hear the programme.

Visual aids – are the materials you only see but no sound accompanies the action e.g. posters, charts, maps, still pictures etc.

Audio Visual Aids – are the materials you listen to and see e.g. television, computer etc.

These materials can also be group into two non projected visual media and projected visual media.

Non Projected Visual Media

These are pictorial materials which appeal to the sense of sight and do not require light sources for showing them. These teaching aids enhance understanding in learning. They are also available and easily appealing and cheap to make. Some of these which we may produce, collect or buy may include:

- Specimens
- Models, real things
- Wall charts, charts, posters, bill board,
- Still pictures, motion pictures
- Textbooks, magazines
- Maps, atlases, globes
- Chalk boards, felt boards, magnetic boards, soft boards.

Projected Visual Media

These are the media that uses electricity and battery for operation. Most pictures from books and magazines are often too small for class viewing at the same time and when enlarged may contain too much materials. The technique

or projection is essentially designed to enable a larger number of people to see an illustration at the same time.

1.4 Criteria for Selection of Instructional Materials

In selecting instructional materials for teaching and learning process in the classroom to in order to solve educational problem, teachers should be systematic in designing, carrying out and evaluating the total process of teaching and learning in terms of specific objectives to be achieved which are best upon research in human learning and communication to bring about more effective instruction in the learning process. These are criteria for selection of instructional materials for effective teaching include:

- Behavioural objectives and the structure of subject matter what to be achieve by selecting a particular instructional materials should be consider. The questions lead to identify the educational needs, the problems, and highlight the objectives and analyse the subject matter. This analysis may involve a detailed analysis of psychomotor skills the teacher wants the students to acquire.
- Learning style of each learner is an important factor in the ultimate achievement so the teacher must take the pains to examine the various learning styles of the students in the class. Moreso, some are fast learners while other may be slow learners.
- Practicability of the material is also to be considered, how instructional materials can be used in the classroom. How practical a medium is in the application of practical experiences on the life of the students, can both the teachers and the learners use the materials without hitches? Whatever materials to be selected have to be user friendly.
- Availability of the materials, is relate to how much instructional materials are on hand, to which teachers and learners have access to and must be sufficiently

available in the environment which they are to be used.

- Teachers' capability, certain materials may be available in the school but the teacher may not have the knowledge of how to use them for teaching students or technical know-how or expertise knowledge of maintaining it from time to time.
- Durability should also be considered, the materials should not be so fragile to the extent that they will be prone to constant damage. They should be items that can last longer for several years.
- Portability should be considered, they should be items that can be moveable from one place to another within the classroom and outside the classroom with no problem.
- Technical quality and appropriateness of media should be considered like the colour combination should be harmonious, visual image and sound well synchronized, the recorded sound should be audible enough and technical quality should be thoroughly examined.
- Instructional materials should not be outdated but should be latest model.
- Learning tasks and learning activities should also be considered which the learners are to be engaged in.
- Target audience should be considered, the age, level interest and the background of the learners.
- Cost (financial implications) should be considered, that is the issues of availability of adequate fund for procurement and cost effectiveness for production should be settled before selection is made.
- Dynamic factors, these include the concentration and size of target audience, the desire level of learners' participation and available time (Ema & Ajayi 2011) and (Nsofor & Bello, 2015).

2. Improvisation of teaching materials

In line with the today's teaching and learning and instructional delivery system, instructional

materials is a sine-quo-non, if the educational goals are to be achieved by the educators. Here we are in a situation where we cannot be sure of the basic tools that we need to carry out the teacher instructional functions, following government's bureaucratic bottle neck, which directly affects the provision of instructional materials to schools. In a situation like this, a serious minded and goal-oriented teacher, cannot wait for government, but to adopt improvisation strategy to fill missing link. The raw materials for improvisation are all around the environment.

Improvisation is the act of using alternative resources to facilitate instruction when there is lack of real teaching aids for teaching. To improve, the use of local resources in our immediate environment can be used to build, construct, mold or to make instructional materials for effective teaching and learning.

National Teachers' Institute (1990) describes improvisation as the process of devising an alternative equivalent of something which incidentally is not available for use in order to carry out an intended activity without interruption.

There are three types of improvisation namely: substitution, modification and construction. In substitution, where you want to show a film in rural area, where there is no electricity, car battery can be used to substitute electricity. For modification, there are changes in standard apparatus to make it more suitable example the conversion of millimeter to voltmeter and voltmeter to ammeter because modification requires specialized skills in cutting welding sawing. (in construction, imported weigh balance in science class can be constructed with wood to make weigh balance

The teacher should be skillful in the use of improvised instructional media and whatever improvisation that is made should be a replica of the original media

3. The Functions of Instructional Materials in Classrooms

The instructional materials can make a definite contribution towards upgrading the quality of teaching in our educational system.

When instructional materials are used they reduce the burden of teacher and clarify abstract concepts. Akpan (1992) stated that, instructional materials cause sparks at the sensory receptors of the learners. And that the bigger the sparks the deeper the impressions made on the mind. Those who receive big sparks learn better. This is to further affirm the tendencies of instructional materials to stimulate sensory organs.

Instructional materials help to make learning more permanent because the learner has a physical and practical impression of the subject matter.

Instructional materials are a good alternative to conceptual thinking and bring to concrete form, excessive word responses.

Instructional materials are realistic in nature, make learning more individualistic by the learner.

They give a sense of continuity and encourage "over learning" which makes learning more permanent.

They increase meaning – ability of a learning task and add to vocabulary development.

They help in effective communication in the classroom situation etc.

4. Types of Instructional Media Production Technique

There are three basic techniques of instructional media production. These include:

- Imitative production technique
- Adaptive production technique
- Creative invention.

Imitative is adopting and using models and techniques which other producers have used for producing and testing of their own products.

Adaptive is the creation of new forms of product from an already produced product. The producer works out the objectives and uses his/her initiative to change the already existing product to suit his own new purpose and operations.

Creative invention is the use of creativity, initiative and originality to develop new products with new functions or ideas which no

one else has ever produced, though they may use other people's ideas and experience Abifarin (2015).

Materials for production of a wall charts

The materials for production of a wall charts are follows:

Cardboard papers of different colours
Used calendars, newsprint papers, magazines
Strowboards, cement papers
Pencils, colour markers, poster colours, water colours, ruler, brushes of different sizes
Scissors, razor blades, cleaner, stencils of either lettering and symbols of different shapes or objects etc (Ema & Ajayi, 2011).

Production of a wall chart planning

The teacher should gather and select relevant information for the chart
Plan the layout of the chart first in a small-scale rough draft
Make a rough draft in pencil which can be amended before the final one is produced.
Change or re-arrange any necessary parts, draft and then ink in the final neat chart.

Production of Charts

In preparing or designing a chart, the teacher essentially considers: -

- The information on the chart to convey should be made on a sheet of paper (layout).
- The size of the class whom the chart is being prepared for.
- The level of the students (intelligent) should be consider as this will help to know the level of language to be used on the chart in addition to the amount of information.

The chart production should be simple legible, durable, accuracy, portable, manageable and not complicated.

The title on the chart should be simple and short. The lettering or its headings should be at least one inch in height and bold so that it can be read with ease by the learners in the class.

The words in the chart should be horizontal, and not diagonal; so that the students do not have to turn their heads sideways before reading the words.

Appropriate colours should be introduced to make it more attractive.

Reading the above list, it is required that the teacher should plan the chart carefully. (Ema & Ajayi, 2011).

5. Utilization of Instructional Materials

We believe it is vitally important that teachers keep in mind the purposes for which materials and used, the characteristics and special needs of students to be served by them and the bases for selecting the material most likely to help students achieve the objectives of their studies. Teachers must know when to use a film to clarify important concepts presented verbally in a textbook, when to use a discussion alone: when to follow a fieldtrip with the showing and discussion of a related filmstrip, when to assign outside viewing of a television programme.

Teachers must be equipped to make the expert decisions of when to use, what to use with whom for what purpose and with what effect.

No one teacher can or should propose to use every instructional materials or device invented. The measure of good teaching is not necessarily determined by the frequency or range of use instructional resources. Rather, the goal is selection of the most appropriate available resource that has high probability of helping a student toward his learning objectives.

The use of instructional materials is effected by their availability and ease of access.

The use of instructional materials reveals the poor skills of Nigerian teachers in using instructional materials for teaching.

Effective production/selection of instructional material does not entail effective utilization although instructional materials come in a wide range of types and vary greatly in format, layout and function; it has been found that it is possible to adopt a standard basic procedure on their utilization. The procedure are as follows: -

- Prepare the learning environment to ensure that equipment, facilities, electricity, ventilation and temperature are suitable.
- State clearly your instructional objective(s)
- Select the suitable content

- Select the appropriate materials
- Tryout the materials to ensure they are in good condition
- Ensure that the class is well arranged, students must be well arranged, well seated and free from all hindrances so that everybody benefit, motivate the students enough to guarantee their readiness.
- Use the materials only when and where necessary and put them aside immediately after use so that it does not cause distractions.
- Allow sometime for interpersonal interactions and reactions from students.
- Evaluate the session on the effectiveness of the materials in relation to the instructional objectives this might lead to necessary modification.

6. Conclusion

Educational media are essential for teaching learning process. Adequate provision and improvisation of the educational media should be made available in the schools. It is therefore important to note that the availability, provision and improvisation are not tenable without adequate utilization of the educational media. It is therefore concluded that effective utilization of educational media will and effective teaching-learning process especially in the schools.

7. Recommendations

- Centre for educational technology should be established in every local government by the Federal Government of Nigeria in order to develop all the necessary educational media to be used during-the teaching- learning processes in the schools.
- Environmental resources should be used by governments at all levels to develop local materials for educational media which can be used for teaching-learning processes.
- The school based management committee should be charged with the responsibility of making provision, improvisation and developing the

necessary instructional facilities for effective teaching-learning process in the schools.

- The students should be encourage some instructional materials in order to develop in the students the basic skills acquisition which will enhance self-sufficiency.

Finally, quality and durable educational media should be supplied proprietors in the schools.

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