

Broken Home Effects on Academic Performance of Students: A Case Study Secondary Schools in Ilorin East of Kwara State, Nigeria

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Abstract

Family backgrounds have been highlighted as of great importance in the performance of children in schools worldwide. The author, therefore, investigates the effect of broken home on the academic performance of students of selected public Senior Secondary Schools in Ilorin East Local Government in Kwara State of Nigeria. He employs a descriptive research design in which 500 parents of students from broken homes in Ilorin East Local Government of Kwara State are respondents. Data collected through the use of questionnaire is analysed using frequencies, mean percentage and chi-square. The findings of the study show that broken home has a negative relationship with academic performance of students. It also indicates that student's up-bringing take the lead in influencing the performance of the students. The author concludes that home factors affect academic performance of students in schools. Living together makes parents stand a better chance to support their children for better academic performance rather than living apart.

Key words: broken family, performance, intact family, intra-familial, marital status

Introduction

Family is either broken or intact. A broken family in this context is one that is not structurally intact for various reasons, such as death of a parent, divorce, separation, desertion and illegitimacy; in which case, the family was never completed. Life in a single parent family can be stressful for both the child and the parent and such families are faced with the challenges of diminished financial resources, assumptions of new roles and responsibilities, establishment of new patterns in intra-familial interactions and reorganisation of routines and schedules (Agulanna 1999).

Broken home refers to all the conditions and circumstances in the family which affect the child physically, intellectually and emotionally (Muola 2010). Children coming from different broken homes are affected differently by such family conditions. That is why some children have good homes while some have poor home backgrounds.

Concept of Family

Family has been described as the smallest, most personal and not intimate of social groups. It is the most important primary group and the smallest social unit in the society. Odo (1990) defined family as "a social group sharing a common residence and cooperating economically". The author went further to assert that the institutions of the family are usually based on the

marriage of one or more sexually co-habiting couples and usually there is the expectation of having children for whom the adults of the family accept responsibility. Alio (1995) observed that the family is also the most personal social organisation, for nothing is more personal than the interaction and relationship between members of a family. He further said that married couple without children, though bound by the strongest personal ties, does not constitute a family for such ties can conceivably exist among couples who are not married. For him, what gives a family its character are children, for only in such a family can that intimate, personal relationship be established by which the family can perform its functions of rearing, protecting and educating the children, transmitting to them the social values it has inherited and a special bond between all the members. This kind of family setting is similar to the Nigerian traditional idea of family. Traditionally, it is believed that it is the children that cement the union of a man and a woman and make it a lasting and an intimate one.

Family can be classified into nuclear and extended form. Nuclear family is the basic form of family organisation. It is made up of the father (husband), mother (wife) and children. The children may be the biological offspring of the couple or/and the adopted members of the family. According to Okafor (1992), the adoption of a child into the family is a common culture in the British society, but less so in Nigerian society. He added that nuclear family is found common among the urban city elite in the Nigerian society or as a component in extended, nuclear and compound family in Nigeria. The author maintained that one of the characteristics of the nuclear family is that it tends to break up when the children marry, when the parents die or at any point in the human cycle. According to him, the male raised in a nuclear family usually begins his/her life in households headed by his/her parents and concludes his life in a family that s/he himself heads.

The extended family is the type of family that comprises of the father (husband) his wife (mother), their children, the husbands and the wife's relations, etc. Alio (1995) pointed out that the extended system is a dispersal version of the joint family and the members of the constituent groups do not all live together in one dwelling. To him, the extended kin-group includes a span of three or four generations within the total household or closely adjacent households. Many Nigerian societies do not believe in nuclear family but in modern times, urbanisation and economic pressures are discouraging extended family ties. However, the extended family system is the popular and most common type of family arrangement in the Nigerian society. Anybody who fails to practise or show interest in the extended relations is regarded as a wicked and hopeless human being by members of the society.

The Concept of Broken home

Alio (1995) further stated that because it is parents who are primarily responsible for establishing the family and exercise control over it, they are

responsible for the type of broken home that exists. This means that parental attitudes are very important in promoting healthy broken homes, and healthy broken homes are possible when parents adapt to the culturally defined roles of parents to the needs of the changing young generation.

Concept of Academic Performance

Some of the purposes of academic performance are to determine the relative effectiveness of a programme in terms of students' behavioural outputs; to identify students growth or lack of growth in acquiring desirable knowledge skills, attitudes and social values; to help teachers determine the effectiveness of their teaching technique and learning materials and to help motivate students to learn as they discover their progress or lack of progress in a given task. Some other purposes are to encourage students to develop a sense of discipline and systematic study habits; to acquaint parents and guardians with their children performance; to predict the general trend in the development of teaching learning process; to make reliable decisions about education planning and to provide educational administrators with adequate information about teachers' effectiveness and school needs. In summary, academic performance measurement is very important, in schools colleges and universities. It is relevant to instructional, administrative, guidance and counselling and research purposes.

Theoretical Framework

The following theories are adopted for the study: parental attachment theory, self-determination theory and Maslow's motivational theory.

Parental Attachment Theory

Parental attachment theory was proposed by Bowlby (1980). The theory states that the child forms a strong emotional bond with another person (caregiver) during childhood with lifelong consequences. According to the theorist, sensitive and emotionally available parenting helps the child to form a secure attachment style which fosters a child's socio-emotional development and well-being. Less sensitive and emotionally available parenting or neglect of the child's needs may result in insecure forms of attachment style, which is a risk factor for many mental health problems.

The theory is relevant to this study in view of the fact that the proponent provides clues in emotional development of children. They also take reasonable suggestions for parents and guardians. Parents and guardians can now see the necessity of forming secure attachment bond with their children. Such bonds will enable the children to end up with secure attachment and secure state of mind later in life. Parents will learn to understand the biological and psychological needs of the children and to avoid unrealistic expectations of the child behaviour. In this way, parents may seek to avoid frustration that occurs when they expect things beyond the child's capability.

Importance of Family Background

Family backgrounds have been of great important in shaping the performance of children in schools globally. This is because academic performance is usually as a result of motivation that children get from the people they interact with in their initial stages of life. It was not clear to reflect the causal effect of family backgrounds on the child's educational achievement which creates a gap that this study sought to fill by finding out the influence of family backgrounds on the students' academic performance.

A study on Children and Youth in Canada was carried out by Ryan (2000), who reported that there was a significant effect of family background variables, parental support and teacher support on a child's educational achievement. Nwabachili and Egbue (1993) say that education is what goes on from one generation to another generation. In this context, education is the process of socialising the child to grow up as a fulfilled member of the society through informal, formal and non-formal processes. Informal education is the process of acquiring knowledge about the environment and beyond through living with one another. According to Nwabachili and Egbue (1993), formal education is a consciously planned form of socialisation in a formal setting such as school, while non-formal education involve all those systematic programmes and processes of education and training that are done outside formal education setting. All these forms of education cannot be achieved without the effect of the family.

Family is the first social environment in which the child finds itself. According to Clifford (1981), the family remains the primary environment of the child. The author emphasised that a family environment has more chances of increasing or decreasing the intellectual performances of the child. Akubue and Okolo (2008), define family as a small kinship structural group with the key function of natural socialisation of the new born. On the other way, the family is defined as a primary social group of parents, offspring and possibly other members of the household.

In single parent families, children may suffer some psychological and social problems which affect their academic performance. Danesy and Okedian (2002) lament that the maternal and paternal deprivation of essential needs of the young students have promoted their poor performance in public examinations. Similarly, Okunniyi (2004) asserts that a child who suffers maternal and paternal deprivation may experience academic problems including truancy in the school. This is because the child may lack some necessities like school fees, books and uniforms. These conditions, according to the authors, are not conducive for effective parenting because when the single parents are overburdened by responsibilities and by the own, emotional, reaction to their situation, they often become irritable, impatient and insensitive to their children's needs.

In a broken family, a single parent faces major challenges when it comes to providing optimal care and education for the children and these

challenges are more pronounced in poor families. This, according to them, is because, sometimes, when the basic necessities are lacking, parents must place top priority on housing, food, clothing and health care, regarding education materials and books, as luxuries.

Students from broken family, exhibit purposeful behaviour aimed at achieving academic set goals. The performance of these goals determines the motive. Hickey and Lindsey (1995) clearly distinguish two perspectives of motivation; these are situational and dispositional perspectives. According to them, disposition perspective asks questions about students' general orientation to learning which relates the students' priority and students' nature.

Students from broken families may not be strongly motivated to do well in school and may not be knowledgeable about techniques of being successful in school. Parents who have benefited in a variety of ways from education serve as effective and enthusiastic advocate of schooling (Carlson, 2003).

In Nigeria most children whose single parents cannot afford the high cost of formal education enrol into apprenticeship programmes such as carpentry, brick laying, petting trading and others. In the study area, there is a seeming general poor performance among secondary school students. Evidences of the poor performances are seen in both students' internal and external examination. For instance, the available records of West African Examination Council result analyses from 2005 to 2011 indicate downward trends in students' academic performance mostly from single parent background.

It is against this background that the researcher is interested in investigating the effect of broken home on the academic performance in secondary school students in Ilorin East Local Government Area of Kwara State of Nigeria.

Methodology

This study adopted a descriptive survey design to answer the research questions of this study. The researcher selected a descriptive survey design since it attempted to describe the characteristics of the variables of this study (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). Robson (2002) asserts that descriptive research design studies have advantages in that they may be adopted to collect information that can be generalised from all population and that they provide relatively simple and straightforward approaches to study values, attitudes, beliefs and motives.

Target Population

The target population of this study was 500 parents in Public Senior Secondary Schools in Ilorin East Local Government of Kwara State, Nigeria. The distribution of the population is as shown in Table 1:

Table 1: The Population

School	Location	Number questionnaire Distributed	Number correctly filled and returned
Mesiah High School	Tanke	200	194
Hig Grace School	Mubo	200	185
Okiki Model Sec. Sch.	Bucari	200	200
Imam Hamzat Model college	Alabodo	200	179
Apostolic Faith Sec. School	Omu-Aran	200	197

Sampling Technique

For even representation, non-proportionate stratified random sampling procedure was used to draw five public senior secondary schools in the study area and random sampling method was applied to select the subjects.

Instrumentation

The Instruments for data collection was the questionnaire. The questionnaire was developed by the researcher and is titled: Effect of Broken Home Questionnaire (EBHQ). The questionnaire was structured in form of four –point likert scale of Strongly agree (SA)--4, Agree (A)--3, Disagree (D)--2, Strongly disagree (SD)—1. The instrument (questionnaire) was made up of seventeen (17) items.

Validation of Instrument

The instrument for data collection was face validated. The initial drafts of the instrument were submitted to three experts for validation. These experts subjected instrument to rigorous scrutiny in order to ascertain the clarity, relevance, adequacy and other attributes which a good research instrument should possess. The researcher reconstructed the instrument based on the suggestions of the experts.

Reliability of the Instrument

The questionnaire was trial- tested using 30 students at Ifelodun Local Government Area which is entirely outside the geographical scope of the study. This area is considered to have similar characteristics with the study area. For example the two LGAs share similar cultural background and even share the same curriculum.

To determine the reliability of the questionnaire, the scores from 30 respondents in the trial testing of the instrument were used in establishing the internal consistency using the Cronbach (1951) Alpha procedure. The internal

consistency reliability estimate yielded 0.79. These results showed that the instrument was fairly reliable, which makes it suitable for the study.

Administration of Instrument/Questionnaire

The questionnaire was administered by the researcher and the research assistants face to face to the respondents and collected on the spot. However, out of one thousand copies distributed, forty five (45) were not recovered. The researcher had to work with nine hundred and fifty five questionnaires.

Method of Data Analysis

The data collected were analysed using mean, percentage and Chi-square statistics. Any mean response of 2.50 and above is accepted while any mean response below 2.50 is rejected.

Formula: $4+3+2+1=10/4=2.50$

Results

Table 2: Gender distribution of the respondents

School	Location	Male	Female
Mesiah High School	Tanke	100	94
Hig Grace School	Mubo	89	96
Okiki Model Secondary School	Bucari	73	127
Imam Hamzat Model College	Alabodo	69	110
Apostolic Faith Secondary School	Omu-Aran	103	94

Gender distribution of the respondents in Table 2 shows that men and women were head of 434 and 521 broken homes, respectively. Apostolic Faith Secondary School, Omu-Aran had the highest broken home headed by men, while in Okiki Model Secondary School 127 broken homes were headed by women. This therefore means that most of the broken home are headed by women in the study area.

Research Question 1:

What are the effects of broken home on students' academic performance?

Table 2: Effect of Broken Home on Students' Academic Performance

S/N	Do you agree that:	SA	A	SD	D	Total	Mean	Decision
1.	Children from intact home status achieve better academically than those from single parents.	555x4=2220	150x3=450	100x2=200	150x1=150	3020	3.16	Accepted
2.	Parents of broken home cannot afford to provide the basic necessities required for their children's education.	855x4=3420	50x3=150	30x2=60	20x1=20	3632	3.80	Accepted
3.	Children from broken homes do not have higher career aspiration than children whose parents are intact home.	254x4=1016	46x3=138	499x3=998	156x1=156	2307	2.41	Rejected
4	Only parents of intact homes can train their children beyond secondary school level.	0	0	550x2=1100	405x1=405	1505	1.60	Rejected

Key: SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, SA = Strongly Disagree and D = Disagree

The result presented on the Table 1 shows that items 1 and 2 were above average and were accepted, while item 3 and 4 were rejected as not being true.

Research Question 2

What are the effects of parental level on students' academic performance?

Table 2 reveals that items 7, 9, 11 and 12 were below the average and were rejected. These are indications that the respondents considered these options negative on students' academic performance.

Table 3: Single Parent and its Effects on Students’ Academic Performance

S/N	Do you agree that:	SA	A	SD	D	Total	Mean	Decision
5	Single parents desire their children to be educated	400x4=1600	400x3=1200	105x2=210	50x1=50	3060	3.20	Accepted
6	Single parents provide most of the recommended textbooks and other learning aids for their children	0	4x3=12	821x2=1642	130x1=130	1784	1.86	Rejected
7	Single parents encourage their children to study hard	350x4=1400	475x3=1425	30x2=60	100	2985	3.13	Accepted
8	In homes of single parents, there are conducive for studies	120x4=480	280x3=840	432x2=864	123	2307	2.42	Rejected
9.	Single parents do not always arrange for supportive teachers for the subject/ subjects which their words/children find difficult in the school	244x4=976	211x3=633	300x2=600	200	2409	2.52	Accepted
10	Single parents guide their children in school assignments and home work	119x4=476	279x3=837	315x2=630	242	2185	2.29	Rejected
11	Single parents don’t always demand for progress reports of their children to know the children’s academic progress	200x4=800	270x3=810	285x2=570	200	2380	2.49	Rejected

Key: SA = Strongly Agree, A= Agree, SA=Strongly Disagree and D = Disagree

Research Question 3:

What effect does single parents’ occupation have on students’ academic performance?

The result presented on Table 3 shows that all items (13-15) on the effects of parental occupation had mean scores above the average of mark of 2.50. This shows that parents occupation do affect students’ academic performance.

Table 3: Effects of Single Parents' Occupation on Students' Academic Performance

S/N	Do you agree that:	SA	A	D	SD	Total	Mean	Decision
12	Some occupations do give single parents time to attend to their children's academic needs.	422x4=1688	379x3=1137	111x2=222	43	3090	3.26	Accepted
13	Single parents on poor occupations find it difficult to provide learning aids for their children.	700x4=2800	234x3=702	10x2=20	11	3533	3.70	Accepted
14	Single parents who are poor can only enrol their children into minor apprenticeship programmes.	405x4=1680	377x3=1131	100x2=200	73	3084	3.23	Accepted

Key: SA = Strongly Agree, A= Agree, SA=Strongly Disagree and D = Disagree

Research Question 4

What effect does single parental level of motivation have on student's academic performance?

Table 4: The effect of single parent motivation on students' academic performance.

S/N	Do you agree that:	SA	A	SD	D	Total	Mean	Decision
15	Students work harder when their parents reinforce them for good academic performance.	855x4=3420	25x3=75	25x2=50	50	3595	3.76	Accepted
16	Students feel happy and motivated when their single parents discuss their academic career with them.	744x4=2976	112x3=336	21x2=42	60	3414	3.57	Accepted
17	Broken families motivate students by paying for their school expenses.	0	0	855x4=3420	100	3520	3.69	Accepted

Key: SA = Strongly Agree, A= Agree, SA=Strongly Disagree and D = Disagree

The result presented on Table 4 shows that all items had mean scores which were above average of 2.50. This is an indication that the respondents considered single parental motivation as capable of influencing students' academic performance negatively or positively.

Discussion

The results of the study, summarised, show that respondents overwhelmingly agree that parental level is a contributory factor in students' academic performance. The findings of this study tend to agree with the

opinions expressed by Onochie and Okpalla (1985) who maintain that children from broken families may learn little or nothing from home that can help them to develop interest in academics.

But the results also indicate that both parents can provide enabling environment for studies at home. This is in line with Qeca (1980) who asserts that children from literate families where parents provide atmosphere conducive for the formation of good study habit have a better chance of performing well in schools. Again the results also agree with Izundu (2005) who asserts that there is a significant relationship between the family background and the academic performance of the students.

The respondents agreed that students of intact home performed better than those from broken home. This is in conformity with Francis (2007) who opined that the broken homes may be aware of the importance of education in the society, but at the same time they are also aware of their limited resources to measure up with such educational demands. According to the author, a broken family can scarcely provide for the basic needs of the family which include food, shelter, learning aids and clothing, etc. Instead, they will pressurise their children to seek for job opportunities with the little education they acquire to support the family.

Research question four examined the effect of parents' motivation on students' academic performance. The respondents agreed that both parents' level of motivation affects students' academic performance positively. This result is in conformity with Akubue and Okolo (2008) who identified motivation as the most important factor that effect educational attainment. They observed that the most important factor that affects educational performance of children appears to be the degree of parent's interest in their children's education.

Conclusion

The study concluded that broken home factor affects academic performance of students in schools. This is because either of both parents can realise the importance of being educated. Living together makes parents to stand a better chance to support their children for better academic performance rather than living apart. Above all, students from broken families require determination and tolerance to pursue their career by making use of school facilities during and after school hours to enable them attain high academic performance. Teachers also need to be more motivational in their teaching. This is possible when they vary their method of teaching and teaching aids to take cognisance of the individual differences inherent in the students from their different family backgrounds.

Recommendations

Education is an important instrument of change in modern societies. Provision of adequate and relevant education is the best thing a nation can do

for its citizens. This is more so, because education is a virile weapon against ignorance, disease, poverty and as a means of producing enlightened, responsible and industrious citizenry (broken and intact home) and prosperous nation. Based on this background, the following recommendations were made:

- Single parents should be made to realise the importance of motivation in determining their children's academic performance in schools, especially the realisation that most of the male students are abandoning school for business. Single parents should be actively involved in encouraging students to learn and also in supervising students' academic work at home.
- Single parents' students' should give serious attention to studies at home, in addition to other works done, since the amount of effort they put in their studies affect their academic performance.
- Teachers should understand that teaching is a job of conscience. Teachers should handle the students as their own children; try by all means to meet the students' academic social and psychological needs. They should be motivational in their teaching and use different teaching methods so as to go along with all categories of students. This will help bridge deficiencies from broken home.

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Gender and Religious Affiliation as Determinants of Emotional Adjustment of Transfer Undergraduates in Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife

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Abstract

This authors examine the influence of religious affiliation on the emotional adjustment of transfer students of Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria. They also examine the influence of gender and age on their emotional adjustment. They utilise the purposive sampling technique to select 164 undergraduates from the Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria to participate in the study. Data is collected using a standardised psychological scale, the Emotional Adjustment Scale (EAS) and subjected to the independent t-test as well as One-way Analysis of Variance (One-Way ANOVA). Results reveal that religion affiliation has a significant influence on the emotional adjustment of transfer students $\{t(162)=3.37, p<0.05\}$ but gender $\{t(162)=0.77, p>0.05\}$ and age $\{F(2,161)=0.297, p>0.05\}$ have no significant influence on emotional adjustment among transfer students. The authors conclude that religious activities on campus have been able to provide a cushioning effect to transfer students who had emotional difficulties coping with their new departments.

Key words: emotional adjustment; religious affiliation; gender and transfer students

Introduction

Adjustment, according to Halonen and Santrock (1997), is the psychological process used to adapt, cope and manage the problems faced in daily life, which vary from one individual to another and across various spheres of life. Adjustments among university students is multi-faceted and have been discussed under four dimensions *viz.* academic, social, personal-emotional and adjustment to the university (Baker & Siryk, 1999). Academic adjustment reflects how well a student copes with numerous educational demands like meeting deadlines for submission of assignment, class presentations, attendance of lectures and examinations at various levels. Social adjustment explains the degree to which a student copes well with various interpersonal and societal demands on campus. The extent to which a student experiences and copes with psychological distress captures their personal-emotional adjustment. In other words, it defines both the physical and psychological wellbeing of students. The fourth dimension of adjustment reflects the university is the overall satisfaction that a student has regarding a particular university that a student is enrolled to pursue a degree.

Emotional adjustment is not a new phenomenon to researchers. In fact,

it has continued to attract research attention from many disciplines, especially behavioural sciences. Sufian (2004) defined the concept as individual's ability to fulfil his/her psychological needs and self-acceptance as well as enjoying life without any type of conflicts and accepting social activities and participation in social activities. This shows that, it is a behaviour geared towards overcoming challenges or the techniques employed by individuals to fulfil needs and satisfy motives as well as reducing pressure in order to achieve balance and satisfaction (Al-ananni, 2005). In other words, it is an internal and exchangeable process that people use to manage and control one or more components of their current emotion in a conscious or unconscious way so as to adjust their experience, manner or excitation (Bercking, Wooperman, Richard, Pejickove, Dipel & Zenoj, 2008). Diamond and Spinoal (2003) opined that emotional adjustment is an "important precondition for many of person's mental-social functions such as cognition process, probe behaviours, social capability and problem solving".

University education expects students to properly adjust to various demands that are required for the award of a degree. It often involves consistent commitment in form of class attendance, completing both individual and group assignments, meeting term paper deadlines, writing examinations as well as accepting the results when released. Students have to cope with all these right from when they are being offered admission to pursue a degree in a particular discipline and university. However, some students find it difficult to cope with the demands of their course of study. Therefore, seek a way out in other departments where their dreams could be realised. But there is another set of students who realise that they cannot cope with the stress of their current department and in a bid not to be "advised to withdraw" decide to transfer to a department they think they can perform better and get desirable grades.

This study will focus on the latter category of students mentioned above. There are procedures to follow and these procedures are definitely stressful and emotionally weakening. Often times the individual transferring to another department is being perceived as unserious, or quite lazy in his or her former department. At this point, the self-esteem of the individual may be threatened. He or she may possibly begin to get unfavourable reactions from his or her sponsors. Due to inability to cope with stress in the former department, the individual begins to feel a loss of control over the situations surrounding him/her the individual and, therefore, finds it quite difficult to achieve as much results in their academics.

Many a time, these students would have lost at least the first two semesters to some pretty bad grades due to mal-adjustment before they begin to face the reality of the new department and start making a head way. A lot of what has been mentioned above explains how the transfer process affects a student's emotional balance. As stressful as this process appears, a number of factors are capable of influencing individual adjustment. This may include maturity, socio-economic status, locus of control, gender, family background,

and religious affiliation (Wider, Halik, Mustapha & Bahari, 2016; Ning & Murphy, 2018) to mention a few.

Adjustment to university life can be a strong indicator of the academic and intellectual progress of the students, on the one hand, and the achievement of personal goals, on the other. Therefore, each stage of students' university life is important as he moves from absolute dependence on the family into complete independence. Moreover, many students move away from their cities into new places causing a change in their cultural, social and psychological environment, this may affect their adjustment with the university life (Al-shinawi & Abdurrahman, 1994). It is pertinent to affirm that university life has its own demands and challenges, the inability to meet those demands and challenges will result to academic, psychological and social problems for the student who is in turn affected by those problems (Abu Baker, 1997). Thus, it is necessary to guide students to attain adjustment to avoid those problems and achieve their goals. In a longitudinal study by Jackson, Pancer, Pratt & Hunsberger (2000), on the nature of student's expectations about university life and their relation with adjustment in a university, students whose expectations were fearful reported more stress, depression and poorer university adjustment than students with other types of expectations.

Adjustments at specific aspects of college life across gender have also been examined. For instance, Enoch and Roland (2006) established that female students were low on social adjustments compared to male students in educational and personal-psychological adjustment dimensions. Nyamayaro and Saravanan (2013) found that female students experienced more stress and anxiety when compared to their male counterparts. Abdullah, Elias, Mahyiddin and Uli (2009) further confirmed that male students had higher overall adjustment to university life than female students did. On the contrary, Kaur (2012) argued that no gender differences exist in overall adjustment to college life among college students.

In Astin's (1999) view, a highly involved student is one who, for example, devotes considerable energy to studying, spends much time on campus, participates actively in student organisations, and interacts frequently with faculty members as well as other students. The roles of peers in successful adjustments have also been established. For instance, Bohnert, Aikins, and Edidin (2007) found that positive peer relationships are connected with high levels of confidence in their capacity for success in college. Upcraft and Gardner (1989) confirmed that the development of peer relationships was a predictor of both student success and retention. Other researchers conveyed that good associations with people strengthened self-identity and satisfaction (Freeman, Anderman, & Jensen, 2007) that could invariably lead to successful adjustment. Astin (1985) and Tinto (1993) highlighted the importance of peer relationships as the vehicle to understanding the process of social integration and cognitive development.

Involvement in extracurricular activities (both social and academic) has been found to serve as a springboard toward positive academic adjustment (Astin, 1985; Bohnert, Aikins, & Edidin, 2007). Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) stressed that no involvement in activities created social isolation which could lead to suicide (Enochs & Roland, 2006). Extracurricular participation provides an opportunity for social integration, offers emotional benefits, and allows interpersonal development (Bohnert, Aikins, & Edidin, 2007).

Evidence from the literature shows that emotional adjustment effects achievement in an indirect way. This is because students who are unstable have been reported to perform less well in their studies in proportion to their intelligence than students who were well balanced. Failure to achieve proper adjustment at university may be a precursor to psychological problems. This may include stress, anxiety and depression. Students experience adjustment difficulties when there is a difference between their expectations and realities of college life. Several aspects of these differences have been examined, especially, among first year college students. Therefore, there is a need for a study to examine emotional adjustments among students who are on campus but find it difficult to cope with their initial courses of study and need to find a soft landing (transfer) to another department in order to earn a degree. Therefore, the specific objectives of the present study were to

- a. examine the influence of religious affiliation on the emotional adjustment among transfer students of Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife;
- b. investigate the influence of gender on emotional adjustment of transfer students of the university; and
- c. investigate the influence of age on emotional adjustment of the transfer students.

Theoretical Framework

This study is anchored on the Cognitive Adaptation Theory (CAT). The theory was first proposed by Taylor (1983) as a process occurring after a threatening event such as a chronic illness, a major failure, a setback in a desired endeavour or any event that threatens smooth adjustment. It was proposed that successful adaptation towards maladjustment is accomplished through engagement in a series of mildly positive self-relevant cognitive distortions. According to Taylor (1983), the adjustment process in response to a threatening event involves:

- a search for meaning where the individual tries to achieve or maintain an optimistic attitude towards the event or towards life in general,
- an attempt to regain mastery over the event or over one's life in general, and
- a restoration of self-esteem.

Subsequently, Taylor & Brown (1988) reframed these cognitive distortions in terms of 'positive illusions' and further suggested that optimism, perceived control, and positive self-perceptions promote well-being. In other words, these features ensure successful adjustment.

Whether these components of CAT are illusions or not is beyond the scope of this study, which argues that cognitive adaptation can occur not only when there is a highly threatening event but also in everyday life. The focus of this study will thus be on 'normal', healthy individuals that are not undergoing a major threatening event such as a chronic illness. In line with Taylor and Brown (1988), it is maintained that optimism, perceived control and positive self-perceptions can have beneficial influence on individual adaptation. It is necessary to discuss the three reframed components of CAT.

The first component of CAT posits that individuals do not perceive themselves objectively, with both positive and negative attributes. Instead, they typically evaluate themselves in a positive way. The second component of CAT implies individuals' belief that they have the ability to control their environment. That is, individuals perceive themselves to have mastery over uncontrollable events. They tend to exaggerate their capabilities to achieve desired results in the face of conflicting challenges. The third component suggests that individuals hold an optimistic outlook on life.

Research Hypotheses

1. Religion affiliation has no significant influence on emotional adjustment among transfer students.
2. Gender has no significant influence on emotional adjustment among transfer students.
3. Age has no significant influence on emotional adjustment among transfer students.

Method

Participants

A total of one hundred and sixty-four (164) transfer undergraduates of Obafemi Awolowo University Ile-Ife, Nigeria participated in the study. It comprised of 109 male and 55 female participants that were selected through the stratified random sampling from the Faculty of Social Sciences where most of the transfer students are found. The university has a provision for students who find it difficult to cope in their initial department of choice, providing them the privilege to earn a degree. Participants were selected from the six departments in the faculty.

Measures

The research instrument for the study was a questionnaire that was

divided into two sections. The first section includes items that seek information on respondents' socio-demographic variables such as age, gender and religion. In this category, gender has two levels: male and female. Religion also has just two levels which are the most practiced on campus: Christianity and Islam. The second section focused on Emotional Adjustment Scale. The scale contains statement/items that seek information on respondent's emotional adjustment. The scale was developed by Kleinmuntz (1961) which consist of 41 items. However, 20 items were adapted from the original 41 items in the study. The response format is true or false dichotomous response. The content validity technique was employed to establish the validity of the scale. The reliability of the adjustment scale has been previously estimated. Literature shows that Butcher *et.al*, (1989) have provided the American psychometrics property for the scale, while Adekunle (2002) had reported the reliability of the instrument among Nigerian participants. However, the adapted version of the scale was subjected to test-retest reliability with 0.76 coefficient of r.

Procedure

The procedure for administration of the questionnaire required the distribution of the questionnaire to respondents in their various departments with the assistance of departmental secretaries who helped to identify transfer students. Copies of the research questionnaire were left at the departmental secretariats and collected after a period of three days.

Data Analysis

The first hypothesis states that religious affiliation will have a significant influence on emotional adjustment among transfer undergraduates. An independent sample t-test was employed to analyse the data and test the hypothesis at 0.05% significant level. Religion in this study has two levels (Christianity and Islam). Respondents who were affiliated to Christianity religion and their Muslims counterparts were compared on their level of emotional adjustment. The analysis summary is presented in table 1.

Results, as indicated on Table 1, showed that religion had a significant influence on students' emotional adjustment $\{t(162)=3.37, p<0.05\}$. It further revealed that transfer students who indicated that they were Christian ($\bar{X}=43.98, SD=6.66$) displayed better emotional adjustment than their Muslims counterparts ($\bar{X}=40.18, SD=7.09$). The result showed that transfer undergraduates who were Christians had better emotional adjustment than those that were Muslims. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative accepted.

Table 1: Summary of the Independent Sample t- test Table on Influence of Religion on Emotional Adjustment

Variables	<i>N</i>	\bar{X}	<i>SD</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>t-cal</i>	<i>p-val</i>
Emotional Adjustment	Christians	109	43.98	6.66	162	3.374 0.001
	Islam	55	40.18	7.09		

The second hypothesis states that gender will have a significant influence on emotional adjustment among transfer undergraduates. The independent sample t-test was employed to analyse the data and test the hypothesis. The procedure for analysis involved comparing the mean score of male transfer undergraduates with those of their female counterpart on emotional adjustment; the summary of the analysis is presented in Table 2.

Results from Table 2 revealed that gender had no significance influence on emotional adjustment { $t(162)=0.77, p>0.05$ }. It further revealed that female transfer undergraduates ($\bar{X}=43.10, SD=7.46$) displayed better emotional adjustment than their male counterparts ($\bar{X}=42.26, SD=6.51$). Thus, the hypothesis that gender will have a significant influence on emotional adjustment was rejected.

Table 2: Summary of Independent Sample t- test Table showing Influence of Gender on Emotional Adjustment

Variables	<i>N</i>	\bar{X}	<i>SD</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>t-cal</i>	<i>p-val</i>
Emotional Adjustment	Male	77	42.26	6.51	162	0.767 0.444
	Female	87	43.10	7.46		

The third hypothesis states that age will have a significant influence on emotional adjustment among undergraduates. The hypothesis was tested with a One-way Analysis of Variance setting the level significant at 0.05%. In this study, respondents' age was categorised into three groups (16-20yrs, 21-25yrs

and 26-30yrs). Respondents in each of these three groups were then compared based on their scores on emotional adjustment. The analysis is summarised and presented in Table 3a and 3b.

The analysis summary in Table 3b revealed that age had no significant influence on emotional adjustment ($F(2,161)=0.297, p>0.05$). This suggests that the emotional adjustment of transfer students was similar across different age groups. Furthermore, the descriptive analysis in Table 3a further buttresses this claim. This is shown in both the mean and standard deviation scores across the age groups, which are as follows: respondents within the age range of 16-20years ($N=20, \bar{X} 41.90, SD=7.64$), those within 21-25 years reports ($N=125, \bar{X} =42.94, SD=7.06$)and those within 26-30 years ($N=19, \bar{X} =42.00, SD=6.33$). Also from Table 3a, it was observed that transfer undergraduates within the age range of 21-25 years had the highest mean score. This indicated that they were still able to fairly adjust better emotionally than those within the age range of 16-20 years with the lowest mean and standard deviation.

Table 3a: Descriptive Analysis of Age on Emotional Adjustment

Variables	N	Mean	Standard deviation
16-20yrs	20	41.90	7.64
21-25yrs	125	42.94	7.06
26-30yrs	19	42.00	6.33
Total	164	42.71	7.02

Table 3b: Summary Table of One Way Anova of Age and Emotional Adjustment

Groups	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F-val	P-val
Between Groups	29.543	2	14.772		
Within Groups	8008.408	161	49.742	.297	.743
Total	8037.951	163			

Discussion

The findings from the first hypothesis revealed that religion had significant influence on emotional adjustment among transfer students in Obafemi Awolowo University. Respondents who were Christian reported better emotional adjustment compared to their Muslim counterparts. A plausible explanation for this may not be far from the fact that Christians are exposed to various spiritual activities such as singing, praying aloud and visitations to encourage one another. Therefore, if there is any student that is depressed, having other Christians around him or her may help them come out of such depression and face the realities of the new departments.

Findings from the second hypothesis on gender revealed that there was no significant difference between male and female respondent on emotional adjustment. The process involved comparing the response of male and female transfer students rating on emotional adjustment scale. The findings showed that both male and female transfer students experienced similar level emotional adjustment. In other words, gender had nothing to do with emotional adjustment; individuals found different ways to deal with the demands of their environment regardless of the challenges encountered. This result agreed with that of Ashraf (2013) who found no significant difference between male and female college students in terms of adjustment in school.

Findings from the third hypothesis on age revealed that there was no significant influence of age on emotional adjustment. A possible explanation for this could be that majority of the transfer students fall within the age range of 21 – 26, which suggests that they might have spent at least two or more years in their previous departments and were used to the rigours of the academic environment. They had been exposed to the process of assignment completion and capacity for meeting deadlines.

Conclusion

Based on the findings, it is deduced that age and gender do not have any influence on emotional adjustment of transfer students; however religion affiliation influenced emotional adjustment of transfer students. In all, the study has been able to establish that successful emotional adjustment is required for transfer students to perform well in their new department. Therefore, the following recommendations are made:

- Students should take the necessary steps for getting adequate rest, socialising, and participating in physical activities.
- Universities should also make campus recreation facilities accessible to offer several resources that students can utilise to achieve wellness.
- There should be a psychology clinic where these students could be referred to for proper counselling.

- Lastly and very importantly is the need to encourage religious activities in such a manner that it will continue to assist students in emotional adjustment.

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Challenges of Education and Distance Learning in Nigeria

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Abstract

The author investigates online instructional delivery in the face of the challenges of education in Nigeria. He adopts an ex-post factor or causal comparative design and selects instructors participating in open and distance learning at Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria as respondents. A self-designed but validated questionnaire is used to collect data from the participants. The questionnaire items are administered to participants who participate in training sessions organised by the Centre for Distance Learning to prepare them for effective course design and delivery of e-learning platform. The findings reveal that instructors agree that e-learning would address problems of restricted admission in regular traditional institutions, non-flexibility of face-to-face delivery method for distance learning students and enhance personal and work management of instructors. The participants have a positive perception of the prospects of e-learning in Nigeria. **Key words:** challenges of education, E-learning, Distance Education

Introduction

Initially in Nigeria, Distance Education was being delivered in intensive face-to-face model either by the weekends or during student holiday period. This was the only time when working people have the opportunity to attend classroom for instruction. The idea is also borne out of the fact that teachers constitute a substantial percentage of the clientele of part time studies. The National Teachers' Institute, which was the first dedicated institution to commence part-time studies, was established with the main purpose of training teachers to make up for the surge in the school enrolment following the introduction of free primary education in 1976, thus it can be inferred that the philosophy of part-time studies was built around the teaching profession.

The limitations to the arrangements of face-to-face delivery model for distance education students is obvious. First, it does not give room for flexibility that will suit distant learners. Second, the propensity to reach a large audience of learners is limited as brick and mortar classroom can accommodate a limited number of learners. These challenges are not limited to distant learners only. The face-to-face traditional university is confronted with similar challenges. The large audience in many classrooms does not give room for individualised instruction. There is continuous growing number of applicants for university admission but are being denied for wanting of space and other facilities. ICT enhanced model of Distance Education provides a platform that could be used as alternate platform to address some educational challenges This has enhanced the adoption of electronic mediated instructional delivery platform

(Reddy and Srivastav 2003, Ajadi, Salawu and Adeoye 2008, Olaore 2014 and Ketema and Nirmala 2015)

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to explore whether the adoption of e-Learning model of instruction would address the challenges faced in face-to-face instructional delivery. It investigates instructors' perception of educational challenges e-learning will address in Nigeria. The specific objectives are to

- a. identify the challenges of education in Nigeria; and
- b. examine how e-learning can address the identified challenges.

Research Questions

- i. What are the challenges of education in Nigeria?
- ii. How would e-learning address the challenges of education in Nigeria?

Literature Review

Challenges of Education in Nigeria

Education in Nigeria is confronted with numerous challenges which have negatively affected the output in terms of quantity and quality of graduates. In the rating of institutions, Nigerian universities are usually found wanting with respect to favourable ratings. The latest ratings by the Cybermetrics Lab shows that no Nigerian university is within the first ten universities in Africa, and not within the first one thousand in the world.

Some of the challenges have been widely reported through research findings and scholars' debates on the problem of education in Nigeria. Identified problems are poor preparation and malpractices, poverty, poor parenting /guidance (Odia and Omofonmwan, 2007); poor funding, inadequate facilities and staff training (Uwaifo, 2010); inadequate and low quality of teachers, inadequate and decay infrastructural facilities, indiscipline of students, low quality intakes, inappropriate curriculum (Ige, 2013); restricted access, inadequate teaching/learning as it reflects in usage of traditional pedagogy, deficient governance/management (Jaja, 2013). Jaja (2013) holds the opinion that fundamental inputs that promote quality education in Nigeria are poor and hence the output cannot be of good quality. According to him, the inputs are proprietor responsibility and marketability of products of the university.

The aspect that is of great concern for the purpose of this paper are accessibility of learners to higher education in the face of increasing enrolment and flexibility and quality of learning. It is surprising to observe that increase in institution has not proportionally affected the number of applicants being admitted in Nigeria. Available statistics shows that the rate of enrolment is far low, compared to those who are seeking for university admission. Increase in the number of higher institutions not proportion to the growing rate of applicants. The probable explanations are higher population growth rate of

school-age citizens than before, rigorous enlightenment of the need for further education, or that more parents are more economically empowered to finance the education of their wards. Whatever may be the deciding factor(s), the existing institutions cannot cope with the growing school enrolment (Okeke, 2009; Oyeleke, 2016).

It is noteworthy that private organisations are venturing into the establishment of higher institutions. But the fees are comparably higher than what obtains in public-owned institutions; hence, it becomes prohibitive for learners from middle class background. The thinking that institutions should look for alternative means of funding is becoming acceptable among stakeholders. Funding is the core problem of higher education in Nigeria and it is the “heart of educational crisis” (Philip, 2014). The notion that funding is a major challenge of education has been sufficiently and appropriately addressed by the former Secretary of National University Commission-Prof Julius Okojie (Okojie, 2010). Most institutions are public funded, and mainly rely on grants from government which are usually insufficient. Poor funding has led to brain drain, low morale among staff, incessant strike action, lack of enough laboratory facilities for science and technology based courses, low or virtual non-existence of research grants. These are substantiated by incessant industrial action among professional unions in Nigeria higher institutions. The table 1 below shows the percentage of budgetary allocation to education sector as against 20-26% recommended by the UNESCO. The table 2 below shows the state of funding among universities in Nigeria between 1999 and 2013.

In an attempt to tackle the challenges headlong, Philip (2014) proposes the following measures: regular contributions from stakeholders such as communities, states, church organisations; involvement of large corporations for regular contribution to education in cash or by building classrooms, lecture rooms and by supplying equipment; contributions from wealthy philanthropic; regular financial support from international bodies such as the World Bank, UNESCO, UNICEF, UNDP, and UNFPA and other financial assistance through bilateral agreement between Nigeria and other countries.

The study adopted ex-post factor or causal comparative design. This was adopted because the variables under investigation could not be manipulated under experimental condition, however, cause and effect relationship should be established for the study. The study population consists of instructors in Nursing, Accounting, Education and Economics programme being run at the Centre for Distance Learning (CDL), Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife.

Table 1: Federal Government Budgetary Allocation to the Education Sector

Year	Allocated as Percentage of Total Budget	Year	Allocated as Percentage of Total Budget
1960	6.02	1987	1.93
1961	5.15	1988	2.40
1962	5.19	1989	3.55
1963	3.43	1990	2.83
1964	3.65	1991	1.09
1965	3.57	1992	3.86
1966	4.23	1993	5.62
1967	4.88	1994	7.13
1968	2.84	1995	7.20
1969	2.20	1996	12.32
1970	0.69	1997	17.59
1971	0.53	1999	11.12
1972	0.62	2000	8.36
1973	0.88	2001	7.00
1974	2.96	2002	5.9
1975	4.57	2003	1.83
1976	8.71	2004	10.5
1977	3.12	2005	9.3
1978	11.44	2006	11.00
1979	3.70	2007	8.09
1980	4.95	2008	13.00
1981	6.45	2009	6.54
1982	8.09	2010	6.40-
1983	4.04	2011	1.69
1984	4.49	2012	10.0
1985	3.79	2013	8.70
1986	2.69	2014	10.7
1998	10.27		

Sources: Kpolovie and Obilor (2013), p 243 and *The Punch*, January 11, 2015

Table 2: Funding of Universities in Nigeria between 1999 and 2013

Year	Education Budget	Total Budget	% of Total Budget
1999	2,700,000,000	60,549,835,647	4.46
2000	40,940,663,330	470,009,971,781	8.71
2001	63,783,776,900	894,214,805,186	7.13
2002	73,435,499,300	1,064,801,253,520	6.90
2003	75,707,827,520	976,254,543,375	7.75
2004	93,767,886,839	1,790,848,344,588	5.24
2005	147,835,527,799	1,799,938,243,138	8.21
2006	195,693,672,666	1,876,302,363,351	10.43
2007	221,071,774,929	2,266,394,423,477	9.75
2008	250,144,818,579	2,492,076,718,937	10.04
2009	252,204,813,495	2,870,510,042,679	8.79
2010	339,634,791,000	4,608,616,278,213	7.37
2011	393,810,171,775	4,226,191,559,259	9.32
2012	468,385,490,528	4,749,100,821,170	9.86
2013	509,039,713,761	4,987,220,425,601	10.21
	3, 156,428,420	128, 35,133,029,629,922	8.28

Methodology

The participants were selected on the basis of availability as those who attended a training programme organised by the Centre towards empowering the instructors on ODL delivery platform were used for the study. At the end of the exercise a total number of 120 participants were used. A self-designed, but validated questionnaire was used to collect data from the participants. The process of validation was to initially administer the questionnaire item to staff of CDL and the reliability was statistically determined, using test-re-test reliability with a result of 0.73 co-efficient. The training programme covers the technological, management, technical and pedagogical requirements for the successful implementation of e-learning. It is a continuous one and spanned over three years and usually between three to four days per group. The questionnaire items were usually administered on the first day of the programme and collected before the end of the training. The data collected were analysed using simple percentages.

Results and Discussion

Objective 1 (a): Determine advantages of e-learning. The objective elicits data from respondents on the presumed advantages of eLearning as shown in literature. Variables considered are parameters of education access peculiar to the Nigeria context. The data below is generated from the respondents.

Table 3: Solution to Educational Access (Admission Challenges and Funding)

Items	Yes		Not Sure		No	
	f	%	F	%	f	%
E-learning programme will						
solve the problem of high cut-off mark	24	36.9	33	50.8	8	12.3
reduce admission tension	50	76.9	14	21.5	1	1.5
provide better access to education opportunities	54	83.1	10	15.4	1	1.5

It is believed by 36.9% of the respondents (instructors) that e-learning will solve the problem of high cut-off mark, whereas 12.3% disagreed and 50.8% were not sure. In addition, 76.9% of the instructors agreed that e-learning is capable of reducing admission tension, 1.5% disagreed while 21.5% were not sure. While 83.1% of them were in favour of e-learning providing better access to education opportunities, 1.5% did not agree and 15.4% of them were not sure.

The phenomenal growth in school-age population in Nigeria is creating a tension in the education sector as the existing institutions cannot provide the required placement for all prospective applicants.

Objective 1(b) - Benefits of e-learning that would address the challenges of ineffective teaching and learning experiences. The focus of the objective is to obtain data on variables such as organisation of learning, knowledge reinforcement, and conduct of research, time management and classroom activities. The response generated is shown in the table 4 below:

Table 4: Personal Effectiveness and Work Organisation

	Yes		Not Sure		No	
	f	%	F	%	f	%
E-learning programme will enhance						
effective organisation of work	58	89.2	6	9.2	1	1.5
better organisation of teaching and learning	57	87.7	7	10.8	1	1.5
my effectiveness to catch up missed lectures	45	69.2	19	29.2	1	1.5
effectiveness in creating presentations	54	83.1	11	16.9	-	-
effectiveness in working outside of the class	58	89.2	6	9.2	1	1.5
knowledge reinforcement and knowledge	56	86.2	8	12.3	1	1.5
effectiveness to conducting research.	48	73.8	16	24.6	1	1.5
effective time management skills for both teachers and students	54	83.1	11	16.9	-	-
effectiveness in handling assignment and class work	39	60.0	24	36.9	2	3.1

Concerning the provision of new opportunities for organising teaching and learning, the vast majority (87.7%) of them agreed, 10.8% were not sure and 1.5% of them disagreed. Also, 69.2% of the instructors agreed that e-learning would enhance their effectiveness to catch up missed lectures while 1.5% and 29.2% of them respectively disagreed and not sure. Furthermore, 83.1% of them indicated that e-learning would enhance their effectiveness to create presentations, 16.9% were not sure while none of them disagreed. Similarly, almost all of them (89.2%) believed that e-learning would enhance their effectiveness to work outside of the class, 9.2% were not sure and 1.5% of them disagreed.

Concerning instructors' effectiveness towards organising their respective work, almost (89.2%) of them agreed while 1.5% and 9.2% of them respectively disagreed and were not sure. On the enhancement of instructors' effectiveness towards reinforcement of their knowledge, the vast majority (86.2%) of them believed that e-learning was capable, 1.5% did not and 12.3% were not sure. Finally, 73.8% of the instructors believed that e-learning would

enhance their effectiveness to conduct research, 1.5% disagreed while 24.6% were not sure that e-learning could enhance their effectiveness in conducting research. It was also believed by 83.1% of the instructors that e-learning would save time and effort for both teachers and students and 16.9% of them were not sure. However, none of them disagreed that such benefit as saving time and effort for both the teachers and students could be derived through e-learning. On the enhancement of instructors’ effectiveness in submitting their works on time, 60.0% of them believed that e-learning was capable in this direction, 3.1% did not and 36.9% were not sure.

Objective 1 (c) Benefits of e-learning that would address the challenges of quality of teaching. The objective focuses on variables such as interactivity and engagement between learners and instructors, use of multimedia, better achievement of instructional objectives, flexibility and individualised instruction.

Table 5: Improve Quality of Teaching

	Yes		Not Sure		No	
	f	%	F	%	f	%
E-learning programme will						
improve interaction between students and teachers	39	60.0	20	30.8	6	9.2
enhance the pedagogic value of a course	43	66.2	21	32.3	1	1.5
engage learners in more than face-to-face forms of learning	37	56.9	25	38.5	3	4.6
increase the quality of teaching and learning because it integrates all of media, print, audio, video and animation.	51	78.5	9	13.8	5	7.7
enable instructors to achieve better results	44	67.7	19	29.2	2	3.1
solve many of the educational problems	28	43.1	34	52.3	3	4.6
increase the flexibility of teaching and learning	62	95.4	2	3.1	1	1.5

As far as improvement in interaction between students and teachers is concerned, 60.0% of the instructors believed that e-learning was capable of achieving this feat, 9.2% disagreed while 30.8% were not sure. 66.2% of the instructors believed that e-learning had the potential of enhancing pedagogic value of a course, whereas 1.5% of them disagreed and 32.3% were not sure.

Engaging learners in more than face-to-face learning as an advantage had 56.9% of the instructors in support; 4.6% did not, while 38.5% were not

sure. 78.5% of the instructors believed that e-learning increased the quality of teaching and learning because it integrates all of media, print, audio, video and animation; 7.7% shared a contrary opinion, while 13.8% of them were not sure. That e-learning would enable the instructors achieve better had 67.7% in agreement, 3.1% in disagreement and 29.2% who were not sure. It can be observed that 43.1% of the instructors were of the opinion that e-learning would solve many of the educational problems, 4.6% of them shared a contrary opinion while 52.3% of them were not sure. Increasing the flexibility of teaching and learning as an advantage had 95.4% of the instructors' support, 1.5% did not, while 3.1% were not sure.

Discussion

The model for distance education in Nigeria is based on issues which are impact on local communities and space for students who are denied admission in the face-to-face institution but still meet the entry requirement. In addition, there is the issue of "second chance" learners who were denied the opportunity at their school-age period, but still desire educational experience. This category of learners will not need to leave their geographical location or leave their employment, but can enrol online to have access. The working class group is also afforded opportunities to update their knowledge base, those who are seeking promotion, and such is tied to additional qualification can enrol for online education. The study validates the thinking on how e-learning can address increasing number of high school admission seekers to higher institution that meet admission criteria but are unable to get placement.

It is reported that about 86% of those seeking admission are denied annually (Oyeleke, 2016). As online learning is given consideration and widely embraced in Nigeria, the 86.58 percent denied admission in regular face-to-face classroom can be considered. It also opens learners to the possibilities of flexibility in online platform. Learners can study at their own pace and working class learners can enrol for further studies while in active employment. The benefits of access is linked with funding. A good of number of online learners are likely to belong to the working class group. This puts them in a better financial position to pay for online courses, which can also serve as source of revenue to institutions (Nakpodia, 2010).

As online learning can be another source of internally generated fund, this, however, should not be at the expense of institutional social responsibility role. Distance education can ease challenges of funding. It has potentials to be a major source of income as internally generated revenue for institutions. Globally, the market value of e-learning is expanding (Abdul Karim and Hashim, 2004). Cost benefits analysis is not only seen from an institutional perspective. Ojo, Ogidan, and Olakulehin (2006) submit that the establishment of National Open University of Nigeria is essentially beneficial to Nigerians in terms of accessibility, manpower development in diverse fields of learning and organisational training of workforce at lower costs. The proportional low

number of institutions and limited facilities emanate from poor funding by government affect access.

Success in online learning requires some measure of discipline. Designing of course content, keeping up with deadlines, facilitation of discussions, giving of appropriate and prompt feedback require a high level of personal management skills both for instructors and learners. Aspects of personal management are time management, organisational skills and ability to multi-task. From personal experience in the process of designing the researcher institution online programmes, it was observed that a good number of instructors did not have detailed comprehensive notes and the process of gathering the required materials for course development took its toll on course development procedure. Making these materials available for online course design has not only enhanced instructors' resources and skills; they are more organised in their approach to teaching in face-to-face classroom teachings. Online learning platform offers ranges of choices for learners in respect of time, access and location. It can be any of same time, same location (synchronous, blended approach); same time, different location (synchronous/video conferencing); different time, different location (asynchronous/Discussion forum); different time, same location (asynchronous). These variations of formats offer flexibility in learning, which obviously face-to-face learning does not provide.

Learners need not to travel to institution's location since teaching and learning are executed separately (More, 2013). A busy executive in the office while delegating authority to the subordinates or assigning tasks to be implemented, may browse through postings on the discussion board, upload assignments, contribute to ongoing discussion and collaborate with other learners. In this scenario, the classroom has been taken to the office.

Online learning employs the use of various media that have potentials to appeal to various segments of learners. Media such as discussion forums, YouTube, video/audio, and wiki. Most of these learning objects are domiciled in the Learning Management System, and are potentially readily available to learners. Audio/video media will appeal to learners whose style is auditory and visual. Text materials will appeal to visual learners and learners can have a mixed media to enhance their complex learning styles. Learning styles have significant effect on learning outcomes. Computer based instruction improved learning and online learning can appropriate divergent cognitive and learning styles with various multi-media presentation to enhance learning (Wall, 2012). Online learning supports application of constructivism ideas. The theory advocates the creation of knowledge by learners. Knowledge is not subject to idealist view of what experts construe knowledge to be, but subject to individual base on interaction with environment and product of past experience. Learning activities in online takes place in Learning Management System (LMS) and its design is rooted in constructivist principles.

In distance education, learners are expected to take control of their learning activities. They are not just passive recipients of facts as poured out by instructors, but are collaborators with instructors to create knowledge and give it meanings. In online platform, the roles of instructors and learners change. There is a greater emphasis on the quality of learner interaction as instructors are fostering engagement and collaboration in the online learning space. Instructors are no longer 'high master' but become facilitators, coaches and guides. Online learning provides a platform to give 'life' and application to the tenets of constructivist ideas (Koohang, Riley, and Smith, 2009; Schell, and Janicki, 2012).

E-learning supports pedagogical implication of constructivism by enhancing a student-centred learning. Students take active participation in learning and take responsibilities for their studies (Alina. 2007) Richmond (1997) observes that there is a positive link between curriculum and ICT in three major areas, namely: presentation, demonstration and implementation of data using media tools; use curriculum – specific applications such as educational games, drills and practice, simulations, tutorials, virtual laboratory, visualisations and graphics; and use of information and resources on CD-Rom, electronic journals and other references.

There is a psychological context to the positive side of e-learning. Greater anonymity, which allows learners to express their opinion without fear of inferiority complex, is an advantage in an online environment. There is diminution of the importance of physical appearance which may influence self-perception. Interaction is by text, devoid of physical personality influence. There is greater control over time and space. Participants choose preferred learning location that can be a source of security, comfort and can inspire motivation. This can stimulate psychological well-being and positive attitude toward e-learning. The provisions of the National Policy on Education (NPE) extend beyond access and meeting the needs of manpower self-development; other focus is reduction in the rate of brain drain in the educational sector. The underlying reason is that experts leaving the country, anywhere they eventually domicile across the globe, can be used as instructors. In addition, distance education will promote internalisation of tertiary education as non-Nigerians can enrol in Nigerian universities. Distance education takes away the barriers of location, distance and time.

Conclusion

The study gives ample evidence that instructors appreciate the advantages of e-learning and that its introduction will address some educational challenges in Nigeria. Areas highlighted include education access, flexibility of learning, enhanced instructors' effectiveness, promotion of work and permanent management. The instructors also hold a positive perception of the prospects of e-learning in Nigeria. In addition, there is no significant difference in perception across demographic factors such as age and gender. The Nigerian state needs to

invest in online education to complement efforts in the regular face-to-face institutions to address its present education challenges.

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Gender Equality in Amilcar Cabral's Policy for Youth Education

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Abstract

The author deploys conceptual analysis, historical research and exegesis to argue that the reverse discrimination policy Cabral adopts by modifying, downwards, laid down criteria for school admission to favour girls against boys is contrary to enshrined principles of equality of all citizens, as participants in revolutionary praxis, anchored on combatants' avowal of Party ideology. He contends that this unsolicited favour shields women from competition with boys to prove their intellectual capability and connotes a wrong presumption of adequate knowledge of women's abilities by Cabral, thereby committing him, albeit unwittingly, to *reverse paternalism*, a hallmark of patriarchy. The justification for these arguments is that, basically, discrimination of any type based on natural endowments, commits naturalistic fallacy, especially as it was found out that women on their own, without revolutionary props can successfully contend and compete intellectually with their male counterparts. The author concludes that Cabral's reverse discrimination policy is wrong from the vantage point of logic, fairness, morality, theoretical consistency, and fidelity to enshrined principles of natural and civic rights of all concerned. The best antidote to patriarchy and its traditional paternalism is an egalitarian society in which women demonstrate their abilities in competitive engagements with their male counterparts from which the females garner their deserved respect.

Key words: Amilcar Cabral, gender, rights, equality, paternalism, reverse discrimination

The people are not fighting for ideas,
for the things in one's head.
They are fighting for material benefits,
to live better and in peace,
to see their lives go forward,
to guarantee the future of their children (Cabral A. , 1969)

1. Introduction: Stating the problem

Amilcar Cabral, as leader of the Guinea Bissau revolution, is genuinely concerned about women's access to formal education by way of empowerment against traditional norms and practices that subjugate women in a patriarchal society. Conceptual analysis of the major terms he employs in articulating his position is carried out here, the results of which are deployed to interrogate gender equality issues arising from his admission policy to the Pilot School of the African Party for the Independence of Guinea and Cape Verde (PAIGC), during the liberation struggle. This paper contends that a discriminatory policy

for girls, has to respect both the natural and statutory rights of boys, and that natural endowments are not rational basis for discrimination, otherwise naturalistic fallacy ensues, thus robbing the apparently positive policy of adequacy and credibility.

It is pertinent to underscore the point that Cabral is not alone in this campaign for according the female gender spaces in the systems and institutions of African society. Amadiume (2001), in several ways, favourably pitches matriarchy against patriarchy as paradigms for studying African reality and history. Also, Imam (2003) highlights many legal dimensions to gender-related issues of Human Rights protected by both international and national institutions. In celebrating 50 years of Pan-Africanism, UNESCO (2015) rehabilitates many valiant African queens who fought colonialism in their various climes, but had consistently been denied spaces in African historical accounts. *Nokoko*, Journal of Canadian Institute of African Studies, in 2014 devoted a volume to “Women’s Rights and Gender Equality in Africa”, (Kimari, 2014) and even recently Ly (2013) has lamented the betrayal of promises of women emancipation in Guinea Bissau, principally because Amilcar Cabral’s successors do not believe his feminist agenda and also because patriarchy fought back women emancipation, which is part of the reason for this essay to see what in Cabral’s women rights policy that made it unsustainable after his death.

2. Women Emancipation Derives from Universal Human Rights

For Cabral, every person is a beneficiary from universal human rights declarations. Accordingly, he reprimands comrades who try or hope to sabotage the lofty ideals for women emancipation. In summary, the aim of armed struggle is national liberation¹ to secure freedom, socio-economic equality for all founded upon overall emancipation, thereby conferring universal equality for all citizens in a united nation.

Cabral is irked by the dominance of patriarchy in the traditional Guinean society, privileging males by seemingly giving them a head-start over females in competitive ventures. Barring any redress through policy, teenage girls are always edged out by natural attrition, especially a nation steeped in polygyny, especially among the *Balantas*; therefore, requiring an urgent policy thrust for teenage girls’ protection against early and forced marriages. Otherwise, in the words of Christoph Kohl, “generations of Bissau-Guineans have become accustomed to complying with patriarchal social and political values and norms” (Kohl, 2010, 86-109) in which, girls and women are always apparent victims.

Cabral thinks that teenage girls are in danger of mental blindness if education is denied them in any way and, by virtue of their demographic superiority. Soon, ignorance is exalted by default, to the detriment of the society. Yet the history of the nation, by natural association and active participation in the on-going revolution accords all and sundry equal rights and

privileges in the emerging nation. This view he strenuously argues by privileging autochthony but, especially, revolutionary praxis.

3. Conferment of Inalienable Rights by Nature and Revolutionary Struggle

National liberation is central to Cabral's praxis and pedagogy during the struggle for independence. In discussing national liberation, he assumes that there is a nation, in terms of sovereignty, claims to territorial integrity, and the existence of state apparatuses, though these were nascent. Furthermore, he emphasises that unity could be achieved at a certain point only by armed struggle given the colonial situation. Since the whole aim of armed struggle is to forge a nation, it begs the question to talk of 'national' liberation within the colonial context. At best, we refer to Guinea and Cape Verde as "mere geographical expression." (Awolowo, 1947: 10). If this is the case, how do we understand 'national liberation' of Cabral? He is aware of this problem. Thus, he tries to solve it through defining the people of a nation by adopting the principle that says,

In each phase of a nation's history, of a land, of a population, or a society, the people are defined in terms of the main stream of the history of that society, in terms of the highest interests of the majority of that society (Cabral, 1980: 90)

In accordance with this principle, two main definitions of the people of Guinea and Cape Verde are identifiable in Cabral. One is in terms of the position individuals adopt vis-à-vis the liberation struggle and the identified goals. The other pertains to the views of the individuals with respect to citizens' rights in the future independent phase of the nascent country². A person is a part of the people if she or he adopts and works for the dominant interest of the mass of the people in an epoch. Otherwise, such a person is part of the population.

In this case the people of Guinea and Cape Verde at the liberation struggle phase are those who are not only born in the land (autochthonous) but also ready to work hard (praxis) for the identified aim or aspirations of the people. In short, the people of Guinea and Cape Verde then are also members of the Party, for all members of the Party share the same view about colonialism and the need to eradicate it either politically, if possible, or militarily, should diplomatic efforts fail. The people of Guinea and Cape Verde settled for the latter. It then appears that being a part of the people also means being a member of the Party. At this juncture, this conception of the people is dominant. Hence, we have a merger of the membership of the party and inclusion among the people as compatriots.

Cabral explicates this further when he says,

All those of the population of our land who at this moment want the Portuguese colonialists to leave our land, so that

we should gain our freedom and independence, are our people
(Cabral, 1980: 93)

But this is not all as there is a further equation of the people, the Party and its leadership thus:

...the vanguard of our people is our party and the principal
element of our people at this time is the leadership of our Party
(Cabral, 1980: 103)

As a concept, Cabral prefers 'Party' to 'movement' or 'Front' when describing the organisations up in arms against colonialism. In his view, concepts like 'movement' or 'Front' connote a conglomeration of organisations which, though, have a common enemy but differ in their views about him and how best to fight and defeat the enemy. In contrast, a Party like PAIGC has as "its vital principle a single organisation, a single banner, and no confusion in the establishment of this liberation movement" (Cabral, 1980: 90). Such a party as PAIGC is also expected to espouse an ideology which each genuine member must avow! The PAIGC had a set of these principles to which all members at a certain point in history of the party swore to by eating kola-nut as a symbolic gesture of acceptance of these guiding principles (Cabral, 1980: 90). Acceptance of the Party's ideology and program of action against the Portuguese colonialists automatically makes one a part of the people at this stage of the struggle. In view of this, it is clear that Cabral defines the people in terms of the readiness of a part of the population to accept the ideology of the Party. Shakespeare's caution, that there is no art to determine the mind's construction on the face, is apposite here, for mere avowals do not always tantamount to conviction.

In any case, this line of thinking identifies compatriots with members of the Party, yielding an Ideological Consent Criterion (IDCC) for determining the authenticity of the people. Whoever does not pass through this sieving process of IDCC is not part of the people, rather he/she is part of the population. So in IDCC, is seen a ladder towards cosmopolitanism, for it admits anyone who has the sympathies of PAIGC towards decolonisation. In that way, IDCC helps Cabral and the Party to sell his peoples' struggle as motivated by the noblest of intentions and not by primordial motives like racial prejudices.

At independence, as Cabral anticipates, another set of criteria emerges for ascertaining who is of the people. Thus he foresees that

... in a while, when we have gained our independence anyone who then wants our land to be independent, for example, but does not want our women to be liberated but wants to go on exploiting women in our land, though he is of the people today, he will not be so tomorrow (Cabral, 1980: 90).

Attainment of sovereignty implies that full civil and political rights must be restored to all peoples in the territory. The rights must not only be restored, they must be respected. Anyone who claims these for him/herself, but denies others of same shall not count among the people. That person would be of the population. Hence, "if we want all children in our land to be respected and someone among us does not want this, he will be part of the population, he will not be part of the people" (Cabral, 1969: 47).

Citizenship is, therefore, a product of the readiness of a person to concede rights to others, given that the liberation war was fought to liberate the society and its peoples from the shackles of colonialism and its de-humanisation. The fruits of winning the war are harmonised, consolidated, developed, sustained, and protected at independence under the right leadership. One of these gains of independence is building an egalitarian society based on equal civil and political rights for all, including equal opportunities for self-improvement. Anyone who rejects this subverts the whole essence of liberation struggle and the very dividends of independence. In that case, such a person is a saboteur, an agent of neo-colonialism, and of the population, not of the people.

This can be called Rights Concession Criterion (RCC) for determining who is or is not part of the people at independence. The question is: what, possibly, is the relationship between the two criteria articulated here? The history of the people and territory demands an articulation of relationship, between the two criteria. One possible relationship is that they are selective devices for identifying not only the dominant interests of the people in that epoch, but also individual person's position on them. At one point, the phase of action (praxis), the dominant interest and aim of the people is liberation from Portuguese colonialism. Later at the phase of ideology, the central aim becomes consolidating the gains of liberation. Both phases are intertwined as neither can be conceptualised or prosecuted without the other, any separation of them is just for analytical purposes.

Consequently, the IDCC and RCC are mutually intertwined and dialectical. At any point in time, Cabral worries about the rights of all persons in the emerging polity. For instance, in enunciating Party Principles and Political Practice (PPPP), he maintains that "our party and the struggle must be led by the best sons and daughters of our party." (Cabral, 1969: 47). Explaining further, he insists: "no one can say that in the Party the opportunity to command is not given to everybody" (Cabral, 1980: 71). He therefore exhorts the men who normally resist women in leadership positions, to "...understand that liberty for our people means women's liberation as well, sovereignty for our people means that women as well must play a part, and the strength of our party is worth more if women join in as well to lead with the men." (Cabral 1969: 47). He undoubtedly works for the civil and political rights of all!

Reading this dialectical unity into Cabral's IDCC and RCC is necessary if we are to account for continuity of people, practice and ideas across the two major historical phases; more so, as he espouses the unique view, amongst

revolutionaries, that means of production rather than class struggle, is the motive force of history, a perception that affords all human societies no matter how rudimentary, a history which a classless society cannot have if class struggle is the mover and creator of history. The identified criteria for citizenship exalts praxis rather than social classes as the engine room of history, and therefore, it becomes the same people avowing a particular ideology at the liberation phase who, in the light of their experiences in this phase, are also the same people establishing equal rights for all at the consolidating and independence epoch.

This dialectical reading is also necessary to facilitate the entrance of future generations into the society of an independent Guinea-Bissau. Future generations of Guineans enter the independent society through birth, at least, rather than armed struggle. They start by enjoying the consolidated gains of the liberation struggle, civil and political rights inclusive. These rights are informed by ideology. Consequently, if the rights are acceptable to them, the ideology, ipso facto, is also acceptable and through this they become part of the people, thereby satisfying the demands of the two criteria by covert agreement. Thus, given Cabral's insistence on the principle that "the people are defined in terms of the mainstream of the history of that society, in terms of the main interest of the people of that society" (Cabral, 1980: 71), he has a historical account of citizenship of the new nation.

Ascription of natural and civic rights to all in this new nation is important for Cabral, as all who had gone through the revolution, are deemed to have committed class suicide, being of the *pettit bourgeoisie* orientation earlier destined for middle class life, but have abandoned all privileges of that class for the purposes of the revolution. Otherwise, the revolution avails nothing so far as people are not fighting for ideas in their heads, but to make life comfortable for them and their descendants. So, it is not only that "women rights are human rights", women as citizens deserve all rights and privileges afforded by the Guinean nation, seeing that they too went through the furnace of national revolution for their collective liberation.

4. Gender Equality and Expediency

Thus far, all combatant-compatriots in Guinea of Cabral's conception stand on the same horizontal pedestal regarding natural and civil rights. However, one is worried about how Cabral later recommends that women be treated regarding admission into the Pilot School established by the liberation party: the standard for admission into the school is to be lowered for women for not too obvious or weighty reasons, and hence smacks of favoured discrimination for the females without cogent reasons. Rather it detracts from Cabral's position on socio-economic and political equality for all citizens discussed earlier.

In any case, further consideration of this matter requires that the criteria for school admission be highlighted, and subsequently shown how they are to be

lowered to favour the girl child as preferred by Cabral. The Pilot School is regarded as one of the essential organs of the party's educational program (Cabral, 1980). Its establishment is to consolidate the party's successes in the liberated areas (Cabral, 1980) and to ensure the educational training and improvement of cadres who are to serve the future cause of the struggle under the banner of the party. These cadres may be military or political, electricians or industrial workers in any branch, doctors or engineers, nurses or radio operators or any specialty (Cabral, 1980).

Second, the school is conceived as a Comprehensive High School in view of the anticipated personnel. Cabral thus stresses that no one should think that going to the Pilot School means becoming (only) a doctor or an engineer, a cadre has to be trained according to the needs of the party, not necessarily as preferred by individuals. The instruments for establishing the school are the party's rules for all its boarding schools. These rules are many and varied:

We have to make our schools fulfil the duty the party has laid down for them – education and work.³ Work to maintain the schools correctly, work for agricultural production to feed the students and our combatants, for physical exercise for our students, and so no one thinks that going to school means no more tilling the soil... the boarding school must at least supply its own food. This is our instruction: a boarding school which could not supply its own food should close (Cabral, 1980: 112).

The admission requirements into the school are tough:

The Pilot school must be constantly exacting in regard to the students it takes. We must send to the Pilot school the best pupils from our land, who receive the highest assessments within certain age limits (Cabral, 1980: 112).

But in spite of this, some exceptions from the exacting requirements are made. Once more in the words of Cabral:

We have made and must make one exception which is as follows: we demand from girls a little less than from boys for admission into the pilot school, above all on the question of age and on the question of academic level. Boys must have a primary school certificate ... we admit girls with third year primary education and even if they are fifteen or sixteen years old we must take them (Cabral, 1980: 112)

Cabral offered reasons for this discriminatory exception in favour of girls:

- (a) When a girl reaches primary school leaving [stage] she is regarded as trained and the father usually looks for some way of marrying her off. Putting her in the pilot school, if she is intelligent, is aimed at solving this problem of early or forced marriage.
- (b) We want the emancipation and advancement of our women.
- (c) The best advancement, one of the principal means of advancement, is to teach them to read and write well.
(Cabral, 1980: 71)

Having seen the reasons, a question arises: how adequate are they given the desired aim - emancipation of women through education (Dei, 2005)?⁴ Right away, and in the context of this discussion, the reasons proffered by Cabral for the discriminatory addenda to the admission policy for the Pilot school, are inadequate. First, the major factor this discriminatory practice is designed to counter is early or forced marriage of girls and young women, as it is through such early marriages that girls are socialised into playing subservient roles, while carrying about a deflated self-image or concept. This greatly saps their confidence and ability to participate competitively with their male counterparts in the major affairs of the society.

Second, the other two reasons (b) and (c) above, are reactions to this negative trend in the society, especially in the lives of women. If this is the case, is violating laid down rules in favour of girls and young women the most effective and efficient way of tackling the problem? It does not appear to be so! Assuming a method is effective given the strong impression it makes on the society, then sending girls to school in violation of laid down policy saps it of that immediate effectiveness, and strong impression on the society, in this case, the Guinean society. Moreover, the exceptions Cabral makes for the admission of girls into the Pilot school, cannot draw immediate attention of the society to the vices of early or forced marriages, as it lacks mass appeal. In a sense, it is akin to postponing the evil day, for such a policy and the practice it engenders, is usually subterranean.

First, as an evolutionary technique, it will, in all likelihood, make a striking impression in the long, but not in the short run. In any case, its main defect is not when it really makes impact although it is an essential component of the effectiveness of the method. What Cabral needs to solve the problem of early or forced marriages of the girl-child is a revolutionary technique in a revolutionary situation. A revolution is a high relief against which enduring problems of the society are thrown up, magnified, and uprooted. Forced girl-child juvenile marriage falls into this category of problems to be confronted and solved at the post-revolutionary, but consolidation stage in the life of a nation such as the type Cabral intends to build and prosper.

Cabral's method under discussion would not impact on the society as effective because it is not comprehensive, as it does not shake up the whole society, bringing all concerned into the dragnet of a social policy geared towards eradicating early and forced marriage of girls. The society should be made aware of the enormity of the problem through effective propaganda, given that it denies the girl-child opportunities for formal education, and through this lack, it further decimates her robust self-concept and psychosocial improvement, thereby stunting the goal oriented development of the youth which is a critical segment of the entire society.

Even though the method of discriminatory admission of girls into the party's secondary school is here adjudged ineffective⁵, given the intended result, which is women emancipation through education, the process could achieve a modicum of success such as producing a crop of educated elite women, in a predominantly conservative society, which would still, at the end of the day, require the apparently emancipated women to revert to their traditional roles of child bearing and rearing, as well as home management, in spite of Cabral's efforts. Hence, despite the fact that sending the girls to school by violating laid down rules could produce some immediate positive results in those now educated elite women, whatever is gained in this respect is stifled by the conservatism of the larger society which clings to its former pre-revolutionary ideas of women's subordinate position in the society, unless a vigorous re-education on the ills of the scourge is mounted and sustained.

Probably, this explains the complaint Cabral raises with respect to certain comrades who despise the leadership of women in the party structure and other organs of the party. In that case adoption of a revolutionary strategy is necessary to impress it on such comrades that the time has come for women emancipation from the clutches of repressive conservatism. This is the best indicator, of the ineffectiveness of the program Cabral adopted for women education and overall emancipation.

It is, then, reasonable to expect that this discriminatory admission of the girl-child into the pilot secondary school could lead to polarisation of the society into the camps of the progressives pitched against the conservatives, Cabral's best intentions notwithstanding. This ought not to occur in a revolutionary context under a unified and enlightened leadership. Hence, it can be affirmed that for all practical purposes, the method Cabral adopted for solving the problem of early or forced marriage of girls is neither effective nor efficient. Having failed to make a remarkable impact on the society as a whole, and mainly for this reason, it also failed to achieve sustainable desired result.

Rather than resort to tinkering with the admission guiding rules for secondary school admission, in order to avoid the dangers of early girl-child marriage, a law like girl-child rights Act protecting her kind could have been more apposite. This law would have had a triple advantage of being promulgated by a legitimate PAIGC authority, having pervasive application throughout the liberated areas, and popularised through public education and

political propaganda, and finally this law enforced through the ladder of PAIGC political structures: responsible workers, cadres, political commissars, village, regional, zonal, and inter-regional committees galvanises the whole party apparatus towards a purposive end. Such a law could have obviated the questions of moral impartiality and theoretical consistency that trail the discriminatory policy alternative under examination.

Furthermore, there are two aspects of this discriminatory policy for girls' admission into the pilot school. One is lowering the entrance age for girls for allowing as many of them as possible to enter school, around and about the age of puberty, usually the age at which early childhood or forced marriage is appealing to both parents and wards. The other aspect is lowering the entry qualifications: for boys a primary school certificate is required, and for girls we require a three-year primary education. The argument for this approach is that girls are always under the threat of early or forced marriage, which denies them opportunities for emancipation. Consequently, girls' entry requirements and age should both be lowered to allow them easier access to the pilot schools. Let this be called the academic qualification argument (AQA).

A question is, however, pertinent – for how long shall this be in practice? This apparently trivial question is important because of the policy's cumulative effect in the long run, which is the statistical impossibility of having commensurate numbers of girls and boys in the schools, and therefore, also in public service opportunities in the larger society after their qualification. Ultimately, the quest for women emancipation and guard against early girl-child marriage will stunt the growth of their male counterparts in this and other related aspects of social life. This conclusion becomes compelling when it is realised that Cabral, as far as one knows, does not suggest halting this practice with time, or that the numerical strength of girls' enrolment be reduced progressively in the future.

Turning now to the academic qualification argument, it can be seen that the conclusion to the argument is supported by two premises, while the conclusion has a double-barrel effect: it helps in side-tracking the spirit of the first premise, and at the same time, the conclusion is in the form of a condition, it is conducive to the attainment of the lofty ideals of the second premise. The argument should, however, be assessed in relation to the conclusion reached in the preceding parts of this paper and also in relation to the aims of the party in establishing the pilot schools.

In the exposition of Cabral's views of the nation, and the people of the nation, the conclusion is that the people of the nation are co-equals as citizens. Thus, they enjoy collectively and severally equal civil and political rights, including rights to equal opportunities for self-improvement according to stipulated rules and standards. The conclusion of the AQA violates both the letter and spirit of these stipulations.

Second, it is the enshrined principle of the party that the best sons and daughters of the land always lead and occupy important positions in the several

offices in the party and society. Crucially, the pilot schools are established for the training of the best students of the land. The best of these students can be determined by the application of a certain standard. (Cabral, 1980) The argument now is that the conclusion of the AQA violates the aim of the party as articulated by Cabral, in establishing the school as a citadel of training the best students of the nation. All these are in addition to the already identified lapses of the method in terms of effectiveness and efficiency.

In any case, there is a proviso which Cabral puts in place, in view of which all these charges of discrimination levelled here fail, and it is stated thus: The party shall extend this favoured discrimination to a girl only if she is intelligent. Hence it is not an arbitrary, but well considered discrimination conscious of the requirements of proven ability, which when recognised, nullifies charges of perceived discrimination.

However, this proviso is inadmissible. The said proviso does not affect the criticisms, but rather strengthens them. Intelligence is a relative term. A person is intelligent or not relative to either a standard or to another individual with whom he or she is compared. If we are in this case considering girls' intelligence with reference to the standard of the party set for admission into the pilot school, we are saying nothing new because it has already been pointed out that this standard is violated by the method Cabral adopts for the girl-child - a lower standard for admission into the pilot secondary school for the children of the revolution. In other words, this standard has been violated by the AQA. In fact, for all practical purposes, there is no standard for the admission for boys and girls into the schools, but different standards for each of the sexes, contrary to the assumption of the party and the leader that one standard policy subsists.

If we are talking about the intelligence of girls relative to boys, this also makes no sense in this case, as just discussed above. How then can the intelligence of girls relative to that of the boys be determined in the face of the double standards? In the final analysis, measurement of intelligence by reference to a standard in this particular instance can only be intra but not inter-groups. The latter which is a comparative assessment across groups is precluded by AQA.

Eventually, it is only the Secretary-General of the party or some other higher official, who can, through his own particular wisdom determine a girl who is intelligent or not relative to the boys, a procedure which is open to challenge because of its obscurantism. If this possible challenge is suppressed by fear of authority, it would submerge itself underground from where it will sow seeds of mistrust among comrades, and disrespect for the leadership of the party, which it can ill afford especially in that epoch of its history of nascent existence.

From the preceding discussion, it is clear that the proviso only substituted a woolly criterion for an objective aptitude measurement amongst boys and girls. Thus, in consequence of the separate standards for each group, intelligence measurement among them has turned out to be sexist unfortunately

which is not a sound practice or a robust educational practice.

Furthermore, the conclusion of the AQA, among other things, makes nonsense of all talks about equal opportunities for boys and girls with regard to the school admission. It does not arise any more, for there is no reasonable sense in which boys and girls can be said to have equal opportunities in view of the double standards applied to each sex, as this has been emasculated by the proviso.

On the flip side of it, the AQA casts doubts on the equality of girls and boys in terms of academic ability. One way of determining equality in ability is through competition guided by competitive fair rules. The AQA obviously shields girls from this competition with their male counterparts, consigning them to competing only among themselves. Thus, boys can continue to arrogate to themselves superiority pride if the admission policy of the party officially sanctions their entry point a notch higher than that for girls. And having no objective standards with which to counter this masculine onslaught on their collective image that practice in itself sows the seeds for future downgrading of women in the new and emerging Guinea-Bissau.

Suppose, a comrade retorts that the AQA shows that the girls are not equal to boys academically, and that this explains the protection from competition given to them rather than all the talks about dodging the lure of early marriage. How does Cabral react to this? He may argue that given the fact that while in school girls can hold their own academically alongside boys proves the contrary. It proves that the girls are even better than their male counterparts in academic terms, especially if it is borne in mind that they enter the Pilot school without finishing the primary school course. But this is argument after the fact, outside the parameters. It is a kind of the- end- justifies- the- means (Bernanos, 1970) argument which is dangerous pragmatism in a revolutionary situation, as it amounts to shifting the points of the argument. Should the shift be tolerated, it does not preclude answering questions pertaining to fairness of AQA in the whole scenario, even given the inadequacy of the premises. It does not, for example, obliterate the impression that may have percolated in the public mind that established principles were set aside in order to favour girls, requiring sturdy justification given its exclusionary effect on boys with regard to school admission – a highly valued public good.

Another comrade may charge that Cabral's lowered requirements for girls encourages mediocrity as girls unworthy of such considerations are just carried along in the bandwagon to the chagrin of their better male counterparts. Cabral himself lends credence to this kind of feeling when he laments that "...some of our women comrades have not been able to maintain the respect and the necessary dignity to protect their position as persons in authority. They were not capable to escape certain temptations, or at least to shoulder certain responsibilities without complexes" (Cabral, 1969: 112).

One last point about objections comes in a form capable of nipping all preceding discussions in the bud – the discrimination in favour of the girls is not just mere discrimination but an exception to the rule. Why anyone should bother him or herself by a recognised exception to the rule, or if one likes, a backward integration social policy? This query smacks of insensitivity. This query has been taken care of in some of the preceding arguments. However, it should be pointed out that rules exist to have general application to a particular class or universe. This is one condition for its fairness and validity. This means that any exception to a particular rule must be convincingly justified, no matter how averse Cabral may be to patriarchy that seemingly accords boys a head start in rights and privileges acquisition in the traditional society: Seeming rights and privileges, because there are other exacting responsibilities patriarchy demands from the boy-child but not from the girl-child, such as provision for family, defence of the community, and brawn based labour.

Two more points to be raised prior to leaving this section: one is about competition and the other is expediency of policy makers. On competition, in this case between men and women, the male and female genders, J. S. Mill in his article *The Subjection of Women* raises several points two of which are relevant here. He makes the point that it is at least statistically impossible for any man, such as Cabral, to claim adequate working knowledge of women, that the woman a man can claim to know with reasonable success is his wife, depending on the culture of openness and disclosure in that home. So that, invariably, many men vaunt ignorance when making policies about women. For him women are not averse to competition with men because it brings out the best in them. In his words,

whatever women's services are most wanted for, the free play of competition will hold out the strongest inducement to them to undertake. And, as the words imply, they are most wanted for the things for which they are most fit, by apportionment of which to them, the collective faculties of the two sexes can be applied on the whole with the greatest sum of valuable result. (Mill, 1998)

In the case under consideration, what is required of women is to exhibit intellectual capability by way of competition between the two sexes with expected bountiful results. But what has Cabral done in their behalf? He arrogates to himself the knowledge that girls cannot fairly compete with boys, and without any empirical study, or consultation to ascertain his hunches, he goes ahead to shield girls from competition, to their own utmost dislike, I suppose. He does not realise that human beings under intense competition for anything, exhibit an unascertainable ability and inner strength, and the female gender is not exempt from this humanity. That is one of the reasons Mill argues that no one can claim complete knowledge of women. But in his zeal to protect and encourage girls, Cabral unwittingly turned patriarchal and meted on them

exclusionary treatment (in this case, from competition) for which patriarchal societies are usually castigated nowadays. So, in some sense, Cabral is guilty of reverse masculinist hegemony – the tendency of patriarchal behaviour in an endeavour to protect another from it. The girls never requested protection from competition, so why foist it on them? In protecting them, they were denied the opportunity to prove themselves capable, which women from the female kingdom have proven several times over, in hundreds of cases, as evident in the cases of African queens mentioned above.

Obviously Cabral in embarking on policy somersault in Youth education, verged upon expediency. Of all tests for truth of claims available to mankind, expediency, makes a poor showing. Consider Donald Trump's repudiation of the Paris climate agreement, only to be visited deviously by hurricanes Irma and Maria, putting the lie to his expediency because the agreement for him is bad for business (Milman, 2018). Or consider again the Nigerian Army "Operation Python Dance II" (Egwu eke II) in the South East of Nigeria, in a bid to quell what the government considers secessionist movement of the Igbo ethnic group, only to commit pragmatic refutation of its own expediency (UGORJI (Bishop), 2017), by hyping the irredentist tendencies. Cabral, lacking resources for mass education of his youth adopted a pragmatist selective admission policy that undercut his avowed egalitarianism. So much for expediency!

5. Cabral on Comparative View of Women in Guinean Society

In his study of the class structure of Guinea and Cape Verde societies, Cabral notes with a sense of approval the socio-economic position of the Balante women. The Balante women, he says, are engaged in the agricultural and some other productive ventures, and also own the products of those economic endeavours. This enhances their socio-economic positions in the society. As a result they are freer than the Fula women who are in a socially stratified society. The Balante woman is, however, not free in one respect. She does not 'possess' her children who belong to her husband – the man! Thus, these women are denied the helpful hands of their children on the farms. Cabral seems to regret this phenomenon. But not as much as he regrets and hates the near total denial of rights of the Fula women.

Cabral is also enthusiastic to remark that the women of his yet emerging country, mainly because of the armed struggle, are winning an independence which so many of their counterparts elsewhere are finding very hard to attain. Guinean women he stresses, are in charge of committees in the *tabancas* – villages and zones, even in charge of inter-regional committees.

One thing is indicative of Cabral's interest in seeing women acquire basic rights and respect in society. He hates polygamy. This is clear in his enunciation of the PPPP where he counsels not only against men abusing women but also against polygamy. There, he also regards it as the bane of so many African leaders who think that enjoying life means having a harem of

women at their backyards. The Balante society is different in this respect. It is mainly a monogamous society, Cabral points this out, almost recommending this mode of marital life to the rest.

The intention of the practitioners of polygamy is possibly the major reason why he dislikes polygamy. It was not usual for men to marry many women simply because they wanted more hands on the farms, or to show off their riches by showing how many women they could literally feed in their households, but just simply, for amorous reasons. In a society in which a single man could acquire as many as seven wives, for purely economic or sensual reasons, such a society must have the least respect for women. Such a disposition to women, as this, appears to be the major contributory factor to denying women their civil and political rights, so, it appears, Cabral might have thought! Hence he cautions comrades against this kind of attitude to the womenfolk.

6. Synopsis of Conceptual Discourse

At this point of the exposition of Cabral's thought on the people and nation, ideas have coalesced into forms: (1) the IDCC and the RCC, in their mutual relation, define who is of the people (citizenship). The people, therefore, comprise members of the party, its leadership, soldiers and combatants, and the numerous civilians in the liberated areas supporting the entire edifice of the revolution. They constitute the mainstream resource of the nation. Hence the history of the people is the history of the nation and vice-versa (Rabaka, 2003).⁵ Above all, (2) Notably, the people of this nation who avow, in the main, a particular world-view along which to define and prosecute collectively the destiny of the nation, are, for that matter, equal as citizens. Consequently, they enjoy collectively and severally equal civil and political rights, as well as, equal opportunities for self-improvement within the ambits of stipulated rules and standards, and most importantly, like cases are to be treated alike, rather than considering any on its own merit.

What emerges from the foregoing is that Cabral, as a researcher on rural life of Guinean people, had an empirical counterpoise to his policy of paternalism towards the female gender. The success of the Balante women defeats his reverse discrimination and renders it unnecessary, for the obvious fact is that egalitarian socio-political and economic spaces afford women the opportunities, through healthy competition, to prove themselves as the Balante have done, especially success in those ventures suitable to them, and exhibition of high intelligence quotient is natural to them as human beings. So protecting them by lowering school admission standard in their regard, is not fair to them as humans. What is observed in Balante women is in consonance with Mill's position seen earlier on, and it is also what erudite Ifi Amadiume has shown in her "Male Daughters, Female Husbands: Gender and Sex in an African Society" (Amadiume, 1987) and *Reinventing Africa: Matriarchy, Religion and Culture* (Amadiume, 1997). Not only that in an egalitarian society, females can hold

their own against males in creating wealth and flaunting it, but that gender roles being constructions of societal conventions are switchable, and have been switched in Nnobi society in South-East Nigeria.

7. Conclusion

Finally, some conclusions are inevitable. The favoured discrimination should not be seen as an exception to established rules, principles or policies, which seems to be the way Cabral probably looks at it. It is a flaw in the educational planning. This flaw given the history of the case as discussed raises at least some questions, the morality of the practice, its political impartiality, theoretical consistency and an epistemological question about the accuracy of masculine perception and veracity of knowledge claims about femininity by men.

While this discussion does not intend to charge Cabral with immorality as far as this practice is concerned, it still has to be said that the practice as recommended, sanctioned and pursued excites feeling of partiality towards women in spite of Cabral's obvious good intentions, which led him into reverse patriarchy or paternalism in the form of anti-racist racism. This should not be allowed or even encouraged in a revolutionary situation in which loyalty based on trust is the watch word. Loyalty is very near to Cabral's heart as it is evident in his seminar on Fidelity to party Principles. That the said feeling was real among comrades is obvious from the following words:

Many folk say that Cabral has an obsession about giving Women leadership positions as well. They say: 'let him do it, but we shall alter it afterwards'. That comes from folk who have not yet understood anything. They can sabotage today, sabotage tomorrow, but one day it will catch up with them. (Cabral, 1980: 112)

In adopting the said method to solve the problem of women emancipation through education, Cabral is purely concerned with what is expedient. This is expected, sometimes, of a revolutionary thinker in a revolutionary situation. However, the situation is such that he cannot afford this kind of expediency in view of the identified lapses of the method and its position in the educational planning and theoretical coherence.

There are better solutions through legislation augmented with enlightenment on the nature of the problem in all its ramifications. Second, a solution allowing all citizens irrespective of sex to compete fairly given objective standards is still more preferable to doubtful and unsolicited backward integration discrimination. Persons who thereafter emerge victorious from the competition are deemed equal in ability, and Mill has pointed out women in many epochs and over the centuries are known for exploits only people like Chaka the Zulu can dare to attempt. The feeling of importance, self-realisation, and respect from others, accompanying such victories is tremendous both in

men and women, boys and girls. Eventually, this robust sense of merited equality among peers is the best antidote to patriarchy and its conservative authoritarianism.

End Notes

1. Alex, (2006) maintains, among other things, that “the liberation struggles that led to the independence of Angola, Guinea-Bissau, Cape Verde and Mozambique are recognised as having constituted crucial events in contemporary history – the overthrow of the imperialist strategies in Southern Africa, elimination of the white supremacist regime in the region, and the so-called third wave of democratisation of Europe beginning with Portugal” p. 46.

2. It has been suggested that Cabral, like Franz Fanon engaged, on the theoretical level, in ‘anticipatory nationalism’ based on a kind of binary division between the coloniser and the colonised, with the later relegated to an ontological inferior status during colonialism. This binary division is resolved by “affirmation by the natives (the colonised) of their subjectivity” which leads to the assumption of a nation, based on the trappings of what Fanon, and later Cabral considered national culture(Alex, 2006) and (McClintock, 1996).

3. This is sounding a warning against disposition to elitism by beneficiaries. The mission of the school is to inculcate inclusive education which in the words of Dei, “responds to the concerns, aspirations and interests of the diverse body politic, and draws on the accumulated knowledge, creativity and resourcefulness of the local peoples”. (See Dei, 2005: 267-289)

4. Much as it has be remarked that educational “inclusivity can be conceptualised as an approach to schooling that centres the lived experiences of the students defined by the markers of difference: class, gender, ethnic, religious, linguistic and cultural differences, and the asymmetrical relations of power such differences evoke” (Dei, 2005: 268), the question is: Can such a practice not, with time, create a new level of “asymmetrical relations of power” under which the male (boy) – child suffer? This question is pertinent because we are living witnesses of how one social policy yields, in the wake of practice, a reverse effect to the chagrin of policy makers. For instance, China’s one child policy now leaves it with an ageing population. Recently, Germany for ostensible altruistic motives, absorbed almost a million refugees, in the wake of the refugee crisis in Europe; may be, also, with an eye for retraining the technically qualified among them for its industries, given its own ageing population. But alas! Germany is now contending with terrorist attacks perpetrated by certain elements within the new immigrants.

5. Rabaka (2003) says that for W. E. B. Du Bois, this history and the associated culture should be the basis for mutually ennobling dialogue, in which history and culture should be treated as, “ a resource rather than as a mere reference”.

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School Location, Facilities Utilisation and Students' Academic Performance in Osun State Public Secondary Schools, Nigeria

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Abstract

School location and utilisation of the available facilities are indispensable in students' learning outcomes. The authors investigate school location, facilities utilisation and students' academic performance in Osun State public secondary schools, using a correlational research design. Two hundred and fifty students and 250 teachers are selected as participants in the sampled schools through a systematic sampling technique. Three researcher-designed instruments entitled: "School Location Questionnaire" (SLQ), "School Facilities Utilisation Questionnaire" (SFUQ) and "Students' Academic Performance Checklist" (SAPC) are used to collect relevant data. Two research hypotheses are formulated to guide the study and the data collected are analysed using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The results of the study reveal that a significant relationship exists between school location and students' academic performance in Osun State public secondary schools. Also, facility utilisation relates significantly to students' academic performance in the schools. The conclusion is that no matter how energetic, enthusiastic and committed a teacher might be, his effort and level of performance might not produce the required results in students secondary schools' students in Osun State will continue to perform poorly academically if there is no effort made to improve on the observed problems in the state.

Key words: school location, facilities utilisation, students' academic performance, public secondary schools

Introduction

The secondary school is a very crucial level of the Nigerian educational system. It is a lead way to tertiary institutions and a ripe age for developing students' potentials. Secondary school plays the major role of exposing students to a variety of subjects, thus optimising their concepts of self-reliance, inherent in the *National Policy on Education* 2004. It also serves as a preparatory class for useful living in the society. Since it is a terminal education, the neglect and poor implementation of its programmes may blight the entire education system (Adeleke, 2000).

According to Oyedeji (2004), education is received because of its position as a national instrument for development of human resource, which

brings about national development. For education to be regarded as an instrument of change, the students and teachers must be encouraged to perform effectively academically by ensuring that the school facilities are well utilised.

Factors which affect the standard of education and the level of academic performance in Nigerian secondary schools include poor funding, inadequate staffing, poor quality of educational leadership, teachers' negative attitude to work, politicisation of educational programmes, rampant indiscipline among staff and students, redundancy among secondary school products resulting in wastage and increase in students enrolment without a corresponding increase in available facilities, to mention just a few. Apart from the influence facilities have on students' academic performance, other factors like school location and students' attendance cannot be overlooked. What is noticed among rural dwellers is to see students get ready for school early, yet coming late to school due to long distances that they need to cover. According to Adebeyeje, Olaniyi and Adepoju (2003) and Joseph (2015), when the students get to school, they are always weak due to the stress they have undergone. It is on this note that this study investigates the relationship among school location, facilities utilisation and students' academic performance in Osun State public secondary schools, Nigeria

Review of Related Literature

School location is the siting of a school in a particular geographical area. In planning, two things must be considered when a school is to be sited. They are size of the population and catchment area of the community. For a school to be sited in an area, the number of children that are within the schooling age bracket living in the area is very important. The area the school is serving must not be too far so that people can easily reach the school from home. School site selection is an important aspect of school plant. According to Adeogun (2000), before siting a school, certain conditions must be examined. These include educational needs of the community, the direction of population growth, long range planning of additional sites, parks and recreation centres, streets and highways, community interest or public utilities, students' accessibility, safety, healthfulness environment - free from pollution (noise, odour, dust and health hazards), walking or travelling from and to school (the distance should not be more than two kilometers), enough land must be acquired for future expansion at least five acres for primary school and ten acres for secondary school. Proprietors of the Board of Education need to keep in close touch with an architect for useful suggestions on site development and possible placement of school building.

School site planning is an essential aspect of educational planning, unless schools are well sited, buildings adequately constructed and equipment adequately utilised and maintained, much teaching and learning may not take place. Oyesola (2000) states that accessibility of a school and its situation in relation to other features in the location is highly important. Site selection

relates to topography, slope and nature of the soil on which the buildings are to be erected. School should be centrally placed, concentration of population, availability of essential social amenities and safety of the school should be considered, since students' academic performance cannot be separated from where the school is sited.

School location influences students' attendance and academic performance due to the distance covered everyday which may make them to be weak and loose interest in the school activities. A school's environment is the thread that connects the multitude of activities on a campus. In many respects, this thread is almost invisible, yet everyone experiences its influence. Positive social relationships and attitudes about school are as important to the environment as are safe and well-kept buildings and grounds (Olagboye, 2004). A safe, clean and well-maintained school with a positive psychosocial climate and culture can foster school connectedness, which in turn boosts students' and staff health as well as students' educational achievement. A school's physical environment includes the school building and the surrounding grounds, such as noise, temperature and lighting as well as physical, biological, or chemical agents (Marx and Wooley, 1999).

The environments in which a school is situated and from which it draws its students influence the students' academic performance. The physical environment of the school is important as a factor in child's learning due to the belief that a school with a conducive environment for learning will help both the teachers and the students. Olasimbo (2001) observes that children in rural areas are linguistically deficient; they reason convergently, while their counterparts from the urban settlement behave vice versa. In addition, the environment affects a child's ability through direct learning from the achievement and attitude of adults. Adeleke (2000) observes that children learn best when they actively explore a rich environment when given the responsibility to make meaningful choices about what is to be learned and when they are able to interact informally with their teachers, one another and the environment.

School facilities are those things needed in school for effective operation of teaching and learning procedure, which range from easily consumable to non-consumable items. Oluchukwu (1998) defines educational facilities as the site, building and equipment. The site includes location, accessibility, quantity and quality design of the building and the likes. Every school needs a wide range of educational facilities such as laboratories, library, workshop, classroom, stationery, and the like, which aid effective teaching and learning. Nwadiani (2000) reports that in majority of Nigerian secondary schools, the classroom accommodation is grossly inadequate. As a result of the large enrolments in these schools, the classrooms are usually overcrowded, with up to 60 or more students receiving instructions in classrooms designed for only 30 or 40 students. In most cases, the chairs and desks are not enough, which makes the students to share chairs, stand up, or sit on windows or broken desks. When students are crowded like this, there is stalling of the teaching-learning

process and a disruption of the student's mental activity. This situation generally militates against effective teaching and intellectual development of the students (Adeyinka, 1992).

Many schools and colleges today have buildings that they call libraries, but most of these are not equipped with essential books and current journals and magazines. The Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) has adversely affected the production, distribution and cost of books in Nigeria. The implication of a weak Naira for the book production/ distribution industry is that the production cost of each book would be higher than before. It does not matter whether the books are imported or produced locally. If imported, the cost of buying them in Europe or America and the cost of transporting them to Nigeria would be very high. If they are printed locally (in Nigeria), the cost of importing raw materials (paper, ink and related printing materials) would still be high, shooting up the overall production cost. In either case, therefore, the unit cost of every school or college book in Nigeria is high; and many titles are out of print. The results are a dearth of essential books for teaching and learning in Nigerian educational institutions and prohibitive cost of the ones available (Adeyinka, 1992).

Adeogun (2001) observes a very strong positive significant relationship between instructional resources and academic performance. He concludes that schools endowed with more resources perform better than schools that are less endowed. As a result of low level of instructional resources available in public schools, teaching-learning activities are starved. Fisher (2000) points out the importance of suitable and adequate laboratory in the teaching of science subjects. Proficiency and performance in science practical work rest on the pedagogy of the science teachers and to a large extent the laboratory and to this effect the West African Examination Council (WAEC) has now mandated a well-equipped laboratory for teaching of science subjects in registered schools.

Performance refers to students' attainment in the West African Senior School Certificate Examination (WASSCE) in the five core curriculum subjects. The academic performance is synonymous to their achievement in the academic endeavour. It is a measure of how well students have mastered the learning task, present judgment to it and the level at which they pass their exams with good grades. Ijaiya (2004) points out that academic performance is a viable tool that can be used to determine and predict the standard of education in a secondary school in terms of its efficiency and effectiveness. It portrays the quality of education offers in Nigeria. Although there is a standardised test used to measure the academic performance of students at the secondary school level such as NECO/WAEC/NABTEB and the likes, it is the responsibilities of the stakeholders in the secondary schools to ensure a high standard of education.

Methodology

This study adopts the correlation research design. Two hundred and fifty students and 250 teachers are selected as participants in the sampled secondary schools through systematic sampling technique. Three researcher-

designed instruments entitled: "School Location Questionnaire" (SLQ), "School Facilities Utilisation Questionnaire" (SFUQ) and "Students' Academic Performance Checklist" (SAPC) are used to obtain relevant data from the respondents. The items of the instruments are generated from the variables of the study. The questionnaires are validated by four experts in the areas of Educational Management and Educational Measurement and Evaluation at the University of Ilorin and Obafemi Awolowo University respectively. They have assisted in ensuring the correctness and relevance of the sets of questions asked. Test re-test method is employed to obtain reliability coefficient values 0.89 and 0.75 for SLQ and SFUQ respectively. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient is used to test the two hypotheses formulated in the study at 0.05 level of significance.

Research Hypotheses

Ho₁: There is no significant relationship between school location and students' academic performance in Osun State public secondary schools.

Ho₂: There is no significant relationship between facilities utilisation and students' academic performance in Osun State public secondary schools.

Results

To establish the relationship between school location and students' academic performance in Osun State public secondary schools, Pearson product moment statistics is utilised.

Table 1: School location and students' academic performance

Variable	N	Mean	SD	Df	Calculated r-value	Critical r-value	Decision
School location	500	10.82	3.26	498	.558	.062	Ho rejected
Students' academic performance	500	11.29	4.87				

As shown in Table 1, the calculated r-value .558 is greater than the critical r-value .062 at 0.05 level of significance for 498 degrees of freedom. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected. There is a significant relationship between school location and students' academic performance in Osun State public secondary schools. This is aptly supported by Adeogun (2000) that a site of the school building should be considered as important to educational programme as are in classrooms and other instructional areas.

To establish the relationship between facilities utilisation and students' academic performance in Osun State public secondary schools Pearson product moment statistics is utilised.

Table 2: Facilities utilisation and student's academic performance

Variable	N	Mean	SD	Df	Calculated r-value	Critical r-value	Decision
School facilities	500	15.20	3.65	498	.684	.062	Ho: rejected
Students' academic performance	500	11.29	4.87				

Table 2 shows that the calculated r-value (.684) is greater than the critical r-value (.062) at 0.05 level of significance for 498 degrees of freedom. Thus, the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between facilities utilisation and students' academic performance is rejected. The level of students' academic performance can be traced to the utilisation of available facilities. The teachers cannot put in their best; and the students too, cannot derive maximum benefit from the instruction being given to them when the needed facilities are not available. Schools without adequate facilities would find it difficult to educate their students effectively and there will be poor academic performance in public exams compared to schools with adequate facilities (Oluchukwu, 1998).

Discussion

It is discovered in the study that there is a significant relationship between school location and students' academic performance in Osun State secondary schools. This finding is in consonance with the findings of Olasimbo (2001) that students whose schools are distant from homes or located in rural areas are academically and linguistically deficient than those whose schools near their homes or located in the urban areas. Walking distance, as has been identified by several researchers appears to be a common factor for poor students' academic performance with no exception of students from Osun State Secondary Schools. Adeboyeje, Olaniyi and Adepoju (2003) have identified home-school distance through involvement of stakeholders as one among several factors that cause poor academic performance of students in public examinations. In line with these findings, Onderi, Kiplangat, and Awino (2014) have indicated that walking long distances to school greatly make students reach it with empty stomachs and get to it late, thus influencing negatively their academic performance.

A significant relationship was found between facilities utilisation and students' academic performance in Osun State public secondary schools. This finding is in agreement with Isaiah (2013) whose study has identified that school facilities are critical as they determine trends in school activities and with the view that they influence teacher performance and students' academic achievement. The author elaborates that school physical environment plays key roles in influencing teachers level of satisfaction and their level of performance or productivity. Therefore, facility quality is seen as an important predictor of the decisions of teachers to leave their current position. It is because of the importance of the physical environment to the quality of education that Farombi (1998) opines that a wealthy nation or society establishes good schools with quality teachers, learning infrastructures and that, with such, students may learn with ease, thus bringing about good academic achievement.

Hallak (1990) stipulates clearly that facilities (school buildings, classrooms, accommodation, libraries, furniture, recreational equipment, apparatus and other instructional materials) form one of the potent factors that contribute to academic achievement in the school system. In view of their essential role to students' learning, he reiterates that educational facilities should be located in appropriate places, while the needs of the users should be put into consideration. He recommends that appropriate places in which school and its facilities are located significantly contribute to academic achievement. Haverinen-Shaughnessy, Moschandreas, and Shaughnessy (2011) opine that locating a secondary school in a place that would significantly lead into poor learning environments have proved to contribute to irregular students' attendance and dropping out of school and teachers' absenteeism and ability to engage in the teaching and learning process. In consonance, Olofinniyi and Fashiku (2013) in their study discover that facility decadence in Ondo State secondary schools contribute negatively to students' academic achievements in Ondo State.

Cohen (2010), despite acknowledging that most of the studies conducted on environmental conditions and the positive academic performance of students are limited, the quality of the school environment is essential on positive learning outcomes. He identifies two major sources of environmental problems in schools: the quality of the land on which the school is built and the quality of the school facility itself. Cohen further adds that there is a need for stakeholders to involve environmental planners to focus their attention on the particular facility and area in which the school facility will be located. School staff should be involved as environmental injustices affect school students and staff population. Onyeachu (1996) examines the influence of school environment on the student academic performance in secondary schools in Lagos State. The study reveals a strong relationship on performance of learners in relation to school environment. Factors such as school facilities, class size, school location and school plant planning are also examined to determine their effects on the academic achievement of secondary school students. It is

observed in the study that most secondary schools have inadequate facilities to support teaching and learning process, thus leading to mass failures.

Conclusion

The place of school location and school facilities is so significant in students' academic performance in particular, Osun State public secondary schools. The findings of this study have indicated that school location variables such as school site selection, distance and accessibility and physical environment were all significantly related to the students' academic performance. Also, the implication of school location, accessibility, non-availability of teaching facilities is that no matter how energetic, enthusiastic and committed a teacher might be, their effort and level of performance might not produce the required results in students' secondary schools' Students in Osun State will continue to perform poorly academically if there is no effort made to improve on the observed problems in the state.

Recommendations

In view of the findings of this study, the following are therefore recommended. School plant needs to be catered for by the state government and host communities, to make all schools readily accessible. The location of a school has a significant effect on the academic performance of the students. A strategic location, free of all distractions from environment and with free accessibility will ultimately improve students' academic performance. Infrastructural facilities in public schools should be improved on through incorporated renovation, reconstruction and proper maintenance. Facilities such as classrooms, furniture, computer, library, textbooks, equipment and laboratories are to be adequately provided and utilised to bring out the best in the students and make the teachers productive. Stakeholders in secondary education in the state should jointly work together in creating a conducive atmosphere for effective teaching and learning process for better academic performance of the students.

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Marx Class Theory and Contract Employment in Nigeria: An Exploration of the Manifest Causes and Consequences

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Abstract

The authors explore the manifest causes and consequences of contract employment in Nigeria using Karl Marx's Class theory. They observe that both the government and employers are keen promoters of contract employment in Nigeria. This results from the high rate of unemployment, poor standard of employment regulations and obsession to make profit respectively. The consequences of these factors are poor social, economic and psychological benefits for contract workers. Though there are benefits attached to contract employment in Nigeria for workers such as an industrial training student, a married woman who does not want to work full-time or an unskilled or semi-skilled person, employers have shortchanged workers by employing university/higher institution graduates and owners of professional certificates as contract employees for profit motive. With a volatile labour market, there have been proliferations of many unscrupulous recruitment/employment agencies that take advantage of desperate unemployed persons, thereby promoting nonstandard employment relations such as contract jobs. Although, it is sometimes suggested that the benefits of contract jobs constitute the price of progress, identified with increased flexibility and presented as the precondition for economic progress, this reality is seemingly not the case in Nigeria as many contract employees face myriad of social, economic and psychological problems in both their place of work and the society as a whole.

Key words: contract employment, Karl Marx theory, contract workers, labour

Introduction

Contract employment has become a social phenomenon and a cankerworm in labour relations in various industries such as banking, telecommunication, oil and gas in Nigeria. It has been argued that the shift from permanent work to contract work arrangement is as a result of employers using it to avoid the mandates and costs associated with labour laws which are designed to protect permanent employees in standard employment (Onyeonoru, 2008; Okafor, 2011). Employers of labour are increasingly filling positions in their organisations that are supposed to be permanent with contract employees via outsourcing firms (Fapohunda, 2012). In Nigeria, the working conditions of contract workers are not only incapacitating but also precarious. Job insecurity, lack of social security, poor employment benefits and minimum conditions of work are some of the issues of concern (Rasak, 2015).

Scholars are of the view that the use of contract workers do not only promote indecent work, but also violates established labour standards in Nigeria

(Uvieghara, 2000; Okougbo, 2004; Onyeonoru, 2007; Adewumi, 2008; Okafor, 2010). However, contract work has always existed for particular jobs such as cleaning, security and bricklaying. It is not a new development, but the form it has taken in recent times in virtually all formal organisations like telecommunication, banking, oil and gas industries is different and alarming. Therefore, it becomes expedient to broadly explore the reasons why contract employment is on the rise and will continue to gain ground in the aforementioned and other organisations in Nigeria with the aid of Karl Marx's Class theory.

Meaning of Contract Employment

The International Labour Organisation (ILO) (2007) defines contract workers as workers who have an explicit or implicit contract of employment which is not expected to continue for more than a short period, whose duration is to be determined by national circumstances. This ambiguous definition has led to varying definitions of contract workers and their rights in different jurisdictions (Fapohunda, 2012). This is because it has now become a corporate trend of hiring and keeping workers on temporary employment rather than permanent employment, even for years, as a cost reduction measure. Contract employment is a term used in Nigeria to describe work arrangements that are characterised by bad work conditions like job insecurity, low wages, and lack of some vital employment benefits that accrue to regular/permanent employees as well as the right to organise and collectively bargain (Okafor, 2010). In addition, workers in this form of work arrangement can be dismissed at any time without notice and are not entitled to redundancy pay (Okougbo, 2004). It is an unprotected form of employment because it does not enjoy the statutory protection available to permanent employees (Okafor, 2005).

Basso (2003) observes that contract employment is used loosely in international literature to refer to the spread of bad conditions of work such as employment insecurity, irregular work hours, intermittent employment, low wages and absence of standard employment benefits. The term contract is however, becoming a more usual and constant language in employment relations in Nigeria. The meanings may vary, but there exists a common overlap in the meanings as may be used in different occasions and location. Bodibe (2007) affirms that traditionally, contract labour refers to work conducted for defined periods and during peak business periods when individuals are called to supplement full time/permanent workers in times of high business activity, particularly in retail. But the situation is different now as most contract workers are used like permanent workers in most organisations in Nigeria.

O'Donnell (2004) emphasises that legally, a contract employee is seen as a worker engaged for a period of less than six months and who is paid at the end of each day. The expectation is that these categories of workers include those engaged, for example, in piece work, short-term construction work, etc. This, however, is not really the practice; contract jobs now are commonly

understood as jobs that attract monthly pay but very few of the other rights and benefits, such as the right to notice, the right to severance pay and most forms of paid leave (annual leave, public holidays, sick leave, etc.) (Danesi, 2012). Similarly, Okafor (2007) noted that losses suffered by contract employees include: abysmal low wages, absence of medical care allowances, job insecurity or lack of promotion at work, no gratuity and other severance benefits, no leave allowance, freedom of association which is often jeopardised, no death benefits or accident insurance at work, no negotiation or collective bargaining agreement. This treatment extends to job allowances, canteen services, health and life insurance schemes, transportation and leave entitlements (Fajana, 2005).

Typically, many contract workers are higher institution graduates or skilled technicians, most of whom have spent several years in their respective organisations but are still referred to and treated as contract workers (Adewusi, 2015). This type of situation can also arise in some cases as the entire or part of the business activity is often outsourced or “contractised”. In such circumstances, it is always typical of employers to begin to create an invisible line between “core” and “non-core” activities as an excuse, while the slavery continues. According to Fapohunda (2012), companies dismiss contracts and subcontracted (non-core) workers more easily than permanent (core) workers. They find it easier to hire and dismiss them during and at their own wish. According to Bodibe (2007), contract employees do not have any other working conditions except for the diminutive remuneration they receive at the end of the day or month.

Origin of Contract Employment in Nigeria

The inception of formal contract employment that is of concern to trade unions has no clear-cut origin in Nigeria, but it could be traced to the introduction of the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) by the military regime which was in power in Nigeria in 1986, the International Monetary Fund (IMF), and the World Bank loans and the conditions attached. The combination of these factors has led to a slump in the economy where many factories have shut down, some are operating below minimum capacity and many organisations are finding it difficult to compete in the present globalised world (Okafor, 2007). Moreover, globalisation and trade liberalisation, and the competition for imported goods have forced enterprises in Nigeria to reduce their permanent employees’ strength and replace them with contract/casual employees in order to cut the cost of production and remain competitive (Okougbo, 2004). The structural adjustment programme (SAP) was geared towards less government involvement in the economy and more private sector participation.

In terms of job creation, the government was involved in downsizing of the civil service and its parastatals. The thinking was that the revitalisation of the private sector would attract the much needed foreign direct investment (FDI)

into the country. Yes, it did attract some FDI, especially in the Oil and Gas Industry (OGI); however, this led to the lowering of labour standards at the same time (Danesi, 2011).

In addition, the Nigerian labour market was not only saturated but characterised by massive youth unemployment of various forms, namely seasonal, frictional, cyclical and structural unemployment (Adebayo, 1999; Damachi, 2001; Okafor, 2010). With the current unemployment rate (14.2%), it is likely that many employees in Nigeria might be relegated to the pool of contract employment. Hence, a significant number of people will stay in contract jobs because it will not be very easy to find a permanent job in the first place. This is not because they lack skills and qualifications but simply because of the fierce competition for the available jobs (Okafor, 2010; Adenugba and Jawando, 2014). In view of the above, there is growing recourse to contract employment in many industries or organisations in Nigeria.

Many organisations use contract employees for a variety of reasons such as seasonal or cyclical workforce adjustments, cost saving efforts and specific skill needs (Jolliffe and Farnsworth, 2003). More so, studies have shown that organisations use contract employment conditions as a pseudo-probationary period to assess the performance of employees who may likely secure long term employment and those that do not fit the organisation (Drucker and Croucher, 2000). This has been found to create a more meaningful employer-employee relationship. Theoretically, casualisation of labour in the organisation increases the ease with which employees can be included and excluded from the workforce (Richardson and Allen, 2001). However, in Nigeria, it has been established that this kind of condition is not applicable in all organisations as some contract employees may likely not secure long time employment after the probation period (Adenugba and Jawando, 2014).

According to Danesi (2012), the reasons given by employers on why they engage in contract employment in Nigeria are that: contract employees employed through an agency or a third party will have their records kept by the agency, so the company is spared that responsibility and cost; the termination of appointment costs of the contract employees will also be borne by the agency since the employees are employees of the agency, so this saves the employer the cost. Also, the consequences of labour turnover are likely to be less adverse when employers use flexible employee arrangements to screen employees for management positions. Temporary employees are sometimes engaged to fill 'non-permanent positions' during peak periods pending the engagement of permanent employees into an established position or for the duration of a particular project.

These employees are usually referred to as service contract employees or project employees. Their employment comes to an end as soon as the task is accomplished; contract employees are employed to accommodate fluctuations in demand or workload; contract employees are employed to temporarily replace permanent employees on maternity leave or on vacation; contract employees are

employed to cope with seasonal variations in demand while minimising employment costs; and contract employees are employed to reduce labour costs generally, through downsizing, restructuring or redundancy. Usually, when permanent employees go on strike, the non-standard employees are called in to take their places since they are not members of the trade union (Danesi, 2012:5).

Given that the employment situation around the world has become more competitive and unstable; organisations have decided to offer more flexible employment conditions, focusing on potential problems (such as lower demand of the market) and the possibility of lay-offs (OECD, 2002). Therefore, the growth in contract employment is driven by employers' demand for more flexibility and innovation as well as their wish to reduce labour costs and administrative complexity (Kallerg et al; 2000; Burgess and Connell, 2006). One of the ways in which employers do this is to hire or fire employees according to the requirements of the market at any given situation (Martines, 2010). Consequently, on a daily basis, an increasing number of organisations are employing people on an outsourcing/contract basis in order to enhance their competitiveness in the national and global market (Kalleberg, 2000; Adewunmi 1997, Wandera, 2011). This phenomenon is explained with the aid of Karl Marx class theory.

Karl Marx Class theory

Marx's account of a capitalist society is an appropriate launching place for a discussion of the concept of contract employment in Nigeria because it introduced the first systematic theory of class to the social sciences discourse. The theory of class was integral to Marx's entire vision of historical development. For Marx, class is not simply a way of classifying a population but defines the operation of capitalist society. Capitalism produces and thrives on class divisions. For example, for Marxists, unemployment is not a defect of capitalist society; rather it is a creation of the ruling class to increase its wealth relative to the working class through encouraging competition between workers and introducing new business strategies (Hughes, Holmes and Julian, 2007).

For Marx, class is defined according to the ownership of the means of production. Capitalist relations of production are characterised by a complete separation of the producers (working class) from the means of production. The class that owns the means of production, the bourgeoisie, is defined by its ownership of capital, forms of value – factories, machinery, land, rented properties and invested finance that are used to accumulate more wealth (Hughes, Holmes and Julian, 2007). The ownership of the means of industrial production, the control over the production of subsistence and consumer goods is the single most important kind of capital in both national and international contexts. All wealth is ultimately bound up with the circulation of this kind of capital. Renting property and investment are other longstanding forms of profit making. The activities of petit bourgeoisie (or small business), which are basically to buy cheap and sell on a high price, or to take a commission in the

sale of property, merely continue after pre-industrial practices of trade. But these subsidiary movements of capital were relatively unimportant for Marx in the analysis of classes under capitalism.

As a class, capitalists have a clear total monopoly over the ownership and organisation of the means of production, while all the workers possess is the “Labour Power”, which they must sell in the market as a commodity for wages. The relation between an individual capitalist and an individual worker is therefore an exchange relation determined by the market, as either is free to look elsewhere for a better exchange (Marx, 1976) provided there is better opportunity. When the capitalist and worker meet in the market-place, what appears to happen is a mutual exchange, a fair day’s pay for a fair day’s work. However, Marx’s economic theory sets out to show that the inherent inequality of this exchange lies in the fact that capitalists are able to make profits simply by virtue of organising production and legally owning the means of production even though the workers actually generate this profit through their labour (Hughes, Holmes and Julian, 2007). For Marx, therefore, labour is the source of capitalist wealth.

Nevertheless, workers are separated from the ownership and control of the wealth that is created by their work. Arising from the above, three important elements of Marx’s systemic approach to class are discussed below. The theory of surplus value; the subsistence wage and the reserved army of labour:

1. The theory of surplus value. Marx stresses that workers are free to sell their labour power, but have to sell it in order to live. In selling their labour power, workers give up their claims to the products they make, which are available in the market for exchange. Marx’s economic argument is that the workers always receive less in wages than the value of the commodities they produce. Workers consume only a portion of these products, which they can buy back in the market with the wage they receive for their labour power. Importantly, the inequity that is produced in this relationship occurs only at the point of production, not consumption. According to Marx, no amount of redistributive taxation can address the fact that the reproduction of capitalism depends on the exploitation of workers, in which the workers produce the wealth for those who rule over them.

In Marx’s theory of surplus value, the difference between the exchange value of the worker’s labour and its use value to the capitalist who buys it represents surplus value. The ratio of unpaid or surplus labour time to necessary labour time is the rate of exploitation: The capitalist is forced to calculate this realisation of value (and consequently is forced to exploit) in order to remain competitive against other capitalists (Burawoy, 1979). To generate profit, the capitalist expects to use the labour power that is bought to produce a quantity of commodities whose exchange value (appearing as a monetary price) is expected to be greater than the cost of production.

Historically, capitalist have tried a range of measures to extract the maximum surplus value from workers. According to Hughes, Holmes and Julian (2007), these include:

- a. extending the working day/hour;
- b. speeding up the pace of work (which may become a health and safety issue);
- c. dividing labour (such as contract and permanent workers) in increasingly detailed ways to achieve economies of scale;
- d. introducing more and more machinery; which de-skills the workers or make employers rely more on machine than workers' mental efforts, produce more unemployment and drive down wages (machines are the products of the past labours of workers, even past generations of workers); and
- e. attempting to de-unionise a workforce, which weakens the power of collective labour and extracts more corporate loyalty and hard work from workers.

2. The subsistence wage and the reserve army of labour. Marx believed that there was a general tendency under capitalism for the value of the worker's labour power to be driven towards a value necessary to keep the worker at subsistence level, or 'the subsistence wage' (Marx, 1976:274). Capitalists constantly pressure legislators to set low rates of wages across the entire spectrum of the labour market. Politicians and representatives of the capitalist state apparatus who identify politically with the capitalist class will assist them in achieving this. They might also attempt to break down power in various ways in order to weaken the position of workers. In contrast, the union movement and pro-worker political parties will attempt to set minimum standards above the subsistence level. But the extent unions can go in achieving their aim and objectives for workers depend on government supports and policies, which in most cases in Nigeria for instance are pro-capitalists.

However, struggles between the representatives of capital and of labour do not alter the fact that the exchange relation at the center of the capitalist mode of production is unequal; it merely alters the rate of exploitation. The fact of exploitation is not a moral concern for Marx, but merely an economic term used to describe the form of power capitalists have over workers. For example, pro-capitalist politicians speak of new production facilities and other investment in Nigeria in openly benevolent terms: corporations, especially private ones should be thanked for providing jobs as though this was an act of welfare. In fact, what induces capitalists to buy each worker's labour power is the search for higher rates of profit, and this holds whether workers are producing consumer goods or services. If profitable conditions no longer prevail, capitalists either terminate production or reinvest in a more profitable area of activity, or move operations elsewhere to a location where they are more favoured. This is staunchly the case of most liquidated and bankrupted banks

and other firms in Nigeria who either merged with other similar companies or back out from the market leaving many workers perplexed and disheartening. Hence, the mere threat by capitalists to move location to cheaper places or reinvest in other business ventures can also depress the level of workers' wages.

Employers also take advantage of unemployment to increase their power over workers. Unemployment leads to the creation of what Marx called an 'industrial reserve army of labour which affects the employed workers by increasing competition for jobs and weakening their bargaining power for wage rises and better conditions. However, this struggle between capitalists and workers lead to one of the key contradictions in the capitalist system. If capitalist are unable to find new markets in which to sell their products, then the system suffers a crisis of 'overproduction', which sends it into recession. Capitalists do have recourse to remedying this situation as long as they successfully identify new markets for their products as well as cheaper sources of labour. This remedy has been a major driving force behind economic globalisation, that has brought about all forms of work arrangement like contract employment in which the economic base (or infrastructure) of the employers has greatly negatively affected the ideological superstructure of the contract workers.

As a result, workers have been subjected to a great deal of psychological alienation, such as powerlessness, meaninglessness, self-estrangement and normlessness.

- Powerlessness in terms of workers not controlling the pace of work.
- Meaninglessness in terms of workers not seeing their total contributions to the total product. Hence, a worker is alienated from the product he/she produces. It is also important to note that, with this, a worker develops instrumental behaviour and attitude to work. This means that, the worker will only be concerned with whatever he or she earns from the organisation and nothing more.
- Self-estrangement derived from the absence of control by the producer over the product.
- Normlessness in terms of not making workers to take part in important issues that determine their terms and conditions of work by dissuading trade unionism and collective bargaining in the workplace.

Karl Marx Class theory and Contract Employment: Manifest Causes and Consequences in Nigeria

For every capitalist society, profit and capital accumulation reigns supreme. To achieve these, however, a group has to loose, and this group is made up of the labourers (mainly the contract workers) – as what the capitalists consider to be profit is actually their labour and this is what Marx called Surplus Value which is 'the increase over the original value of the money that is put into circulation due to underpayment of labour time in the process of production of commodity (Lenin 1959: 30 cited in Olutayo and Akanle, 2013). Surplus value

as a tool is for explanation of systematised exploitation of the proletariat as perpetrated in capitalism as labour and time are excessively appropriated unremunerated. This is exemplified as follows:

The owner of money buys labour power at its value which, like the value of every other commodity is determined by the socially necessary labour time requisite for its production (i.e. the cost of maintaining the worker and his family). Having bought labour power, the owner of money is entitled to use it, that is, to set it to work for a whole day-twelve hours, so to say. Yet, in the course of six hours (necessary labour time) the worker creates: in the course of the next six hours (surplus labour time), he creates 'surplus' product, or surplus value, for which the capitalist does not pay (Lenin, 1959:30, cited Olutayo and Akanle, 2013).

Olutayo and Akanle (2013) explain that the dangerous practice and consequences of surplus value are generating concerns in capitalist societies; in general, emerging capitalist societies of Africa and Asia suffer the unmitigated implications of capitalism under the dynamics of surplus value in peculiar ways. They emphasised that, what seems to attract 'investors' to these societies in recent time is the cheapness of labour. Government compromises labour laws to attract investors in an attempt to benefit from globalisation and reduce unemployment and poverty. The pool and army of the unemployed and the employed are thus vulnerable even as labour power and time are appropriated as profits at the expense of workers' voice, goals and power.

In the last two decades, there have been dramatic changes in the workplace across the globe. These changes have been associated with rapid developments in information and communications technology, diversity in labour market, growing international competitions in product markets and corporate financial restructuring in capital markets. All these transformations in the work environments have been carried out under various names such as work reorganisation (Osterman, 2000), work restructuring (Fecker, 2009), merger and acquisition (Cartwright and Schoenberg, 2006), downsizing (Appelbaum, 1991), contract staffing (Hampton, 1988), flexibility (Kalleberg, 2003) and lean production (Sakakibara, Flynn, Schroeder and Morris, 1997) with the aim of reorganising work in favour of management and for better performance (Jawando, 2015).

In addition, as organisations are moving away from secure jobs and economic protection for workers, many employees are of the opinion that management is treating them merely as a means of achieving organisational goals rather than as valued members of the organisation (Bluestone and Bluestone, 1999; Harrison, 1994; Oya, 2008; Adewumi, 2009 cited in Jawando, 2015: 2). Haspels, Zaitum, Constance and McCann (2008) and Somavia (2005)

note that, the prevalence of precarious forms of work like contracts is a deliberate response to the emerging market conditions which have further encouraged a reduction in labour costs and the number of core (permanent) workers. Globally, jobs in all sectors are being outsourced or sub-contracted from employment agencies or labour cooperatives at a rapid rate. Workers are subject to job instability, lower wages and more dangerous working conditions as they are denied rights and benefits of regular workers (International Labour Rights Forum, 2001 cited in Jawando, 2013). This is done deliberately to pave way for irregular forms of employment like contract work, in order to avoid labour surplus during economic downturn, which negates good work practices (Kalleberg, Reskin and Hundson, 2000; Haspels et al, 2008 cited in Jawando, 2015).

Besides, instances abound where contract workers have little or no control over workplace decisions or over design and implementation of their work tasks (Casey and Alach, 2004). Furthermore, it was observed that contract form of employment status is riddled with exploitation in many organisations in Nigeria (Adenugba and Jawando, 2014). It manifests itself in one form or the other including poor salary, low wages, few benefits, de-motivation and lack of collective representation by unions, as well as job insecurity (Okougbo, 2004; Mokwenye, 2008; Okafor, 2010; Adenugba and Jawando, 2014). Evidence suggests that there are cases of people employed on a continuous contract basis for many years without permanent employment status or regularisation of appointment in Nigeria (Adewusi, 2015).

It is noteworthy of that, with the labour force of over three million people annually moving into the labour market, unemployment rate in Nigeria rose from 13.9 percent in the 3rd quarter to 14.2 percent in the 4th quarter of 2016 (Nigeria Bureau of Statistics (NBS), 2016). It is important to note that the figures above may not have captured the totality of youth unemployment situation in Nigeria. However, they are pointing to the fact that the phenomenon is a very critical issue with reference to contract employment in Nigeria.

In addition, Alao (2005) identifies the following types of unemployment which directly or indirectly, according to Karl Marx, via his Reserved Army of labour, are causes of contract employment in Nigeria: structural, frictional, seasonal, cyclical, technological and residual unemployment. Structural unemployment occurs when there is a change in the structure of an industry or the economic activity of a country. This may be due to use of outdated technology, deficiency of capital resources in relation to their demand and the product or service is no longer in demand. According to Karl Marx, the essence of this by the employers is to introduce more and more machinery; or make employers rely more on machine than workers' mental efforts and produce more unemployment and drive down wages.

Frictional Unemployment is caused by industrial friction in which jobs may exist, yet the workers may be unable to fill them either because they do not possess the necessary skill, or because they are not aware of the existence of

such jobs. This is unsurprising, since many employers in Nigeria are reluctant to recruit directly from the pool of unemployed, but want some assurance of current skills, work attachment, and work discipline. As a matter of fact, one reason why workers in contract employment in Nigeria may obtain permanent jobs, either directly with a client or indirectly is because they acquire skills (for example, computer training) and experience with a variety of former employers, who may happen to have employed them on contract basis (Kalejaiye, 2014). Indeed, what may be the primary motivation of contract employment is sometimes the opportunity for these workers to acquire skills and experience (Carey and Haselbaker, 1986; Von Hippel *et al.*, 1997). Despite this, Dale and Bamford (1988) and Nolan (1996) argue that contract job is adverse to human capital development by either the staffing company or client.

Moreover, the process of contract employment means that contract workers increasingly lack access to career paths, because most contract work lacks possibilities for career progression comparable to permanent employment relationships. Such a lack of career progression for contract workers has obvious material costs; however, it is important to note that in contemporary “work societies” a career path is not simply a determinant of income. Rather, a career path also designates a progression from less to more demanding work, and career progression is (still) one significant form of social esteem. By limiting access to career paths, contract employment thus tends to undermine both the development of skills and capacities and workers’ access to legitimate esteem for the work that they perform (Tweedie, 2011).

In addition to frictional unemployment, the employable may remain unemployed on account of employers claiming that there are shortages of raw materials, or mechanical defects in the working of plants. Therefore, the better the economy is doing, the lower this type of unemployment is likely to occur. This notion has led to the prospects of a “race to the bottom” in labour standards, particularly in the developing nations (Banks, 2006). As a result, contract workers now have less check on arbitrary and unfair employer practices (Fajana, 2005; Pastore, 2008; Adewunmi, 1997) and this factor reduces workers’ effectiveness or makes them have no voice in decision making in the organisation.

Seasonal unemployment is due to seasonal variations in the activities of a particular industry caused by climatic changes, changes in fashions or by the inherent nature of such industry. In the tropical region, ice factory for instance is less active in rainy season because demand for ice is low. Seasonal oriented industries are bound to give rise to seasonal unemployment. In line with this, Danesi (2012), identify some of the reasons given by employers for employing contract workers on seasonal basis as: contract workers are employed to cope with seasonal variations in demand while minimising employment costs; contract workers are sometimes engaged to fill ‘non-permanent positions’ during peak periods pending the engagement of permanent employees into an established position or for the duration of a particular project. These workers are

usually referred to as service contract staff or project staff. Their employment comes to an end as soon as the task is accomplished; contract workers are employed to accommodate fluctuations in demand or workload and contract workers are employed to temporarily replace employees on maternity leave or on vacation.

Cyclical or Keynesian unemployment is due to the operation of the business cycle. This is a situation whereby the demand for labour becomes deficient to supply. In other words, when the aggregate demand falls below the full employment level, it is not sufficient to purchase the full employment level of output. It is characterised by an economy wide shortage of jobs and last as long as the cyclical depression lasts. The idea here, according to Karl Marx, is that, once the employers perceive this instance, there is possibility for them to vary work arrangement like recruiting people on a different employment platform for excess profit purposes. For instance, report by Fapohunda (2012) in the banking industry shows that while UBA had 3,773 employees, 3,178 being contract employees and 595 being permanent employees, GTB had 2,538 employees, with 2,180 contract employees and only 358 permanent employees. Zenith Bank had 2,005 employees, 1,680 being contract employees and 325 being permanent employees. And Skye Bank had 1,640 employees, 1,376 being contract employees and 264 being permanent employees. In addition, First Bank had 6,100, with 4,270 contract employees and 1,830 permanent employees. In recent times, the alarming rate of contract workers and their precarious working conditions in the aforementioned deposit money banks has also been decried by the Central Bank (CBN, 2017).

Technological unemployment is caused by changes in the techniques of production, hence a situation whereby man is replaced by machines. Technological changes are taking place constantly, leading to the increased mechanisation of the production process. This naturally results in the displacement of labour or creation of different employment platforms, which might degrade some category of workers. This is observed in many telecommunication, banking and oil and gas industries in Nigeria (Fapohunda, 2012). For instance, employment in the banking industry as at 2007 was put at 62,815 (Soludo, 2008), with majority of them being permanent workers. However, it appears that the recapitalisation exercise cum economic recession, the liberalisation policy of the federal government and the stiff competition which globalisation has brought about have put the banking industry under intense pressure, particularly that of mobilising deposits to meet the requirements of the economy for loans, instead of relying on shareholders' funds. This has led to a situation in which bank managements are employing contract workers out of the desperation to remain competitive and to continue to do business (Adewumi and Adenugba, 2010).

Nonetheless, the issue of contract employment of labour is not one that is peculiar to developing or emerging economies. It is also applicable to the developed economies of the world. The main difference may be that in the

former, individuals' decisions to engage in such employment may be driven by compulsion due to unemployment, corruption and poverty while in the latter, it is driven by choice due to work flexibility (Okafor, 2012) and unemployment insurance. In the developing and emerging countries like Nigeria, the issue of contract employment has been exacerbated by rapid economic globalisation, which has resulted in massive labour migration and the penetration of the multinational companies with capitalist inclinations in these regions. National governments in an attempt to boost foreign direct investment (FDI) often overlook or lower some vital labour issues to enable them (multinationals) to make profit. In doing this, the proliferation of various forms of non-standard employment relations (Umunna, 2006; Oya, 2008; Okafor, 2010) have escalated with varying developments, practices and implications as against decent work agenda being promoted by the International Labour Organisation (ILO), Trade Union Congress (TUC) and Nigeria Labour Congress (NLC) in the banking, oil/gas, telecommunication, constructions, manufacturing and other sectors.

Furthermore, the lack of clarity in the Nigerian Labour Laws concerning legal categories of employees is another motivating factor for the adoption of contract employment by employers (Danesi, 2012). There is only one category of employee defined in the Labour Act and that is that an 'employee' is:

any person who has entered into or works under a contract with an employer, whether the contract is for manual labour or clerical work or is expressed or implied or oral or written, and whether it is a contract of service or a contract personally to execute any work or labour.

The above definition does not recognise workers in contract work arrangements due to their indirect nature of employment which goes from outsourced agents to the third parties who hire them from the outsourced agents. This can be adduced to the fact that the current labour Act was enacted in 1971 when non-standard work arrangements (NSWAs) like contract jobs were alien to our industrial relations environment. In addition, this definition is rather narrow in the sense that it is apparent that it is not every employee at common law that is an employee under the Act. Thus for part 1 of the Act to apply to an employee under the common law, he or she has to fall within the definition of the term employee (Uvieghara 2001 cited in Danesi, 2012:6). Unfortunately, this legislation is still operational and has not been reviewed to address the current realities on ground.

An Employee is also defined by other Labour Legislations in similar terms like the Labour Act (Workmen's Compensation Act, Trade Unions Act, and Trade Dispute Act of Nigeria). Under the common law an employee is defined as a person who has a contract of service. This is distinguishable from an independent contractor or a self-employed person who are said to have a

contract for service. This distinction is arrived at through the various parameters used under the common law such as control, mutuality of obligation, integration and multiple tests (Nwanzuoke, 2001; Danesi, 2012). The consequence of this, however, is that contract employees are excluded from the protection and rights available to permanent employees who are covered by the Labour Act, since they only have a contract for service, while permanent employees are within the purview of a contract of service.

Conclusion

There are benefits and challenges attached to contract employment in Nigeria, for instance, an Industrial Training student and a married woman who does not want to work full-time do not need a permanent job and employers may not want to employ unskilled or semi-skilled people as permanent employees; yet employers have gone beyond this in employing university/higher institution graduates and owners of professional certificates as contract employees for profit motive in Nigeria. Many of the contract employees are used as quasi-permanent employees with poor working conditions in many sectors in Nigeria. The problems of workers in contract jobs have been made worse by massive unemployed youths in Nigeria. This has made the Nigerian labour market volatile and precarious (Onyeonoru, 2008; Okafor, 2011).

With volatile labour market, there have been proliferations of many unscrupulous recruitment/employment agencies that take advantage of desperate unemployed persons, thereby promoting nonstandard employment relations such as contract jobs. Although, it is sometimes suggested that the benefits of contract jobs constitute the price of progress – in this approach, contract jobs are identified with increased flexibility, which is in turn presented as the precondition for economic progress (Robyn May, Iain Campbell and Burgess, 2012) – yet this reality is seemingly not the case in Nigeria as many contract employees face myriad of social, economic and psychological problems in both their place of work and the society as a whole.

Recommendations

This paper recommends that

- i. The government should provide conducive-business environment for the employers so as to prevent them from using excessive running, administrative and other costs as excuses for employing people as quasi-permanent contract staffs for the purpose of making profit in Nigeria.
- ii. The government should ensure that employment opportunities are provided for the youths and unemployment insurance is given to unemployed Nigerians to prevent them from engaging in precarious employment in Nigeria.

iii. The Ministry of Employment, Labour and Productivity should ensure that employers treat workers equitably in Nigeria.

iv. The trade unions should not relent from their efforts in making the world of work a better place for all Nigerian workers in Nigeria.

v. All potential and existing employees should embrace jobs that guarantee job security and continuity in order to avoid social, economic and psychological mishap in their place of work and the society as a whole.

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The Imperative of Institutional and Policy Framework for Dissemination of Research Output in Nigeria*

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Abstract

The author examines the role of research in national development with special emphasis on the essence of dissemination of research. As opposed to market mechanism, he raises some theoretical arguments to underpin the imperative of state intervention in the market for research information. He also discusses the fundamental problems of dissemination of research information in a developing African nation, like Nigeria. The approach of the discussion is conceptual and problem-solving, targeted at addressing the problems of dissemination of research findings with a view to promoting the development impact of research. The author observes that development impact of research in Nigeria is almost insignificant, circumscribed, not only by the volume of research output, but much more constrained by the lack of mechanism and avenue for research dissemination. He then proposes that as the research process is never spontaneous, likewise the dissemination of research is a matter for a purposeful and concerted government intervention. The conclusion declares that the interventionist role of government is imperative, requiring an institution like Research Brokerage Agency (RBA) to bridge the communication gap between the research community (research institutes, universities and other) and practitioners as well as end-users. And to maximise development, impact, an explicit national research policy is needed upon which a robust institutional framework is expected to be driven in the path of development.

Key words: research output, research dissemination, national research policy, research brokerage and development impact.

1. Introduction

The older orthodox view, especially in the 1950s, that material capital was the chief missing component of economic development has in recent times given way to the imperative of human capital acumination. The economic miracles of the Asia 'Tigers', for instance, are being celebrated as an acknowledgement of the essence of investing in people, especially human capability. The challenges of investing in human (human capital) are inclusive of the power of ideas imparted in the process of human resource development. New ideas provide opportunities for employment, technology transfer, skills training, and local investment in human capital. Most successful development strategies are based on using imported ideas with expediency and making concerted effects at creating new ones locally. When enough ideas are present, the economy begins to develop and produce its new products and services, (World Bank 1993, Oladeji 2014:25)

In all the varied activities of science, technological application, administration and decision making, it is research that lies at the nerve centre, serving as the veritable source of new ideas, Ravetz (1971). Flowing from the foregoing is the view that research and the ensuing power of ideas are more than theoretical; they are development-oriented process. The validity of this viewpoint in practice, however, depends greatly on the management and coordination of research and development efforts in a country. In this connection, institution building is necessary, so also a research development policy.

The motivation for this paper is making research the bedrock of national development. A proposition of this presentation is that as the research process is never spontaneous, likewise the dissemination of its output is a matter for a purposeful and determined government intervention. Against this background, the paper examines the role of research in national development, raises some theoretical arguments to underpin state intervention in the market for research information and identifies the basic problem of dissemination of research results. Towards addressing the problem, the paper calls for an academic-practitioner brokerage unit and details the institutional requirements and the policy implication of the proposal.

2. Conceptual Clarification

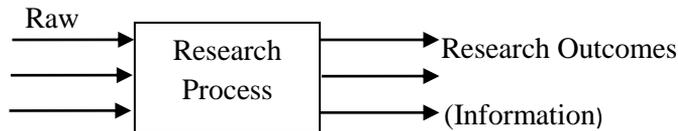
A number of concepts need clarification for the purpose of this presentation and for proper appreciation of the subject matter of research for development. The basic concepts are research process, data and information and dissemination of research findings.

Research Process

Research is here conceptualised as a portmanteau word that covers the wide range of intellectual activities that serve to increase man's power to understand, evaluate and modify his world and his experience (Robbin's Report, 1963:181). In a particular sense it is a process identified with organised inquiry or search for new knowledge based on the scientific method, Okigbo (1981:22). In this sense research covers theoretical discoveries, new empirical findings application and criticism as in the natural sciences, social sciences and humanities. Within the purview of research there is also technology which, essentially, is the application of scientific knowledge to the fulfilment of a practical purpose or in the solution of everyday problems (Rull 2014). Consultancy is another activity that overlaps to a large extent with research. It is concerned with applying knowledge in a problem-solving context. It is a 'contract research' which places researcher(s) under direct legal obligations to produce an agreed body of knowledge by a particular date (Editorial in Higher Education Review, Spring 1983:3-5).

Data and Information

Research process, in whatever form, is a data-based activity, encompassing data gathering, analysis and interpretation of data. By data, it is meant raw, unanalysed (or unprocessed) facts and figures, collected by an information system. Data are always very voluminous and do not speak on their own until “squeezed”. In other words, the raw material called data cannot be used until certain operations of collection, selection elaboration, refinement and analysis are completed. Usually all decision makers are known to have limited time and therefore require compact information on a relevant subject matter, not data. Information, on the other hand, refers to analysed data. It is often presented in a form that is specifically designed for a given decision making task which is either transmitted to or perceived by decision makers, Davies (2016). In the word of de Kadt (1994:10), information is processed data. It is the research process that provides an avenue for transforming raw data into information.



Hence, whereas raw data are input into research process, information constitutes research outcomes or output.

Dissemination of Research Findings

Dissemination of research findings is an integral part of a research process, complementing the production or generation or research output. It has to do with the spread or acquisition of idea or research findings by the ultimate end-users. Research process is not complete until its outcomes (research outputs) effectively reach the ultimate and relevant end-users. Dissemination of research findings is neither spontaneous nor automatic: concerted efforts are required to be put in place for effectiveness. The need to communicate research information or market the acceptance of research findings in this regard cannot be over-emphasised.

Dissemination channels would be so diverse, depending on the nature of research output and the ultimate end-users. Perhaps more than other fields of study, science and technology is reputed to have clearly defined media for research and development dissemination. These are evidenced by such concepts as commercialisation of inventions, technology acquisition, technology transfer, Science and Technology Park, extension services, research services, research extension linkages, etc. Each of these media, has varying degree of popularity, adoption and effectiveness, the appraisal of which is beyond the scope of this presentation. However, the listing of the dissemination channels is particularly

instructive of what is expected of other fields of study, namely the imperative of formalised or regularised and mutually valued communications between researchers and practitioners of potentially useful research findings.

In whatever field of study, the strategic importance of dissemination of research output cannot be overemphasised. Needless to state, the development impact of research is determined to the extent to which dissemination of findings is effective in reaching the ultimate users and the productive utilisation of such findings.

3. Research for Development

The utilitarian consideration in respect of the generation of ideas could be theoretical or practical. As argued by Rommer (1992:64), research ideas (output) are extremely important goods. Economic growth is made possible through the discoveries of big ideas together with the discovery of millions of little ideas. The perspective of this paper is hinged on the premise that research is a development-oriented process. By this, the focus in this paper is on nation state. And by national development, it is meant at a minimum, socio-political development as well as economic development in the building of national identity, Meier (1984:5). Beyond this, reference to other types-for example, legal/ administration development, military, cultural and technological development is also admissible.

It will be apparent from the foregoing that the multidimensionality of national development necessitates interdisciplinary and quite broad scope of research activities in the national development efforts. Towards making research serve effectively as the bedrock of national development, several considerations are worthy of note. These are

- (i) Awareness and evident need for research information or ideas;
- (ii) An institutional framework for the generation and dissemination of research information;
- (iii) Supportive infrastructure, research fund and human resources;
- (iv) Effective and productive utilisation of the research results for development purposes; and
- (v) Intervention in the form of planning and a research development policy.

Attitude towards research is a reflection of the importance accorded research information. In decision making, the role of information cannot be overemphasised. Copious information enhances efficiency, rational choice and action. At the corporate and national levels, decision making, planning and execution of plans are quite demanding, requiring adequate research information. Experiences and guesswork must, as a matter of necessity, give way to the use of scientific knowledge and objective information obtained through reliable research.

Necessary awareness of the need for research information could come directly from the potential end-users or from the researchers themselves. In either case the initial awareness is aroused through education that both identifies development problems and seek to find solutions to them. On the one hand, the potential end-users of research information are aware of the lack of required information and the need for collaborators who could supply the information. On the other hand, the researchers identify and appreciate the usefulness of certain information they could generate and seek to market the research information to potential users.

Dynamic private and public organisations, yearning for progress and development are usually identified by the quest for research information. To these organisations marketing of research ideas to them is almost superfluous. Research promotion and utilisation in them are rules rather than exceptions. The presence of such organisations in good number is what makes the difference between the advanced nations and the third world countries. Of course, the latter pay much less attention to research than do the developed countries (Ukwu 1992).

In Nigeria, for instance, attitude to research and development is yet to have its full expression, the proliferation of universities and research institutes notwithstanding. The private sector organisations, especially the indigenous ones, have not been investing much in research information; and neither have the government establishments themselves demonstrated any strong interest in research activities. Although, Nigeria may appear to have moved from days of “planning without facts” in 1960s, lack of copious information is still very much present in contemporary Nigeria.

If Nigeria is to develop appropriately, first and foremost, research consciousness should be aroused in all segments of the Nigerian society (i.e. all levels of government, public and private establishments, including individuals) such that even if they cannot participate directly as researchers they can be supportive in the area of finance and making available requisite information. At the government level in particular such consciousness should in fact be expressed through an appropriate enabling legislation to promote research activities not only in scientific and technological field, but also in humanities and social sciences.

4. The Case for Intervention

In view of the peculiarities of the “market” for research output, the imperative of government intervention in research management for national development appears evident. Nevertheless, it is needful to underscore such intervention from its underlying theoretical bases and the practical problems that warrant it.

Theoretical Consideration

It has been argued, from the technocratic conception of science, that many practically useful scientific results can be treated as a sort of commodity, to be produced under contract, tailored to the special needs of the purchaser. Ravertz (1971:22). This viewpoint also finds relevance in humanities and social sciences. After all, in contemporary times, every body of knowledge is increasingly becoming scientific; whether in sciences or arts! (Hakemulder and Zynger, 2012).

Acknowledgement of the technocratic position amounts to the existence of the “market” for research outputs. The question that naturally arises is: what prospect is there for the market mechanism to serve as the platform for effective promotion and dissemination of research output in a manner as to ensure national development? In a competitive situation, the role of market forces is to induce firms to purchase (or adopt) research output in order to survive and, additionally to create opportunities for the growth of new firms or old (Braun, 1981:168). Provided certain conditions hold, competitive pressures are expected to bring about efficient allocation of resources to R& D and thus presumptively research necessarily engenders national development.

However, the market for research output is rather special, grossly imperfect and therefore not amenable to the spontaneity of the market forces. The fundamental defects in the market are the invalidation of the real initial conditions necessary for Pareto optimality the framework on which the market mechanism rests. For instance, either in time or in space, research output is not homogenous. Research information comes in different forms and shapes, depending on discipline and context of research. Accessibility to the market for research output is not completely free. In one respect, communications systems of the academic community in most cases are such that they make research findings rather inaccessible to end-users and practitioners. In another respect, transactions in the market for research output are subject to regulations and controls. The enforcement of intellectual property rights on its own constrains access to, and dissemination of research results. Just like education, research output is a quasi-public good, conferring benefits not just on the buyers but also the society at large (Gyorgy 2011). The considerable spill over benefits of research information in this regard, and thus the divergence between private and social returns, are an indication that exclusive relevance on competitive pressures of the market will always result in some social under-investment in research.

The strategic importance of research and development (R and D) in the promotion of a higher rate of economic growth and indeed national development cannot be over-emphasised. Evidently research development and dissemination is not a matter for market forces or a concern for small investors. The substantial capital outlays required to pursue development work, coupled with a high risk of failure to come up with a marketable product tend to favour the larger firms. Thus, it might be argued that monopoly or oligopoly market

structures tend to be more conducive to research development, Pass, Lowes and Davis (2005:452). The market position of the oligopolists is perhaps a more compelling force for them to undertake R and D much more than monopolists. Establishing competitive advantage over rival firms through R and D is in this case at a premium for the oligopolists. As for the monopolist, the capability to fund R and D is always there, but the incentive to do so may not be there given its present secure market position. The creation of incentive in this case could warrant some intervention by government for example, tax exemption for research undertakings.

Evidently, government intervention at the market place of research output is needful in as much as the market for research information is never and cannot be perfect. The imperfections are not of the type that can be corrected with the traditional self-correcting mechanisms, Oladeji (1998:126). By itself the marketplace has proved unable to promote research and to ensure its correspondence with development objectives. Effective dissemination of research information, in particular, calls for government intervention for research to serve truly as the bedrock of development.

Problems of Dissemination of Research Findings

A paradoxical situation that has remained characteristic of the market for research information in most African countries, Nigeria inclusive, is that despite the apparent inadequate supply of research output, there is corresponding lack of demand. This is evidenced by the volume of yet-to-be utilised research findings available in the universities and research institutes. Apparently, therefore, the impact of researches in these countries is rather minimal. As argued elsewhere, in contemporary Nigeria, the institutionalisation of research (through universities and research institutes) has superficially and deceptively attained a very high level with limited impact on national development (Oladeji 1996:57). Poor funding and lack of supportive infrastructure have undermined the capacity of the Nigerian universities to make the much needed impact on generation and dissemination of research outputs.

Perhaps much more problematic is the issue of the dissemination of research findings. The development impact of research depends not only on the volume of the productive utilisation of the research results. It is, therefore, needful to probe into the basic problem of research information dissemination and thereafter underscore the imperative of government intervention as opposed to relying upon the market forces. A basic problem of dissemination of research findings is the lack of effective “social demand” for these sorts of information. In the context of this paper, the concept social demand is an expression for society’s awareness, desire for, and readiness to utilise research information. Where there exists an effective social demand, dissemination of research results is facilitated which then makes for the development impact of any research effort. The myriad of problems of dissemination of research findings are encapsulated in the phrase “lack of effective social demand”. Apparently the

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issue is not affordability as such because research output, by and large, is available at a little or no cost, especially to the public sector. Lack of research-consciousness, awareness of, and /or taste for research information appears more promising explanation for the low social demand.

Other than these, prejudices and perceived extreme academisation have been reported to have undermined social demand and, of course, impaired the flow of research ideas to end-users and practitioners. If the researcher' works are not generally considered irrelevant or too theoretical, the impenetrable jargons used by academician are enough to prejudice practitioners' understanding and the motivation to appreciate the relevance of the scholars' contributions (Simmons 1971). Consequently, the net effect is impaired accessibility of intellectual produce to its end-users, a situation which Simmons graphically reflects in the following words:

It is tragic (and perhaps symptomatic of the pathology of academia) that relatively little of this work has ever been channelled to governmental end-users in a systematic manner. It piles up on colleagues' desk, gets catalogued in libraries, entered in bibliographies, referred to in the paper of other scholars, published in reviews rather than communicated well and widely to practitioner. (Simmons, 1971: 209)

Of a truth, communication gap between the academia and end-users is a reality that calls to question the communication skills and marketing drive of the former. Inertia on the part of the academia in this matter may not be inexcusable, albeit it calls for understanding. Whatever intervention is being contemplated, the world-view of the academia should be borne in mind in the most realistic manner. Providing some understanding of the world of academia in the publication of research output, Ravertz argues as follows:

for a paper to be published, it is sufficient that the author, an editor, and a publisher all find some purpose served by its publication. From the side of the publisher, it is a matter of economics; given the guaranteed library subscriptions and the economics of journal publication, it is possible to make a profit even on an obscure journal. The editor may receive an honorarium from the publisher, and will certainly derive prestige at his own university by virtue of his position. The author may need to have another title in his record, as a demonstration (for his employer) as his continued competence in research, or as another point to be included in his aggregate score of publications when he applied for a grant from a larger and impersonal investing agency. (Ravertz, 1971:50)

In the bid to address the problem of dissemination, the conventional approach requires that researchers should market their research output to policy makers, providing intellectual support for those charged with the responsibility for policy making, Ajakaiye (1992:129). As for Simmons (1971:208), the academics should launch out into a strong programme of extension services, with a view to engendering effective social demand for research findings. However, to stimulate social demand for research information is a whole lot of work; a daunting task which requires a concerted effort beyond what academics could find time to undertake. If the principle of specialisation has some applicability, a brokerage unit to play the intermediary role between academics and practitioners is strongly advised.

5. Institution Building for Research

The limited relevance of the market mechanism to facilitate effective dissemination of research information necessarily warrants government intervention, especially in the bid to promote national development. The identified problems of dissemination of research information are such that it is inadvisable to abandon research dissemination channels to the uncoordinated decisions of individual researchers, research institutes and universities as well as publishing houses. As acknowledged earlier, decisions of these groups in the publication of research outputs are in practice driven not by altruistic consideration but self-interest, so diverse and much at variance with public interest.

Research Brokerage Agency (RBA)

It therefore seems that a purposeful government intervention is needed to take up the task of research in the nation. The twain problems of communication gap and marketing acceptance of research outputs are better handled in the most professional and efficient manner by a designated agency of government-herein referred to as Research Brokerage Agency (RBA). The concept of the 'broker' has been adopted advisedly, as the interventionist role of RBA is meant to bridge the communications gap between the academic communities and the governmental practitioner/policy makers. Such intervention is expected to obliterate the obstruction caused by the practitioners' prejudices against intellectual produce. The activities and programmes of RBA should aim at the creation or simulation of social demand for research information. To achieve this, the agency is expected to package and organise programmes such as seminars, brainstorming sessions, workshops and conferences on a regular basis with a view to creating awareness; sensitising the thirst for; and stimulating the readiness to utilise research information. Such platform of RBA is expected to make for proper linkages and fruitful interaction among institutions connected with research process in the country.

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Other than fostering robust interaction between the academic communities and practitioners/policy makers, the specific task of RBA to enhance marketing acceptance of research output will include the following:

- (i) Collection of potentially useful research findings;
- (ii) Close scrutiny of the major recommendations and prescriptions that delineate alternate and consequences;
- (iii) Formulation of findings for efficient and effective communication.
- (iv) Communication of findings with relevant practitioner/policy makers and others; and
- (v) Generation of research needs for the academic communities based on feedback from governments, practitioners and policy makers.

In contrast to the advanced countries, the network of institution for research in the developing countries, including Africa, is not well developed. For instance, as remarked earlier, the institutionalisation of research has superficially and deceptively attained a very high level in contemporary Nigeria. At the operational level in Nigeria, the institutions that undertake and implement research programmes are the universities, research institutes, research councils, and occasionally industry. More evident is that the country's institution building for research activities has been piecemeal, rather fragmentary, evolving out of sectoral initiatives with little or no coordination.

Elsewhere, a proposal for institutional framework of research and development in Nigeria has been articulated, (Oladeji, 1996). The proposal provides a structural outline of the constituents, and the network of relationships expected among them in the country's research and development system. As shown in Fig 2, identified as basic for research activities are Auxiliary Research Institutions (ARI), Research Institution (RI) and National Research and Development Commission (NRDC). The NRDC is expected to play a strategic role, acting as the overall coordinating agency and, at the same time mediating between the research communities and the National Planning Commission (NPC).

The Research Brokerage Agency (RBA) proposed in this paper is an academic-practitioner brokerage unit, which naturally makes it a vital arm of the NRDC. As indicated earlier, the tasks of the agency summarily are to foster effective social demand and facilitate dissemination of research information to private and government end-users. The agency is thus a specialised institution, requiring the services of highly skilled personnel; experienced researchers with considerable capacity to communicate well, articulate extension workers and professionals with strong commitment to research applications. Needless to say, adequate funding, supportive infrastructure and a generally enabling environment, including generous service conditions are what it takes to have such brokerage agency in reality playing the strategic role in the dissemination of research information in the most effective and efficient manner.

Implication for Planning and Research Policy

Towards utilising research for national development the interventionist role of government should entail deliberate planning of the country’s research activities, which is required to interface with development planning. By implication, therefore, such planning of research activities is expected to take its cue from the overall development planning objectives.

Research activities on their own come in two related aspects, namely the drive towards the expansion of research capacity; and the proper utilisation or effective and efficient dissemination of research information, these two aspects all for appropriate institutional framework, adequate resources (both human and financial) and explicit government policies on research, which are expected to be woven into a coherent plan for research.

Besides the availability of institutional support for research activities emphasised so far, explicit government policies are absolutely necessary to drive the country’s research process in the path of national development. However, in view of the multiplicity of institutions involved in research activities, an explicit national research policy becomes necessary for the purpose of providing requisite information on the prevailing national research priorities.

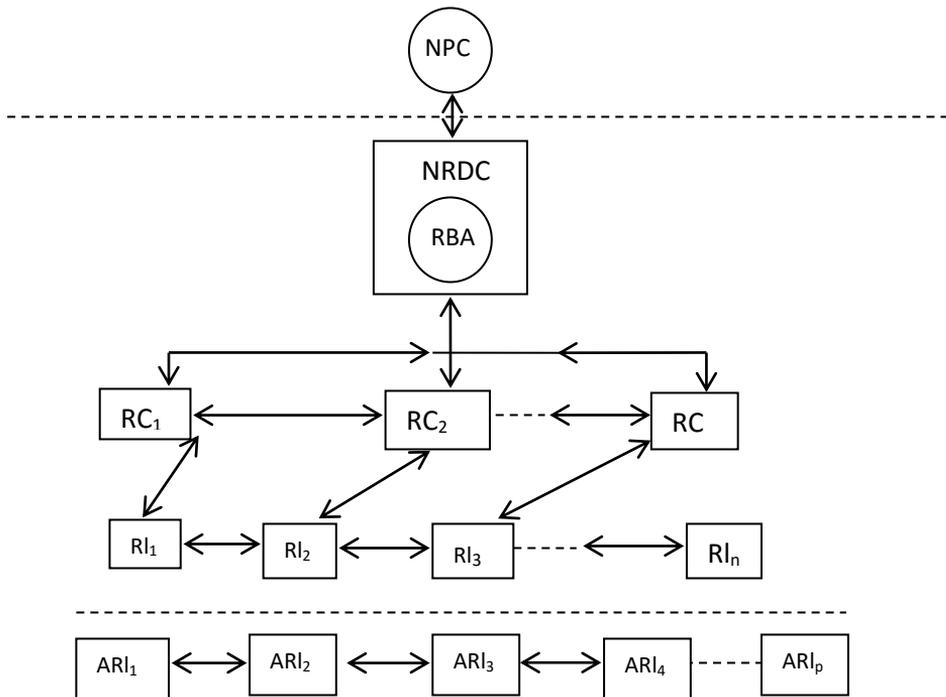


Fig. 2: A Proposed Institutional Framework of Research and Development in Nigeria

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Key:

RBA:	Research Brokerage Agency
ARI:	Auxiliary Research Institution (i.e. the government ministries, departments, planning and research units)
RI:	Research Institution (i.e. Universities, Research Institutes, Private Research & Development Outfits, etc).
RC:	Research Council (i.e. Apex Councils of the Professionals, including NUC and Ministry of Science & Technology).
NDRC:	National Research & Development Commission
NPC:	National Planning Commission
↔	Flow of interaction

When formulating a research at the national level, account must be taken of the fact that most research activities of the public sector are carried out in research centres at the sectoral level, according to the policies established by each institution. This situation calls for policy coordination and harmonisation with the national research policy framework. In this regard, research priorities defined at the national level will have to follow a gradual path of successive approximations through which the priorities defined by the research centres themselves are gradually made more consistent with national research priorities.

The emergence of Science and Technology planning lately in Nigeria has been marked by definite pronouncement on what role research should play and the imperative of integrating Science and Technology (S &T) into the national development plan. According to the Fourth National Development Plan, 1981-85, for the first time, the government was to pursue the policy of promoting the socio-economic development of the country by the application of S&T and on dissemination, the results of research were to be disseminated and exploited through extension and information services to farmers, industrialists and other entrepreneurs and through new institutional arrangements for the commercialisation of research results.

The First National Rolling Plan, 1990:92 was much more explicit on how S&T would be used to promote development in the various sectors of the economy. Efforts were to be made during the plan period towards.

- Directing S&T efforts towards achieving specific national objectives;
- Promoting the translation of S&T results into actual goods and services;
- Creating, increasing and maintaining an endogenous S&T base through research and development;
- Motivating creative output in S&T;
- Promotion of new and emerging technologies;
- Increasing public awareness in S&T; and
- Promoting greater linkage with rural development

The foregoing policy measures, depending on the extent of implementation, should impact on the country's research and development process. Of particular significance is the policy measure of increasing public awareness in S&T which, according to the Rolling plan document, should involve general education of the public at large on the development and application of S&T; popularisation of S&T among the youths; and systematic exhibition of findings, innovation and developments in S&T. For obvious reasons, the implementation of these programmes of action would have far-reaching implication on the social demand for research information and consequently on the development impact of research.

As far as research policy design in Nigeria is concerned, so much preoccupation has been paid to the application of S&T which, in any case is not necessarily misplaced in view of its strategic role in development. Nevertheless the relevance of research findings outside the S&T sector should not be ignored. The intellectual produce from humanities, social and management sciences need to be harnessed as well for the purpose of promoting the socio-economic development of a nation. Needless to say, practitioners, policy makers, corporate executives are expected to embark on informed decision-making and this means copious and relevant research findings from these other fields of study.

In sum, the practical fulfilment of the strategic role of research in national development calls for a policy framework that is comprehensive in coverage of sectors of the economy and targeting various aspects of national development: economic, social, political, administrative and legal as well as technological aspects. In other words, the research policy should be all inclusive; not just science and technology issues but also these in humanities and social sciences. And, more than ever before, dissemination of research information should be accorded as much emphasis as promotion and development of research capabilities. Above all, towards realising the full potential of research in development, the planning, coordination, promotion and execution of national research policy should function within the framework of a national development policy.

6. Conclusion

In recent times, the role of research has come to be acknowledged as a veritable source of innovation and new ideas needed to drive a country's development process. However, the development impact of research is circumscribed not only by the volume of research information but more critically by the extent and effectiveness of dissemination of such information. The argument in this paper is that the interventionist role of government is imperative as the research is never a spontaneous process and the market'' for research output is characteristically imperfect. Furthermore, it is argued that the problems of dissemination of research findings are research institutes and universities. Alternatively, a Research Brokerage Agency (RBA) has been

proposed to bridge the communication gap between research community and practitioners as well as other end-users. The RBA is expected to operate as a vital arm of a National Research and Development Commission (NRDC): a research coordinating body and an intermediary between the research communities and the National Planning Commission (NPC).

Also proposed in this paper is an explicit national research policy framework that is expected to be interfaced with the overall development policy of a nation. While the institutional framework proposed provides the institutional support, the national research policy is expected to drive the research process in the path of development. The research policy design should therefore be all inclusive, targeting all aspects of national development and covering all knowledge areas: science and technology, social and management sciences as well as humanities. Of course, the research policy design should emphasise more than ever before research dissemination, targeting policy makers, practitioners, corporate executives and many others whose decisions are strategic to the development of a country.

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Fighting Terrorism and Corruption in Nigeria: The Buhari Leadership Model

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Abstract

The terrorist activities of the *Boko Harām* and the menace of corruption are great challenges prevalent in Nigeria. The author examines how these challenges can be addressed using the Islamic concept of *Shūrā*. He adopts the historical and descriptive methods to interpret the available secondary data collected from historical reports, newspapers' sources, international sources and governments' accounts. The findings of the paper reveal among others, that decades of mismanagement of the national resources, failure to effectively address the problem of poverty and the inability of the government to prosecute alleged corrupt public officials and sponsors and actors in various political, ethnic and religious uprisings are responsible for the monsters of terrorism and corruption in the country today; whereas the *Shūrā* framework guarantees an all-inclusive federal and democratic polity. The author concludes that *Shūrā* guarantees an all-inclusive polity and the absence of it in addition to some other lapses in administration today in Nigeria is responsible for the monsters of terrorism and corruption in the country.

Key words: fighting terrorism, corruption, *Boko Harām*, *Shūrā*

Introduction

In the wake of Nigerian 2015 general elections, a lot of the citizens became elated at the bright prospects of resolving the country's complex enormous and multifaceted challenges of development, especially as they affect the fight against terrorism and corruption. Nevertheless, despite the change in government heralded by the 2015 general elections, the country is still today ravaged by terrorist acts and corrupt practices.

Statement of Problem

Several studies have examined the numerous problems confronting Nigeria, particularly since independence. These include the challenges of terrorism and corruption, which are believed by many scholars to be intertwined. Put another way, terrorism creates corruption and vice versa. Some of these studies have examined the hermeneutics of the term terrorism, its roots in Nigeria and raised great concerns about how the *Boko Harām* (BH) has used Islam as a revolutionary ideology to condemn the Nigerian secular state. They also discuss the BH perception of the modern secular state, the application of the *Sharī'ah* and Western-style education and how it views terror as a necessary religious obligation born out of the need to achieve its goal of establishing the *Khilāfah* (the caliphate) in the fashion of other global Jihad movements like the *al-Qaida in the Maghreb* (AQIM), *Harakat al-Shabāb al-Mujāhidīn* in the Horn of Africa and ISIS (Umar, 2012).

The main goal of these movements is to supplant the secular governments in Northern Africa, the Sahara-Sahel region and East Africa as well as the Middle East and to install the Islamic state in these areas. As a matter of fact, the BH has been found to be in alliance with these movements and has benefited immensely from the AQIM and the *Harakat al-Shabāb al-Mujāhidīn*, two deadly groups involved in different terrorist attacks in the North, Sahara-Sahel region and East Africa (Adeyemi and Musa, 2014; Ibrahim, 2015).

Similarly, Nigeria's security challenges have been assessed, which include militancy in the Niger Delta, organised crimes around the economic center of the country, Lagos and the threat the BH poses to the country and international interests including the U.S. national security. The result shows that there is unequal distribution of power fuelling terrorism with abundant availability of weapons amidst massive corruption and weak state institutions in the country (Forest, 2012).

Additionally, some of these studies have examined the problems of terrorism and corruption in the Nigeria from the Islamic perspective. In a review article, Uthman (2013) has interrogated the crime of *al-Hirābah* under the *Sharī'ah* to show how the BH and other such Islamic movements that employ terrorism as a strategy in their attempt to live under the *Sharī'ah* actually contradicts this same *Sharī'ah* and concluded that the acts commonly regarded as terrorism today fall as a matter of fact under *al-Hirābah*, as used in the Qur'ān (5:33-34).

While classical Muslim scholars, based on the above verses' historical circumstance define *al-Hirābah* as crimes perpetrated on the highway or at the outskirts of the city, I have argued that *al-Hirābah* could also take place in all circumstances where it is difficult for the victims to receive help and assistance or where the people are completely defenceless. So, if such crimes occur in houses, roads and public places in the city, it should be regarded as *al-Hirābah*. I have also revealed how the Islamic groups such as the BH, AQIM, *Harakat al-Shabāb al-Mujāhidīn* and ISIS that perpetrate these terrorist acts in the name of establishing the *Khilāfah* violate Islamic teachings such as the instructions to armies and combatants not to non-combatant women, children and old men as well as not to burn trees, pollute water sources nor destroy flora, fauna and animals (Uthman, 2012). In fact to paraphrase the words of the Qur'an, these Islamic groups "whose speech about this life may dazzle the public" in reality "aim everywhere... to spread *Fasād* (corruption) and destroy crops and progeny" (2: 204-205 as translated by Ali, 1405/2005).

Furthermore, some studies have focused on the roles of Islam and Muslims, including Muslim youths in the Jihad or fight against corruption in Nigeria, capturing the evil effects of corruption and how being corrupt, dishonest and unfaithful has destroyed the image and credibility of Nigeria internationally and also weakened state institutions and the effectiveness of the economy and government policies (Malik, 2014; Oseni, 2015; Oladimeji, 2016).

They have also examined the solutions to the problem of corruption in Nigeria from the Islamic perspective. One of such studies calls attention to one important prohibition in the management of public office in Islam: entrusting public offices to both the dishonest and the feeble-minded, who are incapable of managing public funds judiciously, justly and righteously (Ahmed, 2006). In addition, among the suggestions for the eradication of corruption in previous studies is the declaration of assets by public office holders as pioneered by the second Caliph in Islam, ‘Umar (Badmos, 2008).

Similarly, there have been studies on the hermeneutics of *Fasād* and the Islamic terminologies for corruption, which have identified the Arabic terms for corruption, major forms of corruption such as the spiritual and material, elements of the web of corruption and the relationship between corruption and the human nature. Some of the suggestions on the elimination of corruption by these studies include preventive, curative and anti-corruption pathways (Adebayo, 2012; Oladosu, 2012). This act of *Fasād*, which has been described as a deadly virus that “has penetrated the bodies of almost all Nigerians and killed their senses of honesty, transparency and accountability” is condemned in many passages of the Qur’an (Makinde, 2010: 82-84).

Whereas these scholars have proffered different solutions to the problem of terrorism and corruption in Nigeria from different socio-political, cultural and even Islamic perspectives, none has examined the Islamic concept of *Shūrā* as a theoretical framework in explaining the challenges of terrorism and corruption as well as proffering solutions to them; hence, comparatively little is known about how the Islamic concept of *Shūrā* can help to address the twin problems in the country. Owing to this gap, there is the need for this study to examine how these challenges can be overcome using the Islamic concept of *Shūrā* with a view to proffering solutions to these twin challenges in contemporary Nigeria.

Methodology

The study adopts the historical and descriptive methods to interpret the available secondary data collected from the extant literature, historical reports, newspapers and government accounts. It also employs the Islamic concept of *Shūrā* as theoretical framework to proffer solutions to the current challenges in Nigeria’s fight against terrorism and corruption.

Literature Review: Nigeria and the Web of Terrorism and Corruption

There are many studies on the meanings and definitions of terrorism and corruption. For example, Laqueur (2001: 81) perceives the “new terrorism” as acts of destruction that “aim not at clearly defined political demands but at the destruction of society and the elimination of large sections of the populations.” As for Juergensmeyer (2003:5), who traces the term terrorism to its Latin origin from *terrere*, meaning to cause to tremble, and it came to be used to describe an assault on the civil order during the reign of terror in the 18th century French revolution, it can be defined as “public acts of destruction,

committed without a clear military objective that arouse a wide spread sense of fear”. However, for Boaz Ganor (2002: 287-304) there is need to underscore the propagandistic objective that guides most definitions of terrorism where “one man’s terrorist is another man’s freedom fighter.” For this author, it is this propagandistic objective that permeates many analyses on the BH and other similar global Islamic movements that embrace violence as a strategy in their Islamist goals. Thus, terror is seen by many analysts as essentially an Islamic obligation born out of Islamic tenets and teachings.

The above perspective is at variance with the teachings of Islam as Uthman (2012) has shown. In any case, the experience of the BH in many ways has shown that there is more to its terrorist acts beyond what is generally revealed. For instance, it has been alleged that though Yusuf was arrested on numerous occasions between 2003 and 2007, he was protected by some powerful men as he was always released and permitted to return to his stronghold in Maiduguri. In fact, “on no less than two occasions the slain founder of BH was allegedly bailed from detention by Professor Jerry Gana who needs no introduction in Nigeria (Haruna, 2015).

The metamorphosis of BH to a terrorist movement has also been traced to the fatal shooting of 14 of its members in 2009 by men of Operation Flush. Reacting to this, Yūsuf called for a redress in 40 days, “otherwise the government should prepare for ‘*Jihād*’ operations which only Allah would be able to stop.” The mayhem that ensued thereafter ended on July 30, 2009 when Yūsuf and some of his followers were killed extra-judicially in police custody (Uthman and Abbas, 2016: 31).

In the above example of police brutality, the failure of the Police and even the Nigerian Army to apply global rules of engagement with offenders, bring the BH mayhem of July 2009 uprising to a quick resolution and prosecute judicially all the arrested members and leaders of the movement shows clearly the unpreparedness and ineffectiveness of the Nigerian security apparatus in containing not only terrorists but also criminals who have little or no regard for the laws of the country. This point is very important because it was the overall confidence of Yusuf in the assumed capability of the BH to overwhelm the Nigerian security agents that could have made him make an open threat to the Nigerian President in 2009. He must have been aware that the various units established as anti-crime outfits are ill-trained, equipped or funded to deal with the revolt of his BH. This is compounded by the misplaced emphasis on the security of those in government, as the efficiency of the Nigerian state security agencies in protecting the people is also undermined through the attachment of the personnel of the various security agencies, especially police officers to guard government officials, politicians, important dignitaries and rich personalities in the society. In a country where these securities agencies are understaffed, it is poor security to decapitate the force of the poorly staffed and poorly paid personnel (Uthman, 2013).

It is however noteworthy that there are contrasting disparities between the performance of Nigerian security agencies in global peace building and keeping missions and their performance in providing domestic security and peacekeeping. One critical factor responsible for this is corruption, since the Nigerian security agencies that participate in the UN global peace building and keeping operations are adequately and regularly paid their allowances, fed, trained and equipped as well as monitored whereas their domestic counterparts are often denied these provisions because of corruption. Consequently, the implication in the performance of these agencies domestic provision of security is that they often transfer their frustrations on the populace and abuse the same citizens they are meant to protect, a development that has led to the people's lack of confidence in the agencies (Ajayi and Aderinto, 2008).

Furthermore, the manner corrupt politicians enrich themselves has resulted in the institutional rot of the Nigerian security agencies. As rightly observed by Onwubiko (quoted in Uthman, 2013a: 80), "corruption and the diversion of public funds is responsible for" this institutional rot in the Nigerian Police, paramilitary agencies and most importantly, the Nigerian Armed forces and has made these institutions "professionally ill prepared, poorly trained, poorly equipped and grossly undisciplined" to protect Nigerians and their country from terrorist activities.

Not surprisingly, since the emergence of President Muhammadu Buhari (PMB), the pages of Nigerian newspapers has been full of stories of massive corruption and one of the most prominent is known as the "Dasukigate" and it narrates how former President Goodluck Ebele Jonathan (PGEJ)'s former Chiefs of Army Staff and the former President's National Security Adviser (NSA), retired Colonel Sambo Dasuki, among others, shared billions of naira meant to prosecute the war on terrorism. This is in addition to the huge billions of naira security votes that are claimed by the Nigerian President and the 36 states' governors over the years. This story of the sharing of the money earmarked for war on terrorism answers the question of Onwubiko about what has happened to the huge budgetary releases to the defence (Uthman, 2013).

The above underscores the nexus between terrorism and corruption that has also attracted various definitions. Many of these studies have focused on the theoretical and methodological issues in understanding the phenomenon, process and of corruption in Nigeria. Odekunle (1986) examines various theoretical issues in defining and tracing the development of corruption in Nigeria and opines that it usually concerns the amassing of resources illegally by public office holders. Similarly, a sociological study of corruption in the country also confirms that corruption in the country as the acquisition of wealth by public officers for personal self-gratification (Otite, 1986). This definition is in tandem with the position of the International non-governmental anti-corruption agency, Transparency International (TP cited in Amodu, 2000), which defines corruption as the abuse of entrusted power for private gain. This abuse according to the agency comes in two forms namely "according to the

rule” and “against the rule.”

While the former entails the payment of bribe to receive preferential treatment from a person for the obtainment of what the payer is entitled to, the latter involves the payment of bribe to receive what the payer is not entitled to. The second form of corruption maybe said to permeate the Nigerian environment, where members of the society, according to Akinyemi (2004), tend to pay and receive bribe to acquire what they are not entitled to. This shows that corruption in the country is not limited to public officers alone.

As noted above, there have also been many studies on the hermeneutics of corruption with a view to curbing it in Nigeria from the Islamic perspective. One major point that should be noted in the usage of the term *Fasād* for corruption (Makinde, 2010; Adebayo, 2012; Oladosu, 2012) is this fact that the term *Fasād*, actually confirms the nexus between corruption and terrorism. Passages of the Qur’an that describe this nexus between corruption and terrorism include

“Behold, when thy Lord said to the Angels: I will place a vicegerent on earth; they said: Will you place therein one who shall perpetrate *Fasād* (corruption) therein and shed blood” (2: 30 translated by Ali, 1405/2005)

“There is the kind of man whose speech about this life may dazzle the... but when he turns his back, his aim everywhere is to spread *Fasād* (corruption) and destroy crops and progeny” (2: 204-205 translated by Ali, 1405/2005).

According to Ibn Khaldūn (1986), who has been described by many as the founder and father of sociology and history, corruption is the direct result of the passion for luxury among the elite and the ruling class. For Ibn Khaldūn, the pursuit of unbridled luxury is the root cause of the collapse of nations and empires as the peasants rise against the upper and ruling class. Therefore, one of the consequences of corruption in any society is terrorism, as seen in the spilling of blood, killing of people as well as destruction of property, acts prohibited in Islam even during wars, as mentioned above (Uthman, 2012).

This point has been observed by the pioneer chairman of Nigeria’s anti-corruption agency, Nuhu Ribadu (2009) who explains how corruption has cost the country over \$380 billion since its independence in 1960 and 2009. According to him, only one leader looted \$5-6 billion, which is six times the total sum used to build Europe after World War II and translates to Nigerian kids who cannot be put in school, women who die during childbirth, graduates who cannot be employed and lack of security in the country (Kilani, 2011).

Admittedly, the incumbent President of Nigeria can today boast of many achievements in the fight against terrorism and corruption, as while “stealing is not corruption” to PGEJ, PMB has enhanced the anti-corruption fight so much that he has been elected as the African symbol of anti-corruption

and globally considered as a man of integrity who has zero tolerance for stealing as a corrupt practice and who is tackling the epidemics of corruption “for the first time in the history of this country” with some past public officials sent to jail (Akintola, 2018). This is also true of his achievements in the fight against terrorism where his administration has recovered all territories captured during PGEJ’s administration as well as secured the release of 106 Chibok girls and 104 Dapchi girls (Buhari, 2018: 14-15).

Nevertheless, the failure of successive Nigerian governments since the country’s independence in their constitutional duty of protecting the citizens and also exposing and punishing those who undermine the security of the state, especially from the time of the country’s return to democracy, is obvious for all to see. The failure of these administrations to adequately curb the menace of arming street urchins, political thugs, ethnic and national militias as well as religious extremists, etc. led to the BĤ uprising. The emergence of the BĤ terrorist dimension has also been located in the manner the Nigerian leadership has been playing politics with religion since the country’s return to democracy in 1999 and particularly under PGEJ. Thus, the failure of successive governments to contain the menace of terrorism as well as to bring it to a closure is to a very large extent due to dangerous politics (Uthman and Abbas, 2016: 32).

In addition, members of the BĤ consists of few working University graduates and professionals but mainly of school dropouts and unemployed higher institutions graduates, street beggars and urchins that feed the ongoing Nigerian militant, insurgent and terrorist activities (Ayuba, 2010). Thus, all the militant movements in Nigeria, such as the MEND, OPC MASSOB like the BĤ feed on the economic deprivations in the country, which confirms that economic issues are major underlying factors at the heart of the menace of militancy, insurgency and terrorism in the country. This economic condition is exacerbated by socio-economic corruption as many of the small elite who corner juicy state funds and contracts, rather than use the proceeds to provide succour to the Northern flotsam and jetsam, expend them on their private luxuries and gargantuan lifestyles, while the young minds continue to train in traditional Qur’anic schools where their chances for economic mobility are reduced. Many of the students in these Qur’anic schools have to move about begging for a living and are, therefore, called *almajirai* plural of *almajiri* because of their migrant schooling leading to what is commonly referred to as *almajirai* and *danbakai* Syndrome (Uthman, 2002).

While the *almajirai* enrolled as full-time students in traditional Qur’anic schools are usually from poor homes and beg for food and alms while living with their Qur’anic teachers and may end up becoming juvenile delinquents and criminals because of the harsh conditions in which they learn, yet the BĤ militancy and radicalism did not result from the training received by its members in any traditional Qur’anic schools but rather from its hijack by corrupt politicians. It is also clear that the membership of most militias in

Nigeria just like the BH is populated mainly by jobless graduates of secular schools, including the universities.

Having reviewed extant literature on the meaning, definition, historical roots and development of corruption and terrorism in the country as well as some of the solutions that have been suggested, the paper will now examine some lessons from the Islamic perspective in an attempt to find lasting solutions to the perennial problems of both menaces by using the Islamic concept of *Shūrā* as a theoretical framework, which reveals that the problem all along in Nigeria is that it has been practicing pseudo-federalism. The Islamic concept of *Shūrā* would show ways by which the country can adopt both political and fiscal autonomy and decentralisation as seen in the federal system practised in the Madīnah state.

Conceptualising the Islamic concept of *Shūrā*

The theoretical conceptual framework for this analysis is sourced from the Qur'an:

“... if they both decide on weaning, by mutual consent, and after *Shūrā* (due consultation), there is no blame on them” (2:233 in Ali, 1405/2005: 103).

“...And consult them in affairs (of moment)” (3:159 in Ali, 1405/2005: 190)

and “Those who ... (conduct) their affairs by *Shūrā* (mutual consultation)” (42:38 translated by Ali Ali, 1405/2005: 1487)

The concept is expounded upon by Islamic scholars to show how Nigeria can create an inclusive political system as demonstrated in the Madīnah state established by the Prophet Muḥammad (SAW).

As a result, *Shūrā* becomes binding on Muslims as an instrument of decision-making (al-Qurṭubī, 1958; Ibn al-Kathīr, 1403/1983; al-Ṭabarī, 2001). For al-Qurṭubī, it is binding in all decision-making matters “not revealed.” (al-Qurṭubī, 1958: 249). To Ali (1405/2005: 1487 notes 4578 and 4579), the conduct of Muslims in life is “determined by mutual consultation... in private domestic affairs, as between husband and wife... and in state affairs, as between rulers and ruled...” Thus, “the principle was applied to its fullest extent by the Prophet (SAW) in his private and public life and was fully acted upon by the early rulers of Islam” (Ali, 1405/2005: 1487 notes 4578 and 4579).

Lessons for Nigeria's Fight against Terrorism and Corruption

What is, therefore, clear from the above, in my view, is that the federal and democratic polity is concomitant of the Madīnah state through the instrumentality of the *Shūrā*. Madīnah, before the arrival of the Prophet was a diverse multi-ethnic, cultural and religious society. Its diversity can be likened

to the “diversity-type characterised by Livingston (1952, 1956) as *federal society*” or a society where there are what could be termed “politically salient (ethnic, racial, religious) cleavages” that are more or less autonomous (Osaghae, 2018: 18). There were the Jews and Arabs, the Banū Salamah, Banū Jusham, Banū Aws, al-Aws and the al-Khazraj, etc. These different constituents of the society, with the advent of Islam, were later joined by the Muslims, Africans, Persians and Quraysh.

Thus the question here is how did the Prophet establish a society whose federal composition, to borrow the words of Osaghae (2018: 18-19), could be said to have given birth to the “impetus for desiring autonomy while at the same time desiring union or integration for certain common purposes on the part of the constituent groups”? The answer is through the Islamic concept of *Shūrā* that provided for a political arrangement that caters for the political, cultural, military, socioeconomic, judicial and religious considerations of the various federating constituents. Convening what is today regarded as a constitutional assembly, he ensured that all the federating units were involved in the *Shūrā* that brought the state into being based on the *Sahifah* al-Madīnah (the Madīnah constitution hereafter, *Sahifah*). By the very consultative nature of the *Sahifah*, which spelt out the essential principles governing the state, Hamidullah (1975: 18-21) concludes that it was “the first written constitution of the world.”

The *Sahifah* spelt out the communal and religious relations in the state on the notion of equal citizenship with all the federating groups retaining “religious freedom as well as internal autonomy” and central to it was the principle of voluntary federation as the right to self-determination was guaranteed. This is confirmed by the refusal of some Jewish communities to enter the initial pact. Although most of the communities such as the Muslim emigrants and helpers as well as some Jewish communities signed the pact at its conclusion, the Jews of Banū Qurayzah, Banū al-Nadīr and Banū Qaynuqā‘ did not enter into the initial covenant (Haykal, 1976). Thus, in line with the *Shūrā* framework, the Prophet ensured that these Jewish communities were not compelled to join the Madīnah state.

The *Sahifah* is even more important it incorporated each of the constituent units as autonomous *Ummah* (community). Each governed its community under its elected leaders and had complete autonomy with regard to its own civil affairs including fiscal policy, marriage, divorce, inheritance and judicial system. For instance, each communal court was invested with jurisdiction over communal and religious matters, a practice that Boyle and Sheen (1997: 386-387) would observe in the Ottoman *Millet* system.

The *Ummah* system identified the Muslims, “and those who followed them, joined them and fought with them” as “one *Ummah* to the exclusion of all other men.” It also grants that “any Jew who follows us is entitled to our assistance and the same rights as any of us, without injustice or partisanship.” Furthermore, it states that “the Jews of Banū Aws are an *Ummah* alongside the believers. The Jews have their religion and the Muslims theirs” and both

communities “enjoy the security of their own populace and clients except the unjust and criminal among them” (Haykal, 1976: 180-181).

In the above also lies the importance of ‘*adalah* (justice). Ibn Taymiyyah, the 14th century Islamic scholar, while articulating this point declares that “the affairs of men in this world can be kept in order with justice and a certain connivance in sin than with piety and injustice because Allah supports the just state even if unbelieving than the unjust state even if it is Muslim” (Ibn Taymiyyah, 1985: 95). Put differently, the Islamic government becomes necessary to ensure justice in the community. For the 18th century founder of the Sokoto caliphate, Shaykh Uthmān ibn Fūdī (quoted in David-West, 2012: 41) “a kingdom can endure with unbelief, but it cannot endure with injustice.” For this, the Madīnah polity through the above *Shūrā* also rested on the fundamental principle of justice.

Although, the al-Qaida, Taliban, ISIS and BĤ of this world may approach this political, economic, judicial and religious diversity in exclusive, assimilating and other parochial ways, seeking to close the door of their Islamic state, especially its public space against the entry of non-Muslims, women and even Muslims who are perceived as non-conforming to their interpretations of the *Sharī‘ah*, the above *Sahīfah* speaks for itself. One thing that stands out clearly in it is that the Madīnah state did not blend all human diversities into an Islamic melting pot.

Qur’an 49: 13 “that ye may know each other (not that ye may despise each other)” is an instructive text on the unification of humanity in spite of the diversity of nationality, religion, gender, tongue and race. It propounds the powerful point that to build unity in diversity, the state must ensure that all the federating units know one another, which is increasingly being accepted as the greatest challenge of all federal nations, a point graphically made by the Premier of Northern Nigeria the Sardauna of Sokoto, Sir Ahmadu Bello in his encounter with the first President of Nigeria, Dr. Nnamdi Azikwe. According to Paden (1986: 3, quoted in David-West, 2012: 33), Dr. Azikwe said: “Let’s forget our differences...” The Sardauna replied: “No, let us understand our differences. I am a Muslim and a Northerner. You are a Christian, an Easterner. By understanding our differences, we can build unity in our country.” In short, the Madīnah state operated on the above democratic and federal principles. These principles made the Prophet refuse nominating a successor, a development indicative of the fact that the political process allows room for human opinions in the affairs of the state.

Conclusion

The findings of this paper reveal among others, that *Shūrā* guarantees an all-inclusive polity. The absence of this today in Nigeria coupled with mismanagement of the national resources, failure to effectively address the problems of poverty, joblessness and infrastructure, inability to prosecute alleged corrupt public officials and sponsors and actors in various political,

ethnic and religious uprisings are responsible for the monsters of terrorism and corruption in the country. Therefore, there is need for the country to embrace the *Shūrā* approach in its fight against terrorism and corruption. The *Shūrā* is indeed a *sine qua non* to the modern state, which makes it address the challenges of equitable management of political, economic, religious and other diversity by giving full rights to all citizens. *Shūrā* made Madīnah a federal and democratic system that thrived while it remained sacrosanct but disintegrated the moment its principles were suspended. Accordingly, an Islamic state is true when it is able to guarantee justice, equality and most importantly protect its constituent communities, thus serving the *Maqāṣid al-Sharī'ah* (*Sharī'ah* higher and ultimate purposes) for which it was established as stated by the Andalusian Mālikī jurist Abū Ishāq Al-Shātībī (cited in Uthman, 2016: 1-8 and Uthman, 2016: 235-250). Conversely any state is untrue when it is unable to guarantee these principles as we see in aberrant Nigeria, where for about twenty years of democracy, Nigerians are yet to enjoy the so-called dividends of democracy.

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Use of Teaching Method and Approach in the Nigerian University System: The Curriculum and Policy Implications for Change

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Abstract

Teaching method and approach are vital to the education delivery at the tertiary level. The Nigerian National Policy on Education influences the teaching/learning curriculum and method have been found to contribute to the teaching/learning outcomes at the University level in Nigeria. The author surveys popular teaching methods at the undergraduate level in universities within the South-West geo-political zone in Nigeria. A multistage sampling technique is adopted in which proportionate sampling is utilised to select universities each from the Federal, State and Private sectors and stratified random sampling technique to select lecturers from those universities. The standardised test Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) is adapted to suit the Nigerian situation in addition to a Sit-in-Observation/Interview schedule. The findings reveal that the popular method of teaching used by lecturers tend towards teacher-centred pedagogy. Thus, the teaching methods and approach used in the Nigerian University system are not andragogy-compliant in most cases. This has dire consequences for the curriculum and policy statements and will ultimately hinder effective teaching/learning outcomes as well as best practices and positive change.

Key words: teaching methods, andragogy, adult learners, university lecturers, self-directedness,

Introduction

University education in Nigeria, like in other developing nations is oriented towards the production of graduates who will contribute positively towards the economy through learnt skills. This makes it imperative to pay particular attention to the methods used in carrying out this important function. Curriculum in the university environment refers to the integrated course of academic studies. It is all the diverse courses offered and taught at the university level and has to do with all academic activities meant for learning. Ultimately, curricular offerings are usually implemented by the school authorities through the lecturers. The study is working on the assumption that students at the university level belong to the category of adult learners and deserve to be treated as such. The Nigerian Universities Commission (NUC) is the central body responsible for monitoring curriculum activities in Nigerian Universities. It ensures currency, relevance and global uniformity.

Curriculum subsumes the syllabus and teaching method. While it sets down the general guidelines of what is to be taught and the overall program of the school, the syllabus and method specifically indicate how this is to be done.

Syllabus refers to the content or schedule and requirements of the individual subject, while curriculum is the totality of the content to be taught as well as the working objectives of the institution. The syllabus is, therefore, what is to be taught, while the method is how it is to be achieved. Syllabus, curriculum and method are inextricably interwoven, though separate. Method is an important aspect of the trilogy. The curriculum is necessary for identifying the content and coverage of subject matter and for uniformity, but the successful implementation of a curriculum depends heavily on the methodology used to bring it to fruition.

The *National Policy on Education* (NPE, Revised 2013) recognises that a nation cannot rise above the quality of its teachers, thus the nation has invested a lot in teacher education (Ibidapo-Obe, 2006). This is to ensure a solid background for uniform practice. Also, the NUC has stipulated that all university lecturers must possess a Ph. D, at the minimum (NUC 2001), so that they can be adequate for their assignment in translating theory and curriculum into teaching/learning. The NPE, through the Federal Ministry of Education also leaves the onus of responsibility on the various institutions to develop their courses in accordance with the national goals. In many cases, the method of teaching is usually left to the discretion of the lecturer, bowing to their expertise, since they are supposed to be trained (considering their required Ph. D).

Having a Ph.D forms a part of the quality assurance process in accordance with the NUC's Academic Standards Department (ASD) which oversees issues relating to curriculum in the universities. The body co-ordinates the setting of Benchmark Minimum Academic Standards (BMAS) in all Nigerian Universities and ensures periodic reviews of the BMAS every 5 years, while intimating the universities of new policy changes and global trends. However, in the periodic accreditation exercise for quality assurance and provision for curriculum, the issue of method is usually not fully addressed. Whereas Section 5(83) of the NPE states categorically that

all teachers in tertiary institutions shall be required to undergo training in the methods and techniques of teaching,

it does not however, stipulate how this is to be achieved and there is hitherto no specific training for lecturers that targets the use of methods. Section 5B (94) further says that

all teachers in educational institutions shall be professionally trained'.

Also, no particular mention is made of lecturers training as professional teachers. This training mentioned is also expected to be updated constantly

with attendance of suitable conferences, workshops and seminars. It is thus assumed that when lecturers have PhDs, they are adjudged qualified to work with adults. This is downplaying the necessity to specialise in Education, or more to the point, Adult Education. It also assumes certification is equivalent to capability.

Method itself is a more general term that covers more than the specific 'teaching style' (this is more personal and based on teacher-idiosyncrasy). It includes not only teaching techniques, but also the entire atmosphere like the setting, arrangement, ambience, tone, approach, as well as strategies in the teaching/learning process. Methods are more of organisational arrangements for conducting educational activities, while technique refers to the individual tasks that are undertaken to ensure that the learning task and the learner are successfully brought in contact (Bakare, 2013). Style, in contrast, is that individualised quality exhibited by the lecturer at all times and in all situations, regardless of material being taught (Conti, 1990). It is personal and so may be different from person to person and influenced by demographic background, among others.

Teaching style is teacher determined and a matter of personal conduct, it may be learner centred, using a responsive, collaborative, problem-centred and democratic approach, in which both students and the instructors decide the how, what and when learning occurs. It may also be teacher centred - a more formal approach, which is controlled and autocratic and the teacher directs the how, what and when students learn (Dupin-Bryant, 2004:42; Liu, 2008). The learner-centred approach assumes that learners are active and have unlimited potential for individual development (which echoes the NPE stipulations, and is in accordance with adult learning tenets and the humanists approach of Maslow, Knowles, Freire, etc. as well as obeying the principles of andragogy. Methods often used in universities include lecture, discussion, practicals and case study. Okenimkpe (2003) categorises them into lecture, individualised and group methods. At the university level, it is expected that there will be a fair mix of all these methods, albeit they will still be influenced by the lecturer's teaching style.

Students at the university level can be categorised as adults since there is usually a stipulated age of entry which is above 18. An adult is someone who is so regarded by the society to which he belongs. He is fully grown and mature and has reached the age of legal majority (18). Averagely, undergraduate students in Nigerian Universities are at least 18 years, which makes them adult learners. Knowles (1984) stipulates that adults learn better when their characteristics are considered. He suggests that, among others, the learning adult tends to be self-directing, problem solving, as well as imbued with a wealth of experience that must be factored into the teaching/learning exercise. Moreover, Section 1:8(a) of the NPE says that 'educational activities shall be centred on the learner for maximum self-development and self-fulfilment'. Section 1:8(b) further reiterates that teaching shall be practical, activity-based, experiential and

IT supported. This is mainly alluding to the use of technology and other new teaching devices. Section 5B (96) of the NPE adds that ‘teacher education shall continue to take cognisance of changes in methodology and in the curriculum and teachers shall be regularly exposed to innovations in their professions’. Lecturers are supposed to be professionals and some also have a background in teaching (Education), it is, therefore, assumed that they are adequately equipped with the necessary skills to successfully select matching methods for each learning situation and use them successfully.

Poor implementation of the curriculum will undoubtedly affect the caliber of graduates produced. Other reasons that could influence graduate quality include under-funding, students population explosion, quantity and quality of the teaching staff and new intakes into the University system, (Akpochafo, 2006); but there is no doubt that effective teaching needs a variety of methods. If students are to be adequately armed with tools for successful transition into the labour market sector of the economy, there is need to ensure that they are adequately prepared. Method of teaching is a major contributor to the achievement of educational objectives. Alade and Bakare (2016) had equally found a correlation between the choice of method and the teacher/learner satisfaction and achievement of objectives in a survey conducted within Lagos Universities.

With all the elaborate policy statements in place, one would imagine that equal attention will be paid to details at the level of implementation. However, there is still inadequate literature or research conducted in the field to ascertain the implementation of teaching methods at the tertiary level of education in Nigeria. There is also a gap in the policy statements on methodology and its implementation. This study is, therefore, interested in the interaction of methods used to prosecute the University curriculum. Specifically, it tries to find out the common teaching methods in Nigerian Universities, whether the methods tend to be student or teacher-centred, and whether andragogical principles were being applied. Andragogy, as popularised by Knowles (1984), is explained as a theory and method/approach of how to best help the adult to learn and is expected to be incorporated into the adults’ teaching/learning process. This is because andragogy has already factored in the characteristics of the adult learner that separate them from the pedagogical approach to learning. It has considered the circumstances surrounding adult learning, like experience, motivation, responsibility and status, along with the changes resulting from the ageing process in order to facilitate learning.

Research Questions

The following research questions were drawn to guide the study from elements in andragogical principles and methods:

1. Which are the teaching methods most used by university lecturers at the undergraduate level in Nigerian Universities?
 - a. Are there adequate teaching facilities in Nigerian Universities?
 - b. Is the teaching environment in Nigerian Universities conducive?
2. Are students' inputs encouraged in the teaching/learning process?
3. Is there any consideration for the individual student's learning style?
4. Which assessment methods are commonly used?

Hypothesis: There will be no significant effect of teaching style (teacher-centred or student-centred) on the achievement of learning outcomes by university lecturers.

Methodology

The research was survey in nature. Population for the study included all university lecturers in Nigerian Universities. The focus of the study was the South Western geo-political zone of Nigeria, where universities were stratified into ownership types and two examples each of Federal, Private and State owned Universities were selected. Faculties were clustered into three for convenience - Arts, Science and Social Sciences. The sample size was selected proportionately - according to the staff strength of the university (60 lecturers from the 2 Federal Universities, 40 each from the State Universities and 35 each from the Private). This made a total of 270 lecturers randomly selected from all of the six Universities that formed part of the study. From the two Federal Universities, 48 of the Lecturers were from the Sciences, 36 from Arts and 36 from Social Sciences. From the two State Universities, 37 were from Sciences, 28 from the Arts while 15 were from the Social Sciences. The two Private Universities had 23 respondents from the Sciences, 21 from Arts and 26 from the Social Sciences. See the distribution in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Distribution of Respondents by Institution, Type and Departments

Institution types	Science	Arts	Social Sciences	Total
Federal University 1	30 (50%)	14 (23.3%)	16 (26.7%)	60 (100%)
Federal University 2	18 (30%)	22 (36.7%)	20 (33.3%)	60 (100%)
State University 1	16 (40%)	15 (37.5%)	9 (22.5 %)	40 (100%)
State University 2	21 (52.5%)	13 (32.5%)	6 (15%)	40 (100%)
Private University 1	11 (31.4%)	9 (25.7%)	15 (42.9%)	35 (100%)
Private University 2	12 (34.3%)	12 (34.3%)	11 (31.4%)	35 (100%)

In terms of educational qualification, most (198 - 73.33%) of the respondents had various PhD degrees in Science and Arts that did not include teacher training, while 72 (26.67%) had professional training in Education in

their background, along with their PhD degrees. (The study equated a background in Education to Diplomas obtained in various ways, including training as a teacher through the National Certificate of Education (NCE), Post Graduate Diploma in Education (PGDE), Teacher Training Certificate, Technical Teacher Training or a first degree in Education. Table 2 shows the responses.

Table 2: Respondents' Distribution by Educational Qualifications

Lecturers' educational qualification	Number	Percentage
Degrees without professional teaching qualification	198	73.33
Degrees with professional teaching qualification	72	26.67
Total	270	100

Table 2 shows the distribution of Lecturers according to their academic qualification. Majority of the respondents have the prerequisite PhD degree (73.33%) but less (26.67%) had degrees in Education or teacher training along with their Ph.Ds.

Instruments

Data were collected qualitatively and quantitatively. The main instrument used for data collection was adapted from Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) and tagged the Lecturers' Questionnaire on Methodology in Nigerian Universities (LQMNU). There was also a Classroom Observation Schedule (with six items to be checked) to assess Lecturers' classroom behaviour, as well as to document the classroom atmosphere and facilities; this was supported by a brief unstructured interview with the Lecturers. These instruments were researcher-constructed, except for the questionnaire which was adapted from the PALS, developed by Conti (1990) and validated for measuring congruency between the Adult Education Practitioners' actual observable classroom behaviour and their expressed belief in the collaborative teaching-learning mode. Eight of these items were worded negatively, the rest were positively worded but randomly arranged. The instrument produced a single score which can then be tested against the minimum highest score of the researcher as well as the standard deviation from the mean score. The questionnaire had two sections A and B. Section A was designed to obtain the background information on the respondents as well as their preferred teaching methods. Section B assessed the teaching style of the respondents and gauged the level of teacher or student centredness of their classroom behaviour. The questions were in Likert-Scale type of response format. The classroom observation and interview schedule were also based on a self-constructed 6-point guide to corroborate lecturers' responses to Section A of the questionnaire, and also check the classroom situation generally.

The instruments were validated (content and face) by the researcher and some other experts in teaching methods in two Nigerian Universities. The test-retest reliability co-efficient of the items in the LQMNU had the value 0.67 and were deemed adequate for the study. The questionnaire, as well as the observation and interview schedule were administered with the aid of four Graduate Assistants from the Department of Adult Education, University of Lagos. The research took place over a period of twelve weeks.

Frequency counts, Percentages, Means and Standard Deviation were used to analyse the data collected. At the level of analyses and presentation, the positive responses were merged, therefore often true and always true became positive for easier analysis. Also the never true and seldom true became the negative, while somewhat true was counted as average.

Results

Research Question (RQ) 1 sought to establish the most used teaching methods by University Lecturers at the undergraduate level in Nigerian Universities. The responses to Section A in the questionnaire were used. Figure 1 shows a breakdown of the different methods that lecturers claimed to use in the course of discharging the curriculum and corroborated with the observation schedule. This is summarised in Table 3 below.

Table 3: Frequency of Use of Teaching Methods in Nigerian Universities

Teaching Method	Which method do you use most of the time?
Lecture	172 (64%)
Discussion	51 (19%)
Case Study	9 (3%)
Project	16 (6%)
Practical	22 (8%)
Total	270 (100%)

Table 3 was in response to the first question about the method that Lecturers say that they use most of the time. This is further illustrated in Fig. 1.

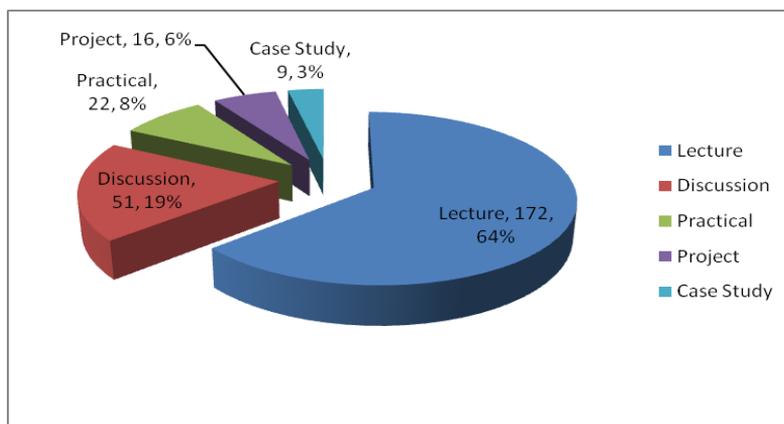


Fig. 1: The Most Used Teaching Methods by Undergraduate Lecturers

Figure 1 addressed RQ 1 that sought to elicit the commonly used teaching method at the undergraduate level in Universities by Lecturers. Majority 172 (64%) used the Lecture method and the least used at 9 (3%) was the Case Study.

RQ 2a and b observed facilities and classroom environment, along with Interviews and concluded that they were averagely adequate but could be better. This is because availability of facilities and teaching/learning environment affect the teaching method. The result is presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Provision of Facilities

University Type	Classroom space	Student/teacher ratio	Lighting	Seating arrangement	Method of Delivery	Total
Fed Uni 1	1	2	1	1	2	10
Fed Uni 2	2	1	1	1	2	8
State Uni 1	1	1	2	1	1	6
State Uni 2	2	1	1	2	1	6
Private Uni 1	1	2	1	2	1	8
Private Uni 2	2	2	2	2	1	8

Key: 3 = Adequate, 2 = Average, 1 = Inadequate

Table 4 revealed that, at an average of 8 out of 15, the provision of facilities at the undergraduate level in the Universities can, at best, be seen to be somewhat adequate. The observation schedule further revealed that the majority of lecturers do not have background training in Education. All these are some of the indices encapsulated in the teaching environment.

The third RQ sought to establish whether students' input into the

teaching/learning experience was encouraged. Four pertinent questions were raised to address this and the results are indicated in Fig. 2 below. Majority of the respondents (44%), agreed that it was not the case, while 27% said 'sometimes'. Research question 3 was to establish the level of students' input in the classroom process and the above figure indicated that most Lecturers do not encourage students' input in the teaching/learning experience.

RQ 4 asked whether students' learning styles were considered in the teaching/learning environment. The combined responses indicated that a 'blanket' teaching method was mostly used and that students' learning styles were not particularly factored in.

RQ 5 addressed the issue of evaluation. The responses are presented in the next figure. It looked at the assessment methods at the undergraduate level and revealed that 68% of the responding Lecturers claimed to involve students in the evaluation process. Further probe revealed that they used tests mostly to assess students' progress. This result suggests that the evaluation process is largely teacher-centred. Students were thus not adequately involved in the evaluation process.

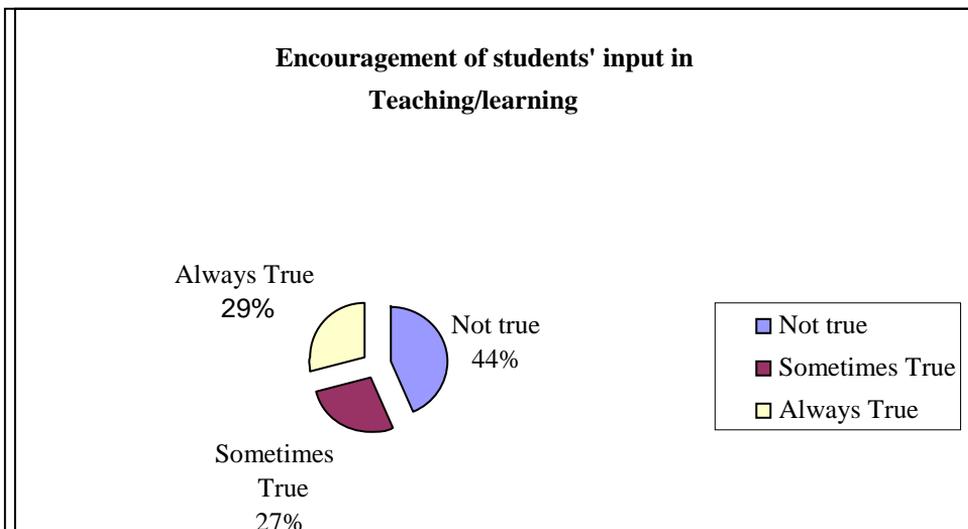


Fig. 2: Involvement of Students in the Teaching/learning Process

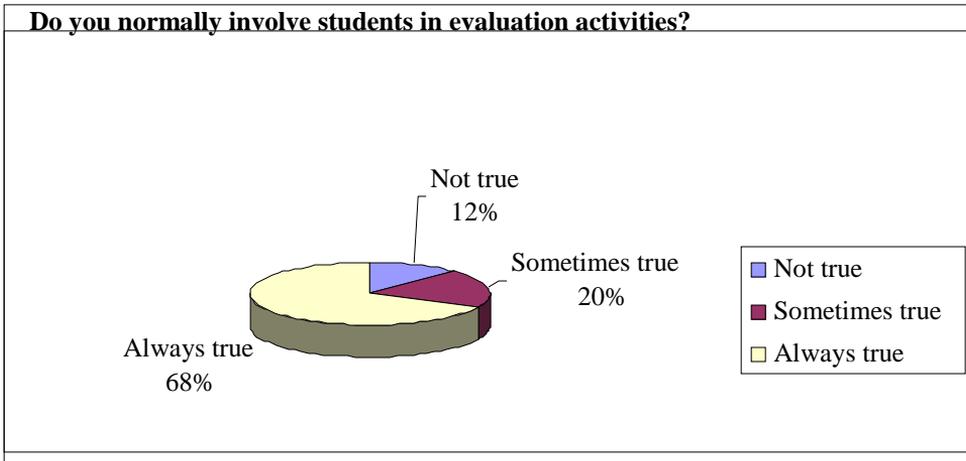


Figure 3: Evaluation processes

Test of hypothesis

The single null hypothesis of the study stated there will be no significant effect of teaching style (teacher-centred or student-centred) on the achievement of learning outcomes by University Lecturers. To test the single hypothesis, the scores of the 270 Lecturers on their teaching styles were compared. The minimum and maximum scores obtainable were 21 and 105, respectively, with high scores indicating student-centred procedures. One sample t-test was employed to test the hypothesis and the test value was set at 84.0. The results are as presented in table 4.

Table 4: One sample t-test on Teaching Methods

Variable	n	Mean	SD	Test value = 84		
				Df	t calculated	t critical
Teaching Method	270	73.94	6.96	269	23.73	1.96

From Table 4 above the mean score of 73.94 was obtained as against the test score of 84.0, which yielded a calculated t-value of 23.73. Since the calculated value of 23.73 is greater than the critical value of 1.96 at the 0.05 level of significance, the null hypothesis was rejected. It was, therefore, concluded that the dominant teaching styles at the undergraduate level in Universities tended to be teacher-centred.

Discussion of Findings

The common teaching method was found to be the Lecture. The implication is that Lecturers were not treating students like adults by not using more participatory methods. The major finding confirmed that, at the University level, the lecture method remains the most popularly utilised method of teaching, and that classes were more teacher-centred than student-centred. This is in agreement with several previous researches, including Conti (2004), Dupin-Bryant (2006) and Alade and Bakare (2016) that most Lecturers still use the traditional teacher-centred styles in University settings. This could be due, in part, to the assumption by the Lecturers who expect that, as the name implies, they are expected to Lecture. There is probably also the inherent problem of time constraints and having to cover a syllabus in the curriculum within a given period of time.

The practice of relying mostly on the lecture method, however, disagrees with the humanistic stipulations of Knowles (1984) about the need to incorporate andragogical principles, stipulating that adults must be treated accordingly in the teaching/learning environment. Nevertheless, as adult learners, the university system expects and makes allowances for the use of varied teaching methods, apart from the Lecture-like extensive Discussion, Debate, Case Study, Excursions, Practicals and the Seminar, among others; but these alternative methods were seriously underused and the use of information communication technologies (ICT) were found to be minimal in all the Universities. It was also concluded that facilities and classroom environments were inadequate and teachers were not specially trained to work with adults. The general atmosphere was, therefore, not conducive to engaging in adult educational activities.

The observation schedule further revealed that some of the teachers in the classroom situation did not have professional qualifications (i.e. education or teacher training background), some were also Graduate Assistants. Those without further Teacher Training qualification or Education background tended to use the Lecture method alone more, which echoed the research findings of Alade and Bakare (2016) that those who used varied methods were found to be largely those with Education training in their background. This suggests that the professional training in education exposes them to a more varied use of different methods.

The use of computer-based learning was markedly absent in the classroom situations, as very few of the Lecturers that were observed used active computer based teaching/learning methods. It was also expected that there would be use of additional teaching aids, especially the computer, in all its ramifications. This again brings about the issue of appropriate teacher training in education to the fore. At the university level, the curriculum, to a large extent, is expected to dictate the teaching method. In the Sciences Department, as well as in Engineering, for example, learning objectives would be better

achieved with the use of Practicals, Projects and other hands-on methods. In the Arts and Social Sciences Department, methods like Discussion, Case Study and Field trips and others would be found appropriate. However, the Lecture method cut across all Departments and curricula. Also, the use of the computer is applicable to all departments and is expected to be incorporated in the teaching/learning. Unfortunately ICT use is bedevilled by several problems, of which a large part is power outage and connectivity issues. This seriously affects any attempt to use any gadget that requires electricity, as was reiterated by Bakare (2009) in a study that looked at the use of ICT in the University environment, which is further exacerbated by *cyberphobia* on the part of some Lecturers.

Students' input into teaching/learning were equally found to be minimal. This is contrary to the dictates of the approach to helping adults to learn, which encourages the participation of the learner, right from the planning to the implementation stages (Bakare, 2013). This is also linked to RQ 4 in terms of engaging the learners. Responses to RQ 4 showed that students' learning styles were not adequately accommodated in teaching/learning. The overwhelming response to whether students' learning styles were considered was negative. A previous study by Bakare (2009) was further corroborated that students' individual learning styles at the University level were different and cut across the auditory, visual and tactile and that they were not adequately considered in the teaching/learning process.

This underscores the necessity for Lecturers to ensure that methods are matched appropriately to the students' learning styles in order to encourage the realisation of learning objectives. As adult learners, if methods are not more student-centred, it means that the students are not being treated as adults and this will ultimately affect the achievement of learning objectives. Moreover, this is in direct negation of the stipulation of the NPE 8a '*educational activities shall be centred on the learner for maximum self-development and self-fulfilment*'. In addition, the study revealed that lecturers who combined other methods with the lecture were those with Teacher Training or Education background in their educational qualifications, which again underscores the necessity for appropriate training for effectiveness. Majority of the lecturers still used formal tests to assess students' progress and do not, as a rule, allow students to participate in developing the criteria for evaluating; this suggests that largely, evaluation activities were rather teacher-centred and carried out more in line with child learning than adult learning situations.

All the elements addressed in the research questions were derived from the tenets of andragogical principles in the procedure for adult teaching/learning. In order to treat adults as adults, it is necessary to consider their individual learning styles and incorporate them into teaching/learning methods for best results. Also the way adults are assessed should be more informal and less stressful, in order to align with andragogical principles. Over

all, adult learning circumstances must be factored into any teaching/learning activity for best results. Kearsley (1996) summarised that andragogy means that instruction for adults needs to focus more on the process and less on the content being taught, and that strategies such as Case Studies, Role Play, Simulation and self-evaluations are most useful; and that instructors should adopt the role of facilitator or resource rather than lecturer or grader.

Conclusion

In Adult Education, method of learning could range from the formal classroom-based learning to self-directed learning and e-learning. While the Lecture method may be relevant at the university level, an overdependence on it is not appropriate for adult learning because the formal, classroom-based and Lecture-oriented method of teaching is usually associated with child learning. The study therefore concludes that teaching methods and approach used in the Nigerian University system were not andragogy-compliant in most cases. This has dire consequences for the curriculum and policy statements and will ultimately hinder effective teaching/learning outcomes, as well as best practices and positive change.

This paper has explored the link between curriculum and policy and how they are intertwined with methods. The study has looked at regular practice in selected Nigerian Universities and is recommending that all Nigerian University stakeholders need to consider imbibing, as a standard, the principles of andragogy and self-directed learning which are the pillars of adult learning theory. Tough (2003) in an interview had explained that in most curriculum models, the steps taken by professional educators include setting the learning goals or objectives, finding resources, choosing the right method and evaluating the progress. He is suggesting that, more in line with the principle of self-directedness and andragogy, students be allowed to progressively take these steps on their own. This may not be totally plausible in the formal education system, but, in so far as universities are dealing with adult learners, it is recommended that, at least, a modified version be utilised. This will include introducing more ICT-based learning and individualised content into the method of teaching to ensure that undergraduates are also being treated as adults, and to further improve their chances of learning; more than ever, to ensure that students take more personal responsibility for their learning.

Recommendations

All the questions were premised on the incorporation of andragogical principles into the teaching/learning process. More participatory methods should thus be utilised in teaching/learning at the undergraduate level in Universities; more provision made to better equip programs in order to encourage variety of adult education methods to be possible, for example, like the incorporation of ICT into method use.

Courses like Adult Teaching Principles, Psychology and Methods in

Adult Education would be appropriate to sensitise lecturers on adult teaching methods and how to handle adult learners. As adults, undergraduates need to be exposed to more learner-centred methods (Discussion, Role Play, Simulation etc). There should also be more avenues open to teachers for training and updating their knowledge, which would be mandatory, probably with an element of adult education included; and there is definitely a gap in method training for lecturers at the undergraduate level, which can be filled with appropriate teacher training and familiarisation with andragogical principles. More students' input should be encouraged, right from the curriculum planning to the evaluation levels. Understandably, students' cooperation in this regard may be severely limited, however they can, at least, be encouraged to participate more in the teaching/learning process. There is no doubt that the curriculum needs to be updated regularly so that quality assurance and currency are ensured through periodic accreditation. It is, however, also very vital that the issue of method use be thoroughly addressed in order to emphasise teaching method, and to continuously review and improve it to make the teaching method current and relevant to contemporary needs.

One way by which lecturers could further add value to the teaching/learning experience at the university level, but still make it student-centred, is to inculcate computerisation and e-learning into the teaching, which will enable the students to practice self-directedness by:

- working at their own pace
- working in their own time, space and place
- giving more attention to the work to be done
- working in groups and consulting other colleagues for shared experience

If all of the above are accommodated, it is hoped that the teaching/learning experience in the University will be more rewarding and lecturers will then use more student-centred methods, rather than the more traditional teacher-centredness that is the present practice in most Universities. There is currently no specific monitoring activity put in place to ensure that the teaching method complements the curriculum and learning goal. This also needs to be addressed properly. Again, teaching methods at the University level should make more use of integration into the local community through Visits and Excursions to incorporate social responsibility. The stipulation of minimum standard of PhD must thus be backed with training in teacher-education as a background to improving their teaching abilities.

The Curriculum and Policy Implications

Many of the pronouncements in the *National Policy on Education* address all the necessary issues, but from what is observed in the field, they are not being fully implemented. This means that the policy makers need to pay

more attention to the implementation of the educational policies. What good is a policy if it is beautifully stated but poorly implemented? In as much as the curriculum is the blue-print of what is to be done, and the foundation has been laid by the important bodies, the final onus rests on the Lecturer to ensure that a good curriculum/syllabus is drawn, and see that the appropriate teaching method that complements courses are employed. This is why it is even more necessary to encourage all lecturers to be adequately equipped by having a background in teaching, which will further strengthen their ability to discharge their duties satisfactorily, while ensuring sustainability. The Nigerian Universities Council, therefore, needs to further address the issue of lecturers having teacher training added to their regular qualification requirements. All these should help add value to teaching/learning at the University level and help leverage achievement of objectives.

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Ethical Dilemmas of Bank Marketers in Nigeria: A Qualitative Study

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Abstract

The author examines Ethical Dilemma of Bank Marketers in Nigeria. It seeks to investigate the factors that constitute ethical dilemmas for bank marketers and how they resolve these ethical dilemmas in the workplace. The population of the study are of part time postgraduate students in the Faculty of Management Sciences, University of Benin, Benin City who are bank marketers. He adopts the conclusive research design and thematic analysis for data analysis. The research findings show that non-disclosure of material facts, pressure selling tactics and other deceptive marketing manoeuvres are major issues that constitute ethical dilemmas to bank marketers. When confronted with such ethical dilemmas, the bank marketers mostly use negotiation and avoidance to resolve the problems.

Key words: ethical dilemma, bank marketers, unethical practices, marketing tactics

1. Introduction

Ethics and morals are seen as personal viewpoints. Not minding the viewpoint, sound ethical and moral values are very relevant in any organisation. “Ethics consist of certain rules and standards of conduct recognised in a professional body, association or organisation, which are binding on the members” (Ayozie, 2013: 34). Ethical consciousness is very important to human conduct because it influences behaviour and the way decisions are made at all times, especially when it concerns right and wrong and choosing between what is right or wrong. According to Carter (2008), ethics involves learning what is right and wrong and doing the right thing. However, the “right thing” is not as straightforward as it is conveyed in a great deal of the ethics literature because of the consequences that may be generated by taking certain actions under certain circumstances. It is this ambiguity regarding what is right in the face of conflicting scenarios that precipitates ethical dilemma. “Ethical dilemma refers to a complex situation that often involves an apparent mental conflict between moral imperatives, in which to obey one would result in transgressing another. The topics of ethics, integrity, compromise and corruption have become as important as other critical areas of law enforcement training if significant changes can occur” (Nehra 2010, p. 243). This is also called an ethical paradox since in moral philosophy paradox often plays a central role in ethics debates. Ethical dilemmas are often cited in an attempt to refute an ethical system or moral code as well as the worldview that encompasses or grows from

it. An ethical dilemma occurs when there are two decisions that must be made but neither of them will actually solve the situation ethically. These dilemmas occur in many different types of situations.

Today's workforce consist of people who are more diverse than ever in nationality, culture, religion, age, education and socioeconomic status; who join the workforce with different backgrounds, values, goals and behaviours. Many of these people have career expectations that may conflict with the goals of organisations in present day societies (Lankard, 1991). Furthermore, modern organisations tend to pressurise their workers than ever before to produce results with less and adjust quickly to changes. Such organisation-induced pressure may prompt people, especially bank marketers, to engage in questionable behaviour such as cutting corners, (Kirrane, 1990), non-disclosure of material facts, pressure selling tactics and other deceptive marketing manoeuvres as well as offer of gratification to win or manage an account; and disclosure of classified corporate information, among others. Most, if not all, of these scenarios present the workers with ethical dilemmas. It is for this reason that an understanding of ethical dilemmas and appropriate strategies for handling such situations become very crucial to those who are often confronted by such situations, especially bank marketers.

Objectives of the Study

The main objective of the study was to determine the major work practices that constitute ethical dilemmas to bank marketers in Nigeria and how these marketers resolve these ethical dilemmas by specifically examining the extent to which Nigerian banker marketers indulge in: non-disclosure, deceptive marketing manoeuvres, exploitation of customers' ignorance and pressure selling tactics in the course of discharging their duties.

2. Literature Review

Ethical Dilemma

Public sector ethics is about how we live our lives together in public sector institutions (Preston & Samford, 2002). Viewing ethics in this light indicates that people are faced with choices requiring them to make decisions enabling them to lead an ethical life within the context of their relationships with others. Thus, people are confronted with ethical dilemmas; that is, circumstances that require making a choice between competing sets of principles in a given, usually undesirable situation (CAPAM, 2010). An ethical dilemma arises from a situation that necessitates a choice between competing sets of principles. Conflicts of interest are possibly the most obvious example that could place public sector leaders in an ethical dilemma. Other types of ethical dilemmas in which public servants may find themselves include conflicts between: "the values of public administration; justifications for the institutions; aspects of the code of conduct; personal values and supervisor or governmental

directive; professional ethics and supervisor or governmental directive; personal values and professional ethics versus governmental directive; blurred or competing accountabilities; and the dimensions of ethical conduct” (Cranston, Ehrich & Kimber 2002, Edwards 2001, Preston & Samford, 2002).

An ethical dilemma occurs when there are two decisions that must be made but neither of them will actually solve the situation ethically. An ethical dilemma is a situation wherein moral precepts or ethical obligations conflict in such a way that any possible resolution to the dilemma is morally paradoxical (Nehra, 2010:243). In other words, an ethical dilemma presents the decision maker with a scenario in which guiding moral principles cannot determine which course of action is right or wrong. (Compliance & Ethics Institute, 2014). These dilemmas occur in many different types of situations. There are three conditions that must be present for a situation to be considered an ethical dilemma. The first condition occurs in “situations when an individual, called the ‘agent,’ must make a decision about which course of action is best if the goal of all agents is to make a decision that is ethically-best. Situations that are uncomfortable but that do not require a choice are not ethical dilemmas” (Allen, 2013, 37). “The second condition for ethical dilemma is that there must be different courses of action to choose from. Third, in an ethical dilemma, no matter what course of action is taken, some ethical principle is compromised but a perfect solution to an ethical dilemma is the one that maximises good, while minimising harm”.

Ethical Dilemmas in the Workplace

Ethical dilemmas in the workplace are quite common and they are not always easy to answer. The concepts are straightforward but the challenges are in the execution. “Even when organisations have great policies and procedures and follow the laws and regulations, there is still a high risk of unethical behaviour” (Ceplenski, 2013, 2). Furthermore, Ceplenski (2013) identified some common missteps that induce ethical dilemmas in organisations: (1) senior leaders fail to “walk the talk,” which implies they are guilty of modelling inappropriate behaviour; (2) leaders demonstrate an irrational sense of entitlement, feeling “I should be allowed to do this,” or “I deserve this;” individuals may begin cutting corners due to misplaced incentives. (3) when an organisation begins rewarding the wrong things, this can lead to cutting corners on safety, quality, among others; (4) individuals may also feel the need to be obedient to authority, even when they are being asked to do something they feel is wrong; (5) individuals also have the need for closure, which can lead to conflict avoidance. (6) Prevalence of “defensive logic.” This manifests as “everyone is doing it, so why not me?” or “why should I stick my neck out?” “These are things that organisations – particularly senior leaders and other leaders within the organisation – need to be sensitive to.” Often times, the ethical dilemmas confronting organisations are such that there is not a “wrong” answer. Ethical dilemmas in the workplace present the

employee with competing alternatives, each having its own set of ethical values, the choice of which always offers a less-than-ideal solution because two favourable outcomes are pitched against each other—often fairness versus compassion; ‘Right’ versus ‘right’ which makes ethical challenge tough to navigate (Ceplenski, 2013).

Withey (2007) identified seven marketing practices that create ethical dilemma for small and medium enterprises. They are: recommending inferior competitors, pre-bid specification development, ghost locations, unspoken territory limits, loyal networking, and aggressive marketing research, creating bid histories

Some Unethical Practices by Bank Marketers

False guarantee of product functionality. This refers to promises and commitments made to customers but which the product development team cannot fulfil. Most times marketers make purchase or contract renewal decisions based on product or service upgrade timelines. Failing to meet such product functionality assurance or service upgrade timelines may leave customers in a rut and will result in unsatisfied customers (Hickie, 2015).

Non-disclosure. This refers to true but misleading information because a material fact or facts have been omitted (Bangert, Robert & Joseph, 2002; and Ozbek, Alniacik & Koc, 2012). For instance, the banker may fail to disclose limiting conditions that are necessary for correct interpretation of the claim.

Deceptive marketing. This has to do with any information or promotion that misrepresents the nature, characteristics, qualities, or geographic origin of goods, services or commercial activities (Bangert, Robert & Joseph, 2002)

Exploitation of customers’ ignorance. This could take different forms from the unethical behaviour which may range from bait and switch tactics to the deliberate unethical advice to customers to take certain decisions not favourable to them (Bangert, Robert & Joseph, 2002; and Carson, 2002).

Resolving Ethical Dilemmas and Value Conflicts

Resolving ethical dilemmas “requires interpersonal and negotiation skills as well as the new application of employability skills – honesty, ability to work cooperatively, respect for others, pride in one's work, willingness to learn, dependability, responsibility for one's actions, integrity, and loyalty” (Lankard, 1991). For years, employers have sought workers with these skills and school curricula have stressed their importance for successful employment. Today, businesses are training their employees in critical thinking and conflict resolution skills required for ethical decision making. Schools are also focusing on developing students' critical thinking skills, but to date little has been

published about the application of those skills in resolving potential ethical dilemmas specific to given jobs/occupations; and “because of the complexity of ethical dilemmas, corporations are rushing to adopt codes of ethics. Business schools are scrambling to add ethics courses. And hundreds of consultants are being hired to put ‘integrity’ into corporate cultures” (Byrne 1988).

Theoretical Framework

The framework of this study is the utilitarian theory. When moral decisions are made by considering the likely consequences of an action, one is engaging in consequentialism. The most popular approach to consequentialism is utilitarianism, which refers to the belief that actions should be appraised according to their effect on happiness. Boylan (2000) describes utilitarianism as a theory that suggests that an action is morally right when that action produces more total utility for the group as a consequence than any other alternative does. The goal of utilitarianism is thus the greatest good for the greatest number of the interest group.

Empirical Review

Ahmad, Ansari and Aafaqi (2005) examined ethical reasoning: the impact of ethical dilemma, egoism and belief in the just world. Overall, the results showed that “utilitarian reasoning appeared to be a frequently used type of reasoning in relation to personal integrity dilemma involving self-interest, whereas principled reasoning appeared to be a frequently used reasoning in relation to personal integrity dilemma involving organisational-interest.” Ping (1997) sought to outline a simple and effective strategy for dealing with ethical dilemmas in the workplace. He outlined eight steps that can be used by anyone faced with ethical dilemma. He concluded that training in “ethical decision-making is one way that an organisation can foster an overall ethical climate because simple process of going through such training makes staff better able to recognise and discuss ethics and ethical dilemmas.”

Marc, Sybille and Henri-Claude (2001) proposed a “framework to examine business ethical dilemmas and business attitudes towards such dilemmas. They observed that business ethical dilemmas can be understood as reflecting a contradiction between a socially detrimental process and a self-interested profitable consequence.” Withey (2010) examined “ethical dilemmas in marketing practices among small and medium sized enterprises. He describes a set of marketing practices in use among smaller organisations that pursue customers in regional markets.” He concluded that the seven business practices of recommending inferior competitors, pre-bid specification development, ghost locations, unspoken territory limits, loyal networking, aggressive marketing research and creating bid histories and their ethical defence of egoism and relativism make a strong argument for clarifying the ethical philosophy sought by management in any organisation. The unethical practices in banks include manipulation of account management clause or offer of financial inducement to win or manage an account (Agusto, 2011) non-disclosure (Anu, Raymond &

Hopkins, 2008), deceptive marketing manoeuvres, misusing intermediate role (Agbonifoh, Ogwo, Nnolim & Nkanebe, 2007) and pressure selling tactics (AMA, 2013).

3. Methodology

This study adopted the qualitative approach to fulfil the research objectives. This approach is appropriate for the study as it concerns the context in which the event took place (Saunders, Thomhill & Lewis, 2009). The respondents had the opportunity to respond more elaborately and in greater detail, in turn the researcher had the opportunity to respond immediately to what the participants said by tailoring subsequent questions to the information provided by the participants. The teams and categories that emerged from the elicited data were examined using the exploratory approach. This was implemented by interviewing ‘experts’, respondents who understand what the research problem means; since the key purpose of the study was to gain and understand insights into phenomena with emphasis on words, rather than on quantification in the collection and analysis of data. The population of the study consisted of postgraduate students of the Faculty of Management Sciences in University of Benin, who are employees in the banking industry. Specifically, focus was on employees of First Bank, Zenith bank and UBA who are marketers or have worked as marketers before. Simple random sampling was used to select the three banks out of the twenty-one Nigerian banks listed on the floor of the Nigerian Stock Exchange and systematic sampling was used to pick forty one respondents from the three banks. The sample size of respondents from each bank was determined on the basis of proportional allocation.

The study adopted the interpretive research philosophy; to this end, it did not start with concepts determined a priori but rather sought to allow these to emerge from encounters in “the field”. This is consistent with Bevir and Kedar’s (2008) as well as Klotz and Lynch’s (2007) view on interpretive research as one conducted from an experience-near perspective in that the researcher does not start with concepts determined a priori but rather seeks to allow these to emerge from encounters in the field. The data were collected through the use of semi-structured interview, which was used to probe and explore the research question (Saunders, Thomhill & Lewis, 2009). A major benefit of using a semi-structured interview is its high flexibility, giving both the interviewer and interviewee the ability to talk in detail and in depth.

Thematic analysis was employed. Thematic analysis involves searching, identifying, analysing, and reporting themes that are important in the phenomenon being investigated (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The data analysis process, as is consistent with thematic analysis, involved six stages as described in Figure 1.

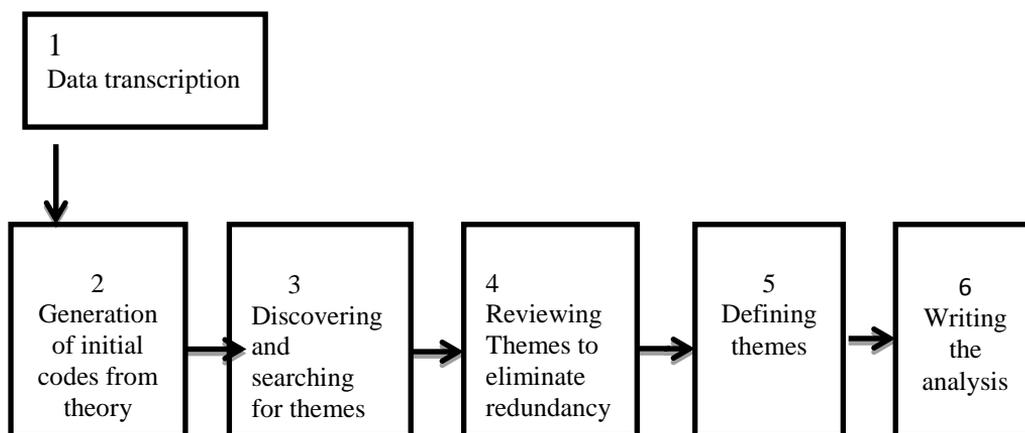


Fig. 1: Stages in Thematic Analysis (Eze and Inegbedion, 2015)

Operationalisation of the stages in thematic analysis

- Stage 1:** The recorded data elicited from the respondents were meticulously transcribed
- Stage 2:** Coding
- Stage 3:** Discovering themes and searching for themes: The following initial themes emerged: non-disclosure of material facts, deceptive marketing, pressure selling tactics,
- Stage 4:** Reviewing themes: Here, the themes in stage 3 were reviewed. After the review the following themes emerged: non-disclosure of material facts, deceptive marketing, pressure selling tactics, and bait and switch tactics.
- Stage 5:** Defining themes
- Stage 6:** Interpretation of data

Table 1: Coding of Responses (Manual)

Codes	Colour
Refusal to disclose important information	Red
Pretence	Ash
Enticing customers to subscribe to offerings	Orange
Pressurising customers to subscribe to offerings	Blue
False guarantee of product status	Black
Exploiting consumers' Ignorance	Green
Telling of lies	Brown

Table 1 presents the initial coding of responses while Table 2 shows the generation of themes from the initial codes obtained. The themes in Table 2 formed the basis of the analyses that was done.

Table 2: Coding of Responses/Description

Themes	DEFINITION	DESCRIPTION
Non-disclosure	Refusal to disclose certain information that may discourage customers from acquiring the product	by observation /use of colour coding
Deceptive Marketing Manoeuvres	Acts or claims by marketers that entice customers acting reasonably to make decisions that they would not make otherwise.	by observation or use of colour coding
Pressure Selling Tactics	Not allowing a customer time for critical reasoning before rushing him or her to sign documentation for bank service	by observation/use of colour coding
Bait and switch tactics	Making false claims/impression about product reliability, price/competitiveness Advising customers to take certain decisions against their personal interest but favourable to the banks	by observation/use of colour coding

Source: Authors' fieldwork

4. Findings

Analysis of Bio Data Responses

Table 3 presents the demographic distribution of participants. The gender distribution shows that 24 (59%), representing majority of the respondents were male, while 17 (41%) were female. The age distribution of participants showed that 39, representing majority of the respondents, were within the age bracket 21-40 years, thus indicating that the average age of participants was 30.5 years. The marital status distribution showed that 22 (54%) of the respondents were married, while 19 (46%) were single. Furthermore, the distribution of respondents on the basis of highest educational qualification revealed that 34 (83%) of the respondents had either HND or first degree while 7 (17%) of them had professional qualifications. Lastly, the distribution of the respondents on the basis of organisation type showed that 16 (39%) of them work with First Bank, 19 (46%) work with Zenith Bank while 6 (15%) were UBA employees.

Table 3: Demographic Distribution of Participants

Variable	Categories	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	24	59
	Female	17	41
Age	21-30 Years	23	56
	31-40 years	16	39
	41-50 Years	2	5
Marital Status	Married	22	54
	Single	19	46
	Divorced	0	0
Highest educational Qualification	HND/First	34	83
	Degree	7	17
	Professional		
Organisation	Qual.	16	39
		19	46
	First Bank	6	15
	Zenith Bank		
	UBA		

Source: Authors' fieldwork

Note: Pi = Participants

Causes of Ethical Dilemma

Table 4 presents the respondents' perception of key work practices that constitute ethical dilemmas for bank marketers in Nigeria based on the emergent themes. The major factors are: Non-disclosure of material information, deceptive marketing manoeuvres, exploitation of consumers' ignorance, and pressure selling tactics.

Dealing with Ethical Dilemmas

Results in Table 5 show that based on the themes generated, the most commonly used strategy is negotiation, followed by avoidance and then, confrontation. Majority of the respondents use negotiation but not many of them use confrontation. The proportion of them that use avoidance is a little above average. It is not surprising that the proportion of respondents that use confrontation is low, given that the participants represent the view from below in the Nigerian banking sector.

Table 4: Summary of key work practices that constitute ethical dilemmas for bank workers in Nigeria

Factors that Create Ethical Dilemma in the Workplace	Supporting Cases	Total	Proportion of total
1. Non-Disclosure of Material Information	$P_i \begin{pmatrix} i = 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 \\ 11, 13, 15, 17, 18, 19, 20 \\ 21, 22, 23, 25, 27, 28, 29 \\ 30, 31, 33, 35, 38, 39, 41 \end{pmatrix}$	30	$\frac{30}{41}$ (73%)
2. Deceptive Marketing	$P_i \begin{pmatrix} i = 1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12 \\ 13, 14, 16, 18, 19, 20 \\ 22, 23, 25, 27, 28, 29, 30, \\ 32, 33, 36, 37, 38, 39, 41 \end{pmatrix}$	29	$\frac{29}{41}$ (71%)
3. Pressure Selling Tactics	$P_i \begin{pmatrix} i = 2, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12 \\ 12, 13, 16, 18, 19, 20 \\ 23, 25, 27, 28, 29, 30, \\ 32, 33, 37, 39, 41 \end{pmatrix}$	25	$\frac{25}{41}$ (61%)
4. Bait and switch Tactics	$P_i \begin{pmatrix} i = 2, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12 \\ 13, 14, 16, 18, \\ 22, 23, 25, 27, \\ 30, 33, 36, 37, 38 \end{pmatrix}$	21	$\frac{21}{41}$ (51%)

Note: P_i means the i th participant in the study ($I = 1, 2, 3 \dots 41$)

Table 5: Strategies commonly used in resolving ethical dilemmas by bank workers in Nigeria

Strategies	Supporting cases	Total Cases	Proportion of total
Negotiation	$P_i \begin{pmatrix} i = 1, 2, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12 \\ 13, 14, 16, 17, 19, 20, 21 \\ 23, 25, 26, 27, 29, 30, 32 \\ 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 41 \end{pmatrix}$	31	$\frac{31}{41}$ (76%)
Avoidance	$P_i \begin{pmatrix} i = 2, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, 12 \\ 12, 13, 16, 18, 19, 20 \\ 23, 25, 27, 28, 29, \\ 32, 33, 37, 39, 41 \end{pmatrix}$	23	$\frac{23}{41}$ (56%)
Confrontation	$P_i \begin{pmatrix} i = 3, 5, 10, 15, 18, 22, 24, 27, 28 \\ 29, 31, 33, 35, 37, 38, 40 \end{pmatrix}$	16	$\frac{16}{41}$ (39%)

Source: Researchers' fieldwork

5. Discussion of Findings

Table 3 presents the information elicited from the respondents on the basis of the themes generated, that is, the work situations that create ethical dilemmas for bank workers in Nigeria at each stage. The hybrid approach to thematic analysis was used since the codes were created based on previous ideas or concepts, as well as from what the data suggested. The themes were clustered conceptually based on the participants' view of the factors that create ethical dilemmas for bank marketers in Nigeria. The results showed that the factors discussed below are the major sources of ethical dilemma.

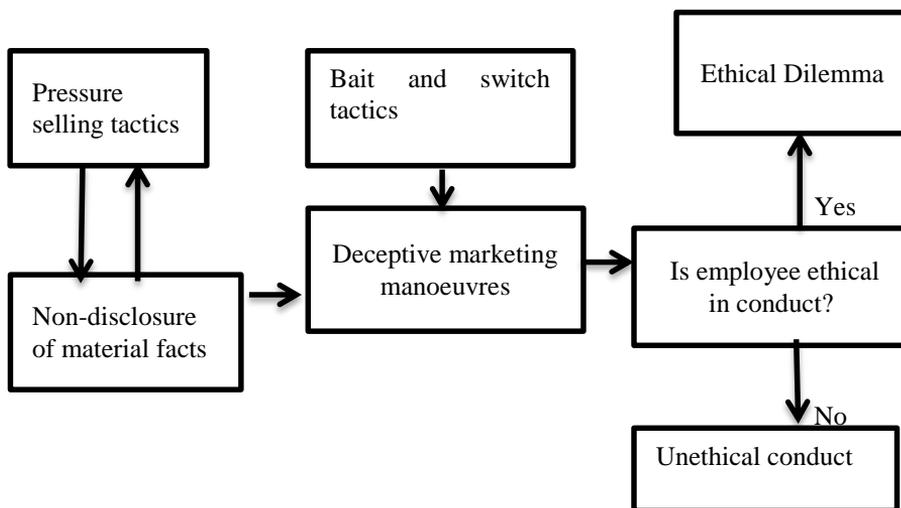
Non-disclosure of material facts. Respondents' perception of non-disclosure of material facts as a source of ethical dilemma to bank marketers was overwhelming. Seventy three per cent (73%) of them agreed on this source and their perception was not significantly influenced by any of the demographic variables, although it was observed that the male participants agreed more with this view. Findings from the semi-structured interview revealed that non-disclosure of material facts was an important source of ethical dilemma because of its recurrent nature. It seems to be the biggest source of ethical dilemma for most banker marketers because of the degree of competition in the banking industry. The results are consistent with Agbonifoh, Ogwo, Nnolim & Nkanebe (2007) as well as Anu, Raymond & Hopkins (2008).

Deceptive Marketing Tactics. The study revealed that the second most important work situation that places bank marketers in ethical dilemma is deceptive marketing tactics, which involves false claims about product pricing, making bank loans looking more attractive than they actually are, telling customers that the bank is sound when they know, through privileged information, that the bank may be threatened, luring customers to sign for an offering that is non-available and persuading him/her to take another available offering after committing him with an initial false offer. Findings from the semi-structured interview revealed that deceptive marketing tactics constitute an important source of ethical dilemma to bank marketers as seventy one per cent (71%) of them endorsed this work situation. The results are consistent with Agbonifoh, Ogwo, Nnolim & Nkanebe (2007) and Withey's (2007) ghost location.

Pressure Selling Tactics. The study further revealed that the third most important work situation that places bank marketers in ethical dilemma is pressure selling tactics, which involves exaggeration of the banks' offerings, as well as enticing customers by word of mouth, among others. Findings from the semi-structured interview revealed that pressure selling tactics constitute an important source of ethical dilemma to bank marketers as sixty one per cent (61%) of them endorsed this work situation. The perception of participants on

this was evenly distributed among gender, educational status and organisation type. The results are consistent with Agbonifoh, Ogwo, Nnolim & Nkanebe (2007).

Bait and Switch Tactics. Lastly, the results of the study revealed that pressure selling tactics, which involve pressurising customers to make an offer, not allowing customers enough time to think through before signing for an offer, making customers believe that any delay may cause them to lose the offering, among others, is an important work situation that has implication on bank workers' ethical dilemma. Findings from the semi-structured interview revealed that fifty one per cent (51%) of the participants endorsed bait and switch tactics as an important source of ethical dilemma to bank marketers. The results are consistent with Agbonifoh, Ogwo, Nnolim & Nkanebe (2007) and Augusto (2011).



**Fig. 2: Proposed Model of Ethical Dilemmas Faced by Bankers
(Researchers' Contribution)**

Explanation of the Model

Figure 2 presents the proposed model of the study that emerged from the thematic analysis of respondents' perception of ethical dilemma. The model shows that bank marketers often get confronted with situations where they are required to withhold material information from their customers (non-disclosure of material facts) or use pressure selling tactics or bait and switch tactics, which involves luring customers and changing the initial promises when the customer

is lured, the three practices constitute deceptive marketing manoeuvres. An ethically conscious employee will, in each circumstance, be faced with ethical dilemma, whether to protect the interest of the firm with respect to the ethical issues at the expense of ethical conviction or satisfy his ethical conviction and jeopardise the interest of his organisation and thus his employment. But if the bank marketer has no respect for ethics he does the unethical in the circumstance.

Conclusion

This study has made essential contribution to knowledge by investigating the factors that create ethical dilemmas to bank marketers and has proposed a model to depict these factors and their interrelationships. Bank workers, especially bank marketers, in Nigeria face ethical dilemmas in the course of discharging their duties owing to the desire to outsmart competitors' manoeuvres vis-à-vis the ethical standards that they must adhere to. Some of the ethical dilemmas that confront bank marketers in the course of discharging their duties include non-disclosure of material facts, pressure selling tactics and other deceptive marketing manoeuvres as well as bait and switch tactics. When confronted with such ethical dilemmas, the bank workers use negotiation and avoidance to resolve or manage the ethical dilemmas. Negotiation involves discussing with your boss to reach agreement on middle of the road (win-win) option that will be in the interest of the firm and the employees' ethical considerations. Otherwise, avoidance has to do with agreeing with the boss to indulge in the unethical practice but refusing to do so while out there with the customers.

The study was not without some constraints. First, although the proposed model advances knowledge of the factors that create ethical dilemma to bank marketers in Nigeria, there is need to further test it in other countries in order to establish whether these factors are culturally independent or not. Secondly, future research is required to validate the results of the study and/or progress toward a full understanding of the factors that create ethical dilemma to bank marketers outside Nigeria in order to present a more general perspective; such studies may adopt quantitative approach to show whether the outcome may respond to methodological variation. There may also be need for future studies aimed at using this model as a basis for investigating the factors that create ethical dilemma for bank marketers in other countries.

Policy Implication and Recommendations

Deceptive marketing and other forms of unethical bank marketing may yield short term gains to the concerned firms but there is the likelihood of long run losses in revenue associated with potential losses in market shares and goodwill. This underscores the need for policy makers to ensure that their marketers do not conduct their duties in a manner that is inimical to the achievement of the goals of the firms. In view of the research findings, a few

suggestions are recommended.

Policy makers in the banking industry should sufficiently inform potential marketers of the role they are expected to play when they assume duty as bank marketers. If the roles and responsibilities are well spelt out ab-initio, it can forestall the rate at which marketers get confronted with scenarios that constitute ethical dilemma to them. Secondly, bank marketers should be adequately trained on how to market the products convincingly without making customers expect more than what the product offer. Most importantly, strategic managers in the banking industry should encourage their employees to operate in an ethical manner in order to enhance public perception of their organisations.

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Henry Inegbedion, Joseph Adama, Dominic Agba and Felix Obainoke: Ethical Dilemmas of Bank Marketers in Nigeria

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Dear Sir/Ma,

Request to assist in providing answers to Research questions

I am a lecturer in the above department and institution currently conducting a research on “Ethical Dilemma at Work: The Viewpoint Bank Marketers”

Your assistance is required in answering a few questions as frankly as possible. The study is purely an academic one; therefore, your response to the questions shall be used for the purpose of this research only and information supplied would be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Thanks for your anticipated cooperation.

Yours faithfully,

.....

Inegbedion, H.E. (Ph. D)

Part One: Bio data

Instruction

Please mark [X] as appropriate

1. Gender: Male [] Female []
2. Age: 21-30 Years [] 31-40 Years [] Above 40 Years []
3. Marital Status: Married [] Single [] Divorced []
4. Highest Educational Qualification: HND [] First Degree []
5. Professional Qualification []
6. Organisation: First Bank [] Zenith Bank [] UBA []

Part Two: Core Subject Matter

1. Have you ever been faced with situations in your office where it is difficult to make decisions between two alternatives?
2. Do you face situations in the course of marketing your banks' products that you find it difficult to make decisions between two alternatives?
3. Are there management policies that conflict with your ethical convictions in the office?
4. How often are you faced with instructions to engage in unethical practices?
5. Do your ethical convictions conflict with organisational policies?
6. What are those practices that make create ethical dilemma for you?
7. What kind of difficulties have you had with decision making and why do you think you have encountered these difficulties?
8. Are your decisions always respected by management at all times?
9. Have you ever been in-between conflicting instructions from two superiors?
10. If yes to question 6 how did you resolve the problem?
11. How do you normally resolve such issues?